

1 **Title:** Relating enhancer genetic variation across mammals to complex phenotypes using machine  
2 learning

3

4 **One Sentence Summary:** A new machine learning-based approach associates enhancers with the  
5 evolution of brain size and behavior across mammals.

6

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16

17 **Abstract:**

18

19 Protein-coding differences between mammals often fail to explain phenotypic diversity,  
20 suggesting involvement of enhancers, often rapidly evolving regions that regulate gene expression.  
21 Identifying associations between enhancers and phenotypes is challenging because enhancer activity is  
22 context-dependent and may be conserved without much sequence conservation. We developed TACIT  
23 (Tissue-Aware Conservation Inference Toolkit) to associate open chromatin regions (OCRs) with  
24 phenotypes using predictions in hundreds of mammalian genomes from machine learning models trained  
25 to learn tissue-specific regulatory codes. Applying TACIT for motor cortex and parvalbumin-positive  
26 interneurons to neurological phenotypes revealed dozens of new OCR-phenotype associations. Many

27 associated OCRs were near relevant genes, including brain size-associated OCRs near genes mutated in  
28 microcephaly or macrocephaly. Our work creates a forward genomics foundation for identifying  
29 candidate enhancers associated with phenotype evolution.

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31 **Main Text:**

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34 INTRODUCTION

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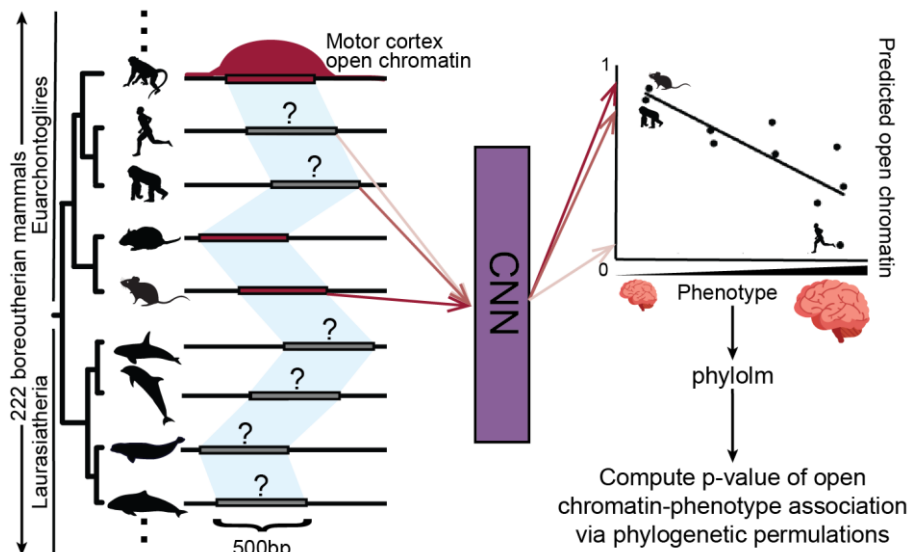
36 Much of the phenotypic diversity that exists across vertebrates is thought to have arisen from  
37 differences in how genes are expressed (1). Variation in phenotypes like vocal learning (2) and longevity  
38 (3) has been linked to patterns of gene expression within some of the most relevant brain regions and  
39 tissues, respectively. Thus, many genetic differences associated with the evolution of these, and other,  
40 complex phenotypes are likely in enhancers, distal *cis*-regulatory genomic elements that are bound by  
41 transcription factor (TF) proteins that regulate the expression of associated genes, often through cell type-  
42 specific activation (4, 5). For example, limblessness in snakes is associated with sequence divergence and  
43 activity loss in a critical enhancer near the *Sonic hedgehog* gene (6), and mutations in orthologs of this  
44 enhancer are associated with polydactyly in humans, mice, and cats (7, 8). Enhancer evolution has been  
45 found to be associated with a number of other complex phenotypes, including eyesight loss (9) as well as  
46 whisker, penile spine, and brain growth (10).

47 Recent advances facilitate identifying relationships between enhancer activity and phenotype  
48 evolution. Community genome sequencing efforts such as the Zoonomia Project have constructed  
49 assemblies for hundreds of species from diverse mammalian clades (11). Cactus multi-species whole-  
50 genome alignments and tools for extracting orthologs have vastly improved ortholog mapping for non-  
51 coding genomic regions (12–14). In addition, new phylogeny-aware statistical methods have been  
52 developed for identifying factors associated with the evolution of phenotypes (15, 16).

53           Despite these successes, identifying enhancer-phenotype relationships is still a major challenge.  
54   Widely used methods to identify conservation and convergent evolution across orthologous genome  
55   sequences measure the extent to which the nucleotides within a given region align across species (17–19).  
56   While these approaches have led to some exciting findings (9, 20), many enhancer sequences and  
57   transcription factor binding sites are under less sequence constraint than promoter and gene sequences  
58   (21, 22). In fact, recent studies have shown that sequence conservation is not required for activity  
59   conservation at enhancer orthologs (23, 24) and can occur when enhancer activity is not conserved in a  
60   tissue of interest (25), so nucleotide sequence conservation at enhancers is sometimes an insufficient  
61   proxy for enhancer activity conservation.

62           Here we present a new method for identifying enhancer-phenotype associations, in which we  
63   trace enhancer activity evolution using predicted open chromatin in a tissue or cell type of interest as a  
64   proxy for enhancer function. Previously, we and others have demonstrated that the sequence patterns  
65   associated with enhancer activity in multiple tissues are highly conserved across mammals by showing  
66   that machine learning models that use DNA sequence to predict enhancer activity in a tissue of interest in  
67   one species can accurately predict clade-specific and tissue-specific enhancer activity in species from  
68   different mammalian clades (25,27–29). We integrate machine learning-based predictions of enhancer  
69   function with other comparative genomics advances (11, 15, 16) in a new framework called the Tissue-  
70   Aware Conservation Inference Toolkit (TACIT) for identifying candidate enhancers associated with the  
71   evolution of phenotypes. We use sequences underlying open chromatin regions (OCRs) from a small  
72   number of species in a tissue or cell type of interest to train convolutional neural networks (CNNs) that  
73   predict the probability of OCR ortholog open chromatin in those tissues/cell types at the orthologous  
74   sequences in up to 222 mammalian genomes (11). We then use these predictions to link OCRs to specific  
75   mammalian phenotypes while accounting for phylogeny (**Fig. 1**). We applied our approach to multiple  
76   phenotypes, including brain size, solitary and group living, and vocal learning, and identified both motor  
77   cortex tissue and motor cortex parvalbumin-positive (PV+) interneuron OCRs associated with these  
78   phenotypes that are near relevant genes. Our approach can be applied to any phenotype with open

79 chromatin data available from a relevant tissue or cell type in at least two species. It is therefore broadly  
80 applicable to a variety of tissue, phenotype, and species combinations.



