# Supplement

Disentangling transcription factor binding site complexity

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## Supplement 1: Methodology

The input to Disentangler is always a set of N sequences of fixed length L over alphabet  $\mathcal{A} = \{A, C, G, T\}$ .

We denote the  $\ell$ -th symbol in the *i*-th sequence by  $x_{i,\ell}$ , the *i*-th sequence by  $x_i = (x_{i,1}, \ldots, x_{i,L})$  and the entire data set by  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_N)$ .

We treat all sequences in our data set to be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.), so we can view a single sequence of length L as random variables  $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_L)$ . From modeling perspective, the goal is to find a probability distribution over  $X$ , which we denote by  $P(X)$ .

#### Supplement 1.1: Graphical Models

A Bayesian network [\[1\]](#page-23-0) is a general probabilistic graphical model that consists of a directed acyclic graph  $(DAG)$  G and a set of associated conditional probability parameters  $\theta^{\mathcal{G}}$ . Each node in the graph represents exactly one random variable of interest, and  $\mathcal G$  implies

$$
P(X|\mathcal{G}) = \prod_{\ell=1}^{L} P_{\mathcal{G}}(X_{\ell}|\text{Pa}(X_{\ell})),\tag{1}
$$

where Pa( $X_\ell$ ) returns the parents of node  $X_\ell$  in G. Different DAGs thus encode different models assumption that often differ in their model complexity. Bayesian network structure learning, i.e., inferring a DAG directly from the data that that gives the optimal tradeoff between model complexity and data fit is an NP-hard problem. The problem can be simplified by introducing domain-specific knowledge that puts restrictions on the set of admissable DAGs.



<span id="page-0-0"></span>Figure 1: Probabilistic graphical models for transcription factor binding sites. Specifying the maximal model complexity allows different degrees of proximal and distal dependency. a) PWM model as graphical model b) First-order inhomogeneous Markov model (WAM) c) Second-order inhomogeneous Markov model d) tree-structured Bayesian network e) general Bayesian network.

Some of these are of particular importance for the modeling of biological sequence motifs (Figure [1\)](#page-0-0). First, an empty DAG represents total statistical independence and is thus equivalent to a PWM model [\[2\]](#page-23-1). Second, setting  $Pa(X_\ell) = \{X_{\ell-d}, \ldots, X_{\ell-1}\}\$  yields d-th order inhomogeneous Markov models, where the case of  $d = 1$  is also known as weight array model [\[3\]](#page-23-2). Third, limiting the indegree  $|Pa(X_\ell)| \leq 1$  yields a forest structure, which becomes a tree-structured network when  $|Pa(X_{\ell})| = 1$  holds for all but one sequence positions. Finally, limiting the indegree  $|Pa(X_{\ell})| \leq d$  yields Bayesian network of (maximal) order d.

#### Supplement 1.2: Parsimonious Context Trees

Learning conditional probability distributions in graphical models has the drawback that the number of parameters grows exponentially with the number of parent variable. Hence, dependencies to multiple conditioning variables can only be justified by a large amount of data. One way to circumvent this problem, is to give structure to a conditional distribution, for instance via a context tree [\[4\]](#page-23-3). While being effective to learn, context trees are still somewhat limited in their expressiveness, since they arise from pruning the tree of context words, which corresponds to the parameter space of the model.

A parsimonious context trees [\[5\]](#page-23-4), abbreviated PCT, allows to merge parameters based on the context and thus allows a higher degree of flexibility. A PCT of depth d is formally defined as a rooted, balanced tree that organizes the set of all possible realizations of the parent variables in different groups, represented by the leaves in the tree. Except for the root, each node in PCT is labeled by a non-empty subset of A, while labels of all children of an arbitrary inner node forming a partition of A. The cross product of the labels on each path from a leaf to the root defines a non-empty subset of  $\mathcal{A}^d$  and thus the set cross products from of all leaves of a PCT forms a partition of  $\mathcal{A}^d$ . Examples for PCT and CT, which show the two structural differences PCTs allow, are given in Figure [2.](#page-1-0)



<span id="page-1-0"></span>Figure 2: Examples for context tree (left) and Parsimonious context tree (right) of depth 2 over DNA alphabet. PCTs allow, in contrast to CTs, subtrees below nodes with more than one symbol, which allows context specific-skipping of a variable. They also allow variable grouping of symbols into child nodes of a common parent, whereas CTs allow at most one child node per parent labeled with more than one symbol.

