Conservation of transcription factor binding events predicts gene expression across species

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ABSTRACT

Recent technological advances have made it possible to determine the genome-wide binding sites of transcription factors (TFs). Comparisons across species have suggested a relatively low degree of evolutionary conservation of experimentally defined TF binding events (TFBEs). Using binding data for six different TFs in hepatocytes and embryonic stem cells from human and mouse, we demonstrate that evolutionary conservation of TFBEs within orthologous proximal promoters is closely linked to function, defined as expression of the target genes. We show that (i) there is a significantly higher degree of conservation of TFBEs when the target gene is expressed in both species; (ii) there is increased conservation of binding events for groups of TFs compared to individual TFs; and (iii) conserved TFBEs have a greater impact on the expression of their target genes than non-conserved ones. These results link conservation of structural elements (TFBEs) to conservation of function (gene expression) and suggest a higher degree of functional conservation than implied by previous studies.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important mechanisms for regulation of gene expression is through the binding of transcription factors (TFs) to short DNA motifs within promoter proximal regions (1). Comparisons of the DNA sequences among related species have revealed that many proximal promoter regions show strong evolutionary conservation (2–6). Changes of TF-regulatory networks are thought to play a key role in evolution since they have a direct impact on gene-expression levels (7).

It is now possible to quantitatively study the locations of TF binding in a genome-wide fashion using chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by microarrays or high-throughput sequencing. These experiments do not distinguish between direct and indirect binding of the TF to DNA; hence, here we refer to the observations from these experiments as TF binding events (TFBEs). Studies comparing closely related yeast species have shown that, over evolutionary time scales, it is relatively common for TFBEs to diverge across species (8,9) or even for one factor to take over the regulatory role of another (8–10). These observations demonstrate a significant amount of plasticity in the circuitry regulating transcription. Comparisons between TFBEs in mouse and human have revealed a relatively low degree of conservation of binding events, ranging from 10 to 30%, similar to what was reported in yeast (9,10), in the promoter proximal regions for hepatocytes (11) and embryonic stem cells (ESCs) (12). Although the degree of TFBE conservation is significant, it is considerably lower than the conservation of coding sequences (5,6,13). Moreover, the large number of TFBEs found throughout the genome has raised questions about the specificity of binding and how individual TFBEs influence expression (14–16).

Genome-wide studies of TFBEs have led to the following suggestions: (i) there is a rapid turnover of binding events during evolution (10,16–19); (ii) the regulation of a gene’s expression is decoupled from its function such that gene expression and function may be conserved across species even when the mechanisms of transcriptional control could differ (16,20–23); and (iii) the influence of a single TF on gene expression is limited and clusters of TFBEs may be required to control gene expression (1,16,24,25). To quantitatively examine whether the evolutionary conservation of transcriptional control mechanisms is decoupled from the evolutionary conservation of gene expression, it is important to simultaneously consider TFBEs and the expression levels of the target genes. Previous genome-wide studies that evaluated the degree of conservation of TFBEs did not take gene expression into consideration (9–11,22). We hypothesized that conservation of gene expression across species is positively correlated with the conservation of the promoter
To test this hypothesis, we combined existing human and mouse genome-wide TF binding data [four TFs in hepatocytes (11) and two TFs in ESCs (12,26)] with gene-expression data for the same two cell types (27–29). We show that the evolutionary conservation of TF binding is correlated with conservation of gene expression at the individual gene level. Our analyses also provide evidence that synergistic binding among TFs is evolutionary conserved and that conserved TFBEs have a larger impact on expression levels than non-conserved TFBEs.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Data sources**

We considered existing chromatin immunoprecipitation combined with microarray (ChIP–chip) measurements using custom-made arrays quantifying the binding events of four TFs in human and mouse hepatocytes: FOXA2, HNF1A, HNF4A and HNF6 (11). The probes in this dataset covered a region of [−5, +5] kb centered on the annotated transcription start sites of 4022 human–mouse orthologous genes selected based on the RefSeq annotation and BLAST searches. We adopted the same definition as Odom et al. (11) whereby the binding of a TF is considered to be conserved from mouse to human if it is present at orthologous locations in both species (anywhere within the 10-kb window defined above). For a given TF, the degree of binding conservation in human with respect to mouse is defined as the conditional probability $P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})$, that is, the probability that there is a binding event in human given the presence of a binding event in mouse. It should be noted that this is not symmetric, that is, the quantity $P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})$ is not necessarily the same as $P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})$.

