Title

Systematic discovery of directional regulatory motifs associated with

human insulator sites

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Abstract

Insulator proteins act as a barrier of enhancer–promoter interactions (EPIs). The main insulator protein in vertebrates is CTCF, a DNA-binding protein (DBP). However, other DBPs associated with insulators of EPIs are still unclear. Hence, we developed a systematic, comprehensive deep learning-based approach for identifying the DNA motifs of DBPs associated with insulators. We discovered 97 directional and minor nondirectional motifs in human fibroblast cells that corresponded to 23 DBPs related to insulator function, CTCF, and/or other types of chromosomal transcriptional regulation reported in previous studies. The estimated CTCF orientation bias was consistently proportional to CTCF orientation bias observed in chromatin interactions. The motifs were significantly more abundant at insulator sites separated by repressive and active regions, at boundary sites identified by chromatin interaction data, and at splice sites than other DBPs. For instance, we found that the key regulator MyoD-binding site is located at an insulator site near a gene involved in skeletal muscle differentiation and function. Finally, the insulator-pairing model explains that homologous and heterologous insulator-insulator pairing interactions are orientation-dependent. These findings contribute to elucidate novel transcriptional regulations.

Introduction

Enhancer-promoter interactions (EPIs), partitioned by chromatin interactions,

regulate the transcription of genes[1]. Chromatin interactions form loop structures

bundled by transcription factors (TFs) and DNA-binding proteins (DBPs) such as CTCF

and members of the cohesin complex (RAD21 and SMC3). In general, CTCF is

considered to function as an insulator by holding together chromatin loops and limiting

the activity of enhancers within the loops[2]. A pair of CTCFs indicate a characteristic

feature in their DNA-binding sites, which show directional bias in favor of a

forward–reverse (FR) orientation (rather than a FF, RR, or RF orientation)[3]. The

forward and reverse orientations of DNA-binding sites are complementary in sequence

and are relatively distinct in orientation according to reference genome sequences.

Moreover, although the FR and RF orientations of DNA-binding sites are

complementary, their frequencies are significantly different at chromatin loops[3],

suggesting that the directional bias of DNA-binding sites are associated with chromatin

loops.

While CTCF and cohesin are the major insulator proteins in vertebrates [4],

regional micro-capture (Micro-C) analyses revealed that microcompartment interactions

are largely independent of cohesin and transcription [5]. This finding suggests that other

DBPs may function as insulators or be associated with insulators. However, the

experimental identification of insulator-associated DBPs among many other types of

DBPs through *in situ* experiments is a laborious undertaking.

To identify insulator-associated DBPs, one possible approach is to analyze the

enrichment of DNA-binding sites of chromatin- and insulator-associated DBPs at

chromatin interaction sites. For example, DBPs such as ZNF143 and YY1 are

associated with chromatin interactions and EPIs [1,6]. However, the binding site of

ZNF143 is enriched at chromatin interaction sites, whereas the binding site of YY1 is

not enriched in these sites [6]. CTCF, ZNF143, and YY1 participate in various biological

functions in addition to chromatin interactions. This multifunctionality of DBPs likely

reduces the enrichment of motifs at chromatin interaction sites, making them more

difficult to identify.

Another possible approach for predicting insulator-associated DBPs is to focus on

the directional bias of CTCF DNA-binding sites. The direction of its DNA-binding sites

may not be important, when a DBP binds a single position in the genome[7]. However,

when a DBP or a complex of DBPs binds more than one genomic position through

chromatin interactions, the binding of the DBP or complex may be structurally arranged,

contributing to the directional bias of DNA-binding sites [8-10]. Some DBPs involved in

chromatin interactions, such as YY1, are multifunctional proteins, and some

DNA-binding sites of multifunctional DBPs are involved in chromatin interactions and

insulator. Thus, the directional difference in the DNA-binding sites of a multifunctional

DBP may be reduced. The multifunctionality of DBPs may make it difficult to identify

their insulator-associated functions.

To predict chromatin interactions and associated DBPs, computational methods

have been developed [11] [12]. However, these methods were not designed to identify the

binding motifs of DBPs associated with insulators. As for the binding motifs of DBPs,

Xie et al. suggested that the next challenge is to develop systematic methods for

identifying their specific functions in a genome-wide manner [13]. As for the regulatory

function of gene expression, insulators affect EPIs and gene expression, and thus the use

of gene expression data would improve the identification of DBPs associated with

insulators, compared to solely relying on the enrichment analysis or directional bias of

DNA-binding sites. To analyze gene expression levels in human tissues, a novel

computational method was developed that uses deep learning to estimate expression

levels based on the DNA-binding sites in promoter regions [14]. However, the method

does not use the DNA-binding sites associated with EPIs as input data, and was not

designed to identify DBPs associated with insulators.

Hence, we aim to search for insulator-associated DBPs using a computational

approach integrating and analyzing genome-wide experimental data. To identify

insulator-associated DBPs in the present study, we revise the previously developed deep

learning method with the information of EPIs based on eQTL data and the

enhancer–promoter association rule (McLean et al. Supplementary Fig. 2) [15]. We

examine the directional bias of DNA-binding sites of CTCF and insulator-associated

DBPs, including those of known DBPs such as RAD21 and SMC3, using contribution

scores based on the deep learning method, and show that the directional bias of CTCF

DNA-binding sites is consistently proportional to the CTCF orientation bias observed in

chromatin interactions. Furthermore, statistical testing the contribution scores between

the directional and non-directional DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs

revealed that the directional sites contributed more significantly to the prediction of

gene expression levels than the non-directional sites. We identify 23 insulator-associated

DBPs that are associated with insulator function, CTCF, and/or other types of

transcriptional regulation affecting EPIs in previous studies. To validate these findings,

we demonstrate that the DNA-binding sites of the identified insulator-associated DBPs

are located within potential insulator sites, and some of the DNA-binding sites in the

insulator site are found without the nearby DNA-binding sites of CTCF and cohesin.

Homologous and heterologous insulator-insulator pairing interactions are

orientation-dependent, as suggested by the insulator-pairing model based on

experimental analysis in flies. Our method and analyses contribute to the identification

of insulator- and chromatin-associated DNA-binding sites that influence EPIs and

reveal novel functional roles and molecular mechanisms of DBPs associated with

transcriptional condensation, phase separation and transcriptional regulation.

Results

Machine learning of EPIs to predict gene expression levels

Insulator proteins act as a barrier of EPIs (Fig. 1a, b, c). To predict the EPIs

between DNA-binding sites distal to transcription start sites (TSSs) and the

transcription initiation complex at TSSs, we identified the interactions between the

DNA-binding sites in putative enhancers and genes based on expression quantitative

trait locus (eQTL) data showing the association between a SNP (single nucleotide

polymorphism) and a gene expression level (Fig. 2a, b). The eQTL data were derived

from the GTEx v8 dataset, after quality control, consisting of 838 donors and 17,382

samples from 52 tissues and two cell lines [16]. If a DNA-binding site was located within

a 100-bp region around a single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) of an eQTL, we

assumed that the DBP regulated the expression of the transcript corresponding to the

eQTL. To predict gene expression levels based on DNA-binding sites of DBPs around

the TSS of a gene, we modified a machine learning tool reported in a previous study to

train with DNA-binding sites distal as well as proximal to the TSS [14]. DNA-binding

sites of DBPs were obtained from ChIP-seq data from the Gene Transcription

Regulation Database (GTRD, v20.06 release). To avoid the cellular heterogeneity found

in tissues, we used gene expression data from human cell lines, including human

foreskin fibroblasts (HFFs), monocytes, human mammary epithelial cells (HMECs),

and neural progenitor cells. The machine learning tool was trained to predict gene

expression levels in the cell lines based on DNA-binding sites of DBPs around TSSs of

genes. Through the training, the tool learned to select the binding sites of DNA-binding

proteins from ChIP-seq assays that were suitable for predicting gene expression levels

in the cell types. The binding sites of a DNA-binding protein tend to be observed in

common across multiple cell and tissue types. Therefore, ChIP-seq data and eQTL data

in different cell and tissue types were used as input data for learning, and then the tool

selected the data suitable for predicting gene expression levels in the cell types, even if

the data were not obtained from the same cell types. The predicted expression levels

were highly consistent with the actual expression levels (Spearman's rho = 0.74, 0.71,

0.74, and 0.73 for all 27,428 genes, and 0.70, 0.67, 0.69, and 0.70 for the 2,705 genes as

test data in the four cell types) without using the data on the RNA-binding proteins and

miRNAs obtained via the original machine learning method (Fig. 3a; Fig. S2a) [14].

Then, to investigate the DNA-binding sites of putative insulator-associated DBPs,

we obtained ChIP-seq data from the GTRD (v20.06 release), and searched the ChIP-seq

peaks of candidate DBPs for associated binding motifs. First, the DNA-binding sites of

a given DBP in open chromatin regions were predicted using the Protein Interaction

Quantitation (PIQ) tool with DNase-seq data and DBP-binding motif sequences, which

were obtained from databases and publications, specifically, TRANSFAC (2019.2),

JASPAR (2018), UniPROBE (2018), DNA motifs from high-throughput SELEX, DNA

motifs from ENCODE DBP ChIP-seq data, and HOCOMOCO versions 9 and 11 [17] [18-23].

Then, to reduce the number of false-positive predictions of DNA-binding sites, we

selected the DNA-binding sites that overlapped with the ChIP-seq peaks of the same

DBP. Among the 1,310 DBPs with available ChIP-seq data, the DBP-binding motif

sequences were available for 715 DBPs.

Comparison of the effect of insulator-associated DBPs on gene expression levels

To investigate the effect of directional differences in the DNA-binding sites of

putative insulator-associated DBPs on EPIs and gene expression levels, we computed

DeepLIFT scores of the input data (i.e., each binding site of the ChIP-seq data of

DNA-binding proteins) in the deep learning analysis on gene expression levels [24].