Learning PCTs with a given scoring function in reasonable time is challenging, but can, especially for TFBS data, be solved with recent additions [\[6\]](#page-23-5) to the original dynamic programming algorithm [\[5\]](#page-23-4).

#### Supplement 1.3: Sparse graphical models for modeling TFBS

A PWM model ignores statistical dependencies among sequence positions entirely. Hence, the DAG is fixed and no conditional probability distributions exist, so learning the model requires only fitting the  $3 * L$  free parameters.

As discussed in the previous section, using graphical models such inhomogeneous Markov models or Bayesian networks entails the problem of either over- or underfitting. Hence, we use PCT-augmented variants of them, that allow to effectively take into account proximal and distal dependencies within transcription factor binding motifs.

#### Supplement 1.3.1: Proximal dependence model

We use a dth-order inhomogeneous Markov model that is equipped with a PCTs at each position, which can reduce the actual order well below  $d$ . Here, the DAG (Figure [1\)](#page-0-0) is fixed once  $d$  is selected, but there is, in addition to fitting the parameters, the structure learning task of selecting the optimal PCTs at each position based on the data. This inhomogeneous parsimonious Markov model (iPMM) is core of InMoDe  $[7]$ . In this work, we refer to it as *proximal dependence* model (of order  $d$ ) in order to emphasize the features that are modeled instead of the technical components that it uses.

#### Supplement 1.3.2: Distal dependence model

In analogy, a distal dependence model (of order d) is essentially a Bayesian network with  $|Pa(X_{\ell})| \leq d$ that is also equipped with a PCT for each conditional distribution, hereby assuming that parent variables are ordered according to their position in the sequence. This model resembles variable-order Bayesian networks [\[8\]](#page-23-7), which use traditional context trees [\[4\]](#page-23-3) instead of PCTs. Here, PCTs for all potential pairs of variable and parent-variables are to be learned from the data. In addition the optimal DAG based on the PCT-based local scores needs to be found. For this task, we use Edmonds' algorithm for  $d = 1$  [\[9,](#page-23-8) [10\]](#page-23-9) and dynamic programming [\[11\]](#page-23-10) otherwise. Learning additionally requires selecting the optimal network structure based on learned PCTs,

#### Supplement 1.4: Mixture models

The key idea behind a mixture model is to model  $P(X)$  not by a single distribution, but to assume the existence of K component models. However, since we do not know which of the K models a particular sequence is associated with, we model this as a latent variable  $U \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$ . Hence,

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
P(X|\Theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k P_k(X|S_k, \theta_k)
$$
\n(2)

where  $\alpha_k = P(U = k)$  denotes the probability of latent variable U assuming component k, and  $S_k$  and  $\theta_k$  denote the structure and all parameters in the k-th component model.

While dependency type and order could differ among the  $K$  mixture components in principle, we focus on the simple special case where all components are from the same model class. We thus consider mixtures of PWM models, mixture of dth-order proximal dependence models, and mixtures of dth-order distal dependence models.

In Equation [2,](#page-2-0) which defines the probability of an observed data point given the model, the number of mixture components  $K$  is given. When learning a mixture model,  $K$  can also be a user-defined input parameter  $[7]$ . A more sophisticated approach is to estimate K directly from data, typically from a small selection of candidate values, so that  $\hat{K} \in \{K_{\min}, \ldots, K_{\max}\}\$  [\[12\]](#page-23-11). In this work, we always consider  $K_{\min} = 1$ , so that only  $K_{max}$  remains as user-input.

#### Supplement 1.5: FAB algorithm

The most flexible model combination under consideration is mixture model of up to  $K_{\text{max}}$  components, each of which can be a d-th order distal dependence models. For each component, we denote the model structure, which includes DAG and PCTs, by  $S_k$ , and the set of required conditional probability parameters  $\theta_k$ .

The learning task is thus to find (i) the number of mixture components  $\hat{K}$ , (ii) the model structures  $\hat{S}_k$  for each of the  $\hat{K}$  components, and (iii) the conditional probability parameters  $\hat{\theta}_k$ . Here, we use the factorized information criterion (FIC) as objective function [\[13\]](#page-23-12), which is an approximation of the marginal log-likelihood of the mixture model. In practice, FIC cannot be computed exactly, since latent variables in u, indicating the mixture component assignment, are involved. However, assuming a variational distribution q over the latent variables u, a lower-bound  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{q}, \Theta|\mathbf{x}) \leq FIC(\Theta|\mathbf{x})$  can be computed. It is given by

<span id="page-2-1"></span>
$$
\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{q},\Theta|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{N} q_{i,k} \log P_k(x_i|\theta_k) - \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\mathcal{D}_k}{2} \log N - \frac{\mathcal{D}_\alpha}{2} \log N - H(\mathbf{q})
$$
(3)

Here,  $\mathcal{D} = |\alpha - 1|$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_k$  denotes the number of free parameters in  $\theta_k$ , and  $H(\mathbf{q})$  denotes the entropy of **q**.