We combined the TF binding information with the gene-expression data from the GNF Gene Atlas for the liver obtained using microarrays (29). Out of the original set of 4022 genes with binding information, we kept only the 3051 genes for which there was expression information in the liver for both species. For those genes where there was more than one probe in the microarray, we used the median expression across probes. The GNF data set contains duplicate measurements, providing array intensity data (assumed to be approximately proportional to gene-expression levels) and also a ‘present’/‘absent’ binary call. The analyses in Figures 1–3 are based on the present/absent binary calls. Based on the present/absent categorization, we defined a gene as expressed if it was labeled as present in either one of the replicates. Requiring presence in both replicates reduces the number of genes.

**Figure 1.** Genes that are expressed in both human and mouse are more likely to have conserved TFBEs. (A) Schematic illustration of the different conditional gene sets and conditional probability computations for HNF4A (all the numbers and statistics for the other TFs are presented in parts B and C and Table 1). The outer oval (black) represents the subset of genes with a HNF4A TFBE in humans (n = 956; $T_{Hs}$). The gray oval represents the subset of genes that show an HNF4A TFBE in humans and which are expressed in the human liver (n = 344; $T_{Hs}, E_{Hs}$). The filled black oval represents the subset of those genes with a HNF4A binding event in human that also show a Hnf4a binding event for the ortholog genes in mouse (n = 307; $T_{Hs}, T_{Mm}$). The filled gray oval represents those genes that have conserved TFBEs and are expressed in both species (n = 106; $T_{Hs}, E_{Hs}, T_{Mm}, E_{Mm}$). (B and C) The y-axis indicates the probability of finding a TFBE peak in hepatocytes or ESCs for human (B) or mouse (C) conditional on the presence of TFBE on the other species or on gene expression. The TFBE data are derived from the ChIP experiments reported in Refs. (11,12,26). The probability of finding a TFBE peak in human, $P(T_{Hs})$, is shown as empty black bars in B [similarly, the probability of finding a TFBE peak in mouse, $P(T_{Mm})$, is shown as empty black bars in C]. The probability of finding a TFBE consistently increases for those genes that are expressed: $P(T_{Hs}|E_{Hs})$ in B (empty gray bars, cf. empty black bars) and $P(T_{Mm}|E_{Mm})$ in C (empty gray bars, cf. empty black bars). The probability of finding a TFBE in one species given that there is a binding event in the other species is indicated by filled black bars ($P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})$ in B and $P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})$ in C). The probability of finding a TFBE in one species given that there is a binding event in the other species and that the gene is expressed in both species is indicated by filled gray bars ($P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm}, E_{Hs}, E_{Mm})$ in B and $P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs}, E_{Hs}, E_{Mm})$ in C). *$p < 10^{-7}$; **$p < 10^{-10}$ (see ‘Materials and Methods’ section).
number of expressed genes, but it does not change the conclusions of our study. From the set of 3051 genes for which both binding and expression data were available, there were 422 genes (13.8%) which were expressed in both species, 676 genes (22.2%) which were expressed in mouse but not human, 345 genes (11.3%) which were expressed in human and not mouse, and 1608 genes (52.7%) that showed no expression in either species. The analyses in Figure 4, Supplementary Figure S2 and S3 are based on the geometric mean of the intensity values for each gene. In Supplementary Figure S2 we show the effects of changing the threshold for determining whether a gene is expressed or not. To examine whether the conclusions were specifically dependent on expression conditioned on gene expression against the probability of observing conserved binding we employed a fisher's exact test based on a 2 × 2 contingency table to calculate the statistical significance of these conditional probabilities.

To examine whether the conclusions were specifically linked to these particular four TFs, we repeated the same analysis for a different set of TFs and a different tissue: we considered the TF binding data for OCT4 and NANOG in ESCs in human (26) and mouse (12). The human binding data were obtained using ChIP-chip with a custom-made array covering the [-8, +2] kb region surrounding 17917 promoters. The mouse experiments used a ChIP-Seq approach. The TF binding data set was combined with the expression data from references (27,28). We restricted the analyses to 6509 genes for which we could obtain TF binding data in humans and mice, expression data in humans and mice and a well-defined ortholog as defined by the array-manufacturer (28). Of these 6509 genes, 226 (3.5%) were expressed in both human and mouse, 511 (7.8%) were expressed in human but not mouse, 1400 (21.5%) were expressed in mouse but not human and 4372 were not expressed in either species (67.2%).