DeepLIFT compares the importance of each input for predicting gene expression levels

to its 'reference or background level' and assigns contribution scores according to the

difference. DeepLIFT calculates a metric to measure the difference between an input

and the reference of the input. The DeepLIFT calculates a score representing the

contribution of the input data to the prediction. By comparing the DeepLIFT scores of

the DNA-binding sites of the ChIP-seq data, we compared the effects of putative

insulator sites with insulator-associated DNA-binding sites on the prediction of gene

expression levels according to the directional and positional differences among the

DNA-binding sites (Fig. 2d).

At the sites of distal CTCF-mediated chromatin interactions identified *in situ* via

ChIA-PET, 76.4% of the CTCF DNA-binding sites showed an FR orientation, also

known as a convergent orientation (Fig. 3b) [3]. To investigate the effect of orientation of

CTCF DNA-binding sites on the DeepLIFT scores of the DNA-binding sites in putative

enhancer and open chromatin regions, we searched for CTCF DNA-binding sites with

an FR or RF orientation in the upstream and downstream regions of TSSs and predicted

EPIs based on the enhancer–promoter association rule (Fig. 2c). We then compared the

distribution of the DeepLIFT scores and mean DeepLIFT scores between the CTCF

DNA-binding sites with FR and RF orientations and observed a significant difference in

the distribution of DeepLIFT scores (Mann–Whitney U test, FDR-adjusted p value <

0.05 and p value < 10^{-3}; Fig. 3c, d and Table S1). Our method was able to compare the

effect of directional difference of CTCF DNA-binding site on the prediction of gene

expression level. We also performed the analysis with other selection criteria of

DNA-binding sites (Supplementary Fig. 1 and Note).

We performed the same analysis using the DNA-binding sites of RAD21, SMC3,

and other DBPs as putative insulator sites and found that the DBPs including RAD21

and SMC3 also showed a significant difference in the distribution of DeepLIFT scores

between DNA-binding sites with FR and RF orientations (Fig. 3c and Table S1). Other

orientations of the DNA-binding sites of putative insulator-associated DBPs, such as

forward-forward (FF), reverse-reverse (RR), and any direction (i.e., no directional bias),

were also evaluated and compared to examine the differences in the distribution of

DeepLIFT scores (Table S1). First, we selected 228 DBPs with at least 1,000

DNA-binding sites per DBP in HFF cells. Among these, 92 DBPs, including CTCF,

RAD21, SMC3, ZNF143, and YY1, showed significant differences in the distribution of

DeepLIFT scores between DNA-binding sites with different orientations (e.g., FR and

RF), and 79 DBPs, including YY1, presented a significant difference in the distribution

of DeepLIFT scores between DNA-binding sites with the same orientation (e.g., FF and

RR) (Fig. 3c; Fig. S2b; Table S1, DBP list 1A). We observed that the z score distribution

of the Mann-Whitney U test of DeepLIFT scores between the directional (e.g., FR, RF,

FF, and RR) and non-directional (X) DNA-binding sites shifted to higher z scores on the

X-axis of the graphs in Fig. 3c than between the two types of directional DNA-binding

sites, indicating that directional DNA-binding sites contribute more to the prediction of

gene expression levels than non-directional DNA-binding sites. Unexpectedly, we found

that many DBPs, including known insulator- and chromatin-associated DBPs, showed

significant differences of DeepLIFT scores, and that the known DBPs had the most

significant differences in the distribution of DeepLIFT scores, suggesting that our

method worked properly. To reduce the number of DBPs with a directional bias of

DNA-binding sites and thus reduce the number of false-positive DBP predictions, we

set the p value threshold to $< 10^{-3}$. We confirmed that all the DBPs with p values $< 10^{-3}$

constituted the subset of DBPs with false discovery rate (FDR)-adjusted p values < 0.05

(included in Table S1).

Discovery of directional and nondirectional DNA-binding sites of

insulator-associated DBPs

To investigate the directional bias of DNA-binding sites based on more stringent

criteria, we compared DNA-binding sites with four different orientations (FR, RF, FF,

and RR), or no directional bias based on pairwise comparisons of the directional biases

of the DNA-binding sites. For the DNA-binding sites with different orientations (e.g.,

FR and RF) associated with 23 DBPs, including CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3, the

distribution of DeepLIFT scores differed significantly among those with the four

different orientations and no directional bias. The distribution of DeepLIFT scores

differed significantly among the DNA-binding sites with the same orientation (e.g., FF

and RR) for 17 DBPs. The distribution of DeepLIFT scores also differed significantly

among the nondirectional DNA-binding sites of six DBPs (p value $< 10^{-3}$, Table 1 and

Table S2, DBP list 1A; FDR-adjusted p value < 0.05, Table S3, DBP list 1A). We

confirmed that known insulator-associated DBPs such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3

showed FR orientation of DNA-binding sites, and discovered other DNA-binding sites

with directional and nondirectional bias.

We compared the predicted directional biases of CTCF DNA-binding sites with

the directional biases identified based on experimental data on CTCF-mediated

chromatin interactions. In the analysis of ChIA-PET chromatin interaction data, the

orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites that overlapped with distal CTCF-mediated

chromatin interaction sites were as follows: 76.4% FR, 11.0% FF, 10.3% RR, and 2.3%

RF (Fig. 3b; Guo Y et al. *Cell* 2015 [3], Fig. 4). Interestingly, the p values obtained from

the statistical tests of the DeepLIFT scores (Mann–Whitney *U* test) of CTCF, RAD21,

and SMC3 DNA-binding sites with FR vs. RF orientations were lower than those

obtained for the FR vs. RR and FR vs. FF comparisons. These results were consistent

with the percent differences in the orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at

chromatin interaction sites: the percent difference between the FR (76.4%) and RF

(2.3%) orientations was larger than the percent differences for FR (76.4%) vs. FF

(11.0%) and RR (10.3%) (Fig. 3c, d). Furthermore, we examined the directional bias of

a cohesin, RAD21, which is involved in chromatin loops with CTCF, using ChIA-PET

chromatin interaction data for RAD21. The number of chromatin interactions and the

percent difference of RAD21 DNA-binding sites at a pair of chromatin interaction sites

more than 5-kb apart: FR 7,934 (76.3%), RF 351 (3.4%), FF 965 (9.3%), and RR 1,151

(11.1%), which is similar to the difference of the CTCF DNA-binding sites. The

analysis of the contribution scores of the RAD21 DNA-binding sites showed the same

difference as the RAD21 ChIA-PET analysis and CTCF (i.e. a large percent difference

between FR and RF and almost the same between FF and RR) (Fig. 3c and Table 1).

These data indicated that the deep learning analysis accurately predicted the percent

differences in the FR, FF, RR, and RF orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at

chromatin interaction sites on the basis of the DeepLIFT scores of the DNA-binding

sites in putative enhancer and open chromatin regions.

A total of 99 insulator-associated DBPs were predicted based on the stringent

criterion of the DNA-binding sites of a given DBP showing either a specific directional

bias or no directional bias, as determined by comparing the four possible orientations

(FR, RF, FF, and RR) and the absence of directional bias (X). Among 99

insulator-associated DBPs, EP300 and SIN3A do not directory interact with DNA, and

thus 97 insulator-associated DBPs directory bind to DNA. Most of the

insulator-associated DBPs showed a directional bias. Non-directional motifs were

identified for only 6 DBPs such as FOS, FOSL2, JUN, JUNB, and JUND with

palindromic regulatory motifs and SPI1 interacting with the DBPs. We found that 23

DBPs exhibited insulator and CTCF-associated functions and/or chromatin regulatory

functions that affected EPIs, as reported in previous studies: 13 DBPs were associated

with CTCF (Table S7). The 23 DBPs were multifunctional proteins, and their known

functions were transcriptional regulator, repressor, chromatin regulator, and interaction

with other proteins including enzymes that facilitate epigenetic modifications. These

findings suggested that CTCF regulated EPIs by interacting with other DBPs, and that

DBPs with other functions were also associated with the regulation of EPIs and

chromatin conformation.

To further investigate whether insulator-associated DBPs are involved in a pair of

chromatin interaction sites, we searched for the DNA-binding sites of

insulator-associated DBPs located at a pair of 400-bp and 200-bp long chromatin

interaction sites that were more than 5-kb apart and did not overlap with 2-kb upstream

and downstream of TSSs, considering the FR, RF, FF, or RR orientation of the pair of

DNA-binding sites (Fig. 3e), since 400-bp long chromatin interaction sites would

include the cluster of DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs at insulator sites

(explained in the next section and Fig. 4f). For the 400-bp long chromatin interaction

sites, the DNA-binding sites of 44 (45%) and 97 (100%) insulator-associated DBPs,

excluding EP300 and SIN3A, were identified at a pair of chromatin interaction sites or

at either site of 30,369 chromatin interactions, respectively. For the 200-bp long

chromatin interaction sites, the DNA-binding sites of 30 (31%) and 97 (100%)

insulator-associated DBPs were identified at a pair of chromatin interaction sites or at

either site of 10,384 chromatin interactions, respectively, although long-range chromatin

interactions would not be fully identified due to the limited coverage of chromatin

interaction data from the comparison of results based on the distance between a pair of

chromatin interaction sites [25]. CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 showed directional

DNA-binding sites as well as CTCF and RAD21 ChIA-PET chromatin interaction data.

Search for insulator-associated DNA-binding sites based on histone modifications

and gene expression

To confirm the predicted insulator-associated DBPs via another method and select

their DNA-binding sites associated with insulators, we first analyzed previously

reported histone modification data to identify differences between the upstream and

downstream regions of the DNA-binding sites. CTCF bound to sites located between

repressed regions with H3K27me3 marks and active regions with H2AK5ac marks,

which showed different signal intensities between the upstream and downstream regions

of CTCF DNA-binding sites [26]. The transcription factor USF1 exhibits a barrier

function, in which histone modification factors are recruited to separate adjacent regions

into activating and repressive chromatin domains [27]. We selected H3K27me3 histone

modifications, associated with the repression of gene expression, for comparison

between the upstream and downstream regions of the DNA-binding sites of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs using H3K27me3 ChIP-seq data because H3K27me3 histone

marks occupy long genomic regions and are thus easily compared, between genomic

regions. We searched for DNA-binding sites where the mean H3K27me3 signal

intensities differed by more than 2-fold between the upstream and downstream regions

of the DNA-binding site. The higher mean signal was found to be greater than the first

quartile of all H3K27me3 signal intensities because some H3K27me3 signals had a low

intensity and appeared noisy. Thus, the criteria were sufficient to clearly distinguish

modification status among genomic regions.

