SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS AND RESULTS FOR DREM 2.0: IMPROVED RECONSTRUCTION OF DYNAMIC REGULATORY NETWORKS FROM TIME-SERIES EXPRESSION DATA

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1. A logistic function-based method for using TF gene expression levels

In DREM 2.0 it is possible to utilize the expression level of a transcription factor (TF) to influence the learning of the classifier in the input-output hidden Markov model (IOHMM). The idea is that TFs that are over- or under-expressed between time points should have a higher influence.

The expression ratio x of a TF between two time points is incorporated by using a modified version of the logistic function

(1)
$$
f_w(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x \cdot w}}.
$$

A shifted version of the logistic function, $f_w^*(x)$, reports 0 if no change in the expression ratio x is observed. Also instead of [0,1], the function outputs values in the range $[-1,1]$ to allow for negative influence in the case of under expression.

(2)
$$
f_w^*(x) = sign(x) \cdot \left(\frac{2}{1 + e^{-x \cdot w}} - 1\right),
$$

shifted function in [−1,1]

Figure 1. Illustration of the shifted version of the logistic function used by DREM 2.0 for scaling expression levels used in classifier learning. Output of the shifted logistic function in Eq. (2) for different weight w.

where $sign(x)$ denotes the sign of the real-valued expression ratio. We call w in Eq. (2) the *expression scaling weight*, which controls the steepness of the function, see Fig. 2. TFs can be efficient at low expression levels or activated post-transcriptionally, therefore the user can define a minimum threshold, $minExpTF$. select(x) denotes the minimum of both according to the following formula:

(3)
$$
select(x) = \begin{cases} f_w^*(x), & \text{if } abs(f_w^*(x)) \ge \text{ minExpTF}, \\ sign(x) \cdot \text{minExpTF}, & \text{else} \end{cases}
$$

where $abs(z)$ denotes the absolute value of a real valued number z.

The function select(x) is used in the following way. In the previous version of DREM a classifier could use pairwise binding information for a TF t to a gene g, denoted \mathcal{B}_g , with $B_q \in \{-1,1,0\}$ representing a repressive, an activatory or no regulatory role for TF t on gene g , respectively. With expression scaling activated in DREM 2.0 we define the quantity $\mathcal{B'}_g$:

(4)
$$
\mathcal{B}'_g = select(x_t) \cdot \mathcal{B}_g,
$$

where x_t denotes the gene expression ratio of the TF t and $\mathcal{B}'_g \in [-1,1]$. For the TF t we replace all values \mathcal{B}_g with $\mathcal{B'}_g$ before learning the IOHMM. This corresponds to scaling the binding value of TF t on gene g according to the logistic function $f_w^*(x_t)$.

2. Collecting protein-DNA interaction data sets

For D. Melanogaster we used the physical network data from the modENCODE consortium [6]. 158,558 predicted protein-DNA interactions were formatted for DREM 3-column format (the format is explained in Additional file 2).

We extracted 11,355 static protein-DNA interactions for A. thaliana from the AtRegNet database [7]. All protein-DNA interactions were formatted for DREM 3-column format.

Human ChIP-Seq dataset from ENCODE [2] was downloaded from the "Txn Factor ChIP" track in UCSC Genome Browser at http://hgdownload-test.cse.ucsc.edu/ goldenPath/hg19/encodeDCC/wgEncodeRegTfbsClustered/ on Oct 7, 2011. The track contains aggregated binding peaks that were computed using a uniform pipeline for 148 human transcription factors across diverse cell lines. We mapped the TF names to standard human gene names using the "Target Link" column of the ENCODE control vocabulary table at http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-bin/hgEncodeVocab?ra=encode/cv.ra&type=Antibody. In addition, ChIP-Seq peaks of the same TF in different cell lines were merged. In this way, 126 unique TFs were obtained, including some general TFs like POL2. For each human gene, we looked at the upstream 10kb and downstream 10kb window flanking the transcription start site. All TFs that have binding peaks within that window were considered to regulate that gene. In this way, 954,378 static protein-DNA interactions were obtained for human. Please consult the ENCODE data release policy (http: //genome.ucsc.edu/ENCODE/terms.html) if these interactions are used.

Ranked human PWM-gene predictions were obtained from Ernst et al [3]. Each PWM was mapped to the set of corresponding TFs using TRANSFAC [5] and JASPAR [9], and each TF name was mapped to the Entrez Gene id of the gene that encodes it. Genes and TFs that could not be mapped to an Entrez Gene id were removed. This translation yielded 348 unique Entrez Gene ids from the 512 original PWMs. A protein-DNA interaction was written if any of the rows for the gene were in the top 100 predictions in any of the PWM columns matching the TF. This threshold resulted in a total of 59,578 interactions. An expanded set of 514,925 interactions was also generated by relaxing the threshold to the top 1000 predictions per PWM. In both cases interactions were formatted for DREM 3-column format.

Predicted mouse protein-DNA binding interactions were derived from the set of human predictions above that used the top 1000 threshold. Human Entrez Gene ids were translated to orthologous mouse Entrez Gene ids using the Mouse Genome Database (MGD) [1] to map identifiers and the HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee (HGNC) database [8] for any genes MGD could not map. HGNC associated some human ids with dozens of orthologous mouse ids, thus any human id that mapped to more than 5 mouse ids was

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discarded. If a human gene mapped to 2-5 mouse genes, its TF associations were transferred to all of the matching mouse genes. The translated predictions contain 468,319 protein-DNA binding interactions and were formatted for DREM 3-column format.

3. Assessment of TF binding prediction at split nodes with DECOD

In order to test the capabilities of running DECOD on DREM splits, when no TF-gene interaction data is available for a species, we conducted the following experiment. We ran DREM using only the Asbestos human data from the paper. That gave a model that was learnt without TF-gene interaction data. Using the main split at the 6 hour time point, we first computed the list of high scoring TFs using the human TF-gene interaction data set used in the paper as an annotation source (not for learning). That resulted in 36 TFs (enrichment p-value \leq 9E-03) that we grouped into 24 families in table 1. Further, we used DECOD to predict binding motifs in the 871 promoter sequences from the genes in the up regulated path, contrasting 620 promoter sequences in the down regulated paths. DECOD was run with motif width 6-8 and 10 motifs were retrieved for each width. Then STAMP [4] was used to match each motif to known TF matrices in TRANSFAC (version 11.3). All hits with a STAMP E-value $\leq 1.5E$ -03 were discarded, the remaining hits are shown in table 2. Out of the 24 identified TF families DECOD was able to predict 10 (42%) as shown in table 1. We show all the DECOD identified motifs that resemble the real motifs in Fig. 2

Table 1. Analysis of identified transcription factors (TFs) at the 6 hour time point split node. Column 1 contains in each row TF family members identified by DREM using the human TF-gene interaction data for annotation (not learning). TFs with alternative name are shown in brackets. Column 2 shows for which of these TFs at least one family member was identified using DECOD for motif finding and subsequent matching with STAMP, see text.

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FIGURE 2. Display of all DECOD predicted motifs (column 2), that are similar to one of the 24 TF family members from table 1. Column 1 gives the motif width DECOD was run with and column 3 the sequence logo of the TRANSFAC matrix that matched. The TF name (column 4), STAMP E-value (column5) and the enrichment p-value computed with DREM using the TF-gene data as annotation only (column 6) are shown.

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