For the special case of  $K = 1$ , the variational distribution  $q = 1$  is fixed, so Equation [3](#page-2-1) yields FIC exactly which turns out to coincide with the BIC score [\[14\]](#page-23-13) for a single-component model. For  $K > 1$ , Equation [3](#page-2-1) can be evaluated in closed form for arbitrary but fixed choices of q, but it may be a loose lower bound to FIC if q is far from the true distribution. However, given some initial guess for it, we can iteratively update model parameters and variational distribution. Hereby, we monotonically improve  $\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{q}^{(t)},\Theta|\mathbf{x})$  for increasing t until it convergences to a local maximum.

Assuming an initial variational distribution  $q^{(0)}$  over **u**, we iteratively execute the following four steps:

$$
q_{ik}^{(t)} \qquad \propto \qquad \alpha_k^{(t-1)} P(x_i | \theta_k^{(t-1)}) \exp \frac{-\mathcal{D}_k}{2\alpha_k^{(t-1)}N} \tag{4}
$$

$$
\alpha_k^{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^N q_{i,k}^{(t)}/N
$$
\n(5)

$$
S_k^{(t)} = \arg \max_{S_k} \sum_{i=1}^N q_{i,k}^{(t)} \ln P(x_i | \hat{\theta}_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{q}^{(t)}) - \frac{\mathcal{D}_k}{2} \ln \sum_{i=1}^N q_{i,k}^{(t)}
$$
(6)

[where  $\hat{\theta}_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{q}^{(t)})$  is the Maximum Likelihood estimate of  $\theta_k$  on data **x**, weighted by **q**]

$$
\theta_k^{(t)} = \arg \max_{\theta_k} \sum_{i=1}^N q_{i,k}^{(t)} \ln P(x_i | \theta_k^{(t)})
$$
\n(7)

This factorized asymptotic Bayesian (FAB) inference algorithm [\[13\]](#page-23-12) is very similar in spirit to the EM algorithm [\[15\]](#page-23-14), which it actually contains as special case when all model structures  $S_1, \ldots, S_{K_{\text{max}}}$  are fixed. Such a practically relevant special case within this work is when all component models are PWM models. As the fourth step of the FAB algorithm shows, parameter estimation with given structure is essentially a weighted maximum likelihood estimation.

The FAB algorithm terminates when the objective function (Equation [3\)](#page-2-1) improves, within two iterations steps, by less than a user-specified threshold (in all case studies  $10^{-6}$  is used). Since the algorithm finds only a local maximum of the target function, it needs to be started multiple times with different initializations. However, depending on the size and the nature of the data set as well as the number of component models and their maximal complexity, different amounts of restarts are needed to approximate the global optimum with some confidence.

IMD learns at every step only a two-component PWM mixture model, which optimizes quickly. Here, we use constantly 100 restarts, but terminate a single restarts that does not reach the the threshold of  $10^{-6}$  after 60 seconds, so that a single recursion of IMD takes 6,000 second in the absolute worst case. For MCA, we use the following criteria, which turned out to give reasonable compromise between invested time and quality of the solution in preliminary studies:

- Three restarts at least for every model.
- As many additional restarts as possible within a given time limit.
- Terminate earlier when the best optimum was found within the first  $1\%$  of iteration steps.

The FAB algorithm is started with a maximal value  $K_{\text{max}}$  of mixture components and has a shrinking function [\[13\]](#page-23-12) that reduces the number of components if they are not supported by the data. To be precise, we remove a component k, if  $\sum_{i=1}^{N} q_{i,k} < \delta$ . In the current implementation, we use  $\delta = \max(3, 0.01*N)$ . However, shrinking is some effective only after an excessive of running time due to the complexity of the component models. In order to select number of mixture components and component complexity simultaneously, it is thus needed to start the optimization with all possible values of  $K \leq K_{\text{max}}$  and pick the best result. Since the running time is dominated by the run of  $K_{\text{max}}$ , and most applications, such as IMD and MCA need different values of  $K_{\text{max}}$  anyway, this does not constitute a lot additional effort.