We further counted the numbers of DNA-binding sites with different H3K27me3

signal intensities between the upstream and downstream regions of a DNA-binding site

and found that known insulator-associated DBPs, such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3,

generally showed the greatest numbers of DNA-binding sites (Table S4). Via statistical

analysis, we calculated the median and mean numbers of DNA-binding sites showing

different H3K27me3 signal intensities between upstream and downstream regions for

the DNA-binding sites of both predicted insulator-associated DBPs and other DBPs.

The median and mean numbers of DNA-binding sites were significantly larger among

predicted insulator-associated DBPs than other DBPs (Mann–Whitney U test, p value <

0.05) (Table 2, Table S4, Fig. 4a, b). We confirmed that a larger number of the

DNA-binding sites of known insulator-associated DBPs were located between activated

and repressed regions than non-insulator-associated DBPs.

To identify additional genomic regions obviously separating transcriptionally

activated and repressed regions, we also examined the expression levels of transcripts

using the signal intensity indicated by RNA-seq data for identifying transcriptionally

active regions based on the available HFF cell data. As in the analysis of H3K27me3

signal intensity, we searched for DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated

DBPs with mean transcript signal intensities differing more than 1.5-fold between

upstream and downstream regions, and the higher mean signal was greater than the first

quartile of all transcript signal intensities. We again found that a significantly larger

number of the DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs were located

between activated and repressed regions than other DBPs (Table 2, Table S4, Fig. 4a, c).

In the analysis of chromatin interaction data, insulation scores were calculated

based on the analysis of the boundary regions of chromatin interactions [28]. We also

examined the overlap of DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs with

the boundary regions, and again found that a significantly larger number of the

DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs were located in the boundary

regions than other DBPs (Table 2, Fig. 4d).

To determine whether the DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated

DBPs potentially act as insulators or cofactors of insulators, we investigated the

genomic locations of the DNA-binding sites on the UCSC Genome Browser (Fig. 4a,

S3). We searched for DNA-binding sites located at boundary sites identified by Micro-C

chromatin interaction data from 4D Nucleome Data Portal. We also searched for

DNA-binding sites located between the H3K27me3 marks and transcribed regions of

genes, which were primarily located at the edges of H3K27me3 marks and were not

found near the binding sites of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3. For each DBP, we looked for

insulator sites associated with the DNA-binding sites in the genome browser and

selected primarily three DNA-binding sites for each DBP (Fig. S3a for boundary sites of

chromatin interactions and Fig. S3f for histone marks and transcribed regions as

insulator sites). We discovered DNA-binding sites in the expected genomic regions of

all DBPs, suggesting that these DNA-binding sites are associated with insulator

functions. Interestingly, MyoD1, which is an insulator-associated DBP, bound to an

insulator and boundary site and located near SELENON (SEPN1) gene [29]. MyoD1

and SELENON are involved in the differentiation of human skeletal muscle, suggesting

that the insulator-associated DBP affects the expression of SELENON and the

differentiation (Fig. 4a). The same analysis was performed using H3K9me3 marks,

instead of H3K27me3 (Fig. S3b). We found that the distribution of H3K9me3 signal

was different from that of H3K27me3 in some regions, and discovered the

insulator-associated DNA-binding sites close to the edges of H3K9me3 regions (Fig.

S3b). The insulator-associated DNA-binding sites potentially regulate boundary sites

associated with other histone modification marks, including H3K9me3 marks. We also

found that the multiple DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DNA-binding

proteins were located close to each other at insulator sites and were associated with

distinct chromatin interactions (Fig. 4f, S3c, S3d). Topologically associated domains

(TADs) of chromosome are structured by architectural/insulator proteins clustered

around their boundaries, maintaining the megabase-scale chromatin structure, while

intra-TAD looping is mediated by discrete motifs for insulator factor binding [30].

When comparing insulator sites identified by histone modification marks and

transcribed regions with boundary sites based on chromatin interaction data in the

genome browser, we observed that the insulator sites did not always overlap with 5-kb

long boundary sites at the same location, some insulator sites were more than 5-kb away

from a boundary site. Overall, among 20,837 DNA-binding sites of the 97

insulator-associated proteins found at insulator sites identified by H3K27me3 histone

modification marks (type 1 insulator sites), 1,315 (6%) overlapped with 264 of 17,126

5-kb long boundary sites, and 6,137 (29%) overlapped with 784 of 17,126 25-kb long

boundary sites in HFF cells. Among 5,205 DNA-binding sites of the 97

insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins found at insulator sites identified by

H3K27me3 histone modification marks and transcribed regions (type 2 insulator sites),

383 (7%) overlapped with 74 of 17,126 5-kb long boundary sites, 1,901 (37%)

overlapped with 306 of 17,126 25-kb long boundary sites. Although CTCF-binding sites

separate active and repressive domains [26], the limited number of DNA-binding sites of

insulator-associated proteins found at type 1 and 2 insulator sites overlapped boundary

sites identified by chromatin interaction data. Furthermore, by analyzing the regulatory

regions of genes, the DNA-binding sites of the 97 insulator-associated DNA-binding

proteins were found (1) at the type 1 insulator sites (based on H3K27me3 marks) in the

regulatory regions of 3,170 genes, (2) at the type 2 insulator sites (based on H3K27me3

marks and gene expression levels) in the regulatory regions of 1,044 genes, and (3) at

insulator sites as boundary sites identified by chromatin interaction data in the

regulatory regions of 6,275 genes. The boundary sites showed the highest number of

overlaps with the DNA-binding sites. Comparing the insulator sites identified by (1)

and (3), 1,212 (38%) genes have both types of insulator sites. Comparing the insulator

sites between (2) and (3), 389 (37%) genes have both types of insulator sites. From the

comparison of insulator and boundary sites, we found that (1) or (2) types of insulator

sites overlapped or were close to boundary sites identified by chromatin interaction

data.

While preparing Fig. 4a and S3, we noticed that several DNA-binding sites of

insulator-associated DBPs were found in the same genomic locus, close to each other on

the genome. These DBPs potentially act together to form an insulator site. In addition,

some transcribed regions in the genome were differentially repressed in alternative

transcripts and overlapped with a H3K27me3 mark that was separated with the

DNA-binding site of an insulator-associated DBP between the repressive and active

regions (Fig. 5, S3e). Furthermore, the DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs

were frequently located near transcription start and termination sites. Alternative

transcription start and termination sites have been reported to explain the majority of

tissue-specific exon usage rather than alternative splicing[31]. We performed the statistical

test to estimate the enrichment of insulator-associated DNA-binding sites compared to

the other DNA-binding proteins, and found that the insulator-associated DNA-binding

sites were significantly more abundant at splice sites than the DNA-binding sites of the

other proteins (Fig 4e and Table 2; Mann–Whitney U test, p value < 0.05). The

comparison between the splice sites of both ends of first and last introns and those of

other introns showed the similar statistical significance of enrichment and number of

splice sites with the insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins (Table 2 and Table S9).

The DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs could affect the form of transcripts

and the genomic location of transcription start and termination sites. The differences in

the DNA-binding sites and H3K27me3 marks between tissues could contribute to the

cell and tissue type specific exon usage of alternative transcripts.

Distribution of DNA-binding sites around chromatin interaction sites

In this study, we aimed to predict chromatin- and insulator-associated DBPs. To

estimate how many DBPs are involved in chromatin interactions and examine the

distribution and association of DNA-binding sites around chromatin interaction sites,

the DNA-binding sites of DBPs in regions within ±500 bp of the centers of chromatin

interaction sites were identified in HFF cells. As an improved method for chromatin

interaction analysis, Micro-C assays enabled us to identify chromatin interactions at a

higher resolution than can be achieved via Hi-C analysis. Base pair resolution was

reported using Micro Capture-C [32]. The distribution of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3

DNA-binding sites showed a characteristic pattern around chromatin interaction sites,

with the highest peaks located around interaction sites (Fig. 6a, b, c). The peaks of the

DNA-binding sites of YY1 and ZNF143, which are known to be involved in chromatin

interactions, were distributed around chromatin interaction sites. The DNA-binding sites

of YY1 were also broadly distributed in regions within ±500 bp of interaction sites,

suggesting that this DBP is involved in various functions in addition to chromatin

interactions (Fig. 6d, e). MAZ, which exhibits insulator function independent of CTCF

[33], indicated the peak of distribution of MAZ DNA-binding sites around interaction sites

(Fig. 6f). For the insulator-associated DBPs other than CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3, the

DNA-binding sites that do not overlap with those of CTCF, RND21, and SMC3 were

used to examine their distribution around interaction sites.

Among the 228 DBPs, more than 1,000 of the DNA-binding sites in open

chromatin regions in HFF cells overlapped with the ChIP-seq peaks of the DBPs, and

the peaks of almost all the DBPs (approximately 90%) were located around interaction

sites. Furthermore, we found DBPs with sharp peaks around interaction sites, DBPs

with broad peaks around interaction sites, and DBPs with peaks similar to those of

CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 around interaction sites, suggesting that these DBPs may be

associated with CTCF, RAD21, and/or SMC3 (Table S8; Fig. S4). Among the predicted

insulator-associated DBPs, MeCP2 and PRDM9 exhibited fewer than 1,000

DNA-binding sites in HFF cells, and when a DBP has fewer than 1,000 DNA-binding

sites, the specific distribution of DNA-binding sites around chromatin interaction sites

may not be evident (Fig. S4). Approximately 90% of the DBPs with more than 1,000

DNA-binding sites had peaks around interaction sites. This indicated that the DBPs

interacted with other genomic regions and that the DNA-binding sites of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs were involved in chromatin interactions.

