

Supplementary Fig. 1: DNA sequence and RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) features for each bin as a function of whether the bin contains a polyadenylation (polyA) site. a, The percent of 100 base bins containing the listed DNA sequence feature stratified by the bin not containing (blue) or containing (orange) a polyA site. **b,** Distribution of the standardized ratios for the intra-bin RNA-Seq features for each 100 base bin stratified by the bin not containing (blue) or containing (orange) a polyA site (each RNA-Seq ratio feature was standardized using the training set). Data shown are from the Human Brain Reference dataset.

Supplementary Fig. 2: The machine learning pipeline used to build aptardi is robust to

different datasets. a, Prediction models built on a given dataset perform comparably across all datasets. Colors denote the dataset used to build the predictive model, and the x-axis indicates the model used to calculate the average precision (y-axis) on the given dataset. **b**, Model performance is consistent similar the training, testing, and analysis (entire dataset without merging modified 3' terminal exons) sets.

Supplementary Fig. 3: Aptardi improves the classification confusion matrix compared to StringTie. a, The confusion matrix from the aptardi prediction model generated from the Human Brain Reference (HBR) dataset improved the positive predictive value by increasing the proportion of true positive tests among positive aptardi results compared to **b,** the confusion matrix from StringTie on the same dataset. Classifications on each 100 base increment (i.e. bin) included in the analysis were compared. For the aptardi prediction model, its predictions for the presence (Yes) or absence (No) of a polyadenylation (polyA site) site were determined using the default probability threshold (0.5). For StringTie, the presence or absence of any 3' terminus within the bin from its transcriptome was used as positive and negative predictions, respectively. True polyA sites were taken from the HBR PolyA-Seq data.

Supplementary Fig. 4: Simple depiction of the a, intra- and b, inter-bin comparisons used to engineer RNA sequencing features. For the **a,** intra-bin comparison, the bin of interest (default 100 bases) was divided into three roughly equally sized regions – R1, R2, and R3 – representing the beginning, middle, and end region of the bin, respectively. For the **b,** inter-bin comparisons, the bin of interest was considered R2, and the 100 bases upstream and downstream the bin were considered R1 and R3, respectively.

Supplementary Fig. 5: The data processing pipeline used by aptardi prior to machine learning.

The 3' terminal exons of input transcripts are processed by aptardi (yellow) followed by feature extraction (blue).

Supplementary Fig. 6: Flowchart depicting the differential expression analysis between the two inbred rat strains, BNLx and SHR. Yellow boxes denote raw data, green boxes denote data that we generated, and blue boxes denote the two transcriptomes separately subjected to RSEM (RNA-Seq by Expectation Maximization) for comparison.

Supplementary Fig. 7: Graphical depiction of the transcript processing steps. The 3' terminal exon of a transcript derived from the original transcriptome (blue) is first extended 10,000 bases plus two times the bin size (orange). If the extension overlapped the 5' exon of a neighboring transcript on the same strand (red), the extension was reduced to remove the overlap (green). Next the RNA-sequencing (RNA-Seq) coverage at single nucleotide resolution was used to shorten the 3' terminal exon to only include regions with detectable coverage relative to the start of the 3' terminal exon (purple). Finally, the 3' terminal exon was rounded up to the nearest value evenly divisible by the bin size for compatibility with machine learning (yellow).

Supplementary Fig. 8: Results from truncating modified 3' terminal exon extensions based on transcript coverage. Transcripts were shortened based on coverage as described in Transcript processing section of Methods. The base position relative to the start of the terminal exon is given on the x-axis. Over half the modified 3' terminal exons were shortened to <= 1,000 bases. A base position value of zero indicates the transcript was removed entirely because its modified 3' terminal exon did not meet the minimum coverage requirements. Data shown are from the Human Brain Reference dataset.

Supplementary Table 1: Datasets used to evaluate aptardi.

Supplementary Table 2: Comparison of the positive predictive value (PPV) and number of polyadenylation (polyA) sites annotated between the original transcriptome, aptardi modified transcriptome, TAPAS¹ , and APARENT² at different base distance cutoffs and utilizing different polyA site annotation databases. A prediction was considered a true positive if it was within the given base distance cutoff of an annotated polyA site. Annotated polyA sites were taken from the human brain reference (HBR) PolyA-Seq data, PolyASite 2.0³, and PolyA_DB⁴. The original transcriptome was generated from the HBR dataset, and predictions by aptardi, TAPAS, and APARENT were made using these transcript structures. Namely, TAPAS used the HBR RNA-Seq data, APARENT used the hg38/GRCh38 reference human genome, and aptardi used both.

Supplementary Table 3: RNA sequencing alignment results for mouse tissue analysis. Reads

were aligned to the mm10/GRCm38 mouse reference genome with HISAT2 (v.2.1.0).

Supplementary Table 4: Few polyadenylation (polyA) sites share a 100 base region with

another polyA site. Since aptardi makes predictions in 100 base increments, sites within 100

bases of one another cannot be distinguished. Data shown are from the Human Brain

Reference dataset.

Supplementary Table 5: RNA sequencing alignment results for each sample. Reads were

aligned to each sample's respective genome with HISAT2 (v. 2.1.0).

Supplementary Table 6: RNA sequencing alignment results for the CFIm25 knockdown

analysis. Reads were aligned to the hg38/GRCh38 human reference genome with HISAT2 (v.

 $2.1.0$).

