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 99 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. Furthermore,

we observed that the motifs could regulate transcribed regions differentially repressed in

alternative transcripts. These analyses reveal that the directional bias of motifs is

associated with insulators, chromosome conformation and alternative transcription,

potentially mediated by structural interactions. 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 regulatory motifs, Xie et al. [13]

suggested that the next challenge is to develop systematic methods for identifying their

specific functions in a genome-wide manner. 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 aimed 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 revised 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], and

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

DBPs, including those of known DBPs such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3. We have

identified 23 insulator-associated DBPs that are associated with insulator function,

CTCF, and/or other types of transcriptional regulation affecting EPIs in previous studies.

We reveal that directional DNA-binding sites are involved in insulators, chromatin

interactions, and chromosome conformation. To validate these findings, we demonstrate

that the DNA-binding sites of the identified insulator-associated DBPs are located

within potential insulator sites. Our method and analyses contribute to the identification

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

reveal novel structural and functional roles of DBPs and gene 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 enhancer regions 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). 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]. 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. 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. S1a) [14].

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

we obtained ChIP-seq data from the Gene Transcription Regulation Database (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 [16] [17-22]. 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 1,356 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 for use as inputs for deep learning analyses. The DeepLIFT method calculates a score representing the contribution of the input data to the prediction. By comparing the DeepLIFT scores of the DNA-binding sites to the ChIP-seq data, we compared the effects of putative insulator sites, including 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 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 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. S1b; Table S1, DBP comp 1A). 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 3A). 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 also performed the analysis with other

selection criteria of DNA-binding sites, and discovered DBPs with directional and

nondirectional bias that were not included in those discovered with the first selection

criterion of DNA-binding sites (Fig. 3e). (Data S1).

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). 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). 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 S6). 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.

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 [23]. 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 [24]. 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 exhibited

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 [25]. 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. S2).

We 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. S2). We

discovered DNA-binding sites in the expected genomic regions of all DBPs, suggesting

that these DNA-binding sites are associated with insulator functions. Genome browser

analysis is useful for selecting DNA-binding sites for experimental validation and

further study.

While preparing Fig. 4a and S2, 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 repressed and active

regions (Fig. 5, S2a, b). 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[26]. 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 tissue-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. 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[27], indicated the peak of distribution of MAZ DNA-binding sites

around interaction sites (Fig. 6f).

Among the 228 DNA-binding sites, 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 S7; Fig. S3). 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. S3). 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. We

found that the number of DNA-binding sites of pairs of DBPs located within the same

chromatin interaction site tended to be the highest within the same bin distance from the

interaction site, suggesting that the resolution of the chromatin interaction data was high

enough to determine the distance of DNA-binding sites of DBPs from interaction sites

and distinguish two DNA-bound DBPs located close to each other (Table S5). 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, 91 pairs of 70 DBPs colocalized around chromatin interaction

sites when at least 50% 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.

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. 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 [28] [29] [30].

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. 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. 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 novel computational method enabled this study,

which will contribute to further promote the functional and structural analyses of

insulator-associated DBPs effectively through experimental analyses.

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 may 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]. 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 [31,32]. Furthermore, CTCF-mediated chromatin

looping induces phase separation between the inner and outer regions of the loops,

resulting in the formation of transcriptional condensates and insulator function [33-35].

Therefore, structures that result in phase separation, rather than functional differences in

DBPs, may be responsible for insulator functions. Other types of chromatin regulation

are also expected to be related to the structural interactions of molecules. Our analyses

will allow us to reveal novel 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 DNA-binding-site distribution

peaks around chromatin interaction sites, suggesting that these DBPs are involved in

chromatin interactions. 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

a Region Capture Micro-C assay focuses 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 [36-38]. Therefore, we analyzed and predicted insulator-associated

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

learned EPIs and accurately predicted the percent differences in the FR, FF, RR, and RF

orientations of CTCF DNA-binding sites at chromatin interaction sites.