Co-localization of DNA-binding sites around chromatin interaction sites

Since the DNA-binding sites of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs may be

located close to those of known insulator-associated DBPs, such as CTCF, RAD21,

and/or SMC3, and, thus, be presumed to act as insulators, we next counted the number

of DNA-binding sites in each 10-bp bin within ±500 bp from the center of a chromatin

interaction site and compared these numbers between all possible pairs of DBPs. For

this analysis, the DNA-binding sites that overlapped with the ChIP-seq peaks of a DBP

were selected to reduce the number of false-positive DNA-binding site predictions, and

the number of DNA-binding sites per DBP may therefore have been underestimated.

Among the 228 DBPs (Selection Criteria S1 in Fig. S1), 245 pairs of 135 DBPs

colocalized around chromatin interaction sites when at least 30% of the DNA-binding

sites of a pair of DBPs colocalized in a bin with the same distance from the interaction

site (Table S5). CTCF showed a high rate of colocalization of DNA-binding sites with

both RAD21 (39%) and SMC3 (81%) in bins within ±500 bp from the center of a

chromatin interaction site, whereas YY1 and ZNF143 showed low rates of

colocalization of DNA-binding site with RAD21 (1.5% and 5.5%, respectively) and

CTCF (2.3% and 4.8%, respectively) (Table 3). For CTCFL (CCCTC-binding factor

like), RXRA, PPARG, NEUROD1, and ZBTB7A, more than 10% of DNA-binding sites

colocalized with CTCF, RAD21, and/or SMC3 in bins within the same distance from

chromatin interaction sites, suggesting that the insulator function of the DBPs was

associated with known insulator DBPs. For the other DBPs among the 228 DBPs, less

than 10% of DNA-binding sites colocalized with CTCF, RAD21, and/or SMC within a

bin. Most of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs did not have the colocalization of

DNA-binding sites and were not in close proximity to known insulator-associated DBPs

such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3; that is, they were not within a 10-bp bin in the

regions ±500 bp from the center of an interaction site.

We found that the multiple DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated

DNA-binding proteins were located close to each other at insulator sites (Fig. S3d). If

we identify the co-localization of the DNA-binding sites located at boundary sites of

chromatin interactions compared to non-boundary sites, the co-localization of

DNA-binding sites is potentially involved in boundary and insulator functions. Among

the 201 DBPs (Selection Criteria S2 in Fig. S1), we identified 197 pairs of 101 DBPs

that colocalized within a 10-bp bin in the regions ±500 bp from the center of a

chromatin interaction site in a 5-kb long boundary site compared to non-boundary sites,

when at least 30% of the DNA-binding sites of a pair of DBPs colocalized in a bin with

the same distance from the interaction site (Table S6). This suggested that the

insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins interact with each other at chromatin

interaction sites at insulator sites like CTCF and cohesin.

To further examine the possibility that known insulator-associated DBPs interact

indirectly with the other predicted insulator-associated DBPs, we investigated the

overlap of DNA-binding sites with the DBP ChIP-seq peaks of CTCF, RAD21, and

SMC3 and found that a high percentage (> 98%) of the DNA-binding sites of the three

DBPs overlapped with their ChIP-seq peaks in all three examined combinations.

However, the DNA-binding sites of almost all other predicted insulator-associated

DBPs overlapped with less than 50% of the ChIP-seq peaks of the three known DBPs,

even though the ChIP-seq data were collected from various cell and tissue types. These

results suggested that the predicted insulator-associated DBPs play different functional

roles than the known DBPs.

Although a DNA-binding-site distribution pattern around chromatin interaction

sites similar to those of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 was observed for DBPs such as

BACH2, FOS, ATF3, NFE2, and MAFK, less than 1% of the DNA-binding sites of the

latter set of DBPs colocalized with CTCF, RAD21, or SMC3 in a single bin (Fig. S4c).

However, BACH2, FOS, ATF3, NFE2, and MAFK had DNA-binding sites that

colocalized with each other (Table 3). These results suggested that the two different

groups of colocalized DBPs were independently involved in the same chromatin-related

function such as chromatin remodeling [34] [35] [36].

Discussion

Here, we present the first, to our knowledge, computational method and

genome-wide analysis aimed at detecting insulator-associated DBPs. Transcriptional

regulation mediated by the binding of DBPs at sites located far from TSSs was

modelled using our deep learning method based on eQTL data. Through this approach,

the effects of the DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs on EPIs and gene

expression were estimated, and insulator-associated DBPs were predicted. We further

identified DBPs, including known insulator-associated DBPs that exhibit

insulator-associated functions and regulate transcription, thereby affecting EPIs reported

in previous studies. The DNA-binding sites of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs

showed orientation bias of their DNA-binding sites; unexpectedly, the significant

differences in the orientation bias of CTCF DNA-binding sites based on DeepLIFT

scores (contribution scores) were found to be consistent with the percent differences in

the orientation of CTCF DNA-binding sites at CTCF-mediated chromatin interaction

sites. Furthermore, statistical testing of the contribution scores revealed that the

directional sites of DBPs contributed more significantly to the prediction of gene

expression levels than the non-directional sites. The DNA-binding sites of the predicted

insulator-associated DBPs were located at potential insulator sites more frequently than

those of other DBPs, according to the differences in H3K27me3 signal intensities and

transcript levels, and according to insulator sites as boundary sites identified by

chromatin interactions. We further observed that only a small percentage of the

DNA-binding sites of the insulator-associated DBPs colocalized with the DNA-binding

sites of known insulator-associated DBPs such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 around

chromatin interaction sites. We discovered that DBPs other than the known insulator

DBPs and the directionality of their DNA-binding sites are associated with insulators.

Our deep learning analysis accurately predicted the percent differences in the FR,

FF, RR, and RF orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at chromatin interaction sites,

considering the genomic locations of DNA-binding sites of putative insulator-associated

DBPs. The other predicted insulator-associated DBPs also showed orientation bias of

their DNA-binding sites. These results suggest that the directional bias of DNA-binding

sites of insulator-associated DBPs would be involved in insulator function and

chromatin regulation through structural interactions among DBPs, other proteins, DNAs,

and RNAs. For example, the N-terminal amino acids of CTCF have been shown to

interact with RAD21 in chromatin loops [8-10]. Cohesin complexes that interact with

convergent CTCF sites, that is, the N-terminus of CTCF, might be protected from

WAPL, but those that interact with divergent CTCF sites, that is, the C-terminus of

CTCF, might not be protected from WAPL, which could release cohesin from chromatin

and thus disrupt cohesin-mediated chromatin loops [37]. For another example, although

sequence-based predictions of EPIs underestimated actual interactions, an

activity-by-contact (ABC) approach, based on a simple distance model, performed well,

suggesting that factors in addition to sequence influence EPIs [38,39]. Furthermore,

CTCF-mediated chromatin looping induces the formation of transcriptional condensates

and phase separation between the inner and outer regions of the loops, resulting in

insulator function [40-42]. Therefore, structures that result in phase separation, rather than

functional differences in DBPs, may be responsible for insulator functions. CEBPA in

the identified insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins was also reported to be

involved in transcriptional condensates and phase separation [43]. FOXA1 pioneer factor

functions as an initial chromatin-binding and chromatin-remodeling factor and has been

reported to form biomolecular condensates [44].

Other types of chromatin regulation are also expected to be related to the

structural interactions of molecules. As the boundary-pairing (insulator-pairing) model,

molecules bound to insulators physically pair with their partners, either head-to-head or

head-to-tail, with different degrees of specificity at the termini of TADs in flies (Fig. 7).

Although the experiments do not reveal how partners find each other, the mechanism

unlikely requires loop extrusion, as presumed in CTCF and cohesin-mediated chromatin

looping. Homologous and heterologous insulator-insulator pairing interactions are

central to the architectural functions of insulators. The manner of insulator-insulator

interactions is orientation-dependent [45-47].

Regional micro-capture (Micro-C) analyses revealed that microcompartment

interactions are largely independent of cohesin and transcription [5]. The depletion of

cohesin causes a subtle reduction in longer-range enhancer-promoter interactions and

that CTCF depletion can cause rewiring of regulatory contacts [48]. Another group

reported that enhancer-promoter interactions and transcription are largely maintained

upon depletion of CTCF, cohesin, WAPL or YY1. Instead, cohesin depletion decreased

transcription factor binding to chromatin. Thus, cohesin may allow transcription factors

to find and bind their targets more efficiently [49]. Furthermore, the loop extrusion is not

essential for enhancer-promoter interactions, but contributes to their robustness and

specificity and to precise regulation of gene expression [48]. The 'loop extrusion'

hypothesis is motivated by in vitro observations. The experiment in yeast, in which

cohesin variants that are unable to extrude DNA loops but retain the ability to

topologically entrap DNA, suggested that in vivo chromatin loops are formed

independently of loop extrusion. Instead, transcription promotes loop formation and acts

as an extrinsic motor that extends these loops and defines their final positions [50]. Maz

and MyoD1 among the identified insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins form loops

without CTCF [4,33,51]. Furthermore, protein post-transcriptional modifications (PTMs)

facilitate control over the molecular valency and strength of protein-protein interactions

[52]. O-GlcNAcylation as a PTM inhibits CTCF binding to chromatin [53]. We found that

the identified insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins tend to form a cluster at

potential insulator sites (Fig. 4f and Supplementary Fig. 3c). These proteins may

interact and actively regulate chromatin interactions, transcriptional condensation, and

phase separation through PTMs. Our analyses will contribute to reveal novel functional

and structural roles of DBPs for insulator functions, chromatin regulation, and phase

separation and to advance their experimental analysis.

High-resolution chromatin interaction data from a Micro-C assay indicated that

most of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs showed the peak of the

DNA-binding-site distribution around chromatin interaction sites, suggesting that these

DBPs are involved in chromatin interactions and that the chromatin interaction data has

a high degree of resolution. Base pair resolution was reported using Micro Capture-C [32].

However, due to the high resolution of a Micro-C assay, it is difficult to obtain all

chromatin interaction data at a reasonable and available cost, while Micro Capture-C

and Region Capture Micro-C assays focus on a specific genomic region to increase the

coverage of chromatin interactions. The coverage of chromatin interactions will change

according to the experimental data of a Micro-C assay. In addition, chromatin

interactions include other types of interactions that are not associated with EPIs and

insulator functions [54-56]. Therefore, we analyzed and predicted insulator-associated

DBPs without using chromatin interaction data. Our deep learning analysis successfully

learned EPIs that affect gene expression levels and accurately predicted the percent

differences in the FR, FF, RR, and RF orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at

chromatin interaction sites.