**Figure 1: Overview of TACIT.**

We train a CNN using sequences underlying OCRs and non-OCRs to predict open chromatin in a tissue or cell type of interest and then use the CNN to predict open chromatin in that tissue or cell type in hundreds of genomes from Zoonomia. We associate our predictions with phenotypes using phylolm and then quantify the significance of the association using an empirical p-value from phylogenetic permutations. Animal silhouettes were made by Michael Keeseey, Daniel Jaron, Ryan Cupo, Steven Traver, and Chris Huh (license: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/3.0/>); were downloaded from PhyloPic; and were not modified.

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82

## 83 RESULTS

84

### 85 Convolutional neural networks accurately predict open chromatin status of OCR orthologs

86 We applied TACIT to two tissues with open chromatin data from more than two species – motor

87 cortex and liver – as well as a tissue and a cell type with data from only two species – retina and motor

88 cortex PV+ interneurons. We used OCRs instead of other enhancer activity measures, such as H3K27ac

89 ChIP-seq regions, because OCRs tend to have a concentration of TF motifs near their summits and be

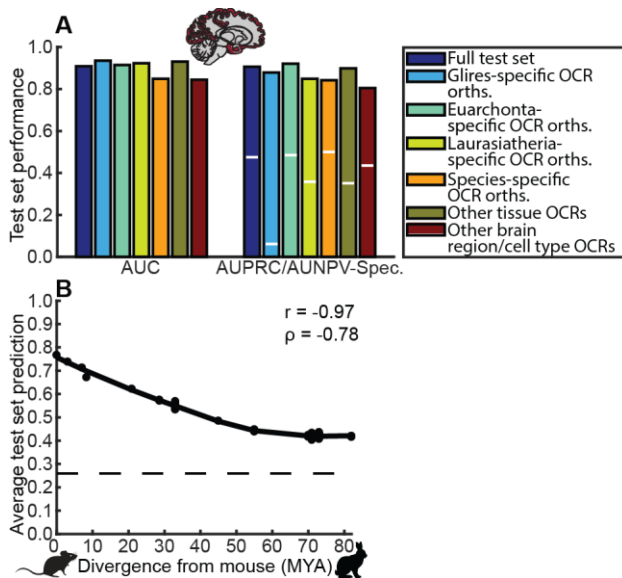
90 hundreds instead of thousands of base pairs long, allowing our model to focus on sequences likely to be

91 involved in enhancer activity and allowing us to easily map regions in species whose assemblies have

92 short scaffolds (14). We chose tissues and cell types that would demonstrate specificity in dissimilar  
93 tissues (brain versus liver) and have relationships with complex phenotypes of interest, including brain  
94 size, social behavior, and vocal learning. For tissues with more than two species, we trained CNNs to  
95 predict whether a region is an OCR or a non-OCR ortholog of an OCR, as described in our previous work  
96 (25).

97         Since we are the first to train machine learning models for open chromatin prediction in motor  
98 cortex (we and others have shown that the liver regulatory code is conserved across species (25, 27)), we  
99 first trained CNNs using only house mouse sequences and found that the CNNs successfully predicted  
100 clade-specific OCRs and non-OCRs (high “lineage-specific OCR accuracy,” AUC > 0.70 and  
101 AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > 0.65 for all metrics) as well as tissue-specific OCRs and non-OCRs (high “tissue-  
102 specific OCR accuracy,” AUC > 0.65 and AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > fraction of examples in smaller class for  
103 all metrics); in addition, when comparing average OCR ortholog predictions across species, predictions  
104 had the expected negative correlation with distance from the species in which the OCRs were assayed  
105 (high “phylogeny-matching correlations,” mean Pearson correlation < -0.70 and mean Spearman  
106 correlation < -0.45) (**Figs. S1A,D,G,J,M,P, Table S1**) (25). We next trained multi-species CNNs for  
107 motor cortex and liver using all of our data – *Mus musculus* (Glires clade), *Macaca mulatta* (Euarchonta  
108 clade), and *Rattus norvegicus* (Glires clade) for both tissues as well as *Rousettus aegyptiacus*  
109 (Laurasiatheria clade) for motor cortex and *Bos taurus* (Laurasiatheria clade) and *Sus scrofa*  
110 (Laurasiatheria clade) for liver – and found that the models achieved high lineage- and tissue-specific  
111 OCR accuracy (AUC > 0.8, AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > fraction of examples in smaller class for all metrics) as  
112 well as phylogeny-matching correlations (mean Pearson correlation < -0.95 and mean Spearman  
113 correlation < -0.75) (**Fig. 2, Figs. S2A,D,G, Fig. S3, Tables S2-3**). We then used the multi-species motor  
114 cortex CNN to make predictions at motor cortex OCR orthologs in 222 diverse boreoeutherian mammal  
115 genomes from Zoonomia, where we limited ourselves to boreoeutherians because we did not have open  
116 chromatin data from species in other clades. To further evaluate the reliability of our predictions, we  
117 clustered the species hierarchically with predictions as features and found that the cluster hierarchy was

118 similar to the phylogenetic tree, with all but a few species clustering correctly by clade (**Fig. S4,**  
119 **Supplementary Text**) (26).