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 [39]. 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

[40]. 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 level 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 [41]

(https://www.encodeproject.org/) using the RSeQC tool [42] (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) [43]. The binding site of a DBP regulating the expression level of

each   transcript   was   selected   using   eQTL   data   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 input data of DNA-binding sites in promoter regions used for the

deep learning analysis consisted of the lengths of a DBP ChIP-seq peaks 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

reduce the number of bins, we 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 megabase 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

1,311 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, [44]

cannot be applied to a neural network with multiple input layers (Fig. S4). 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 [16] 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 [17-22]. 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/).   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 [44]. 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 [39]. 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 bigWig file of H3K27me3 ChIP-seq data

(ENCFF854VTY) from HFF cells were converted to the corresponding positions in the

hg19 version of the human genome using the LiftOver tool and then converted to a

bedGraph file using the UCSC bigWigToBedGraph tool to visualize the data on the

UCSC Genome Browser through custom tracks

(http://www.genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgCustom). The BAM file of RNA-seq data

(GSM941744) from HFF cells was converted to a WIG file using bam2wig.pl from

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

through a Micro-C assay (4D Nucleome data portal,

https://data.4dnucleome.org/files-processed/4DNFI5OZ7TBE/) 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/). 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.

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 in HFF cells were obtained from the ENCODE portal, ENCFF854VTY.

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 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/).

Code availability

684 Demonstration codes are made available at

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

686 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.

a Gene expression prediction model

Input layer
1D convolution (×5)
1D Global Average Pooling
Fully connected layer (×2)
Output layer

Fibroblasts
Monocytes
HMEC
NPC

25,071 genes
Gene A Gene B Gene C Gene D ...

High   Low

DBP ChIP-seq peaks
1356 DBPs
1 Mbp
TSS
-1 Mbp

Input layer

Feature extraction
1D Convolution layer

Fully-connected and output layers

Gene expression levels in human cells

b Input data for learning

DBP ChIP-seq peaks   Gene expression level

TF
A>G eSNP   TSS   A>G
eGene

Promoter and enhancer features of gene X
Length of DBP ChIP-seq peak in each 100-bp bin

1356 DBPs

-1 Mbp   TSS   1 Mbp

c Input data for prediction

TSS 1   TSS 2   TSS 3

Gene 1   Gene 2   Gene 3

Computationally-defined regulatory domain for enhancer-promoter association (The *single nearest gene* association rule)

A regulatory domain limited by DNA-binding sites of putative insulator-associated DBPs (e.g. forward-reverse orientation of CTCF binding sites)

Forward   Input data   Reverse

Promoter and enhancer features of gene X

1356 DBPs

-1 Mbp   TSS   1 Mbp

d Estimation of importance of input data for prediction

Forward   Enhancer   Reverse

Reverse Enhancer   Enhancer   Forward

Low contribution score   High contribution score

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 regions consist of 200 bins of 10,000 bp 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. **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. The graph shows the results based on Selection

Criteria S2 in Fig. 3e and the Extended Data. **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** Selection Criteria S1:

DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs; 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; 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; 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.

Fig. 4. DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs located at potential insulator sites. a Distribution of H3K27me3 marks (green color) and

transcript levels (pink color) in upstream and downstream regions of a potential

insulator site. Blue and green lines below H3K27me3 marks represent transcripts of

genes. The binding sites of CTCF, RAD21, SMC3, and MAZ are shown as black bars.

Chromatin interactions overlapped with a 10bp, 20bp, 50bp, 200bp region centered on

the binding sites of CTCF (left panel) and MAZ (right panel) are shown as dark blue

arcs, respectively. **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. Homo sapiens (human) genome assembly GRCh37 (hg19) from Genome

Reference Consortium was used in panels **a**.

Fig. 5. Insulator-associated DBPs potentially regulate alternative transcription.
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.

Fig. 6. DNA-binding sites distributed around a chromatin interaction site. a-f The

X-axis shows the distance of a DNA-binding site from a chromatin interaction site. The

Y-axis shows the number of chromatin interaction sites with DNA-binding sites within a

±500-bp region from the center of the interaction site.

Tables

Table 1. Predicted insulator-associated DBPs with directional or nondirectional

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

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 Fig. 3e; Middle: Selection Criteria S2 in Fig. 3e;

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.

Table 2. Number of DNA-binding sites of predicted insulator-associated DBPs

where DNA-binding sites are located at insulator sites.

		Selection Criteria		Median nunber of DNA sites	Mean number of DNA sites	Number of DNA sites	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	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	

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.

Table 3. Pairs of DNA-binding sites colocalize at the same distance from chromatin

interaction sites.

DBP1	DBP2	Position start	Position end	# 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

833 # chromatin interactions with DBP1 and DBP2 sites shows the number of chromatin

834 interaction sites with DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites within ±500 bp of the interaction

835 site. Ratio (DBP1 and 2)/DBP2 is the ratio of the number of chromatin interaction sites

836 with both DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites to the number of interaction sites with DBP2

837 binding sites.

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N.O. designed and performed the research, and wrote the manuscript. M.H. contributed

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The authors declare no competing interests.

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