**Title**

**Discovery of regulatory motifs associated with human insulator sites**

**reveals the role of directional bias in insulator function**

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## Abstract

Insulator proteins act as a barrier of enhancer–promoter interactions (EPIs). CTCF, a DNA-binding protein (DBP) that binds to chromatin interaction anchors, i.e., edges, is the main insulator protein in vertebrates. However, other DBPs involved in insulator function of EPIs are still unclear. Hence, we developed a systematic, comprehensive deep learning-based approach for identifying the DNA motifs of DBPs associated with insulator. 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 in chromatin interaction anchors. Furthermore, we observed that the motifs could regulate transcribed regions differentially repressed in alternative transcripts. These findings reveal that the directional bias of motifs is associated with insulator functions, chromosome conformation and alternative transcription, potentially mediated by structural interactions. These findings contribute to elucidate novel transcriptional regulations.

## Introduction

Chromatin interactions play an essential role in enhancer–promoter interactions (EPIs) and transcriptional regulation [1]. In this context, transcription factors (TFs) such

as CTCF and other DNA-binding proteins (DBPs) such as members of the cohesin

complex (RAD21 and SMC3) bind chromatin interaction anchors and facilitate the

formation of loop structures. In general, CTCF is considered to function as an insulator

by limiting the activity of enhancers within the loops[2]. CTCF indicates a characteristic

feature in its DNA-binding sites (DBSs), which show directional bias in favor of a

forward–reverse (FR) orientation (rather than a FF, RR, or RF orientation) at chromatin

interaction anchors[3]. The forward and reverse orientations of DNA-binding sites (DBSs)

are complementary in sequence and are relatively distinct in orientation according to

reference genome sequences. Moreover, although the FR and RF orientations of DBSs

are complementary, their frequencies are significantly different at chromatin interaction

anchors [3], suggesting that the directional bias of DBSs are associated with chromatin

interactions and insulator function.

While CTCF is the major insulator protein 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.

One possible approach for predicting insulator-associated DBPs is to analyze the

enrichment of DBSs of chromatin- and insulator-associated DBPs at chromatin

interaction anchors, considering that such DBSs may be enriched at these anchors. 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

anchors, whereas the binding site of YY1 is not enriched in these anchors [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 anchors, making them more difficult to identify.

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

the directional bias of CTCF DBSs. When a DBP binds a single position in the genome,

the direction of its DBS may not be important [7], but 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

DBSs [8-10]. Some DBPs involved in chromatin interactions, such as YY1, are

multifunctional proteins, and some DBSs of multifunctional DBPs are involved in

chromatin interactions and insulator functions. Thus, the directional difference in the

DBSs of a multifunctional DBP may be reduced. The multifunctionality of DBPs may

make it difficult to identify their insulator-associated functions.

Computational methods have been developed to predict chromatin interactions

and associated DBPs [11] [12]. However, these methods were not designed to identify the

binding motifs of DBPs associated with insulator function. As for regulatory motifs, Xie

et al. [13] suggested that the development of systematic methods for identifying the

specific functions of regulatory motifs in a genome-wide manner is the next challenge

that must be overcome. As for the regulation of gene expression, insulators affect EPIs

and gene expression, and thus the use of gene expression data would improve the

prediction of DBPs associated with insulator function, compared with the enrichment

analysis or directional bias of DBSs alone. A novel computational method using deep

learning has been developed to predict gene expression levels in human tissues based on

the DBSs in promoter regions [14]. However, the method does not use the DBSs

associated with EPIs as input data, and was not designed to predict DBPs associated

with insulator function.

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

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

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 (EPA) rule (McLean et al. Supplementary Fig. 2) [15], and

predicted the directional bias of DBSs of CTCF and insulator-associated DBPs,

including those of known DBPs such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3. We show that 23 of

the predicted insulator-associated DBPs are associated with insulator function, CTCF,

and/or other types of transcriptional regulation affecting EPIs that have been identified

in previous studies. We reveal that directional DBSs are involved in insulator functions,

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

demonstrate that the DBSs of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs are located within

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

insulator- and chromatin-associated DBSs 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 DBPs that bind DBSs distal to transcription start sites (TSSs) and the

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

DBSs 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 avoid the cellular

heterogeneity found in tissues, gene expression levels were analyzed in human cell lines

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

(HMECs), and neural progenitor cells). The predicted gene expression levels were

highly consistent with the actual expression levels (Spearman's rho = 0.71, 0.74, 0.73,

and 0.74 in the four cell types) without using the data on the RNA-binding proteins and

miRNAs obtained via the original deep learning method (Fig. 3a; Fig. S1a) [14].