**Figure 2: Motor cortex multi-species CNN performance.**

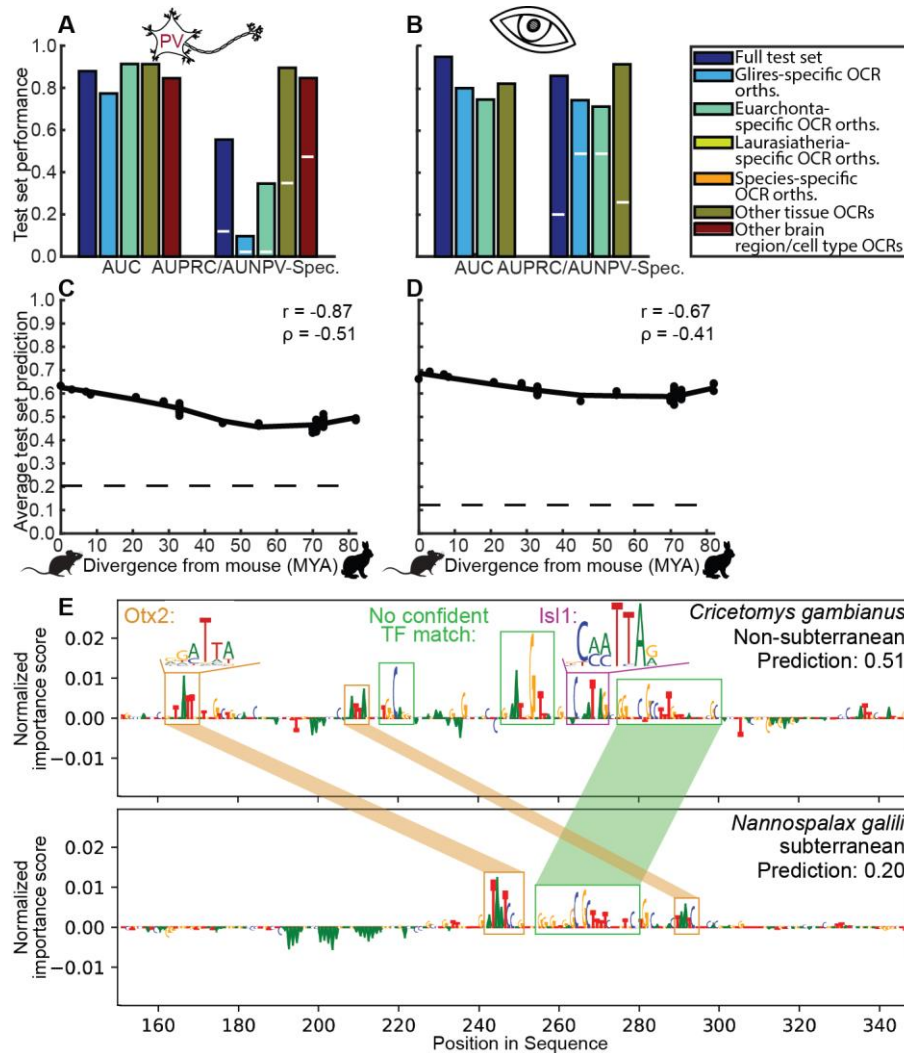
**A** shows the area under the ROC curve (AUROC) and the area under the precision-recall (if more negatives than positives)/negative predictive value-specificity (if more positives than negatives) curve (AUPRC/NPV-Spec.) for the full test set, clade-specific OCRs and non-OCRs, and shared versus tissue/brain region-specific OCRs and non-OCRs for the multi-species motor cortex CNNs. **B** shows the negative relationship between the average house mouse OCR ortholog multi-species motor cortex open chromatin predicted probabilities for Glires species and the millions of years ago (MYA) when each species diverged from house mouse.

120 Since no previous study has trained PV+ interneuron or retinal enhancer activity prediction  
121 models for predicting enhancer activity in species not used for training (25,27–29), we needed to  
122 investigate whether the PV+ interneuron and retinal regulatory codes are sufficiently conserved for  
123 accurately predicting open chromatin of OCR orthologs. We did this by running motif discovery on open  
124 chromatin datasets from each species for which data was available. For each of PV+ interneurons and  
125 retina, we found motifs for many of the same TFs in both species, and some of these TFs are known to be  
126 involved in PV+ interneurons and retina, respectively (**Supplementary Text, Supplementary Website**)  
127 (26).

128 Because we had PV+ interneuron and retina data from only two species – *Mus musculus* and  
129 *Homo sapiens* (Euarchonta clade) – we did not have sufficient non-OCR orthologs of OCRs to train  
130 CNNs, so we developed a new approach to constructing negative sets for these cases: We combined a

131 large number of random regions of the genome with the same G/C-content as the positives with OCRs  
132 from other cell types or tissues, two negative sets that provided adequate performance for all of our  
133 metrics in our previous work (**Methods**) (25). To ensure that CNNs could make accurate predictions in  
134 species not used for training in our tissues and cell types, we first trained CNNs using only house mouse  
135 sequences and found that they achieved high lineage-specific OCR accuracy (AUC > 0.85 and  
136 AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > 0.60) as well as phylogeny-matching correlations (mean Pearson correlation < -  
137 0.65, mean Spearman correlation < -0.40 for retina and PV+ interneurons) for house mouse sequences  
138 (**Figs. S1B,C,E,F,H,I,K,L,N,O,Q,R, Tables S4-5**). The PV+ interneuron CNNs also achieved strong  
139 performance on human sequences (AUC > 0.70 and AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > fraction of examples in  
140 minority class for all criteria), where no human sequences were used in training as well as high tissue-  
141 specific OCR accuracy (AUC > 0.75 and AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > fraction of examples in minority class for  
142 all criteria), while the house mouse-trained retina CNNs did not work as well on human-specific OCRs  
143 and non-OCRs and liver non-retina OCRs. We then trained CNNs using sequences from both house  
144 mouse and human, and both the PV+ and retina CNNs achieved strong performance for all criteria (AUC  
145 > 0.70 and AUPRC/NPV-Spec. > fraction of examples in minority class for all criteria, mean Pearson  
146 correlation < -0.60, mean Spearman correlation < -0.40) (**Figs. 3A-D, Figs. S2B,C,E,F,H,I, Tables S6-**  
147 **7**).

148 To evaluate if our bulk tissue models were learning sequences relevant to the tissues in which  
149 they were trained, we interpreted what they had learned (**Methods**). Specifically, we computed the  
150 CNNs' per-nucleotide importance scores, which indicate the extent to which the CNN prioritizes the  
151 presence or absence of each nucleotide at each position (30, 31). We found that our CNNs seemed to have  
152 learned sequence patterns that are similar to motifs of TFs that are known to be involved in motor cortex  
153 and liver, such as MEF2C for motor cortex (32, 33) and HNF4A (34, 35) for liver, as well as sequence  
154 patterns that do not match any known TF motif (**Supplementary Text, Figs. S5-7**) (26). We then  
155 examined a specific retina OCR near the retina TF *Otx2*, where the OCR's orthologs in subterranean  
156 mammals were previously shown to have a faster relative evolutionary rate than its orthologs in other



**Figure 3: PV+ interneuron and retina multi-species CNN performance.**

(A-B) show the AUROC and the AUPRC/NPV-Spec. for the full test set, clade-specific OCRs and non-OCRs, and shared versus tissue/cell type-specific OCRs and non-OCRs for multi-species PV+ interneuron (A) and retina (B) CNNs. (C-D) show the negative relationship between the average house mouse OCR ortholog multi-species PV+ interneuron (C) and retina (D) CNN predictions for Glires species and the MYA when each species diverged from house mouse. E shows the multi-species retina model normalized importance scores for each position in the summit +/- 100bp of an OCR near *OTX2* that was previously shown to have a higher relative evolutionary rate in subterranean mammals. Orange boxes mark matches to the house mouse *Otx2* motif, the magenta box marks the match to the house mouse *Isl1* motif, and green boxes mark regions with high importance scores that do not match any known TF motif. Motifs were downloaded from CIS-BP (86) and visualized using meme2images from the MEME suite (87). No nucleotides in either ortholog outside these central 200 base pairs had a normalized importance score with absolute value greater than one.

157 mammals (9). This OCR's ortholog in *Nannospalax galili*, a subterranean mole-rat, was confidently  
 158 predicted to be closed, while its ortholog in a non-subterranean pouched rat, *Cricetomys gambianus*, the  
 159 most closely related mammal in Zoonomia that never lives underground (diverged ~45 MYA (36)), was



160 predicted to be open. Both of these OCR orthologs contained two motifs for Otx2 as well as a third motif  
161 that could not be easily interpreted with high importance scores. In addition to those important sequences,  
162 the *Cricetomys gambianus* ortholog had a high importance score for the motif for Isl1, a transcription  
163 factor involved in the development of bipolar and cholinergic amacrine cells of the retina (37). There  
164 were also two additional sequences with high importance scores unique to *Cricetomys gambianus* relative  
165 to *Nannospalax galili* that did not match any known TF motif, demonstrating the value of using a  
166 modeling strategy that does not require featurizing the sequence based on known information (**Fig. 3E**).