When comparing insulator sites separated by active and repressive domains with

boundary sites identified by chromatin interaction data, we identified insulator sites

based on the total signal levels of H3K27me3 histone modification marks and the

expression level of transcripts in a region. Some insulator sites may not have smooth

continuous distributions of histone marks and expression levels, which may cause the

difference between the insulator and boundary sites. Another reason for the difference

may be that boundary sites are more closely associated with topologically associated

domains (TADs) of chromosome than are insulator sites [30]. Boundary sites are regions

identified based on the separation of numerous chromatin interactions. On the other

hand, we found that the multiple DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated

DNA-binding proteins were located close to each other at insulator sites and were

associated with distinct nested and focal chromatin interactions, as reported by Micro-C

assay [5]. These interactions may be transient and relatively weak, such as tissue/cell type,

conditional or lineage-specific interactions [57].

AI (Artificial Intelligence) is considered as a black box, since the reason and

cause of prediction are difficult to know. To solve this issue, tools and methods have

been developed to know the reason and cause. These technologies are called

Explainable AI. DeepLIFT is considered to be a tool for Explainable AI. However,

DeepLIFT does not answer the reason and cause for a prediction. It calculates scores

representing the contribution of the input data to the prediction. The analysis of many

contribution scores (i.e., DeepLIFT scores in this study) for directional DNA-binding

sites of putative insulator-associated DBPs in the prediction of transcript expression

levels successfully predicted the percent differences in the FR, FF, RR, and RF

orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at chromatin interaction sites based on the

contribution scores of DNA-binding sites in putative enhancer and open chromatin

regions. Some contribution scores may not be accurate and thus the prediction of

insulator-associated DBPs or DNA-binding sites based on a small number of

contribution scores may be erroneous. To compare contribution scores computed based

on different pairs of input and output data with our deep learning model, we normalized

contribution scores for each pair of input and output data as previously reported [58]. The

analysis of many contribution scores will be used to estimate the effects of other

molecules and functions involved in gene regulation.

One of the next computational challenges will be to predict and narrow the

potential set of insulator-associated DNA-binding sites of multifunctional DBPs. To

confirm the machine learning prediction and to identify insulator-associated

DNA-binding sites in the genome for further experimental study, information on histone

modifications such as H3K27me3 and transcript levels will be beneficial, and other

epigenomic data can be used for this purpose. As a reference for an application of this

study, Liu et al. focused on CTCF-binding sites and performed various assays in human

and mouse cell cultures and in mice with the goal of applying these sites in gene therapy

[59]. The analysis of insulator-associated DBPs may contribute to the development of

technologies to regulate gene expression. In conclusion, our novel computational

method discovered insulator-associated DBPs, including known DBPs, and revealed

that the directional bias of insulator-associated DBPs is potentially involved in

chromatin looping, phase separation, transcriptional condensates and insulator functions

through the structural interactions of the DBPs. This will lead to a general and global

understanding of transcriptional regulation and gene expression.

Methods

Prediction of gene expression levels based on DNA-binding sites

Gene expression data as output data for machine learning analysis

To predict DNA-binding sites that also act as insulator sites in the human genome,

we modified a previously developed deep learning method designed to predict the

transcript expression levels of genes in tissues and cell types based on the DNA-binding

sites of DBPs in promoter regions and other DNA regions (Fig. 2a; Fig. S4) [14]. To

reduce the influence of cellular heterogeneity observed when analyzing tissues, we used

the gene expression data from four distinct cell types where various experimental data

are available in public databases: HFFs (GSM941744), monocytes (Blueprint RNA-seq

FPKM [fragments per kilobase of exon per million reads mapped] data

'C0010KB1.transcript_quantification.rsem_grape2_crg.GRCh38.20150622.results'   in

the Blueprint DCC portal at http://dcc.blueprint-epigenome.eu/#/files), human

mammary epithelial cells (HMECs) (Encyclopedia of DNA Elements at UCSC

http://genome.ucsc.edu/encode/,

'wgEncodeCshlLongRnaSeqHmecCellPapAlnRep1.bam'), and neural progenitor cells

(NPCs) (GSM915326, ENCFF529SIO). For gene expression data, FPKM values

representing the expression levels of genes were retrieved or calculated based on

GENCODE V19 gene annotations in the ENCODE portal database [60]

(https://www.encodeproject.org/) using the RSeQC tool [61] (http://rseqc.sourceforge.net/).

We calculated log2-fold-transformed FPKM values (adding 0.25 to prevent results of

negative infinity), median log2-FPKM values across the four cell types, and log2-fold

changes relative to the median for all cell types according to the original deep learning

method (transcriptome data processing as described by Tasaki et al.) [14].

DNA-binding sites as input data for machine learning analysis

To investigate the effect of insulator sites on EPIs and gene expression, the

DNA-binding sites in putative enhancer and open chromatin regions located away from

promoter regions were added as input data in the deep learning method. To identify the

DNA-binding sites of DBPs in promoter and enhancer regions, ChIP-seq data of the

DBPs were used and were updated to GTRD database release v20.06

(https://gtrd.biouml.org) [62]. The binding site of a DBP regulating the expression level of

each transcript was selected using eQTL data (GTEx_Analysis_v8_eQTL.tar) from

GTEx portal release v8 (https://gtexportal.org). If a DNA-binding site was located

within a 100-bp region around a single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) of an eQTL,

we assumed that the DBP regulated the expression of the transcript corresponding to the

eQTL. If the SNP of an eQTL was not located on the same chromosome as the

transcribed region of the eQTL (i.e., *trans*-eQTL), the eQTL data were not used. The

genomic positions of the eQTLs were converted to the corresponding positions in the

hg19 version of the human genome using the LiftOver tool

(http://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/downloads.html#liftover).

The original model of the input data of DNA-binding sites in promoter regions

used for the deep learning analysis consisted of the lengths of a DBP ChIP-seq peak in

each 100-base bin in a region between 2 kbp upstream and 1 kbp downstream of the

transcription start site (TSS) of each gene or transcript [14]. To add the input data of

DNA-binding sites of DBPs in more upstream and downstream regions of a TSS and to

reduce the number of bins, we modified the model and first computed the length of a

DBP ChIP-seq peak in a 100-base bin and then selected the maximum length in each

interval of 100 bins in a region between 1 Mbp upstream and downstream of a TSS.

This step outputted the 200 longest DBP ChIP-seq peaks in the examined regions.

Training step for machine learning analysis

In the training of the modified deep learning model, we used the same test,

training, and validation data as in the original method: all 2,705 genes encoded on

chromosome 1 as test data, training data (22,251 genes), and validation data (2,472

genes) randomly selected from the other genes [14]. The input data for promoters and

putative enhancer regions were concatenated into a total of 230 bins of the lengths of

1,310 DBP ChIP-seq peaks, consisting of 30 bins for promoters and 200 bins for

putative enhancers because the DeepLIFT tool 'RevealCancel rule on dense layers and

the Rescale rule on conv layers (genomics default)', with high scoring accuracy, [24]

cannot be applied to a neural network with multiple input layers (Fig. S5). Ubuntu

(version 20.04), Python (version 3.8.10), TensorFlow (version 2.6.0), NVIDIA CUDA

toolkit (version 11.4.2), GeForce RTX 3080 GPU with 10 GB memory, and Intel Core

i7-10700 CPU with 128 GB memory were used for training and prediction, and the

original scripts were modified to run on newer versions of the software. The training

method was the same as the original, and the training time was two to four hours. In this

study, we focused on the analysis of HFF cells and assessed the training process using

all the input data as the test data, which slightly improved the prediction of gene

expression. Therefore, we used the trained model for the analysis of insulator-associated

DBPs.

Prediction of insulator-associated DBPs affecting EPIs

DNA-binding sites of putative insulator-associated DBPs

To identify the direction of DBP-binding motifs in the DNA-binding sites of

predicted insulator-associated DBPs, we searched for DBP-binding motifs in open

chromatin regions in HFF cells (GSE170964) using the PIQ tool [17] and the position

frequency matrices of the DBP-binding motifs. The motif sequences were collected

from databases and previous studies, specifically, TRANSFAC (2019.2), JASPAR

(2018), UniPROBE (2018), DNA motifs from high-throughput SELEX, DNA motifs

from ENCODE DBP ChIP-seq data, and HOCOMOCO versions 9 and 11 [18-23]. To

reduce the number of false-positive prediction of DNA-binding sites, only

DNA-binding sites that overlapped the ChIP-seq peaks of the same DBP (GTRD

database release v20.06 [https://gtrd.biouml.org]) were used for further analyses. The

genomic positions of ChIP-seq and DNase-seq data in public databases were converted

to those provided in the hg19 version of the human genome using the LiftOver tool.

To confirm that CTCF DNA-binding sites were located at chromatin interaction

sites, we examined the overlap between CTCF ChIP-seq peaks and the sites of *in situ*

ChIA-PET chromatin interactions mediated by CTCF in human foreskin fibroblast

(HFF) cells (4D Nucleome data portal,

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI73AFN12/). The directional

difference between RAD21 DNA-binding sites located at chromatin interaction sites

was also examined using ChIA-PET chromatin interactions mediated by RAD21 in

human fibroblast from skin (ENCLB147AJZ). RAD21 DNA-binding sites within 100

bp of chromatin interaction sites were associated with chromatin interactions. To

eliminate DNA-binding sites that overlapped EPI, we obtained ChIP-seq peaks of

histone modifications, such as H3K4me3, H3K27ac, and H3K4me1, associated with

promoter and enhancer regions in HFF cells (4D Nucleome data portal,

4DNFIJOK1BWR, 4DNFI442BQLO, and 4DNFIAGV3X99).