**Data analyses**

We computed the probability of TF binding conditional on conservation and gene expression. We used a Fisher test based on a 2 × 2 contingency table to calculate the statistical significance of these conditional probabilities. In this contingency table, the rows correspond to the number of conserved and non-conserved events in Hs and the columns correspond to the equivalent quantities in Mm. To determine the statistical significance of conservation conditioned on expression against the probability of observing conserved binding we employed a χ²-test, with four categories: TF bound in both species, TF bound in human but not mouse, TF bound in mouse but not human and no TF binding. The expected count in each category under the null hypothesis was based on the relative proportion of each category for the full set.
of genes. Throughout, when performing multiple comparisons, we used a Bonferroni correction and we report the highest $P$-value (i.e. the worst case scenario).

For the analysis of the conservation of multiple TFBEs (Figure 2), a ‘group of $n$ TFBEs’ was defined by the presence of $n$ different TFBEs in the 10-kb window centered on the TSS of a gene (see Supplementary Figure S5 for the distribution of distances). This definition ignores groups that include multiple binding events for the same TF as well as the relative distance and positions among the binding events (Supplementary Figure S5). For a group of $n$ binding events ($n = 2$, 3 or 4 different TFs) we computed the joint probability of finding a gene with binding events for all $n$ TFs in one species given the presence of all $n$ TFs in the other species: $P(T_{Hs}, \ldots, T_{Hs}, T_{Mm}, \ldots, T_{Mm})$. Under the null hypothesis, the conservation of different binding events is independent of each other. We therefore considered deviations from the null hypothesis by computing the ratio: $P(T_{Hs}, \ldots, T_{Hs}, T_{Mm}, \ldots, T_{Mm})/P(T_{Hs}, \ldots, T_{Hs})$. For a given TF, we added all the rewiring events where that factor was present in human (B) or mouse (D). The filled bars were computed using all genes whereas the empty bars were computed using only those genes that were expressed in both species. $^*P < 0.01; P < 10^{-7}$ (binomial test). (C) We carried out a permutation test whereby the ‘conserved expression’ status was assigned at random (respecting the proportion of genes with conserved expression). Here, we summed the number of rewiring events for all TF pairs. For each permutation we counted the number of rewiring events that occurred between two genes with conserved expression. The histogram shows the distribution of results from 100,000 permutations and the arrow indicates the actual number of rewiring events found in the data. The dashed line denotes the mean of the distribution and the dotted lines denote 1, 2 and 3 SD.

Figure 3. For most pairs of TFs, rewiring events are more common between genes with conserved expression. (A) Definition of TF rewiring events. We consider a human gene (black line) and its mouse ortholog (gray line). The arrows indicate the transcription start site. The square and circle denote two different TFs. We illustrate TFBE conservation (top: a binding event is found in both species) and rewiring (bottom: for the same gene, one TF is found in one species and a different TF is found in the other species). (B) and (D) The proportion of rewired binding events is computed as the number of rewiring events divided by the number of rewiring events plus the number of gains and losses [P(T_{Hs}, \ldots, T_{Hs}, T_{Mm}, \ldots, T_{Mm})/P(T_{Hs}, \ldots, T_{Hs})]. For a given TF, we added all the rewiring events where that factor was present in human (B) or mouse (D). The filled bars were computed using all genes whereas the empty bars were computed using only those genes that were expressed in both species. $^*P < 0.01; P < 10^{-7}$ (binomial test). (C) We carried out a permutation test whereby the ‘conserved expression’ status was assigned at random (respecting the proportion of genes with conserved expression). Here, we summed the number of rewiring events for all TF pairs. For each permutation we counted the number of rewiring events that occurred between two genes with conserved expression. The histogram shows the distribution of results from 100,000 permutations and the arrow indicates the actual number of rewiring events found in the data. The dashed line denotes the mean of the distribution and the dotted lines denote 1, 2 and 3 SD.
of conservation of a pair is given by the product of the marginal conservation probabilities for the two TFs. A similar scheme was used for testing the significance of the increased expression probability (Figure 2B). Here the null hypothesis was that the probability of observing an expressed gene with a pair of TFBEs $i$ and $j$ is given by $P(E|T_i)P(E|T_j)$.