167 From the four cross-species OCR datasets of interest (motor cortex, liver, PV+ interneuron, and  
168 retina), we identify 50,942,699 total orthologous regions across 222 Boreoeutherian mammals from  
169 402,880 total OCRs. Relative to human OCR annotations and phyloP annotations alone, we find that  
170 these predictions can provide a substantial boost for interpreting human disease-associated loci, with  
171 greater tissue- and cell type specificity. For example, in our other work, we found that human orthologs of  
172 regions predicted to have conserved motor cortex open chromatin are enriched for overlapping SNPs  
173 associated with schizophrenia, while human orthologs of regions predicted to have conserved liver open  
174 chromatin are enriched for overlapping SNPs associated with cholesterol-related traits (38, 39). These  
175 results demonstrate the power of TACIT to identify functionally relevant patterns of conservation.

176

## 177 **Applying TACIT to mammalian phenotypes**

178

179 *A framework for associating predicted open chromatin with phenotypes*

180

181 Having trained models to predict open chromatin status of OCR orthologs in four tissues and cell types –  
182 motor cortex, liver, retina, and PV+ interneurons within the motor cortex – we identified individual OCRs  
183 whose predicted open chromatin across species is associated with phenotypes (**Fig. 1**). We applied the  
184 phylolm and phyloglm methods (15) for continuous and binary traits, respectively. These methods are  
185 modifications of phylogenetic generalized least squares (40, 41) designed for faster performance. We

186 used them to test for a relationship between one OCR ortholog's open chromatin predictions across  
187 species and phenotype annotations across species that cannot be explained by the species phylogeny  
188 alone. To minimize false positives, we implemented phylogenetic permutations (16), enabling us to  
189 evaluate the significance of each OCR-phenotype relationship against a background distribution of  
190 shuffled phenotypes with similar phylogenetic structures (**Materials and Methods**).

191  
192 *TACIT identifies motor cortex and PV+ interneuron OCRs associated with the evolution of brain size*  
193

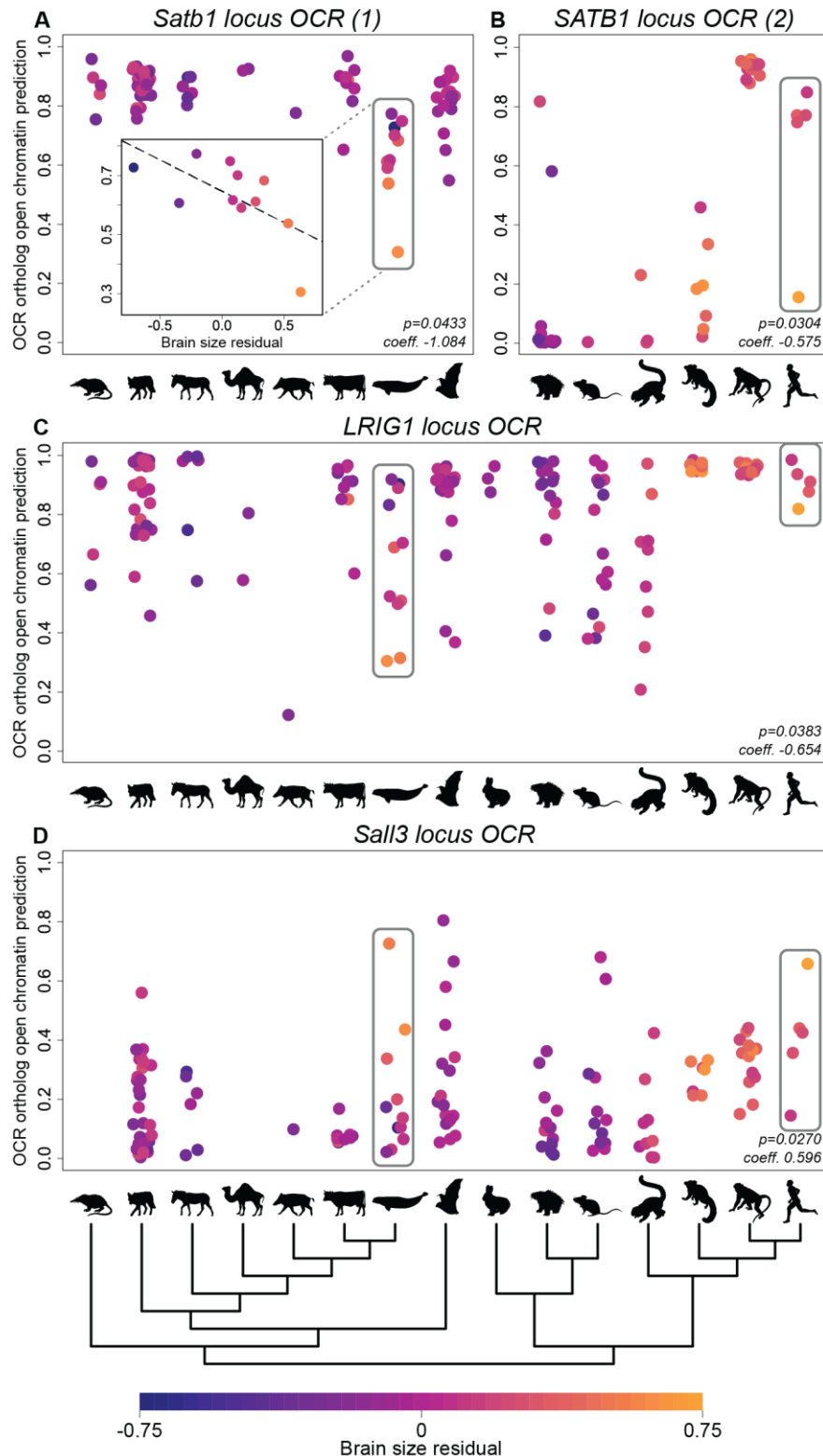
194 We used TACIT to identify motor cortex OCRs whose predicted open chromatin across mammals is  
195 significantly associated with brain size, a complex trait with great diversity across mammals that is  
196 thought to underlie human cognitive ability (42). As brain size scales with body size, we used the brain  
197 size residual (brain mass minus the predicted value of brain mass from a regression on body mass), which  
198 we obtained for 158 boreoeutherian mammals (43, 44). Before applying TACIT, we investigated whether  
199 there are proteins whose relative evolutionary rates (19) are associated with the evolution of brain size  
200 residual. We did not find any proteins with a significant association after RERconverge's default multiple  
201 hypothesis correction (corrected  $p \geq 0.05$  for all genes) (19, 45), which corroborates evidence that the top  
202 decile of TFs with the highest fraction of conserved base pairs tend to be enriched for embryonic  
203 development and brain function (PhyloP  $\geq 2.241$ , FDR  $< 5\%$ ) (39) and previous work suggesting that  
204 enhancer loss drove the evolution of human-specific patterns in brain growth (10). In contrast, using  
205 TACIT, we found 34 motor cortex OCRs with a significant association with brain size residual after false  
206 discovery rate correction ( $\alpha=0.05$ ). We then examined all genes near (TSSs within 1Mb) those OCRs. Of  
207 the associated OCRs, 29 are near genes whose corresponding proteins play important roles in brain  
208 development, and 6 are near genes whose corresponding proteins are involved in brain tumor growth  
209 (**Table S8**). While many of these genes may influence brain size during development, the OCRs that  
210 regulate them might continue to be open during adulthood. This would be consistent with recent evidence  
211 that neural progenitors are responsible for the evolution of brain size in the great apes (46).

