Depletion effects and loop formation in self-avoiding polymers

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The kinetics and thermodynamics of the folding of a flexible polymeric chain into a loop are central issues in polymer physics [1, 2, 3, 4]. Renewed interest in this classic problem has been fuelled by the introduction of novel manipulation techniques [5] that provide unprecedented insight into the mechanics and flexibility of various biopolymers. In particular, it has been shown that, in the cell nucleus, DNA regions separated by several µm’s on the genetic map can nevertheless be in molecular contact [6]. Is such looping generated by active mechanisms (e.g., molecular motors), or merely by passive thermodynamic mechanisms (e.g., diffusion)? Some light can be shed on these issues by comparing experimental observations with the statistics and dynamics of looping predicted by general polymer models. The systematic application of this strategy has so far been hindered by the dependence of cyclization dynamics on many time scales even for the simplest phantom polymer models [6].

Here, we go beyond the treatment of phantom chains and focus on the impact of steric effects. We not only consider the polymer self avoidance [6, 7] but also incorporate excluded volume interactions of the chain with a surrounding crowded environment, treated as a collection of small monodisperse globular particles (microspheres) which induce an entropic attraction on larger objects in solution [8]. To date, the investigation of this intriguing depletion effect, has been mainly studied in polydispersed colloidal solutions [6, 7]. Understanding how crowding affects the behaviour of a single self-avoiding polymer thus represents a novel and important topic in macromolecular physics. It also has immediate implications in cell and systems biology, as cells are crowded with globular proteins and RNAs [6, 7, 8, 9, 10]. We show that crowding affects the occurrence and persistence of loops in self-avoiding polymers in diverse ways, according to the length of the polymer chain and the size of the constitutive monomers. Besides uncovering new physics, our results may be relevant to the understanding of chromatin looping in vivo. Specifically, we will discuss whether and to what extent the depletion attraction may explain existing observations in cell biology that active polymerases, attached to chromatin, cluster into supramolecular “factories” of up to µm size during transcription and replication [1].

A traditional string-and-beads model will be used to describe polymer chains. We consider two simple cases: a plain self-avoiding string of N equally-sized spherical beads of radii \( R_i = 1\ldots N = 12.5 \text{ nm} \), and one with larger beads at the ends. This sphere size was chosen to relate our polymer to an eukaryotic chromatin fiber, whose effective diameter and persistence length are both \( \sim 25 \text{ nm} \) [11]. The case of larger end beads is instead motivated by the study of chromatin loops with an attached genome-grabbing machinery (a large transcription or a replication complex which locally increases the effective fiber diameter [12]). The potential energy, when the centres of beads \( i \) and \( j \) are at a distance \( d_{ij} \), is

\[
V_c = \epsilon_1 \sum_{i<j} e^{-a(d_{ij} - d_0^0)} - \epsilon_2 \sum_i \ln[1 - (d_{i+1,j}^0/1.5d_i^0)^2] \tag{1}
\]

where \( \epsilon_1 \) and \( \epsilon_2 \) are respectively 0.24 and 70 units of thermal energy, \( \kappa_B T \), \( a = 4 \text{ nm}^{-1} \), and \( d_0^0 = R_i + R_j \) is the contact distance of beads \( i \). The first term in eqn. (1) enforces the hard-core repulsion for contacting pairs, while the second provides an attraction between consecutive beads on the chain. Interplay between the two terms produces a self-avoiding FENE chain [11] where, at temperature \( T = 300 \text{ K} \), the distance between consecutive beads fluctuates by about 0.5 nm around 25 nm. The microspheres have radius \( r = 2.5 \text{ nm} \) and occupy a fraction \( \phi = 0.15 \) of the total available volume. These values conservatively reflect the crowding of the cellular environment mostly due to RNA and proteins [11]. Because the value of \( \phi \) considered here is moderate (see Fig. 1), we can resort to the approximate Asakura-Oosawa (AO) treatment [6], which does not require to simulating explicitly the dynamics of microspheres. More precisely, in addition to the term of eqn. (1), the polymer is subject to the following effective interaction potential:

\[
V_{AO} = -\frac{\phi k_B T}{16\pi^2} \sum_{i<j} \left( 2\tilde{d}_{ij} + 3d_{ij} - \frac{3A_{ij}^2}{\tilde{d}_{ij}} \right) \tilde{d}_{ij}^2 \Theta(\tilde{d}_{ij}) \tag{2}
\]

where \( \tilde{d}_{ij} = 2r + d_0^0 - d_{ij} \), \( \Delta_{ij} = |R_i - R_j| \), and the
with 3 randomized non self-intersecting configurations of chains dynamics is affected by the size of the contacting spheres, biopolymers, dynamics (with masses deduced from typical densities of binary successful comparison of various dynamic and equi-

\[ L_n \equiv \frac{1}{k_B T} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right) \mathbf{S}^0 \to \mathbf{S}^0 = \mathbf{S}^0, \]

\[ \langle \mathbf{S}^0 \rangle = 0, \]

\[ \langle \xi_i^0(t) \xi_j^0(t') \rangle = 2 \delta_{i,j} \delta(t, t') \] \[ k_B T \gamma_i. \]

The friction term \( \gamma_i \) was obtained from the Stokes-Einstein relation: \[ \gamma_i = 6 \pi \eta (1 + 2 \phi) R_i \] where \( \eta = 5 \text{ cP} \). The Langevin equation was integrated numerically by means of a predictor-corrector scheme and a time step of 15 ps. The viability of eqn. (3) was ascertained by a preliminary successful comparison of various dynamic and equilibrium properties with those produced by underdamped dynamics (with masses deduced from typical densities of biopolymers, \( \rho = 1.35 \text{ g/cm}^3 \)).