## Supplement 2: Tools used in case studies

#### Supplement 2.1: NPLB

No Promoter Left Behind (NPLB) is a tool for characterizing promoter architectures [\[16\]](#page-23-15), but can be also be used to cluster a set of pre-aligned binding sites, including a model selection step to infer the optimal the number of clusters.

We use the latest version available at <https://github.com/NarlikarLab/NPLB> for building a command line version of the tool.

#### Supplement 2.2: DIVERSITY

DIVERSITY [\[17\]](#page-23-16) is a motif discovery tool that attempts to find multiple modes, which are different PWM models, of TFBS binding from ChIP-seq data. A webserver is available at:

<http://diversity.ncl.res.in>

We use the latest version available at <https://narlikarlab.github.io/DIVERSITY> for building a command line version of the tool.

#### Supplement 2.3: InMoDe

InMoDe [\[7\]](#page-23-6) is a collection of seven tools for learning, leveraging, and visualizing intra-motif dependencies within DNA binding sites and similar functional nucleotide sequences.

We use the command line application, which is available as runnable .jar at:

<http://jstacs.de/index.php/InMoDe>

For the motif discovery studies, we use the subtool "FlexibleMoDe" with default parameters, which always returns two motifs. We consider the one that represents the majority of sequences as primary motif of interest for further analysis with Disentangler.

#### Supplement 2.4: Slim-Dimont

Sparse local inhomogeneous mixture (Slim) models [\[18\]](#page-23-17) are statistical models for discrete sequences (as for instance DNA sequences) that allow for simultanous discriminative learning of features and model parameters. Slim models can be used in combination with Dimont for de-novo motif discovery.

We use the command line application, which is available as runnable .jar at:

<http://jstacs.de/index.php/Slim>

If the tool returns more than one motif, we consider the first motif as primary motif of interest for further analysis with Disentangler.

#### Supplement 2.5: BaMMmotif

Bayesian Markov Model motif discovery tool (BaMMmotif) [\[19\]](#page-23-18) is an expectation maximization algorithm for the de novo discovery of enriched motifs as modelled by higher-order Markov models.

Following the suggestions from the authors, we use the latest version BaMMmotif2, available from <https://github.com/soedinglab/BaMMmotif2>

It requires initial seeds to start motif discovery, which can be, according to suggestions from the authors, be obtained by first running another motif discovery software called PenGmotif, available from <https://github.com/soedinglab/PEnG-motif>

If the sequential application of these tools returns more than one motif, we consider the first motif as primary motif of interest for further analysis with Disentangler.

## Supplement 3: Data extraction

## Supplement 3.1: JASPAR

When extracting data from the 2016 Jaspar release [\[20\]](#page-23-19), we pick all TF data sets that have actual sequence data, as opposed to sole weight matrices, available, and download the sites from

<http://jaspar2016.genereg.net/html/DOWNLOAD/sites.tar.gz>

For each data set, we extract the motif alignment proposed by the database, which is indicated by uppercase letters in the sequence files. We further process the data by two simple steps for removing artifacts. First, we discard all binding sites that contain ambiguous nucleotides. Second, we verify for each data set that position-specific mononucleotide counts in the aligned binding sites indeed reproduce the weight matrix given in the database. This is not true for a few data sets from  $\tilde{C}$ . elegans, where all sites that were originally located on the forward strand are shifted into 3' direction by 2bp in relation to those that were originally located on the negative strand. We thus correct for this shift during the data extraction in order to avoid artificial, shift-induced intra-motif dependencies. After having completed these pre-processing steps, we discard all data sets that contain less than 100 sequences and finally retain the following 158 data sets. Data sets highlighted in boldface are discussed in the main manuscript in particular detail.





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### Supplement 3.2: GTRD

We use ChIP-seq metaclusters for human and mouse from GTRD [\[21\]](#page-23-20), available from: [http://gtrd.biouml.org/downloads/current/human\\_meta\\_clusters.interval.gz](http://gtrd.biouml.org/downloads/current/human_meta_clusters.interval.gz) [http://gtrd.biouml.org/downloads/current/mouse\\_meta\\_clusters.interval.gz](http://gtrd.biouml.org/downloads/current/mouse_meta_clusters.interval.gz)

Metaclusters aggregate multiple ChIP-seq experiments and evaluation pipelines, yielding a unique data set for each TF, which is identified by its TFclass [\[22\]](#page-23-21) ID. We associate TFclass IDs with JASPAR IDs according to the transcription factor name or variants thereof.