212 Of the 29 brain size residual-associated OCRs near brain development genes, 23 are near genes  
213 with mutations that cause neurological disorders, including 8 OCRs near genes in which mutations have  
214 been reported to cause microcephaly or macrocephaly (**Table S8, Figs. S8A-H**) (47). Furthermore, we  
215 found that the p-values of all motor cortex OCRs whose human orthologs are near (in hg38 coordinates)  
216 genes mutated in microcephaly or macrocephaly have a significantly lower distribution than the p-values  
217 of other motor cortex OCRs with human orthologs ( $p=0.0073$ , 1-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

218 We identified two OCRs near *SATB1* — a gene with both microcephaly- and macrocephaly-  
219 associated mutations (48) — whose motor cortex predicted open chromatin status is significantly  
220 associated with brain size residual (**Fig. 4A-B, Figs. S8D,H**). For both of these associations, predicted  
221 open chromatin is associated with small brain size residual. The OCRs' coordinates in the genomes in  
222 which they were initially identified are chr17:52351209-52351928 (mm10) and chr2:174466184-  
223 174466517 (rheMac8). They are each about 500kb from the TSS of the gene, where one is upstream and  
224 the other is downstream. Neither OCR is near any other gene with a known connection to brain  
225 development; *Satb1/SATB1* is the second-closest gene to each, and the closer genes, *Kcnh8* and *TBC1D5*,  
226 each have known roles outside of brain growth (49, 50). The associations seem to be driven in large part  
227 by, respectively, cetaceans (**Fig. 4A**) and great apes (**Fig. 4B**), both of which have a large variation in  
228 brain size (51). In particular, the latter OCR is predicted to be active in all great apes except for humans,  
229 the great ape with the largest brain size residual. Interestingly, the reported case of *SATB1*-associated  
230 macrocephaly at birth was caused by a mutation that disrupts a large portion of the protein product, while  
231 microcephaly was usually reported with *SATB1* missense mutations (48). This pattern is consistent with  
232 the significant negative associations between predicted open chromatin and brain size residual, assuming  
233 that the OCRs we identified positively regulate the expression of *SATB1*.

234 We identified another OCR, chr2:75345159-75346046 (rheMac8), whose predicted motor cortex  
235 open chromatin also has a strong negative association with brain size residual in cetaceans (**Fig. 4C**). The  
236 closest gene to this OCR is *LRIG1*, which is about 250kb from the OCR. *LRIG1* slows and delays the

237 differentiation of neural stem cells (52, 53). While this OCR is also near other genes, none of those genes  
 238 have a known role in brain size.



**Figure 4: Examples of associations between predicted motor cortex OCR ortholog open chromatin and brain size residual.**

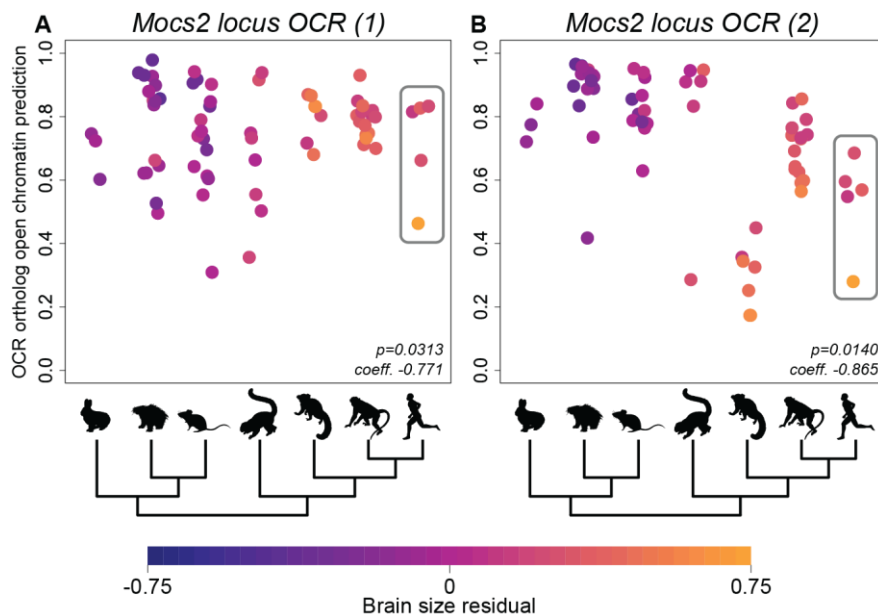
(A-B) highlight the negative association between predicted motor cortex open chromatin and brain size residual of two motor cortex OCRs in the *SATB1* locus, chr17:52351209-52351928 (mm10) and chr2:174466184-174466517 (rheMac8), within Laurasiatheria and Euarchontoglires, respectively. The latter OCR has no orthologs in Lagomorpha, which is omitted from panel (B). Boreoeutherian mammal-wide panels are shown in Fig. S9. (C) highlights the negative association of orthologs of a motor cortex OCR in the *LRIG1* locus, chr15:40082805-40083380 (mm10). (D) highlights the positive association of orthologs of a motor cortex OCR in the *Sall3* locus, chr18:81802310-81802951 (mm10). Each point represents one ortholog; they are grouped along the x-axis of each panel by clade as shown by the tree below. The clades and example species are listed in Table S10. The hominoid and cetacean clades are highlighted by gray boxes in each panel. Points are colored by brain size residual following the scale at the bottom. The permutations p-value after Benjamini-Hotchberg correction and the coefficient on the predicted open chromatin returned by phylolm are shown in the lower right of each panel.