Then, to investigate the directional bias of the DBSs of putative

insulator-associated DBPs, we searched the ChIP-seq peaks of candidate DBPs for the

associated binding motifs. First, the DBSs of a given DBP in open chromatin regions

were predicted using the Protein Interaction Quantitation (PIQ) tool and DNase-seq data

[16]. Then, to reduce the number of false-positive DBS predictions, the DBSs that

overlapped with the ChIP-seq peaks of the same DBP were selected. Among the 1,356

DBPs with available ChIP-seq data, the DBP-binding motif sequences of 715 DBPs

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 [17-22].

To confirm that the DBSs of insulator DBPs are located at the chromatin

interaction anchors of those DBPs, we examined the overlap between CTCF ChIP-seq

peaks and anchors identified to be involved in CTCF-mediated chromatin interactions in

HFF cells *in situ* by paired-end-tag sequencing (ChIA-pet). The number of CTCF

ChIP-seq peaks included in the Gene Transcription Regulation Database (GTRD)

(v20.06 release) was 2,433,551, and the number of chromatin interactions was

123,396,983. When the length of a chromatin interaction anchor was defined as 100 bp,

which is close to the length of 147 base pairs (bp) of DNA around a histone, 2,263,295

(93%) CTCF ChIP-seq peaks overlapped with the anchors of CTCF-mediated

chromatin interactions in HFF cells. These findings indicated that most of the DBSs of

CTCF were potentially involved in chromatin interactions. This suggested that the

CTCF DBSs predicted based on the experimental data of CTCF-binding sites, open

chromatin regions, and the DNA-binding motif of CTCF included the DBSs associated

with chromatin interactions and insulator functions.

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

To investigate the effect of directional differences in the DBSs 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 DBSs to the ChIP-seq data, we compared the effects of putative

insulator sites, including insulator-associated DBSs, on the prediction of gene

expression levels according to the directional and positional differences among the

DBSs (Fig. 2d). At the anchors of distal CTCF-mediated chromatin interactions

identified *in situ* via ChIA-pet, 76.4% of the CTCF DBSs showed an FR orientation,

also known as a convergent orientation (Fig. 3b) [3].

To investigate the effect of CTCF DBS orientation on the DeepLIFT scores of the

DBSs in putative enhancer regions, we searched CTCF DBSs with an FR or RF

orientation in the upstream and downstream regions of TSSs and predicted EPIs based

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

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

DBSs 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 DBS on the prediction of gene expression level.

We performed the same analysis using the DBSs 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

DBSs with FR and RF orientations (Fig. 3c and Table S1). Other orientations of the

DBSs 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 DBSs 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 DBSs with

different orientations (e.g., FR and RF), and 79 DBPs, including YY1, presented a

significant difference in the distribution of DeepLIFT scores between DBSs 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 DBS bias 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 DBSs of insulator-associated DBPs**

To investigate the directional bias of DBSs based on more stringent criteria, we

compared DBSs with four different orientations (FR, RF, FF, and RR), or no directional

bias based on pairwise comparisons of the directional biases of the DBSs. For the DBSs

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 DBSs with the same orientation (e.g.,

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

significantly among the nondirectional DBSs 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 DBSs, and discovered other DBPs with directional and

nondirectional bias. We also performed the analysis with other DBS selection criteria,

and discovered DBPs with directional and nondirectional bias that were not included in

those discovered with the first DBS selection criterion (Fig. 3e). (Data S1).

We compared the predicted directional biases of CTCF DBSs with the directional

biases identified based on experimental data on CTCF-mediated chromatin interactions.

In the analysis of ChIA-pet chromatin interaction data, the anchors of distal

CTCF-mediated chromatin interactions located in CTCF DBSs exhibited the following

orientations: 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 DBSs 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 DBSs at anchors of chromatin interactions: 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 DBSs at chromatin interaction anchors on

the basis of the DeepLIFT scores of the DBSs in putative enhancer regions.