However, not all TF names in JASPAR have a unique TFclass ID, and not all TFs that have a TFclass ID are represented have meta clusters in GTRD. For all JASPAR data sets, where both TFclass ID can be identified, and a metacluster is available, the TFclass ID is given in the table in the previous section. These are the datasets-pairs that are used in the validation study (Figure 6C in the manuscript).

For each match, we extract the sequences for the metacluster from the human/mouse genome, and treat it as positive data set. For each positive data set, we generate control data by learning a second-order homogeneous Markov chain, and sampling 100,000 sequences of length  $\overline{L}$  from it, where  $\overline{L}$  is the mean sequence length in the positive data set.

#### Supplement 3.3: ENCODE

we use all data sets in the Uniform TFBS track of the ENCODE project [\[23\]](#page-23-22), which are available at <http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/encodeDCC/wgEncodeAwgTfbsUniform>

as input data for motif discovery. The data sets differ in TF (antibody), cell line, treatment, or producing lab, but have been processed with a uniform pipeline, yielding a ranked peak list with corresponding enrichment scores. For each data set, we pick the top 5, 000 peaks and extract, for each peak, a 500bp sequence fragment (250bp upstream/downstream from the peak center) the human genome, version hg19. Extraction is done with a perl script

[http://www.jstacs.de/downloads/extract\\_data.pl](http://www.jstacs.de/downloads/extract_data.pl)

available with documentation at

<http://jstacs.de/index.php/Slim>

in order to ensure that the sequence files have a .fasta annotation that compatible with Slim-Dimont [\[18\]](#page-23-17). This information, which contains sequence weights, is ignored by the other motif discovery tools.

## Supplement 4: Additional results

This section presents (i) additional figures that could not be included in the main manuscript for space constraints, and (ii) some additional studies that address secondary aspects of the topic.

#### Supplement 4.1: Preliminary study: Finding optimal number of PWMs

We consider the following simple model selection task: Given a set of pre-aligned and strand-oriented TFBS, select the optimal number PWMs for modeling the data when choosing from a pre-defined range  $(1,\ldots,K_{\max}).$ 

We compare the model selection results from Disentangler to two other sequence analysis tools that, albeit originally proposed for slightly different use cases, contain the given task as special case. NPLB [\[16\]](#page-23-15) can be constrained to the given task by setting its  $\lambda$ -parameter to 0 and the minimal and maximal number of architectures to 1 and  $K_{\text{max}}$ . DIVERSITY [\[17\]](#page-23-16) is directly applicable to the given task when the motifs widths are fixed to the length of the input sequences, and the minimal maximal number of modes to 1 and  $K_{\text{max}}$ .



<span id="page-8-0"></span>Figure 3: Cross-comparison of the predictions from Disentangler, NPLB, and DIVERSITY for determining the optimal among up to  $K_{\text{max}} = 5$  PWMs. The area of each circle is proportional to number of data sets.

We apply these three tools to find the optimal number of PWM-motifs for 158 JASPAR data sets. While Disentangler and NLPB give a solution even for very large data sets in a few hours at most, DIVERSITY did not finish computations for nine data sets, all with  $N > 25,000$ , within seven days. For these nine data sets, both Disentangler and NPLB output the maximal number of five motifs to be optimal. For the remaining 148 data sets, we plot the cross-comparisons among the predictions in Figure [3.](#page-8-0) NPLB and Disentangler agree in their prediction for the majority of data sets, and in the case of disagreement, the number of predicted motifs varies only slightly. DIVERSITY, however, appears to be more conservative in this setting, predicting in many cases substantially less motifs than the two other tools, but still more than one for the majority of data sets.

The observations are relevant in two aspects. First, the FIC-based learning approach used in Disentangler is – when being limited to PWM models as mixture components – at least as liberal as these of comparable tools, so it does not systematically under-estimate the number of motifs. Second, limiting the models to PWMs leads in many cases to the prediction of multiple models due to additional statistical features in the data beyond PWM assumptions. Since each data set can be assumed to contain binding sites of only one TF and little evidence for intermixing exists here, selecting the optimal number of PWM models alone cannot accurately detect inter-motif heterogeneity, which justifying the need for a new method like IMD.

## Supplement 4.2: Intra-motif complexity measure on JASPAR data

Distribution of the intra-motif complexity measure over 158 JASPAR data sets for different models. The rightmost column shows how many times a particular model is optimal. These values sum up to 153, the PWM model is optimal for the remaining five data sets.