In Figure 3, we considered the amount of rewiring of TFBEs. We computed the probability that a non-conserved TFBE is rewired with respect to the

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Each row in this table shows a group of 1–4 TFBEs among the four TFs examined in the liver data set (see ‘Materials and Methods’ section). $N_{Hs}$ ($N_{Mm}$) indicates the number of genes where the group of TFBEs is present in human (mouse). The data for individual TFs is presented in Figure 1. The ‘Conservation ratio’ columns indicate the fold increase for the probability of observing a group of conserved TFs: $P(E_{T_1} \cup \cdots \cup E_{T_n} | T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_n)$ for human and the corresponding ratio for mouse (See ‘Materials and Methods’ section). The conservation ratio for TF pairs is presented in Figure 2A. The ‘TF & Expression’ columns indicate the number of genes where the corresponding TF groups are present and the genes are expressed in human, mouse or both species. The expression ratio is presented in Figure 2B. The ‘Conservation ratio’ columns indicate the fold increase for the probability of observing a group of conserved TFs: $P(E_{T_1} \cup \cdots \cup E_{T_n} | T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_n)$ for human and the corresponding ratio for mouse (See ‘Materials and Methods’ section). The conservation ratio for TF pairs is presented in Figure 2A. The ‘TF & Expression’ columns indicate the number of genes where the corresponding TF groups are present and the genes are expressed in human, mouse or both species. The expression ratio is presented in Figure 2B. Because the number of genes become smaller as the number of TFs in the group increases, Figure 2 focuses on the results for TF pairs.
other species, \( P(T_{Hs} \sim T_{Hs}, \sim T_{Mm}, T_{Mm}) / P(T_{Hs} \sim T_{Mm}) \), where \( \sim \) represents the absence of a TFBE. The fraction of rewired binding events shown in Figure 3 is defined as the arithmetic mean of the pair-wise rewiring probabilities, \( < P(T_{Hs} \sim T_{Hs}, T_{Hs}, \sim T_{Mm}, T_{Mm}) > \). For the randomized controls, we fixed the conserved TFBEs, permitted only the non-conserved ones and computed the average rewiring probability. The histogram in Figure 3D shows the distribution from 100,000 reshufflings.

In Figure 4, we asked whether conservation of TFBEs from Mm to Hs improves the predictability of the quantitative levels of gene expression using linear regression. For the linear regression analyses we first normalized all the indicator variables and the log of the gene-expression values by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation (30). The models are based on the following expression:

\[
\log s_{E_i} = \sum_{j=1}^{4} \sum_{c=0,1}^{4} s_{a_j} I_{ij} + \sum_{k=1}^{4} s_{a_{jk}} I_{ijk} + \sum_{a_{j-k}}^{4} I_{i-j}
\]

where the first term within the square brackets represents individual TFBEs, the second term represents pairs of TFBEs and the third term represents triplets of TFBEs. On the left hand side, \( s_{E_i} \) denotes the expression level of gene \( i \) in species \( s \) (\( s = Hs \) or \( Mm \)). The first sum runs over the four liver TFs. The second sum takes conservation into account: \( c \) takes the value 0 for non-conserved TFBEs and 1 for conserved TFBEs. \( I_{ij} \) is a binary variable that takes the value 1 if TF \( j \) shows a binding event in the promoter region of gene \( i \) in species \( s \) (and 0 otherwise); \( I_{ijk} \) is a binary variable that takes the value 1 if TFs \( j \) and \( k \) show a binding event in the promoter region of gene \( i \) in species \( s \) (10-kb window centered on the TSS) and \( I_{i-j} \) is a binary variable that takes the value 1 if the three TFs except for \( j \) show a binding event in the promoter region of gene \( i \) in species \( s \). The coefficient \( s_{a_j} \) describes the contribution of TF \( j \) to gene expression in species \( s \); \( s_{a_{jk}} \) describes the contribution of the pair of TFs \( j \) and \( k \); \( s_{a_{j-k}} \) describes the contribution of the triplet of TFs excluding \( j \). For the various models, some of the parameters were set to zero as described below.

The simplest model (\( M_2 \)), only has four parameters with one coefficient \( a_j \) for each TF (no sum over \( c \), \( a_{jk} = 0 \) and \( a_{j-k} = 0 \)). The next model (\( M_{C_2} \)) also accounts for conservation and contains eight coefficients, \( a_j \). The next model includes pairs of TFs (\( MP_{10} \)) and includes \( a_{jk} \) for a total of 10 coefficients (no sum over \( c \), \( a_{j-k} = 0 \)). Adding conservation to \( MP_{10} \) gives us \( MCP_{20} \) which includes \( a_{jk} \) and has a total of 20 parameters. The last two models have coefficients for triplets of TFs and they have a total of 14 (\( MT_{14} \)) and 28 (\( MCT_{28} \)) coefficients.

All the linear regression \( R^2 \) values were obtained using 10-fold cross-validation (100 iterations). Because these models have different number of parameters, we used the Akaike Information Criterion adjusted for small sample sizes [\( AICc \) to penalize for model complexity (31)]. For the model complexity comparison, the \( AICc \) is defined as \( AIC = 2k + n \log(RSS/n) + 2k(k+1)/(n-k-1) \) where \( k \) is the number of regression coefficients (indicated above for each model), \( n \) is the number of genes included in the linear regression and \( RSS \) is the sum of the squared errors for the regression model. When comparing two models, the enhanced probability for the model with lower \( AICc \) is given by \( p = \exp(-\frac{(AIC_{c2} - AIC_{c1})}{2}) \), where \( AIC_{c1} < AIC_{c2} \) (32).