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

criterion of the DBSs 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 DBSs based on histone modifications and gene**

**expression**

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

their DBSs associated with insulator function, we first analyzed previously reported

histone modification data to identify differences between the upstream and downstream

regions of the DBSs. 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 DBSs [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 DBSs 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 DBSs

where the mean H3K27me3 signal intensities differed by more than 2-fold between the

upstream and downstream regions of the DBS. 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 DBSs with different H3K27me3 signal

intensities between the upstream and downstream regions of a DBS and found that

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

showed the greatest numbers of DBSs (Table S4). Via statistical analysis, we calculated

the median and mean numbers of DBSs showing different H3K27me3 signal intensities

between upstream and downstream regions for the DBSs of both predicted

insulator-associated DBPs and other DBPs. The median and mean numbers of DBSs

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 DBSs 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 DBSs 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

DBSs 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 DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs with the

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

predicted insulator-associated DBPs were located in the boundary regions than other

DBPs (Table 2, Fig. 4d).

To determine whether the DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs

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

locations of the DBSs on the UCSC Genome Browser (Fig. S2). We searched for DBSs

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 DBSs in the genome browser and selected primarily three DBSs for

each DBP (Fig. S2). We discovered DBSs in the expected genomic regions of all DBPs,

suggesting that these DBSs are associated with insulator functions. Genome browser

analysis is useful for selecting DBSs for experimental validation and further study.

While preparing Fig. S2, we noticed that several DBSs 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 DBS of

insulator-associated DBP between the repressed and active regions (Fig. 5, S2a, b).

Furthermore, the DBSs 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 DBSs of insulator-associated DBPs could affect the form of

transcripts and the genomic location of transcription start and termination sites. The

differences in the DBSs and H3K27me3 marks between tissues could contribute to the

tissue-specific exon usage of alternative transcripts.

**Distribution of DBSs around chromatin interaction anchors**

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 DBSs around chromatin interaction anchors, the DBSs of

DBPs in regions within ±500 bp of the centers of chromatin interaction anchors were

identified in HFF cells. 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 DBSs showed a characteristic pattern around chromatin interaction

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

DBSs of YY1 and ZNF143, which are known to be involved in chromatin interactions,

were distributed around chromatin interaction anchors. The DBSs of YY1 were also

broadly distributed in regions within ±500 bp of anchors, 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 DBSs around anchors (Fig. 6f).

Among the 228 DBPs, more than 1,000 of the DBSs 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 anchors. Furthermore, we found

DBPs with sharp peaks around anchors, DBPs with broad peaks around anchors, and

DBPs with peaks similar to those of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 around anchors,

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 DBSs in HFF cells, and when a DBP has fewer than

1,000 DBSs, the specific distribution of DBSs around chromatin interaction anchors

may not be evident (Fig. S3). Approximately 90% of the DBPs with more than 1,000

DBSs had peaks around anchors. This indicated that the DBPs interacted with other

genomic regions and that the DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs were

involved in chromatin interactions.

**Co-localization of DBSs around chromatin interaction anchors**

Since the DBSs 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 DBSs in

each 10-bp bin within ±500 bp from the center of a chromatin interaction anchor and

compared these numbers between all possible pairs of DBPs. We found that the number

of DBSs of pairs of DBPs located within the same chromatin interaction anchor tended

to be the highest within the same bin distance from the anchor, suggesting that the

resolution of the chromatin interaction data was high enough to determine the distance

of DBSs of DBPs from anchors and distinguish two DNA-bound DBPs located close to

each other (Table S5). For this analysis, the DBSs that overlapped with the ChIP-seq

peaks of a DBP were selected to reduce the number of false-positive DBS predictions,

and the number of DBSs per DBP may therefore have been underestimated. Among the

228 DBPs, 91 pairs of 70 DBPs colocalized around chromatin interaction anchors when

at least 50% of the DBSs of a pair of DBPs colocalized in a bin with the same distance

from the anchor (Table S5). CTCF showed a high rate of DBS colocalization with both

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

interaction anchor, whereas YY1 and ZNF143 showed low rates of DBS colocalization

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 DBSs colocalized with CTCF, RAD21, and/or SMC3 in

bins within the same distance from chromatin interaction anchors, 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 DBSs colocalized with CTCF, RAD21,

and/or SMC within a bin. Most of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs did not have

DBS colocalization 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 anchor.