239 Also among the OCRs we identified near brain development genes is an OCR, chr18:81802310-  
240 81802951 (mm10), about 800kb from the gene *Sall3*. *Sall3* is the fourth-closest gene to this OCR, and  
241 one closer gene, *Mbp*, does have a connection to brain development (54). Hi-C from adult human cortex  
242 (55) shows that the bin containing the human ortholog of this OCR is close to *SALL3* in 3D space ( $p=2.3$   
243  $\times 10^{-11}$ , **Table S8**) but is not close to *MBP* ( $p=1$ ). This OCR displays a positive association with brain  
244 size residual both overall and within mammalian clades with especially large variations in brain size,  
245 including the great apes and cetaceans (**Fig. 4D**). *Sall3* is a member of the spalt-like family of  
246 transcription factors, which are important in development (56). Although a specific role of *Sall3* in motor  
247 cortex has not been described, there is evidence that *Sall3* regulates the maturation of neurons in other  
248 regions of the brain (57, 58), and *Sall3* is expressed in developing motor neurons (58) and human cerebral  
249 cortex (59).

250 We extended our framework to establish Cell-TACIT, a version of TACIT that identifies OCRs  
251 in specific cell types (60, 61) whose open chromatin predictions are associated with a phenotype of  
252 interest. We used Cell-TACIT for PV+ interneurons within the motor cortex to identify such OCRs whose  
253 predicted activity across Euarchontoglires is significantly associated with brain size residual. PV+  
254 interneurons are a minority population, representing roughly 4 - 8% of neurons and 2 - 4 % of the total  
255 cell population in the mouse cortex (62) yet are critical in cortical microcircuits and human brain  
256 disorders like schizophrenia (63, 64). Given this sparsity, our bulk motor cortex open chromatin data may  
257 not capture OCRs that are specific to PV+ interneurons. In fact, about 30% of mouse PV+ OCRs do not  
258 overlap any bulk motor cortex OCRs, including non-reproducible peaks. We identified 13 OCRs whose  
259 predicted open chromatin in PV+ interneurons is associated with species' brain size residuals after false  
260 discovery rate correction ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) (**Table S9**), 11 of which are house mouse OCRs for which predicted  
261 open chromatin is associated with having a smaller brain size residual.

262 We identified three PV+ interneuron OCRs that are significantly negatively associated with brain  
263 size residual and are within 1Mb of a gene that is mutated in macrocephaly or microcephaly (**Table S9**,  
264 **Figs. S8I-K**). Two of those OCRs — chr13:114757413-114757913 (mm10) and chr13:114793237-

265 114793737 (mm10) — are respectively about 60kb and 25kb from the *Mocs2* gene. Both have strong  
266 associations with brain size residual within Euarchonta (primates and their closest relatives), especially  
267 Hominoidea, and the first also has some association within Glires (rodents and their closest relatives)  
268 (Fig. 5A-B, respectively). *Mocs2* is one of four genes involved in Molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis  
269 (65). Molybdenum cofactor deficiency (MoCD) in humans is a rare, fatal disease marked by intractable  
270 seizures, hypoxia, and microcephaly (66). We also identified an OCR, chr1:95762160-95762660 (mm10),  
271 that is about 100kb away from the gene *St8sia4*, which is important for the development and density of  
272 interneurons — including PV+ interneurons — in the cortex (67, 68).



**Figure 5: Examples of associations between predicted PV+ interneuron OCR ortholog open chromatin and brain size residual.**

(A-B) highlight the negative association within Euarchontoglires between predicted PV+ interneuron open chromatin and brain size residual of orthologs of two PV+ interneuron OCRs in the *Mocs2* locus, chr13:114757413-114757913 (mm10) and chr13:114793237-114793737 (mm10). Each point represents one ortholog; they are grouped along the x-axis of each panel by clade as shown by the tree below. The clades and example species are listed in Table S10. The hominoid clade is highlighted by a gray box in each panel. Points are colored by brain size residual following the scale at the bottom.

273 Interestingly, there is no overlap between the bulk motor cortex OCRs and PV+ interneuron  
274 OCRs with predicted activity that is significantly associated with brain size residual. In fact, no house  
275 mouse OCR ortholog from either set is within 5Mb of a house mouse OCR ortholog from the other set.  
276 We also investigated liver OCRs associated with brain size residual and found that none of these OCRs

277 overlapped the associated motor cortex OCRs (**Supplementary Text**) (26). This highlights the  
278 complementary information provided by using TACIT OCRs from different tissues as well as from using  
279 both TACIT and Cell-TACIT.

280

281 *Cell-TACIT and TACIT identify PV+ interneuron and motor cortex open chromatin regions in loci*  
282 *associated with the evolution of social living*

283

284 One challenge of using TACIT and Cell-TACIT is that tens to hundreds of thousands of OCRs are tested,  
285 which requires correcting for large numbers of hypotheses. This is necessary for applying TACIT to  
286 phenotypes like brain size for which there is no strict subset of the genome that is known to be involved  
287 in the phenotype. In contrast, when such a subset is known, we can increase power by restricting OCRs to  
288 those in that subset. We used this targeted approach to examine relationships between solitary and group  
289 living lifestyles and predicted PV+ OCR activity within the 1,661,222bp Williams-Beuren Syndrome  
290 (WBS) deletion region (**Fig. 6A**), where haploinsufficiency causes increased sociability, intellectual  
291 disability, and enhanced verbal fluency in human patients (69). Although the WBS locus has not been  
292 linked to PV+ interneurons specifically, PV+ interneurons are well-known for their involvement in social  
293 behaviors and neuropsychiatric disorders with social components such as autism spectrum disorder  
294 (ASD) and schizophrenia (70). Molecular evidence for PV+ interneuron involvement suggests associated  
295 transcriptional changes. For example, *PVALB* was the most strongly downregulated transcript in ASD  
296 brain tissue compared to healthy controls and in animal models of monogenetic neurodevelopmental  
297 syndromic disorders (71, 72), and single-nucleus RNA-seq from schizophrenia brain tissue revealed more  
298 abnormal gene expression in PV+ interneurons than in any other neuronal cell type (73, 74). Direct  
299 expression manipulation of psychiatric genes in PV+ interneurons was shown to induce social deficits in  
300 mice, whereas similar manipulations in other neuron cell types had different effects (75).