For the motif analysis we used the software Weeder with default parameters (33). Weeder reports the best motif with length 6, 8, 10 and 12 bp. We focused only on the length which was closest to the one for the motifs reported in (11) and ignored the results for the other lengths.

**RESULTS**

We hypothesized that genes that show conserved expression in both human (\( Hs \)) and mouse (\( Mm \)) would reveal a higher degree of conservation of regulatory TF binding in the corresponding promoter regions. To test this hypothesis we considered the chromatin immunoprecipitation combined with microarray (ChIP–chip) genome-wide measurements of TF binding within the promoter region (~5 to +5 kb with respect to the transcription start site) in the liver for four TFs in Hs and Mm: FOXA2, HNF1A, HNF4A, HNF6 (11). The ChIP–chip measurements could reflect indirect binding and do not necessarily reflect the direct binding of the TF proteins to DNA; we refer to these measurements as TFBEs throughout the manuscript. We combined this data set with the microarray gene-expression measurements in the liver reported in (29). The data set used in the current study consisted of 3051 genes for which we had TF binding and gene-expression data in both species (see ‘Materials and Methods’ section).

We computed the probability of observing a binding event for each TF on a given promoter and species depending on whether the TF binds the orthologous gene in the other species. The computation is illustrated in Figure 1A for the HNF4A case (we present all the numbers and statistics for each of the four TFs in Figure 1B and C and Table 1). Out of the 3051 genes, there were 956 genes that showed a binding event for HNF4A in Hs based on the peak detection in the ChIP–chip study (11) (empty black oval in Figure 1A). The fraction 956/3051 = 0.31 is defined as \( P(T_{Hs}) \) (empty black bars in Figure 1B). Similarly, out of the 3051 genes, there were 512 genes that showed a binding event for Hnf4a in Mm based on the peak detection in the ChIP–chip study (11) (empty black oval in Figure 1A). The fraction 512/3051 = 0.17 is defined as \( P(T_{Mm}) \) (empty black bars in Figure 1C). By considering the orthology between Hs and Mm genes (11), we determined that 307 genes had a binding event for HNF4A in Hs and we defined the fraction 307/3051 = 0.10 as \( P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm}) \) (empty black bars in Figure 1B).
for the orthologous promoter in Mm, \( P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm}) \), was higher than the overall probability of finding a TFBE in Hs, \( P(T_{Hs}) \), for all four TFs (Figure 1B compare filled against empty black bars). The same observation holds for Mm: \( P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs}) > P(T_{Mm}) \) (Figure 1C). The average increase in probability was \( \frac{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})}{P(T_{Hs})} = 3.1 \) (\( P < 10^{-12} \), Fisher test), where \(<...>\) indicates the average over all four TFs. This probability increase is the same for \( Hs \) and \( Mm \) since \( \frac{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})}{P(T_{Hs})} = \frac{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Hs})}{P(T_{Hs})} = 1.59 \) for \( Hs \) (range = 1.28–1.97) and \( \frac{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})}{P(T_{Mm})} = 1.62 \) for \( Mm \) (range = 1.35–1.89) (Figure 1B and C, compare black versus gray filled bars). These ratios were significantly different from 1 (\( \chi^2 \)-test, four degrees of freedom \( P < 10^{-10} \)).