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

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

overlap of DBSs with the DBP ChIP-seq peaks of CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3 and found

that a high percentage (> 98%) of the DBSs of the three DBPs overlapped with their

ChIP-seq peaks in all three examined combinations. However, the DBSs 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 DBS distribution pattern around chromatin interaction anchors 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 DBSs of the latter set of DBPs

colocalized with CTCF, RAD21, or SMC3 in a single bin. However, BACH2, FOS,

ATF3, NFE2, and MAFK had DBSs 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 DBSs 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

DBSs of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs showed orientation bias of their DBSs;

unexpectedly, the significant differences in the orientation bias of CTCF DBSs based on

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

differences in the orientation of CTCF DBSs at anchors of CTCF-mediated chromatin

interactions. The DBSs 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 DBSs of the insulator-associated DBPs colocalized

with the DBSs of known insulator-associated DBPs such as CTCF, RAD21, and SMC3

around chromatin interaction anchors. We discovered that DBPs other than the known

insulator DBPs and the directionality of their DBSs are associated with insulator

functions. 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 DBSs at chromatin interaction anchors,

considering the genomic locations of DBSs of putative insulator-associated DBPs. The

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

These results suggest that the directional bias of DBSs 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 showed that

most of the predicted insulator-associated DBPs showed DBS distribution peaks around

chromatin interaction anchors, 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 DBSs at chromatin interaction anchors.

The analysis of many contribution scores (i.e., DeepLIFT scores in this study)

for directional DBSs 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 DBSs at chromatin interaction anchors based on the

contribution scores of DBSs in putative enhancer regions. Some contribution scores

may not be accurate and thus the prediction of insulator-associated DBPs or DBSs

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 DBSs of multifunctional DBPs. Information on

histone modifications such as H3K27me3 and transcript levels will be beneficial for

comparing the results of such analyses to confirm the accuracy of a prediction and for

identifying insulator-associated DBSs in the genome for further experimental validation

and study. 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**

**459** **Prediction of gene expression levels based on DBSs**

**460** **Gene expression data as output data for machine learning analysis**

**461**     To predict DBSs that also act as insulator sites in the human genome, we

**462** modified a previously developed deep learning method designed to predict the transcript

**463** expression level of genes in tissues and cell types based on the DBSs of DBPs in

**464** promoter regions and other DNA regions (Fig. 2a; Fig. S4) [14]. To reduce the influence of

**465** cellular heterogeneity observed when analyzing tissues, we used the gene expression

**466** data from four distinct cell types where various experimental data are available in public

**467** databases: HFFs (GSM941744), monocytes (Blueprint RNA-seq FPKM [fragments per

**468** kilobase       of       exon       per       million       reads       mapped]       data

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

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

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

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

**473** 'wgEncodeCshlLongRnaSeqHmecCellPapAlnRep1.bam'),  and  neural  progenitor  cells

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

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

**476** GENCODE    V19    gene    annotations    in    the    ENCODE    portal    database    [41]

**477** (https://www.encodeproject.org/) using the RSeQC tool [42] (http://rseqc.sourceforge.net/).

**478** 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].

**DBSs as input data for machine learning analysis**

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

in putative enhancer regions located away from promoter regions were added as input

data in the deep learning method. To identify the DBSs 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 DBS 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 DBSs 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 DBSs 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, 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**

**DBSs of putative insulator-associated DBPs**

To identify the direction of DBP-binding motifs in the DBSs 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 DBS predictions, only DBSs 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 DBSs were located at chromatin interaction anchors, we

examined the overlap between CTCF ChIP-seq peaks and the anchors 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 DBSs that

overlapped EPI anchors, 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 DBSs of an insulator-associated DBP**

To prepare the input data of the DBSs 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 DBS 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 DBS 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 DBS of a predicted insulator-associated

DBP, we computed the maximum lengths from the bin closest to a TSS to the first bin

containing the DBS of the insulator-associated DBP, taking into account the orientation

of the DBS.

**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 DBS to the prediction of the expression level of a transcript [44].