301 The Mesozoic ancestors of today's mammals were likely primarily solitary-living, defined by  
302 separate foraging and home ranges for females (76). Following the End-Cretaceous Mass Extinction,

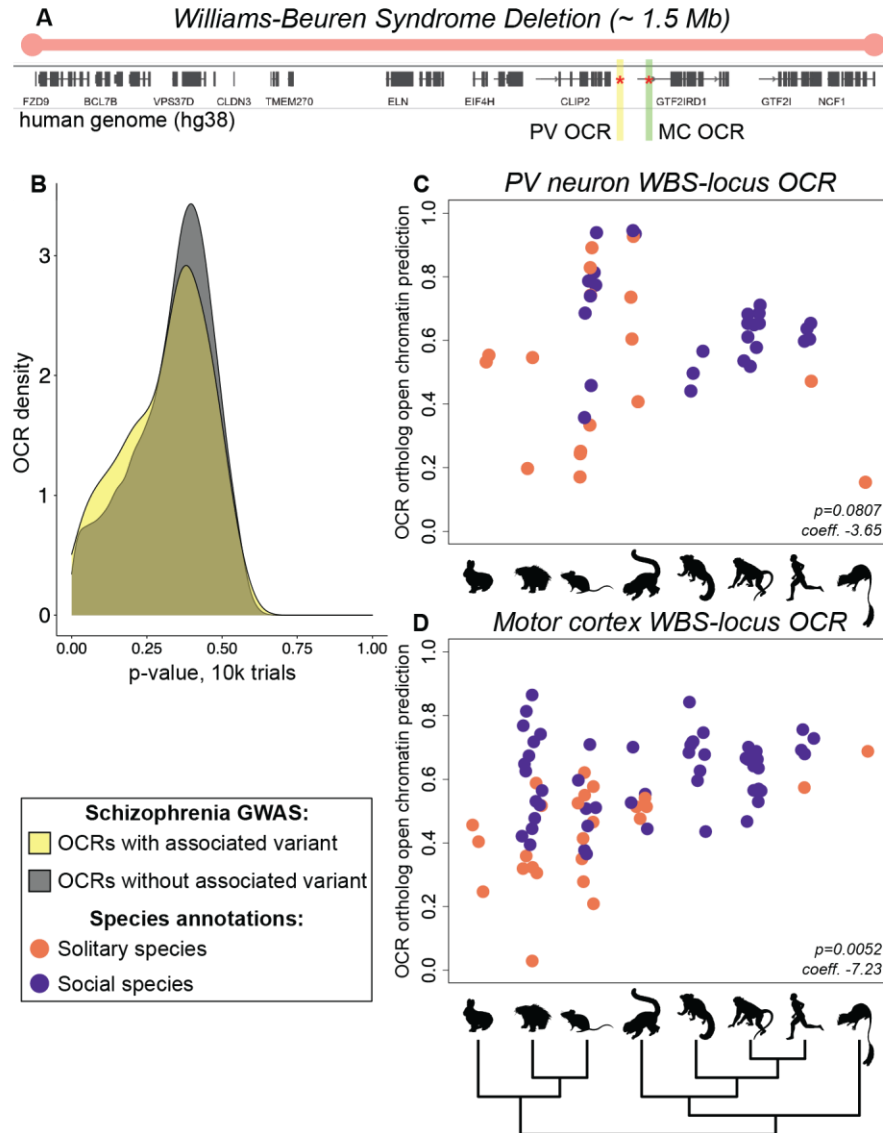
303 many extant lineages in disparate clades evolved towards social living strategies, including group living  
304 and breeding pair monogamy (76). Given the impact of PV+ neuron gene expression on social behaviors,  
305 we hypothesized that there might be PV+ OCR evolution associated with social structure transitions in  
306 mammals.

307 Before investigating our results, we evaluated whether Cell-TACIT was producing reliable results  
308 by comparing results from Cell-TACIT run genome-wide on PV+ OCR orthologs to locations of human  
309 genome-wide association study (GWAS) hits for schizophrenia, a disorder associated with solitariness.  
310 Specifically, we divided PV+ OCRs into two groups: those that overlapped a schizophrenia-associated  
311 variant and those that did not (77). We determined the strength of association of all OCRs with solitary  
312 living in mammals. The set of PV+ interneuron OCRs with schizophrenia-associated variants had a  
313 shifted phyloglm p-value distribution for association with solitary living compared to the p-value  
314 distribution for other PV+ interneuron OCRs (one-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum  $p = 0.035$ ) (**Fig. 6B**).

315 When applying Cell-TACIT to only the WBS locus, we identified a mouse OCR (out of two  
316 OCRs in this locus) 29kb upstream of *GTF2IRD1* (human ortholog is 36kb upstream) that was marginally  
317 associated with non-solitary living ( $p = 0.08$ ) (**Fig. 6C**) and associated with group living ( $p = 0.02$ ). To  
318 evaluate whether this association was limited to PV+ interneurons, we also evaluated the relationship  
319 between predicted bulk motor cortex open chromatin and solitary as well as group living. For solitariness,  
320 we found one significantly negatively associated OCR ( $p = 0.005$ ) (**Fig. 6D**). This OCR is in an intron of  
321 *GTF2IRD1* that is about 26kb from its nearest TSS but does not overlap the OCR identified for PV+  
322 interneurons. For group living, we found two significantly associated OCRs, one of which is negatively  
323 associated ( $p = 0.04$ ) and the other of which is positively associated ( $p = 0.008$ ) and is the same OCR we  
324 found for solitariness. Of the 27 protein-coding genes in the WBS locus, *GTF2IRD1* is one of only two  
325 genes, where the other gene is its neighbor (*GTF2I*), with structural variants associated with the extreme  
326 sociability in dogs that makes them easier to domesticate than wolves (78). We additionally evaluated the



327 relationship between predicted liver open chromatin and solitary as well as group living but did not obtain  
 328 any statistically significant relationships after multiple hypothesis correction.



**Figure 6: Associations between predicted PV+ interneuron and motor cortex OCR ortholog open chromatin and solitary living.**

(A) A visualization of the human WBS deletion region. The locations of the PV+ interneuron and motor cortex OCRs (highlighted in panels (C) and (D)) near the gene *GTF2IRD1* are shown in yellow and green, respectively. (B) shows the difference in p-value distributions for association between solitary living and predicted open chromatin of PV+ interneuron OCRs whose human ortholog overlaps schizophrenia GWAS SNPs versus all other PV+ interneuron OCRs with a human ortholog. (C) highlights the marginal negative association between predicted PV+ interneuron open chromatin and solitary living of orthologs of a PV+ interneuron OCR near *GTF2IRD1*, chr5:134485808-134486308 (mm10). (D) highlights the negative association between predicted motor cortex open chromatin and solitary living of orthologs of a motor cortex OCR near *GTF2IRD1*, chr3:42408296-42408946 (rheMac8). For panels (C-D), each point represents one ortholog; they are grouped along the x-axis of each panel by clade as shown by the tree below. The clades and example species are listed in Table S10. Points are colored to indicate solitary versus social living following the key at the lower left.

329

330 *TACIT and Cell-TACIT identify open chromatin regions associated with the evolution of vocal learning*

331

332 We applied TACIT and Cell-TACIT to vocal learning, the ability to modify vocal output as a result of  
333 social experience, which has convergently evolved across mammals and been associated with convergent  
334 patterns of gene expression in the motor cortex (2, 79, 80). We identified 42 OCRs displaying convergent  
335 patterns of predicted open chromatin after false discovery rate correction ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) for motor cortex tissue  
336 and 14 for PV+ interneurons, which are described in more depth in our other work . Notably, these vocal  
337 learning-associated OCRs showed some concordance with results obtained using complementary methods  
338 for detecting convergent evolution. One of the motor cortex OCRs lies 88kb from *Vip*, whose expression  
339 in the motor cortex has been associated with vocal learning (2). Another OCR is 715kb from *TSHZ3*,  
340 whose amino acid sequence also showed convergent evolution associated with vocal learning behavior ( $p$   
341  $< 0.0001$ , rank 3) (81). *TSHZ3* is involved in the formation of cortico-striatal circuits, which play a central  
342 role in vocal learning behavior in mammals and birds, and its disruption in the human population is  
343 associated with a form of autism that includes delayed or disrupted speech acquisition (80, 82).