Preparation of input data considering the DNA-binding sites of an insulator-associated DBP

To prepare the input data of the DNA-binding sites of DBPs in enhancers and promoters for the deep learning analysis, first, a transcript regulated by a DBP bound to enhancers and promoters was predicted based on the single nearest gene association rule (Fig. 2c; McLean et al. [15] Fig. S2c), as we found that the association rule predicted EPIs more accurately than the other rules in our previous study [15]. The maximum length of the regulatory domain for each transcript was set to 1 Mbp upstream and downstream of the TSS. Then, considering the genomic locations and effects of the insulator sites of a DBP on EPIs, the length of a DBP ChIP-seq peak in a 100-base bin was calculated from a TSS to the DNA-binding site of a predicted insulator-associated DBP. To reduce the computational time of the analysis, we first calculated the length of a DBP ChIP-seq peak in the regulatory domains of all transcripts in a 100-base bin. Then, for each interval of 100 bins between a TSS and a DNA-binding site of a predicted insulator-associated DBP in the regulatory domain, we computed the maximum length of each DBP ChIP-seq peak in 100 bins on the basis of the precomputed length of the DBP ChIP-seq peak in each bin. In the case of a set of 100 bins containing the DNA-binding site of a predicted insulator-associated DBP, we computed the maximum lengths from the bin closest to a TSS to the first bin containing the DNA-binding site of

the insulator-associated DBP, taking into account the orientation of the DNA-binding

site.

Prediction of insulator-associated DBPs using DeepLIFT tool

The DeepLIFT tool (version 0.6.13.0) was used to calculate the contribution

(DeepLIFT score) of each DNA-binding site to the prediction of the expression level of

a transcript [24]. The contribution scores of DNA-binding sites of DBPs in putative

enhancers and promoters upstream and downstream of each transcript were normalized

by the sum of the absolute values of all contribution scores for the transcript, as the

range of contribution scores changes according to the range of the predicted output (i.e.,

the expression level of a transcript), as described in a previous study [58]. To estimate the

effect of the DNA-binding sites of a predicted insulator-associated DBP on the

prediction of transcript levels, positive normalized contribution scores for transcripts

with DNA-binding sites in upstream or downstream regions were subjected to

comparisons between all combinations of two different orientations (i.e., all

combinations of two orientations among FR, RF, forward-forward [FF], and

reverse-reverse [RR] orientations, and no orientation [X]: FR vs. RF, FR vs. X, RF vs.

X, FF vs. RR, FF vs. X, RR vs. X, FF vs. FR, FF vs. RF, RR vs. FR, and RR vs. RF)

among the DNA-binding sites of a predicted insulator-associated DBP by using a

statistical test (Mann–Whitney U test, FDR-adjusted p value < 0.05 and p value $< 10^{-3}$).

For EPIs that were common to the predictions based on two different orientations of

DNA-binding sites of a predicted insulator-associated DBP, the DNA-binding sites of

DBPs in putative enhancers and promoters among the common EPIs were omitted in

the comparison of positive normalized contribution scores between the two different

orientations. Based on the results of the statistical analysis and the mean differences in

contribution scores, we predicted an insulator-associated DBP on the basis of the

directional bias or lack of orientation bias of DNA-binding sites; for example, to predict

an insulator-associated DBP with a DNA-binding site in the FR orientation, we selected

a DBP for which the contribution scores among all combinations of FR vs. RF, FR vs.

FF, FR vs. RR, and FR vs. X were significant (Mann–Whitney U test, FDR-adjusted p

value < 0.05 and p value $< 10^{-3}$) and showed positive (high) mean differences among

the contribution scores of all the combinations.

Search for insulator-associated DNA-binding sites based on histone modifications

and gene expression levels

The genomic positions in the BAM files of H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 ChIP-seq

data (ENCFF267JBO, ENCFF528UZJ) from HFF cells were converted to the

corresponding positions in the hg19 version of the human genome using the CrossMap

tool [63] and then converted to WIG files using bam2wig.pl from Bio::ToolBox

(https://github.com/tjparnell/biotoolbox) to visualize the data on the UCSC Genome

Browser through custom tracks (http://www.genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgCustom) and a

track hub (https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgHubConnect). The BAM file of RNA-seq

data (GSM941744) of HFF cells was converted to a WIG file using bam2wig.pl in

Bio::ToolBox. The genomic positions in the BED file of the boundaries and the

distribution of insulation scores identified through a Micro-C assay (4D Nucleome data

portal, https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI5OZ7TBE/ and

4DNFIPMHBA41) were converted to the corresponding positions in the hg19 version

of the human genome.

Distribution of DNA-binding sites around chromatin interaction sites

We examined the distribution of the DNA-binding sites of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs in regions within ± 500 bp of the center of a chromatin

interaction site using chromatin interaction data from HFF cells obtained via a Micro-C

assay (4D Nucleome data portal,

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI1MCF9GZ/). For the

insulator-associated DBPs other than CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3, the DNA-binding

sites that do not overlap with those of CTCF, RND21, and SMC3 were used to examine

their distribution around interaction sites. The number of DNA-binding sites of

predicted insulator-associated DBPs that cooccurred with DNA-binding sites of known

insulator-associated DBPs, such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3, was counted in each

10-bp bin in the regions within ±500 bp of the center of a chromatin interaction site.

Insulator-associated DNA-binding sites near splice sites

Insulator-associated DNA-binding sites were searched within 200 bp of the center

of splice sites using the file of the genomic positions of alternative transcripts in the

UCSC   Genome   Browser

(https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/database/all_mrna.txt.gz   ;

https://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgTables?db=hg19&hgta_group=rna&hgta_track=mrn

a&hgta_table=all_mrna&hgta_doSchema=describe+table+schema). We performed the

statistical test to estimate the enrichment of insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins

at the splicing sites compared with the other DNA-binding proteins (Mann–Whitney U

test, p value < 0.05).

Statistical analysis

Comparison of the distribution of DeepLIFT scores between different orientations

of DNA-binding sites was performed using the Mann-Whitney U test with the

scipy.stats.mannwhitneyu library. Two-tailed p values were calculated. For multiple

comparisons, adjusted p values were calculated by false discovery rate (FDR) using the

Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. Z scores for the Mann-Whitney U test were not output

by the library. Therefore, we calculated z scores by z-standardizing the U values. The

code is made available on GitHub at https://github.com/reposit2/insulator/tree/main.

Data availability

Human foreskin fibroblast (HFF) cell RNA-seq data were obtained from GSM941744.

Human monocyte RNA-seq data were obtained from the Blueprint DCC portal

http://dcc.blueprint-epigenome.eu/#/files   at

'C0010KB1.transcript_quantification.rsem_grape2_crg.GRCh38.20150622.results'. The

RNA-seq data of human mammary epithelial cells (HMEC) were found on ENCODE at

UCSC   http://genome.ucsc.edu/encode/   at

'wgEncodeCshlLongRnaSeqHmecCellPapAlnRep1.bam'. Human neural progenitor cell

(NPC) RNA-seq data were obtained from GSM915326. The DNase-seq data of HFF

cells were obtained from GSE170964. The *in situ* ChIA-PET chromatin interaction data

mediated by CTCF in HFF cells were available at the 4D Nucleome data portal,

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI73AFN12/. The ChIP-seq data of

H3K4me3, H3K27ac, and H3K4me1 of HFF cells were found at the 4D Nucleome data

portal, 4DNFIJOK1BWR, 4DNFI442BQLO, and 4DNFIAGV3X99. The ChIP-seq data

of H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 in HFF cells were obtained from the ENCODE portal,

ENCFF267JBO and ENCFF528UZJ. The chromatin interaction data and boundary data

of HFF cells by the Micro-C were obtained from the 4D Nucleome data portal,

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI1MCF9GZ/   and

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI5OZ7TBE/. ChIP-seq data of TFs

were downloaded from the v20.06 release of the GTRD database

(https://gtrd.biouml.org). eQTL data (GTEx_Analysis_v8_eQTL.tar) were downloaded

from the v8 release of the GTEx portal (https://gtexportal.org). DNA binding motifs of

TFs were collected from TRANSFAC (2019.2), JASPAR (2018)

(https://jaspar.genereg.net/), UniPROBE (2018)

(http://the_brain.bwh.harvard.edu/uniprobe/), high-throughput SELEX

(https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2012.12.009), transcription factor binding sequences of

ENCODE TF ChIP-seq data (http://compbio.mit.edu/encode-motifs/), and

HOCOMOCO version 9 and 11 (https://autosome.org/HOCOMOCOS/)

(https://hocomoco11.autosome.org/). The genomic positions of alternative transcripts in

the UCSC Genome Browser

(https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/database/all_mrna.txt.gz).

Code availability

Demonstration codes are made available at

https://github.com/reposit2/insulator/tree/main and

https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8216164.

Figures

Fig. 1. CTCF insulator function is involved in enhancer–promoter interactions. a
CTCF DNA-binding sites with a forward–reverse orientation are frequently found at
chromatin interaction sites. The forward and reverse orientations of DNA-binding sites
have complementary sequences and are relatively distinct in orientation according to
reference genome sequences. **b** Position weight matrices (PWMs) of CTCF binding
motifs. The forward and reverse orientations of the binding motifs are complementary
on a DNA strand. A sequence logo is a graphical representation of the sequence
conservation of nucleotides, and consists of a stack of letters at each position. The
relative sizes of the letters indicate their frequency in the sequences (Wikipedia
'Sequence logo'). **c** CTCF can block the interaction between an enhancer and a

promoter (or the transcriptional start site [TSS] of a gene), thereby restricting the

activity of an enhancer to a certain functional domain (region between red and green

arrows). The red and green arrows represent the DNA-binding sites of a putative

insulator-associated DBP (e.g., forward–reverse orientation of the DNA-binding sites of

CTCF in the figure). The numbers of DNA-binding sites with forward–reverse [FR],

reverse–forward [RF], forward-forward [FF], and reverse-reverse [RR] orientations

differ, as indicated by the intensity of the chromatin loop (right panel). Images of

double-stranded DNA loops were adapted from "Transcriptional Regulation by CTCF

and Cohesin" at BioRender.com (2023). Retrieved from

https://app.biorender.com/biorender-templates.