The key question in our study involves quantitatively assessing the relationship between the probability of finding a TFBE \( [P(T_{Hs}) \text{ and } P(T_{Mm})] \) and the probability of expression of the target gene \( [P(E_{Hs}) \text{ and } P(E_{Mm})] \). We observed that knowledge about whether a gene is expressed or not increased the probability of finding a TFBE. Of the 3051 genes that we considered, 767 were observed that knowledge about whether a gene is expressed or not based on the microarray data; see also Supplementary Figure S2). Of these, 344 genes showed a HNF4A binding event (empty gray oval in Figure 1A). The fraction 344/767 = 0.45 is defined as \( \frac{P(T(Y_{Eh})|T_{Eh})}{P(T_{Eh})} \), that is, the conditional probability of finding a binding event in human liver given that the gene is expressed in the liver (empty gray bars in Figure 1B). On average, expressed genes showed a higher probability of having a TFBE: \( \frac{P(T_{Eh})}{P(T_{Eh})} = 1.53 \) (\( P < 10^{-3} \), Fisher test) in \( Hs \) and \( \frac{P(T_{Eh})}{P(T_{Eh})} = 1.55 \) (\( P < 10^{-7} \), Fisher test) in \( Mm \) (compare black versus gray empty bars in Figure 1B and C). This increase is expected since the TFs in this study are known to be important activators in hepatocytes (34). As a negative control, we repeated the analysis using gene-expression data from the same database for cerebellum tissue instead of liver tissue. In this case, the corresponding ratios drop to 0.95 (\( Hs \)) and 1.04 (\( Mm \)) values which were not significantly different from the expected null ratio of 1.0. The analysis enables us to quantify the relative effect of gene-expression and TFBE conservation on \( P(T_{Hs}) \): the ratio \( \frac{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})}{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Hs})} \) was 2.0 (\( P < 10^{-16} \), binomial test) for \( Hs \) and the ratio \( \frac{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})}{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Mm})} \) was 1.97 (\( P < 10^{-16} \), binomial test) for \( Mm \). This shows that the presence of a TFBE in the orthologous gene in a related species is more informative than the gene’s expression when trying to predict TFBEs.

To enquire whether the conservation of gene expression was correlated with the conservation in TFBEs, we considered those genes that were expressed in the liver in both species. There were 139 genes that had a binding event for Hnf4a in \( Mm \) and were expressed in both species and there were 106 genes that had a binding event for HNF4A in \( Hs \), a binding event for HNF4A in \( Mm \) and were expressed in both species (filled gray oval in Figure 1A). The fraction 106/139 = 0.76 defines \( \frac{P(T_{Hs}\text{and }E_{Hs}|T_{Mm}\text{and }E_{Mm})}{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})} = 1.59 \) for \( Hs \) (range = 1.28–1.97) and \( \frac{P(T_{Mm}\text{and }E_{Mm}|T_{Hs}|E_{Hs})}{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})} = 6.05 \) (\( P < 10^{-17} \), Fisher test). The fact that the ratio is >1 indicates that conserved TF binding and conserved gene expression are not independent.

Since the results in Figure 1 depend on a binary classification of TF binding and gene expression, we also investigated how the outcome is affected by the choice of cut-offs. We found that almost all TFBEs are located within 2.5 kb of the TSS (Supplementary Figure S1A and S1B). Hence, using a smaller distance cut-off for the definition of a promoter does not significantly change the conclusions of our study (Supplementary Figure S1C and S1D). We also investigated the effect of using a more or less stringent cut-off for determining which genes are considered ‘expressed’ based on the scalar values obtained from the gene-expression data (Supplementary Figure S2). As expected, a more lenient threshold that includes a large fraction of all the genes leads to smaller ratios \( \frac{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Mm})}{P(T_{Hs}|T_{Hs})} \) and \( \frac{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Hs})}{P(T_{Mm}|T_{Mm})} \) (i.e. smaller effects of gene-expression conservation). In the extreme of using all genes, these ratios become 1. With the exception of HNF4A, the results of varying the gene-expression cut-off in Supplementary Figure S2 confirmed the results obtained using the ‘absence’/‘presence’ gene calls in Figure 1.

Conserved TFBEs may show stronger binding than the non-conserved ones and this might explain why they are detected more frequently in both species and why they are better predictors of gene expression. However, comparing the binding strengths of the conserved TFBEs and the non-conserved TFBEs did not reveal any systematic difference (Supplementary Figure S4). We followed up the comparison of binding strengths by characterizing the DNA motifs found at the conserved
and non-conserved TFBEs. We separated the peak sequences into conserved and non-conserved groups and ran the de novo peak-finding algorithm Weeder on each group separately (33). The highest-ranking motif from each category showed good agreement between conserved and non-conserved genes and, in the few cases where this did not happen, the matching motif was found as the second or third one reported by the algorithm.

To assess the generality of our findings, we repeated the analysis using a different set of TFs and a different tissue by considering genome-wide TFBE measurements of OCT4 and NANOG within the promoter regions (from −8 to +2 kb with respect to the TSS) and expression profiles of 6509 genes in ESCs in Hs and Mm (12, 26–28). We found a pattern similar to the one in hepatocytes. The profiles of 6509 genes in ESCs in Hs and Mm (12,26–28). (from /C0

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triplets and quadruplets in the hepatocytes increased by 9.4 and 85.2 for Hs and by a factor of 18.5 and 38.7 for Mm (Binomial test, \( P < 10^{-6} \)). A potential caveat with this analysis, particularly for triplets and quadruplets, is that the numbers used to calculate the enrichment ratios are quite small (Table 1) and consequently they are quite sensitive to noise. Further evidence in favor of the functional significance of groups of TFs comes from the observation that genes with groups of TFBEs are more likely to be expressed (Figure 2B). The increased conservation of groups of TFBEs located within the same promoter and the increased expression of the target genes is consistent with the notion that these TFs may interact synergistically to regulate gene expression.