According to MCA, mixtures of PWM models are a surprisingly poor representation of intra-motif complexity average, even a five-component mixture hardly outperforms simple proximal dependency. A likely explanation is that weak dependencies cannot be effectively represented with a mixture of PWMs. Even the two-component mixture model requires, compared to a single PWM model, twice as many model parameters to be fitted, whereas dependency models that contain a local structure such as PCTs can spend additional parameters only when needed. For some data sets, PWM mixtures are a better representation than proximal dependency, though. One example are motifs with a conserved core of three nucleotides or more, where a mixture model can take into account these features through multiple components. Proximal dependency cannot model correlations among both flanks surrounding the core, whereas a mixture model can take into account these features through multiple components. However, distal dependency captures the same features often in a more effective way. Compared to proximal dependency of the same order, distal dependency never yields a lower intra-motif complexity, as the model classes are nested. The more relevant comparison between proximal and distal dependency concerns the magnitude of improvement achieved by the latter. Here, we observe an increase in intra-motif complexity of about 33% on average, so only 2/3 of dependencies can be utilized by Markov models are variants thereof. Third-order distal dependency performs overall best, with a median intra-motif complexity of 2.5. Mixtures with first-order distal dependency components fail to improve on that, but they are faster to learn when the motif is long.

#### Supplement 4.3: Dist(3) visualization for DUX4

The following figure is an addition to Figure 7 of the main manuscript. It visualizes the third-order distal dependence model for the DUX4 data set from JASPAR. It achieves the highest intra-motif complexity measure as well as the highest TPR for classifying the corresponding GTRD data set.



#### Supplement 4.4: Benchmark validation on SwissRegulon TFBS

The main benchmark studies rely on data sets of pre-aligned TFBS from JASPAR. For further validation, we repeat the benchmark with pre-aligned TFBS from SwissRegulon [\[24\]](#page-23-23). [http://swissregulon.](http://swissregulon.unibas.ch/data/hg19/hg19_sites.gff.gz) [unibas.ch/data/hg19/hg19\\_sites.gff.gz](http://swissregulon.unibas.ch/data/hg19/hg19_sites.gff.gz)

The alignments following the tag "Sequence" were extracted and compiled into individual data sets according to the tag "Motif". This preprocessing yields 683 data sets with the following distributions of sequence length  $L$  and sample size  $N$ :



#### Supplement 4.4.1: Benchmarking IMD

We follow the exact experimental setup that produces Figure 5A in the main manuscript. For this purpose we construct intermixtures from data sets of same length L for all possible  $7 \leq L \leq 17$  (there are only few data sets for lengths longer or shorter than that). Using the intermixture threshold  $T = 0.19$ , we obtain the following results. The first plot below is an average over all sequence lengths, the remaining plots are specific for each data set group. The results demonstrate that IMD also works on data from SwissRegulon and that the threshold T is a robust choice that neither systematically over- nor underestimates the number of intermixed data sets.



#### Supplement 4.4.2: Benchmarking MCA

Next, we apply MCA and compute the intra-motif complexity measure for each model under consideration and each data set: In contrast to data sets extracted from JASPAR, the vast majority of data sets

in SwissRegulon show only a very small amount of intra-motif complexity, which is likely due to the particular computational pipeline that did predict them. For further benchmarking, we thus focus on the 66 data which have (i)  $\Delta > 1$  and (ii) an associated data set in GTRD (identified by TFClass ID, in the same way as for JASPAR data). For each of these data sets, we compute the correlation between  $\Delta_m$ and the predictive performance on GTRD meta peaks.

Due to the small intra-motif complexities, the models differ only slightly. As a consequence, there is a large number of insignificant correlations. The positive correlations outnumber the negative ones, but only by a relative small margin, even when limiting the data sets only to the 10 data sets with the highest ∆, Hence, very strong conclusions cannot be drawn based on the available data.



#### Supplement 4.5: Disentangler applied to output of Slim-Dimont

The following tables shows sequence logos of the primary motif reported by Slim-Dimont with default parameters on ENCODE ChIP-seq data, together with the IMD clusters, restricted to these cases where IMD return  $\tilde{M} \in (2,3)$ . The ID given the in the table is the part of the filename that uniquely identifies a given dataset within the Uniform TFBS track. In other words, the filename of a data set is given by wgEncodeAwgTfbsIDUniPk.narrowPeak.gz

Data sets highlighted in boldface are the examples that are discussed in detail.















#### Supplement 4.6: Additional intermixture types



There are three further noteworthy intermixture types not mentioned in the main manuscript.