Fig. 2. Overview of the prediction of insulator-associated DBPs. a We used a

machine learning method named DEcode, with some modifications. The output data of

gene expression levels in human cells were predicted from the input data of genomic

locations of DBP binding at promoters and putative enhancers. **b** In the machine

learning phase, a DBP binding to a putative enhancer overlapping an eSNP (single

nucleotide polymorphism) was associated with a gene (eGene) that was potentially

regulated by the DBP based on eSNP and eGene of eQTL data. Based on the association

of each gene, the locations of DBP ChIP-seq peaks were binned (green box) and

summarized in a matrix as input data: Promoter consists of 30 bins of 100 bp between

-2 kbp and 1 kbp region from TSS. Enhancer-gene regulatory interaction regions consist

of 200 bins of 10 kbp between -1 Mbp and 1 Mbp region from TSS, not including

promoter. **c** In the phase of putative insulator-associated DBP prediction, a DBP binding

to a putative enhancer was associated with a gene potentially regulated by the DBP

based on a computationally defined regulatory domain without using eQTL data. The

single nearest gene association rule defines a regulatory domain connecting the

midpoints between the TSS of a gene and the TSS of the nearest gene in the upstream

and downstream regions. The TSS and regulatory domain of each gene are indicated

with a purple, light blue, or blue arrow and a bracketed line, respectively. The regulatory

domain of enhancer–promoter association was restricted by the DNA-binding sites (red

and green arrows) of a putative insulator-associated DBP in this study. Based on the

association of each gene, the locations of DBP ChIP-seq peaks were binned (green box

in non-gray regions) and summarized in a matrix and used as input data. **d** Estimation of

the directional effect of the DNA-binding sites (red and green arrows) of a putative

insulator-associated DBP on the prediction of gene expression levels. A DBP whose

binding (orange box) is important for predicting a gene expression level has a high

contribution score.

Fig. 3. Estimation of the effect of directional regulatory motifs on gene expression.

a The predicted log2-TPM (transcripts per million) values of genes were compared with

the actual expression levels in human foreskin fibroblast (HFF) cells using Spearman's

rank correlation. **b** An FR orientation of CTCF-binding sites is common (76.4%) at

chromatin interaction sites. Forward-forward (FF), reverse-reverse (RR), and RF

orientations occur at low frequencies (11.0%, 10.3%, and 2.3%, respectively) in

chromatin interaction sites (Guo Y et al. *Cell* 2015) [3]. **c** Distribution of *z* scores from the

Mann–Whitney *U* test for DeepLIFT scores between forward–reverse (FR) and

reverse–forward (RF) orientations of DNA-binding sites of proteins. Distribution of *z*

scores between no orientation (X) and another orientation (FR, RF, FF, or RR) is shown

in the right panel. The graphs show the results based on Selection Criteria S2 in

Supplementary Fig. 1 and Note. **d** *Z* scores from the Mann–Whitney *U* test for

DeepLIFT scores in pairwise comparisons of CTCF-binding sites with four different

orientations (FR, RF, FF, and RR) and no orientation (X, i.e., orientation is not

distinguished). The differences in *z* scores followed the same trend as the percentages of

CTCF-binding site orientations in chromatin interaction sites. **e** The DNA-binding sites

of insulator-associated proteins were found at a pair of long-range chromatin interaction

sites or at either site.

Fig. 4. DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs located at potential insulator sites. a, Distribution of histone modification marks H3K27me3 (green color) and H3K9me3 (turquoise color) and transcript levels (pink color) in the

upstream and downstream regions of a potential insulator site (light orange color).

These histone modification marks are observed in transcriptionally repressed regions.

Insulator sites would be located at the boundary between transcriptionally active and

repressed regions (light orange vertical bars). Blue and green lines in the GENCODE

track represent transcripts of genes. Insulator score and boundary sites were estimated

from chromatin interactions, which are available in 4D Nucleome Data Portal. Dark

blue arcs show chromatin interactions within a 10 bp, 20 bp, 50 bp, and 200 bp of the

binding sites of CTCF (upper left panel), MAZ (upper right panel), and MyoD1 (lower

left panel), respectively. The binding sites of CTCF, RAD21, SMC3 (upper left panel),

MAZ (upper right panel), and MyoD1 (lower left panel) are shown as black bars. Homo

sapiens (human) genome assembly GRCh37 (hg19) from Genome Reference

Consortium was used in panels **a**. **b** Number of DNA-binding sites of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs, where H3K27me3 signal intensities differed between the

upstream and downstream regions of the DNA-binding site. * p value < 0.01 (Table 2).

Boxplots show the median as the centerline, the boxes define the interquartile range

(IQR), the whiskers extend up to 1.5 times the IQR, and all points represent outliers

from that range. All data points are displayed. **c** Number of DNA-binding sites of

predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where H3K27me3 signal intensities and transcript

levels differed between the upstream and downstream regions of the DNA-binding site.

d Number of DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs in boundary

regions assigned based on chromatin interaction data from human foreskin fibroblast

(HFF) cells. **e** Number of DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs

that overlap within 200 bp centered on splice sites. The DNA-binding sites of

insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins were found within 200 bp centered on splice

sites more significantly than the other DNA-binding proteins. **f** Cluster of DNA-binding

sites of insulator-associated DBPs.

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Fig. 5. Insulator-associated DBPs potentially regulate alternative transcription.

Distribution of H3K27me3 histone modification mark (green color) and transcript levels

(pink color) are shown. The histone modification mark is observed in transcriptionally

repressed regions. Insulator sites would be located at the boundary between

transcriptionally active and repressed regions (light orange vertical bars). Blue lines in

the GENCODE track represent transcripts of genes. Chromatin interactions overlapped

with a 200-bp region centered on the binding sites of RBPJ (left panel) and SP1 (right

panel) are shown as dark blue arcs, respectively. The binding sites of RBPJ (left panel),

SP1 (right panel), and CTCF, RAD21, SMC3 (both panels) are shown as black bars.

The DNA-binding sites of insulator-associated DBPs were frequently located near

transcription start and termination sites. Insulator-associated DBPs potentially regulate

transcribed regions differentially repressed in alternative transcripts.

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1018 **Fig. 6. DNA-binding sites distributed around a chromatin interaction site. a-f** The

1019 X-axis shows the distance of a DNA-binding site from a chromatin interaction site. The

1020 Y-axis shows the number of chromatin interaction sites with DNA-binding sites within a

1021 ±500-bp region from the center of the interaction site. For YY1, ZNF143, and MAZ,

1022 DNA-binding sites overlapping with those of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 were removed.

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Fig. 7. Boundary-pairing (insulator-pairing) model for the regulation of

enhancer-promoter interactions. Molecules bound to insulators physically pair with

their partners, either head-to-head or head-to-tail, with different degrees of specificity at

the termini of TADs in flies [45-47]. Although the experiments do not reveal how partners

find each other, the mechanism unlikely requires loop extrusion. Homologous and

heterologous insulator-insulator pairing interactions are central to the architectural

functions of insulators. The manner of insulator-insulator interactions is

orientation-dependent. Homologous and heterologous interactions between the

insulator-associated DNA-binding proteins potentially occur with the same mechanism

in humans. Chromatin looping could induce the formation of transcriptional

condensates and phase separation as well as cohesin-CTCF-anchored chromatin looping

[40-42]. The figure was created with BioRender.com.

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1038 **Tables**

1039 **Table 1. Predicted insulator-associated DBPs with directional or nondirectional**

1040 **DNA-binding sites.**

FR orientation					Low			High
DBP	**z score**				**Mean difference**			
	RF	**FF**	**RR**	**X**	**RF**	**FF**	**RR**	**X**
CEBPA	5.64	3.99	5.17	13.79	1.92E-05	2.41E-05	1.33E-05	1.47E-04
CTCF	30.51	22.70	22.14	4.15	1.30E-04	1.07E-04	1.22E-04	1.54E-05
CTCFL	23.39	17.21	21.19	14.70	1.03E-04	7.86E-05	1.27E-04	5.62E-05
EGR1	9.17	7.11	10.13	12.76	4.71E-05	3.81E-05	6.96E-05	7.41E-05
EP300	6.81	4.23	3.94	3.49	5.24E-05	2.39E-05	5.02E-05	1.42E-05
KLF9	9.11	6.92	4.52	17.23	7.56E-05	5.10E-05	6.36E-05	1.57E-04
RAD21	47.70	34.64	37.59	24.35	1.97E-04	1.80E-04	1.93E-04	1.34E-04
RBPJ	7.52	4.04	7.55	5.77	9.29E-05	8.10E-05	1.12E-04	9.77E-05
RUNX1	9.17	6.61	4.30	14.81	5.91E-05	4.42E-05	5.40E-05	1.87E-04
SIN3A	10.27	7.14	3.49	3.62	7.42E-05	6.50E-05	4.33E-05	2.03E-04
SMC3	31.72	23.76	25.66	24.07	1.60E-04	1.36E-04	1.70E-04	1.67E-04
ZEB1	3.53	4.32	3.85	7.06	2.67E-05	3.51E-05	3.69E-05	1.64E-04
ZNF18	8.62	9.08	4.47	7.69	8.16E-05	1.17E-04	6.78E-05	3.27E-04

FR orientation					Low			High
DBP	**z score**				**Mean difference**			
	RF	**FF**	**RR**	**X**	**RF**	**FF**	**RR**	**X**
CTCF	29.35	20.05	20.07	10.91	1.21E-04	9.10E-05	1.11E-04	4.12E-05
CTCFL	23.14	17.60	19.38	19.81	1.04E-04	8.77E-05	1.20E-04	9.44E-05
EGR1	10.80	8.16	10.01	13.69	5.96E-05	3.84E-05	8.50E-05	1.08E-04
EP300	9.77	7.57	7.91	10.66	6.67E-05	4.17E-05	7.85E-05	6.42E-05
KLF1	8.29	5.23	10.08	10.85	8.32E-05	4.23E-05	1.39E-04	1.49E-04
KLF9	11.70	7.66	5.01	12.95	8.88E-05	5.83E-05	6.72E-05	1.17E-04
MAZ	7.05	4.79	3.94	5.37	6.59E-05	2.47E-05	8.60E-05	6.87E-05
RAD21	40.64	31.19	29.65	25.69	1.73E-04	1.64E-04	1.61E-04	1.47E-04
RUNX1	8.47	5.66	3.50	13.54	6.70E-05	4.61E-05	6.52E-05	2.01E-04
SIN3A	13.18	6.66	4.99	4.91	1.02E-04	6.78E-05	6.17E-05	2.81E-05
SMC3	29.76	22.20	24.11	29.30	1.56E-04	1.30E-04	1.66E-04	2.10E-04
SP1	8.58	5.67	8.32	19.04	5.39E-05	4.78E-05	7.58E-05	2.02E-04
SP2	8.80	7.55	3.56	7.37	7.07E-05	8.81E-05	3.55E-05	1.81E-04
TAF1	6.57	4.74	5.15	4.91	1.20E-04	8.27E-05	1.35E-04	8.90E-05