Studies in yeast have revealed that the role of a given TF may be taken over by another TF over evolutionary timescales (9,10). To examine whether this ‘rewiring’ was evident between Hs and Mm, we define TF rewiring as the event that TF 1 but not TF 2 is present at the promoter of a given gene in Hs and that TF 2 but not TF 1 is present at the promoter of the orthologous gene in Mm (Figure 3A). Given the hypothesis that the role of one TF may be assumed by another over evolutionary time, it follows that the number of rewiring events between genes where both genes are expressed in Hs and Mm should be greater than expected by chance. For most (but not all) of the TF combinations, we observed an increase fraction of rewired binding sites in those genes with conserved gene expression compared to all genes both for humans (Figure 3B) and mouse (Figure 3D). The exceptions are FOXA2 in Figure 3B and Hnf1A in Figure 3D. To assess the statistical significance of the difference between the fraction of rewired sites in all promoters versus promoters with conserved expression, we carried out a Monte Carlo simulation whereby the ‘conserved expressed’ labels were randomized amongst the genes. For this analysis, we pooled the rewiring events across all TF pairs to increase the reliability in the analysis. We found that the degree of rewiring within the subset of genes that are expressed in both species is significantly higher than what one would expect by chance (\( P < 10^{-5} \), from 100,000 permutations; Figure 3C). The results suggest a significant degree of plasticity in the regulatory network as was found in yeast (9,10).

Finally, we investigated whether conserved TFBEs have a greater impact on gene expression compared to non-conserved TFBEs. To quantify the relative effect of TFBEs conservation on gene expression, we tried to predict the quantitative levels of gene expression as measured by microarrays (in contrast with the analysis in Figures 1–3 where gene expression was assumed to be binary) (30,41,42). To quantify the relationship between TF binding and gene expression we used a linear regression analysis. Our ‘basic’ model (M4) did not include TFBE conservation and used four parameters to predict the expression \( E_i \) of gene \( i \) in species \( s \) (\( s = \text{Hs or Mm} \)): log

\( E_i = \sum_{j=1}^{d} a_{ij} I_{ij} \) where \( I_{ij} \) is a binary variable that takes the value 1 if TF \( j \) showed a binding event in the promoter region (10 kb centered on the TSS) of gene \( i \) in species \( s \) and 0 otherwise (where \( j \) corresponds to one of
the four TFs) and the coefficient \( a_j \) indicates the contribution of TF \( j \) to gene expression. For this analysis we only considered genes that are expressed above a given enrichment level (Figure 4) defined as the ratio between the average log-expression value of the two liver probes divided by the median log-expression of the probes from all other tissues in the GNF Gene Atlas (29). We quantified the goodness of fit in the linear regression by using the \( R^2 \) value between the experimental expression levels and the predictions. All \( R^2 \) values reported below were computed using ten-fold cross-validation. To examine the influence of TFBE conservation on the quantitative levels of gene expression, in our second model (MC8) we used eight binary variables, distinguishing between TFBEs which are conserved and not conserved (see ‘Materials and Methods’ section). For both Hs and Mm we found that the MC8 model, which incorporates TFBE conservation, performs significantly better for all the enrichment cut-off values that we examined (Figure 4; compare solid blue line (M8) and dashed blue line (MC8)). Furthermore, comparing the coefficients for the different TFBE in MC8, we find that the conserved coefficients were on average eight times larger than the non-conserved ones for Hs and three times larger for Mm, indicating that conserved TFBEs played a larger contribution in determining the expression level in our linear regression model. Our third model (MP10) included six additional coefficients compared to M4, one for each pair of TFBEs to account for the contributions from TF pair wise interactions. Although this model performed better than the basic model, the \( R^2 \) values were lower than those for MC8 which takes conservation into account. Our fourth model (MCP20) included two coefficients; two for each TF and two for each TF pair to account for the conserved individual TFBEs and the conserved pairs of TFBEs. The final models (MT14 and MCT28) involved adding four parameters to MP10 or eight parameters to MCP20 to account for the TF triplets; both MCP20 and MCT28 provided an additional improvement of the \( R^2 \). We examined a model that included coefficients for the simultaneous binding of all four TFs but this model did not provide any additional improvements, presumably due to the small number of genes with all four TFBEs in this data set. In Hs, when conservation was taken into account the relative improvement of \( R^2 \) is 42 ± 6% (MC8 versus M4), 58 ± 10% (MCP20 versus MP10) and 48 ± 15% (MCT28 versus MT14), where the average is taken over all enrichment cut-offs used in Figure 4. In Mm, when conservation was taken into account \( R^2 \) improved by 15 ± 4% (MC8 versus M4), 16 ± 4% (MCP20 versus MP10) and 18 ± 5% (MCT28 versus MT14). The curves in Figure 4 never cross, indicating that the relative performance of the models is qualitatively similar for all enrichment values.