Some data sets stem from ChIP-experiments against non-specific TFs or even the RNA polymerase for different cell lines and conditions. In such cases, we may not expect to find an overrepresented motif at all, even though motif discovery algorithms often report one. For Pol, we obtain indeed a fairly uninformative sequence logo. IMD separates a weak TATA motif from the remaining sequences, although the decision is close ( $\Phi$  is only marginally above T).

For JunD the two clusters are variants of the same motif that differ by inclusion/exclusion of a central cytosine. Such a variable spacer has been used as a motivation for incorporating intra-motif dependencies into motif discovery [\[18\]](#page-23-17). Provided JunD indeed binds to both motifs alike, IMD makes here an incorrect prediction. These cases are rare, all but one are either Jun or JunD data sets.

There are also some cases in which the predicted binding sites are an intermix of similar sites in different shifts or strand orientations, such as MEF2C. Such purely computational artifacts can be caused by imperfect motif discovery (local optima) or by inappropriate input parameters. One example for the latter are all 12 data sets for NRSF (see table above). This TF can recognize an exceptionally long motif of more than 20bp that can not be fully captured with motif width 15.

## Supplement 4.7: Disentangler applied to output of DIVERSITY

This section shows additional figures from the application of Disentangler on DIVERSITY output that were left out of the main manuscript for space constraints.

#### Supplement 4.7.1: CTCF

For the ChIP-seq data set of CTCF (K562 cell line, ID=UwK562Ctcf), the following nine modes are reported to be optimal according to DIVERSITY:



After joining the binding sites of mode 5 and 6, IMD reveals that all these sites are bound by the same factor ( $\Phi = 0.079$ ). Applying MCA yields the following assessment of intra-motif complexity:



Visualizations of winning model  $(Dist(3))$ , baseline PWM, and two-component PWM mixture:



For studying the prediction performance in different cell lines, we use all ENCODE ChIP-seq data sets from the Uniform TFBS track that are annotated with Antibody=CTCF and Lab=UW.

The performance measure is the true positive rate under a false positive rate of 0.01:



#### Supplement 4.7.2: YY1

For the ChIP-seq data set of YY1 (K562 cell line, ID=SydhK562Yy1Ucd), the following nine modes are reported to be optimal according to DIVERSITY:



After joining the binding sites of mode 3, 5, 6, 9, and 10 into one data set, IMD revals that all these sites are bound by the same factor ( $\Phi = 0.13$ ).



Visualizations of winning model, baseline PWM, and five-component PWM mixture:

Model Visualization  
\n
$$
PWM = \frac{2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{
$$

For studying the prediction performance in different cell lines, we use all ENCODE ChIP-seq data sets from the Uniform TFBS track that are annotated with Antibody=YY1.

Due to the small number of data sets, we do not focus on a single lab. The performance measure is the true positive rate under a false positive rate of 0.01:



#### Supplement 4.8: Stability analysis

Another question worthwhile to investigate is how stable the solutions of IMD and MCA are for individual data sets. To address this issue, we pick nine sets of aligned TFBS that are discussed in the manuscript/supplement in more detail:

- DUX4 from JASPAR (manuscript Figure 5)
- the six intermixture examples: c-Fos, SRF, and TFIIIC (manuscript Figure 7), Pol2, JunD, and MEF2C (Supplement 4.6)
- the two merged datasets from DIVERSITY output: CTCF and YY1 (manuscript Figure 9)

For each of these cases, we carry out bootstrapping by sampling (with replacement) ten data sets of same size from the original data set. For each of the resulting  $10 \times 9$  resamples, we apply both subtools and discuss the results below.

#### Supplement 4.8.1: Stability of IMD

We observe that IMD is very stable and yields the same intermixture number as the original data set for the majority of cases (90%):



One exception is SRF, where in 7 of 10 resamples, the second cluster which contains putative nonfunctional sequences, is divided again in two different clusters. For example, SRF resample 2 yields the following three IMD-clusters:



Such a behavior is uncritical, as the purpose of IMD is to remove possible artifacts from the motif of interest, and that is accomplished for SRF in every case. For TFIIIC, we observe that no intermixture is detected in two of ten resamples, which can be attributed to the fact that the intermixture measure of the original data set is only marginally above the threshold of 0.19 (cf. manuscript Figure 7C). Small fluctuations in the composition of the data set may thus lead to a different decision, but except for this close case, intermixtures (or absence thereof) is always recognized as such.

#### Supplement 4.8.2: Stability of MCA

For MCA, we plot the intra-motif complexity for each TF and each model, averaged over the ten resamples. The error bars on top of the barplots indicate double standard error. We observe that the assessment of different models by MCA is stable for each data set as the standard errors are small:



## Supplement 5: Disentangler software

Disentangler is implemented in Java using the Jstacs library [\[25\]](#page-23-24) and requires an existent Java installation (8u74 or later).