The contribution scores of DBSs 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 DBSs of a

predicted insulator-associated DBP on the prediction of transcript levels, positive

normalized contribution scores for transcripts with DBSs 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 DBSs 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 DBS orientations of a predicted

insulator-associated DBP, the DBSs 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 DBS directional orientation bias or lack of

orientation bias; for example, to predict an insulator-associated DBP with a DBS 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 DBSs 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 DBSs around chromatin interaction anchors**

We examined the distribution of the DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs

in regions within $\pm 500$ bp of the center of a chromatin interaction anchor 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 DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs that cooccurred with DBSs of

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

each 10-bp bin in the regions within $\pm 500$ bp of the center of a chromatin interaction

anchor.

**Statistical analysis**

Comparison of the distribution of DeepLIFT scores between different orientations

of DBSs 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

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 DBSs with a forward–reverse orientation are frequently found at chromatin interaction anchors. The forward and reverse orientations of DBSs 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 DBSs of

a putative insulator-associated DBP (e.g., forward–reverse orientation of the DBSs of

CTCF in the figure). The numbers of DBSs 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

1 Mbp

TSS

-1 Mbp

DBP ChIP-seq peaks

1356 DBPs

Input layer → 1D convolution → 1D convolution → 1D convolution → 1D convolution → 1D convolution → 1D Global Average Pooling → Fully connected layer → Fully connected layer → Output layer

25,071 genes

Gene A, Gene B, Gene C, Gene D ...

Fibroblasts
Monocytes
HMEC
NPC

High Low

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 DBSs 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 (EPA) was restricted by the DBSs (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 DBSs (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 anchors. Forward-forward (FF), reverse-reverse (RR), and RF

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

chromatin interaction anchors. **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 (DBSs). The graph shows the results

based on DBS 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 anchors. **e** DBS Selection Criteria S1: DBSs of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs; S2: DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where the

DBSs overlap with a chromatin interaction anchor in a region between more than 5 kb

upstream and 5 kb downstream of a transcribed region; S3: DBSs of predicted

insulator-associated DBPs, where the DBSs do not overlap with the ChIP-seq peaks of

H3K4me3, H3K4me1, or H3K27ac; S4: DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs,

where the DBSs overlap a chromatin interaction anchor in a region between more than 5

kb upstream and 5 kb downstream of a transcript and the DBSs do not overlap the

ChIP-seq peaks of H3K4me3, H3K4me1, or H3K27ac.

**Fig. 4. DBSs 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

DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where H3K27me3 signal intensities

differed between the upstream and downstream regions of the DBS. * $p$ value < 0.01

(Table 2). **c** Number of DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where

H3K27me3 signal intensities and transcript levels differed between the upstream and

downstream regions of the DBS. **d** Number of DBSs 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 DBSs 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. DBSs distributed around chromatin interaction anchor. a-f** The X-axis

shows the distance of a DBS from a chromatin interaction anchor. The Y-axis shows the

number of chromatin interaction anchors with DBSs within a $\pm$500-bp region from the

center of the interaction anchor.

**Tables**

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

**DBSs.**

| 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 (DBSs).

Mean differences of DeepLIFT scores. Color scales are shown for each DNA-binding

protein (DBP). Top: DBS Selection Criteria S1 in Fig. 3e; Middle: DBS 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 DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs where DBSs are**

**located at insulator sites.**

| | | DBS Selection Criteria | | Median nunber of DBSs | Mean number of DBSs | Number of DBPs | $p$ 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 | |

DBS Selection Criteria S1: DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs; DBS

Selection Criteria S2: DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where the DBSs

overlap with a chromatin interaction anchor in a region between more than 5 kb

upstream and 5 kb downstream of a transcribed region; DBS Selection Criteria S3:

DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where the DBSs do not overlap with the

ChIP-seq peaks of H3K4me3, H3K4me1, or H3K27ac; DBS Selection Criteria S4:

DBSs of predicted insulator-associated DBPs, where the DBSs overlap a chromatin

interaction anchor in a region between more than 5 kb upstream and 5 kb downstream

of a transcript and the DBSs 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 DBSs colocalize at the same distance from chromatin interaction**

**anchors.**

| 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 |

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

interaction anchors with DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites within ±500 bp of the anchor.

Ratio (DBP1 and 2)/DBP2 is the ratio of the number of chromatin interaction anchors

with both DBP1 and DBP2 binding sites to the number of anchors with DBP2 binding

sites.

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