Predicted insulator-associated DBPs

AHR	CTCF	FOS	JUND	MYB	PRDM9	SMAD3	TBX21	ZBTB7A
ASCL1	CTCFL	FOSL2	KLF1	MYCN	RAD21	SMC3	TCF12	ZEB1
ATF2	DUX4	FOXA3	KLF16	MYOD1	RBPJ	SP1	TCF3	ZFP3
ATF7	EBF1	FOXH1	KLF5	MYOG	REST	SP2	TCF4	ZIC2
BATF	EGR1	FOXK1	KLF8	NFYC	RUNX1	SP5	TEAD3	ZNF143
BATF3	EGR2	GATA2	KLF9	NR2C2	RUNX3	SPI1	TFAP2C	ZNF18
BCL6	EGR3	GRHL1	MAFG	NR2F2	RXRA	SPIB	TFAP4	ZNF320
CDX2	ELK4	GRHL2	MAZ	NR3C1	SCRT1	SREBF2	TP53	ZNF329
CEBPA	EP300	HNF4A	MECP2	NR5A2	SIN3A	STAT1	TRIM28	ZNF35
CLOCK	EPAS1	JUN	MEF2B	PAX5	SMAD1	STAT3	USF1	ZNF449
CREB5	ETV1	JUNB	MEIS2	PBX2	SMAD2	TAF1	VDR	ZZZ3

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Z scores from the Mann–Whitney *U* test for DeepLIFT scores between forward-reverse

(FR) and other orientations such as reverse-forward (RF), forward-forward (FF),

reverse-reverse (RR), and non-orientation (X) of DNA-binding sites of proteins. Mean

differences of DeepLIFT scores. Color scales are shown for each DNA-binding protein

(DBP). Top: Selection Criteria S1 in Supplementary Fig. 1; Middle: Selection Criteria

S2 in Supplementary Fig. 1; Bottom: List of predicted insulator-associated DBPs. DBPs

in a yellow cell are associated with insulators, CTCF, and/or other transcriptional

regulations that have been shown to affect enhancer-promoter interactions (EPIs) in

previous studies.

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1052   **Table 2. Number of DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs at**

1053   **insulator sites and splice sites.**

		Selection Criteria		Median number of DNA sites	Mean number of DNA sites	Number of DBP	p value
Experimental data for identifying insulator sites	H3K27me3	S1	Insulator-associated DBPs	66	115.66	58	2.35E-08
			Other DBPs	16	38.14	354	
		S2	Insulator-associated DBPs	65	102.00	50	3.33E-08
			Other DBPs	14	31.73	346	
		S3	Insulator-associated DBPs	45	93.43	40	3.20E-08
			Other DBPs	12	25.98	298	
		S4	Insulator-associated DBPs	40	69.65	37	1.13E-06
			Other DBPs	11	22.45	274	
	H3K27me3,Gene expression	S1	Insulator-associated DBPs	12	27.95	58	4.26E-06
			Other DBPs	4	10.04	354	
		S2	Insulator-associated DBPs	16	27.30	50	2.14E-06
			Other DBPs	4	8.28	346	
		S3	Insulator-associated DBPs	8	18.05	40	9.89E-06
			Other DBPs	2	5.09	298	
		S4	Insulator-associated DBPs	7	13.97	37	9.17E-05
			Other DBPs	2	4.46	274	
	Boundary of interactions	S1	Insulator-associated DBPs	48	96.36	58	6.43E-07
			Other DBPs	14	30.88	354	
		S2	Insulator-associated DBPs	54	91.58	50	5.39E-07
			Other DBPs	13	26.70	346	
		S3	Insulator-associated DBPs	26	74.33	40	4.57E-07
			Other DBPs	7	15.17	298	
		S4	Insulator-associated DBPs	16	58.08	37	1.27E-05
			Other DBPs	7	13.75	274	
Overlap with splice sites		S1	Insulator-associated DBPs	535	774.45	58	1.02E-06
			Other DBPs	132	350.11	354	
		S2	Insulator-associated DBPs	472	748.72	50	6.28E-06
			Other DBPs	122	290.21	346	
		S3	Insulator-associated DBPs	120	305.7	40	2.13E-07
			Other DBPs	35	99.23	298	
		S4	Insulator-associated DBPs	103	198.24	37	1.45E-05
			Other DBPs	30	81.01	274	

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Selection Criteria S1: DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs;

Selection Criteria S2: DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where

the DNA-binding sites overlap with a chromatin interaction site in a region between

more than 5-kb upstream and 5-kb downstream of a transcribed region; Selection

Criteria S3: DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where the

DNA-binding sites do not overlap with the ChIP-seq peaks of H3K4me3, H3K4me1, or

H3K27ac; Selection Criteria S4: DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated

DBPs, where the DNA-binding sites overlap a chromatin interaction site in a region

between more than 5-kb upstream and 5-kb downstream of a transcript and the

DNA-binding sites do not overlap the ChIP-seq peaks of H3K4me3, H3K4me1, or

H3K27ac. *P* values were calculated from the Mann–Whitney *U* test.

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1067   **Table 3. Pairs of DNA-binding sites colocalize at the same distance from chromatin**

1068   **interaction sites.**

DBP1	DBP2	Distance to start (bp)	Distance to end (bp)	# chromatin interactions with DBP1 sites	# chromatin interactions with DBP2 sites	# chromatin interactions with DBP1 and 2 sites	Ratio (DBP1 and 2) / DBP1	Ratio (DBP1 and 2) / DBP2	Max ratio (DBP1 or DBP2)
CTCF	CTCFL	30	39	36229	27159	19743	0.54	0.73	0.73
CTCF	PPARG	30	39	36229	2577	528	0.01	0.20	0.20
CTCF	RAD21	-10	-1	23108	19746	7661	0.33	0.39	0.39
CTCF	RXRA	220	229	33327	13204	9102	0.27	0.69	0.69
CTCF	SMC3	-30	-21	35558	24371	19701	0.55	0.81	0.81
CTCF	ZBTB7A	30	39	36229	5190	1539	0.04	0.30	0.30
YY1	CTCF	-50	-41	12717	35247	291	0.02	0.01	0.02
YY1	RAD21	-30	-21	13931	32793	203	0.01	0.01	0.01
ZNF143	CTCF	20	29	8993	35212	430	0.05	0.01	0.05
ZNF143	RAD21	-30	-21	9064	32793	500	0.06	0.02	0.06
BACH2	ATF3	290	299	2496	20052	634	0.25	0.03	0.25
BACH2	BACH1	-280	-271	2471	2863	730	0.30	0.25	0.30
BACH2	BATF	-250	-241	2709	5924	486	0.18	0.08	0.18
BACH2	FOS	-240	-231	2769	39887	884	0.32	0.02	0.32
BACH2	FOSB	-70	-61	2774	16108	602	0.22	0.04	0.22
BACH2	FOSL1	240	249	2589	19417	687	0.27	0.04	0.27
BACH2	FOSL2	260	269	2649	37682	837	0.32	0.02	0.32
BACH2	JUN	260	269	2649	36745	783	0.30	0.02	0.30
BACH2	JUNB	440	449	2519	23889	535	0.21	0.02	0.21
BACH2	JUND	260	269	2649	40876	925	0.35	0.02	0.35
BACH2	MAF	430	439	2500	1520	367	0.15	0.24	0.24
BACH2	MAFF	-220	-211	2676	3302	295	0.11	0.09	0.11
BACH2	MAFG	180	189	2514	2738	385	0.15	0.14	0.15
BACH2	MAFK	-30	-21	2726	7561	896	0.33	0.12	0.33
BACH2	MYC	90	99	2674	6900	417	0.16	0.06	0.16
BACH2	NFE2	-10	-1	2399	8289	1284	0.54	0.15	0.54
BACH2	NFE2L2	440	449	2519	4908	928	0.37	0.19	0.37

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Distance to start and end (bp) shows the genomic distance centered on a chromatin

interaction site to the 10-bp bin with the highest number of DBP1 and DBP2 binding

sites among 100 bins (1 kbp) around the site. The positive value indicates the distance

to the downstream side of an insulator site and the negative value indicates the distance

to the upstream side. # chromatin interactions with DBP1 and DBP2 sites shows the

number of chromatin interaction sites with DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites within ±500

bp of the interaction site. Ratio (DBP1 and 2)/DBP2 is the ratio of the number of

chromatin interaction sites with both DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites to the number of

interaction sites with DBP2 binding sites.

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Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Prof. Martin Frith for reviewing the manuscript.

Supercomputing resources were provided by the Human Genome Center of the Institute

of Medical Science at the University of Tokyo and ROIS National Institute of Genetics.

This work was partially supported by JSPS KAKENHI (Grant Number 16K00387), JST

CREST (Grant Number JPMJCR15G1), Osaka University start-up research grant,

KIOXIA young scientist research grant at Waseda University, Sumitomo basic science

research projects to NO, AMED [grant nos. JP21ae0121049, 21479280], and JSPS

KAKENHI [grant nos. 22H04925, 20H00624, 17K20032] to MH.

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1279 N.O. designed and performed the research, and wrote and revised the manuscript. M.H.

1280 revised the manuscript.

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Competing interests

1283 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Additional information

1286 **Supplementary information** The online version contains supplementary material

1287 available at https://doi.org/ .

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