### Supplement 5.1: Subtools

The software contains the two subtools of Disentangler, following the terminology of the manuscript they are called "Intermixture detection" and "Motif complexity analysis". In addition, there is a tool "SequenceScan" that can be used to search for motif hits within target sequences based on models that are returned by "Motif complexity analysis".

All tools expect a set of aligned, gapless, TFBS of the same length as input. If the content of the input file starts with '>', it is interpreted as FastA file. Otherwise it is interpreted as plain text, where every line contains a single sequence. The input expects upper- and lower case letters of the standard DNA alphabet A,C,G,T. If other symbols from the IUPAC code (such as N) are encountered, they are replaced by a random sample from the distribution of A,C,G,T in the data set.

#### Supplement 5.1.1: Intermixture detection

If "JSD weights" is disabled, the intermixture measure is computed on a non-weighted Jenson-Shannon divergence. Option included for experimental purposes, for practical use keeping the default is strongly recommended. Smaller values for "Restarts", "Time limit" and "Termination threshold" can speed up every recursive step, which can be beneficial for testing purposes, but they may affect quality of the results. The tool returns a text file with the intermixture number and all clusters produced by IMD as text files of the binding sites and sequence logos of the mononucleotide statistics. The values for the intermixture measure at each recursive step can be found in the protocol.

#### Supplement 5.1.2: Motif complexity analysis

The tool allows to learn of proximal/distal dependency models and mixtures thereof. Note: Learning distal dependence models of order greater than one can be very time- and memory consuming if the input sequences are long. It is not recommended for motifs of length greater than 20. The tool returns a text-file containing the intra-motif complexity measure of the data set, a visualization of the learned model, and a storable (.xml) file that can be used as input to "Sequence scan". The mixture weights and model complexities of each component can be found in the protocol.

#### Supplement 5.1.3: Sequence scan

This tool is a variant of the InMoDe ScanApp [\[7\]](#page-23-6), with increased support for different types of models, that is, mixture models and distal dependence models. "Input model" needs to be an model file (in .xml format) produced by "Motif complexity analysis". The "FPR" pertains here to the number of sequence that have at least one hit. The tool returns a list with coordinates of motif hits as well as the extracted binding sites.

#### Supplement 5.2: User interfaces

There are two versions of a runnable .jar that differ only in the user interface.

#### Supplement 5.2.1: GUI

The graphical user interface (GUI) DisentanglerGUI. jar allows us to run Disentangler in an interactive mode locally on a desktop computer. It is sufficient to explore the functionality for testing purposes and to perform single analyses. For larger studies involving more than a few data sets, it is recommended to use the command line interface (next section).

The GUI can be started by calling

java -jar DisentanglerGUI.jar

or by double-clicking on the .jar-file.

#### Supplement 5.2.2: CLI

The command line interface (CLI) is contained in DisentanglerCLI.jar. An overview over is obtained by calling

```
java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar
which yields
Available tools:
        imd - Intermixture detection
        mca - Motif complexity analysis
        scan - Sequence scan
Syntax: java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar <toolname> [<parameter=value> ...]
Further info about the tools is given with
        java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar <toolname> info
Tool parameters are listed with
        java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar <toolname>
 Calling DisentanglerCLI.jar with the corresponding tool name, e.g.,
java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar imd
yields a list of input parameters (as the mandatory input file is missing):
Parameters of tool "Intermixture detection" (imd, version: 1.0):
i - Input data (The file containing the input data.) = null
  it - Intermixture threshold (Threshold on intermixture measure.,
valid range = [0.0, 1.0], default = 0.19) = 0.19w - Weighted JSD (If enabled, JSD is computed as weighted average.,
 default = true) = truen - Number of restarts (The total number of restarts to be carried out.,
 valid range = [1, 10000], default = 100) = 100
t - Time limit (Upper time limit for termination of an individual run in seconds.,
  valid range = [0.01, 100000.0], default = 60.0) = 60.0
tt - Termination threshold (Stop FAB algorithm at this FIC-difference.,
  valid range = [1.0E-10, 1.0], default = 1.0E-6) = 1.0E-6
outdir - The output directory, defaults to the current working directory (.) = .At least one parameter has not been set (correctly).
```
The command

java -jar DisentanglerCLI.jar imd i=test.txt

runs IMD with default threshold on the given input file.

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