Supplementary Table 7: The transcript processing steps increase the number of

polyadenylation sites included in aptardi analysis. The number of unique polyadenylation sites

captured at each step is shown, along with the category from which the site was derived.

Supplementary Table 8: Summary of engineered DNA sequence features.

*Start = 100 bases upstream bin start, end = 100 bases downstream bin end

Supplementary Methods

Transcript processing.

Modified 3' terminal exons were refined using an approach similar to that described by Ye et al.⁵ and Miura et al.⁶ as follows. If the average coverage of the first X bases (X = bin size) of the modified 3' terminal exon was less than 10% of the entire transcript's average coverage and/or the modified 3' terminal exon was not at least three times the bin size (default 100 bases), the transcript was removed. Otherwise the transcript's modified 3' terminal exon was scanned 5' to 3' using a sliding window equal to the bin size until the following metrics were less than 5% of the average coverage of the first bases equal to the bin size of the modified 3' terminal exon: 1) 80% of the bases in the current bin, 2) the average coverage of the previous bin, 3) the average coverage of the subsequent bin, and 4) the coverage of the current base (i.e. first base in the current bin). This strategy is robust to poor local coverage that can occur in RNA-Seq data (e.g. GC bias). The base that meets these criteria defines the end of the modified 3' terminal exon for the transcript, i.e. this base is not considered a transcript stop site but rather defines the 3' end of the region that will be explored by aptardi. For compatibility with machine learning, where predictions are made on a set bin size (i.e. 100 base bins as the default), each modified 3' terminal exon was rounded up to the nearest value evenly divisible by the bin size at the 3' end. Supplementary Fig. 7 graphically depicts these transcript processing steps. Note that since the coverage of the current and subsequent bins are used when refining modified 3' terminal exons, the longest possible 3' modified terminal exon is two times the bin size less than its total length.

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To evaluate the impact of transcript processing on the original transcriptome fed to aptardi, we first ascertained the number of unique polyadenylation (polyA) sites captured at each step and further determined from which of the following three categories each was derived: 1) the original reconstruction terminal exon, 2) the extension step, or 3) both (1) and (2) as a result of overlaps (Supplementary Table 8). The extension step doubled the number of polyA sites captured. After subtracting extensions overlapping a neighboring transcript's start, the number of polyA sites in (3) was halved. This suggests the extension step resulted in extensions long enough to encompass entire neighboring transcripts, supporting the need to subtract overlap. Shrinking extension length once again based on transcript coverage (see Transcript processing section in Methods) reduced the number of polyA sites captured in (2) by more than a third and removed 7,598 transcripts from analysis (Supplementary Fig. 8). This decrease is large but likely necessary to ensure polyA sites captured by a given transcript plus extension confidently belong to that extension and is being expressed. Overall, more than 7,000 novel transcript stop sites were included in aptardi analysis though transcript processing.

DNA sequence features.

All DNA sequence features were encoded as binary indicators to indicate presence (1) or absence (-1) in each bin (default 100 bases).

For each of the four polyadenylation signals (PAS's) – 1) AATAAA, 2) ATTAAA, 3) AGTAAA and any of 4) AAGAAA, AAAAAG, AATACA, TATAAA, GATAAA, AATATA, CATAAA, AATAGA – a sliding six base window was scanned from -35 bases upsteam the bin start to -7 bases upstream the

base end in single nucleotide increments. If any single hexamer matched the given PAS, it was encoded 1, otherwise -1.

In general, the 100 bases upstream and downstream the bin, as well as the bin itself (300 bases total for the default 100 base bin size) were used for the DNA sequence elements features; however, the specific region examined for each DNA sequence element varied by the given feature and whether a PAS was present. If more than one PAS was present, the PAS that dictated the region probed was first by priority in the order listed above, i.e. if AATAAA and ATTAAA were present, the location of AATAAA was used, and next by the first occurrence of the location, i.e. if AATAAA was present multiple times, the location of the 5' most signal was used.

The following DNA sequence elements were evaluated: 5) a distal downstream G-rich region, a proximal downstream region enriched in 6) T, 7) GT/TG, and 8) GTGT/TGTG, an intermediate 9) T-rich region, an upstream region enriched in 10) T and 11) TGTA/TATA, and a surrounding 12) AT-rich region. A similar sliding window strategy was utilized, but here the number of windows matching the element to the number of windows not matching the element, i.e. its frequency, was compared to an enrichment threshold value to determine if the given element was considered enriched, encoded 1, or not, encoded (-1). Enrichment thresholds varied across elements. Supplementary Table 9 summarizes the DNA sequence features.

RNA sequencing features.

RNA-Seq features were engineered by defining an upstream region (R1), middle region (R2), and downstream region (R3) for each of the following: 1) intra- and 2) inter-bin. For intra-bin,

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the 100 base bin was divided into 34, 33, and 33 bases 5' to 3'. For inter-bin, the 100 bases 5' the 100 base bin, the bin itself, and the 100 bases 3' the bin served as R1, R2, and R3, respectively. The median coverage values of the regions were combined in seven ways for each the intra- and inter-bin to give 14 features:

- 1) R1-R2
- 2) R2-R3
- 3) R1/(R1+R2+R3)
- 4) R2/(R1+R2+R3)
- 5) R3/(R1+R2+R3)
- 6) R2/(R1+R3)
- 7) R3/(R1+R3)

Note that if the denominator equaled zero, the feature was given a zero.

Supplementary References

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