344

345 DISCUSSION

346

347 We present TACIT and Cell-TACIT, new methods for associating genotypes to phenotypes based on  
348 machine learning predictions of tissue- or cell type-specific open chromatin. Our approach overcomes the  
349 limitations of nucleotide-level conservation-based approaches, which cannot completely account for the  
350 conservation of enhancer function in the presence of low sequence conservation and cannot capture the  
351 tissue- and cell type-specificity of enhancer activity (25), because our machine learning models learn the  
352 conserved regulatory code underlying enhancer activity in our tissue or cell type of interest. We provide a  
353 community resource of annotated predicted open chromatin for more than 400,000 OCRs from four  
354 tissues and cell types across 222 mammalian species.

355           We applied TACIT and Cell-TACIT to identify tissue- and cell type-specific OCRs whose  
356 predicted open chromatin status across species is associated with brain size residual, solitary living, group  
357 living, and vocal learning, including OCRs near genes that were previously implicated in these  
358 phenotypes. Specifically, we identified motor cortex and PV+ interneuron OCRs associated with brain  
359 size residual that are near genes whose mutations are associated with microcephaly and macrocephaly, as  
360 well as motor cortex OCRs with a strong brain size residual association in Cetaceans, which provide  
361 candidate mechanisms for the evolution of brain size beyond the previously identified human-specific  
362 deletion (10). In addition, the WBS deletion region OCRs with the strongest evolution of solitary and  
363 group living association are near a critical gene for WBS presentation as well as canine social behavior  
364 (78). Genome-wide, the associations of PV+ interneuron OCRs with group and solitary living are  
365 correlated with whether the OCR overlaps a GWAS hit for schizophrenia, which suggests that OCRs  
366 involved in the evolution of traits may also be involved in disorders associated with those traits, a result  
367 further supported by our other work (38). To be confident that the OCRs we identified have enhancer  
368 activity that differs between species, we would need to use reporter assays to test the OCR orthologs'  
369 enhancer activity in multiple species. In addition, to thoroughly demonstrate that these OCRs regulate the  
370 nearby genes associated with the phenotypes, we would need to do experiments like CRISPR followed by  
371 RNA-qPCR to knock out the OCR and show that the knock-out causes a change in the expression of the  
372 nearby gene. Furthermore, considering genes with TSSs within 1Mb may limit our ability to identify real  
373 gene-OCR relationships (83), but, as data measuring three-dimensional genome interactions becomes  
374 available at higher resolution and in additional species, tissues, and cell types, our ability to link candidate  
375 enhancers associated with phenotypes to the genes they likely regulate will improve.

376           While our previous work used data from three species for model-training (25), in this work, we  
377 developed a new strategy for negative set construction that allowed us to train accurate models using data  
378 from only two species. Our success in doing this enabled us to train models that accurately predict  
379 whether sequence differences across species in PV+ interneuron OCR orthologs are associated with PV+  
380 interneuron open chromatin changes, demonstrating that the regulatory code is conserved across

381 Euarchontoglires not only at the bulk tissue level but also in a specific neuronal cell type. We also found  
382 that having data from more clades enabled us to identify OCRs associated with phenotypes in additional  
383 clades, such as the OCR near *LRIG1* associated with the evolution of brain size residual in the Cetacea  
384 order within Laurasiatheria, and provides us with the power to identify OCRs with weaker associations  
385 with a phenotype across multiple lineages, such as the OCR near *Sall3* associated with the evolution of  
386 brain size residual in both Euarchonta and Laurasiatheria.

387         Unlike phyloP or PhastCons scores, the broad application of TACIT and Cell-TACT is limited by  
388 the availability of high-quality open chromatin data from the same tissue or cell type in multiple species.  
389 TACIT and Cell-TACT require enhancer activity data from at least two species for evaluating machine  
390 learning models, and, to limit confounding factors, the data should ideally contain animals at comparable  
391 developmental stages, biological replicates from both sexes, and animals that were sacrificed in  
392 comparable behavioral states at approximately the same relative time in their circadian cycles.  
393 Additionally, predictions are currently limited to orthologs of experimentally identified candidate  
394 enhancers, meaning that we are not able to capture enhancers that are not active in the experimentally  
395 assayed species, cell types, developmental stages, or conditions. Furthermore, our approach assumes that  
396 the evolution of a phenotype is controlled by the same candidate enhancer across species, but there are  
397 likely many phenotypes controlled by genes that are not activated by the same enhancer in every species.  
398 We also treat missing or unusable OCR orthologs as missing data, but some of these are likely lost OCRs.  
399 Exciting extensions to our approach include training models to accurately predict whether sequence  
400 differences cause changes in candidate enhancer activity genome-wide, jointly modeling cross-species  
401 predicted enhancer activity of enhancers near the same gene, and using genome quality and the predicted  
402 open chromatin of OCRs in closely related species to determine when a lack of a usable OCR ortholog  
403 should be treated as a negative. Finally, our approach assumes that the regulatory code in our tissue or cell  
404 type of interest is conserved across the species we are testing, an assumption that may be violated in some  
405 tissues and cell types. For example, this may explain the sub-optimal performance of our retina CNNs  
406 trained on mouse sequences in predicting Euarchonta-specific open and closed chromatin (84, 85).

407           With the Zoonomia Cactus alignment of over two hundred mammalian genomes and the wealth  
408 of publicly available enhancer activity data from matching tissues and cell types in human, house mouse,  
409 and some other species, TACIT and Cell-TACIT can currently be applied to identify candidate enhancers  
410 associated with the evolution of many mammalian phenotypes. Because TACIT and Cell-TACIT require  
411 enhancer activity data from tissues or cell types of interest in only a few species, they can be used to  
412 identify losses of enhancer activity associated with changes in a phenotype in challenging-to-study  
413 species for which we have genomes but cannot collect tissue samples. In addition, while we trained our  
414 models for TACIT using open chromatin, TACIT can also be applied using other assays of enhancer  
415 activity, such as H3K27ac and EP300 ChIP-seq (27). Candidate enhancers associated with the evolution  
416 of phenotypes near genes involved in diseases related to those phenotypes may provide insights into  
417 disease mechanisms. We anticipate that, as more genomes and regulatory genomics data become  
418 available, TACIT and Cell-TACIT will provide insights into the regulatory mechanisms governing a wide  
419 range of phenotypes.

420

## 421 LIST OF SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

422 Materials and Methods

423 Supplementary Text

424 Supplementary Figures 1-8

425 Supplementary Tables 1-11

426

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