While the increasingly more sophisticated models account for more complex biological mechanisms and provide a better fit, they also add free parameters. To take the model complexity into account, we used the Akaike Information Criterion adjusted for small sample size (AICc) to penalize for model complexity (31,32). The AICc value enables us to compare the models with different numbers of free parameters. The AICc can be used to rank competing models for the same data set and the model with the lowest AICc provides the best trade-off between precision and complexity (Supplementary Figure S3). The models including conservation have lower AICc values for both species over a wide range of enrichment cut-offs, even for the models including triplets of TFBEs (i.e. all curves are mostly above 0 in Supplementary Figure S3). For each model family (single TFBEs, TFBE pairs, TFBE triplets) we calculated \( \Delta \text{AICc} = \text{AICc}_{\text{MXX}} - \text{AICc}_{\text{MCX}} \), which can be used to estimate the relative likelihood of each model given the evidence provided by the data (32). The \( \Delta \text{AICc} \) was around 20 providing a strong case in favor of the more complex models including conservation (Supplementary Figure S3).

**DISCUSSION**

Our study provides only initial steps towards characterizing the evolution of transcriptional circuits and several assumptions and caveats should be noted. An important assumption in our study is that the TFs function as activators. This is likely to be true for the hepatocyte TFs (34), whereas the evidence is more ambiguous for OCT4/NANOG (26). A caveat of our work is that we merged data sets from different studies to compare TFBEs and gene expression. Clearly, it would be better to examine the same cells simultaneously quantifying both binding events and gene expression. Differences in experimental procedures and sample preparation between the studies probably introduce additional noise. Thus, the enhanced TFBE conservation for genes with conserved expression reported here likely constitutes a lower bound to the actual degree of TFBE conservation.

Our results show a correlation between conservation of TFBEs and conservation of the target gene expression. Many studies of genome-wide TF binding have revealed tens of thousands of binding events for a single TF and this has raised questions about the functional significance of these binding events (11,15). Our results show that the subset of binding events that are conserved across species have a greater impact on gene expression compared to the ones that are not conserved. This suggests that a fraction of the observed binding events may have little functional significance and that comparative studies of TF binding can serve as an important guide for revealing key regulatory binding events. As shown in our study, it is not only helpful to have information about TF binding in other species when predicting gene expression, the reverse is also true as information about the expression of orthologous target genes helps us predict the presence of TFBEs.

Several previous studies have attempted to quantitatively predict gene-expression levels from TF binding information. These approaches have been more common in prokaryotic systems and in yeast (30,41–43). Methods based on bioinformatics predictions of TFBEs in yeast have achieved an \( R^2 \) value of 0.30 (30). The values that we obtained are consistent with other studies that aim to
predict expression levels in *Mm*; for example an $R^2$ value of $\sim 0.1$ was reported in references (43,44). Independent of the absolute values of $R^2$, the main comparison in our study pertains to the importance of TFBE conservation on $R^2$ (Figure 4). We observed that $R^2$ values improved by $\sim 30\%$ when taking conservation of TFBEs into account.

The fact that conserved TFBEs have a larger impact on our ability to quantitatively predict the expression levels compared to non-conserved TFBEs is consistent with the notion that conservation of TFs and their corresponding binding events over evolutionary time scales is linked to biological function (45).

The few available genome-wide studies comparing TFBEs between *Hs* and *Mm* have revealed that only between 10 and 30% of the binding events are conserved between these two species (11,12,26). This relatively low degree of conservation has been interpreted to imply a significant degree of plasticity of the regulatory mechanisms at evolutionary time scales. Using the target gene expression as a proxy for TFBE function, we investigated the degree of TFBE conservation between *Hs* and *Mm* in genes where the expression is conserved across species. We observed that genes with conserved expression are almost twice as likely to have conserved TFBEs compared to the overall set of TFBEs. The higher degree of conservation is consistent with the conclusions from a similar but smaller study of 51 human genes where the expression is conserved across species.