The dynamical evolution was followed starting from randomized non self-intersecting configurations of chains with \( 3 \leq N \leq 30 \) beads. When investigating how looping dynamics is affected by the size of the contacting spheres, we set \( N = 10 \) and varied the radius of the end spheres, \( R_1 = R_N \), within 12.5 and 43.75 nm. The formation of loops was detected by monitoring the end-to-end distance, \( d_{1,N} \) and comparing it to the range of the depletion attraction, \( d_{1,N} < (d_{1,N}^0 + 2r) \). To have a well-defined comparison term, the same criterion for loop formation was adopted in the absence of crowding effects/agents (i.e., \( \phi = 0 \)). Typical evolutions of the end-to-end distance are illustrated in Fig. 1. The trajectories were analysed to highlight how depletion interactions affect the looping kinetics and the chain equilibrium structural properties. For the latter issue several geometrical descriptors were considered: the radius of gyration, virial coefficients and the distribution of local chiralities \( \chi_i = \mathbf{u}_{i+2,i+3} \cdot (\mathbf{u}_{i,i+1} \wedge \mathbf{u}_{i+1,i+2}) \), \( \mathbf{u}_{i,i+1} \) being the normalized bond vector joining residues \( i \) and \( i+1 \). For looped configurations we also calculated the writhe and crossing number, averaged over hundreds of randomly oriented two-dimensional projections.

Concerning the looping dynamics we instead characterize the evolution of the system in terms of the mean first looping time (MFLT) and the mean-first unlooping time (MFUT), which we establish through the following novel procedure apt for numerical implementation. For very long, and hence thermalised, trajectories the MFLT is obtainable by picking at random unlooped conformations and measuring the time to the first looping event. Configurations in a specific “unlooped time interval” of duration \( \tau_n \) will be picked with weight equal to \( \tau_n \) and their average first looping time will be \( \tau_n/2 \). The MFLT can thus be expressed in terms of the average duration of unlooping intervals and its second moment: \( \text{MFLT} = \frac{1}{2} \langle \tau_n^2 \rangle \). An analogous formula holds for the MFUT. The average values of MFUT and MFLT (we have verified that the first two moments of looping and unlooping intervals are finite) and their uncertainties were calculated over 10 independent trajectories having maximum duration ranging from 0.1 s for \( N = 3 \) to 10 s for \( N = 30 \).

We first discuss the structural differences of the generated configurations. The short-range depletion attraction produces a reduction of the effective size of the polymer. For the largest \( N \) considered, where most conformations are unlooped, the radius of gyration decreases by 10% when \( \phi \) goes from 0 to 0.15. The depletion attraction also impacts on the chain structural organization. Indeed, the geometrical complexity of looped chains is enhanced by crowding and the average crossing number increases with \( \phi \) (Fig. 1). This is akin to what occurs in random rings upon compactification. At variance with this case, the development of a striking trimodal character of the chiralities distribution indicates the emergence of a peculiar structural organization (see Fig. 1). Though the chiral biases are local, and hence do not lead to long-range structural order, they provide qualitative support to the recent suggestion of Snir and Kamien that deple-
is the scaling exponent for self-avoiding polymers and the MFLT \([6, 7]\) increase as relaxation times in Rouse chains with excluded volume. The asymptotic law for relaxation time in Rouse chains, \(\tau_R \propto N^{2\nu+1}\), is shown for comparison. (d) Ratio between MFLT in the presence (\(\phi = 0.15\)) and absence (\(\phi = 0\)) of crowding agents. The typical error is 5%.

The behaviour of the MFLT (Fig. 2 and d) is more intriguing and harder to anticipate, owing to two opposing tendencies. On one hand, as we saw earlier the depletion attraction reduces the effective polymer size and hence favours looping. On the other, crowding augments the effective viscosity of the medium, thereby slowing the diffusive encounter of terminal beads. More precisely, the Stokes-Einstein formula gives a 38% increase of friction coefficient when \(\phi = 0.15\) compared to \(\phi = 0\). The resulting balance between the two opposing effects can be established by considering the asymptotic expression for relaxation times in Rouse chains with excluded volume. The slowest relaxation time in such chains (assimilated to the MFLT \(R_1\)) increase as \(\gamma b^2 N^{2\nu+1}\), where \(\nu \approx 0.6\) is the scaling exponent for self-avoiding polymers and \(b\) is the effective size of the chain monomers estimated by calculating the second virial coefficient accounting for the depletion attraction of of eqn. \(\ref{eqn:2}\). Indeed, the data collected within the explored range of \(N\), appear well compatible with this asymptotic relationship (see Fig. 2). The Rouse scaling formula can hence be used to quantify how the crowding-induced changes in \(\gamma\) and \(b\) ultimately affect the MFLT for large \(N\). For the specific case considered here, \(\phi = 0.15\), one finds that the MFLT is decreased by about 17% compared to the \(\phi = 0\) case. This crude asymptotic estimate is in fair agreement with the simulation results for \(N = 15-30\) which indicate that, when \(\phi = 0.15\), crowding decreases the MFLT by 10% or more. It is interesting to consider, within the previous approximate analysis, how the MFLT depends on \(\phi\). This information, obtained from the known functional dependence on \(\phi\) of the friction and second virial coefficients, is shown in Fig. 3 which portrays an intriguing non-monotonic dependence: for small crowding \(\phi < 0.1\), the diffusive slowing dominates, while larger \(\phi\) facilitate looping via depletion-induced crumpling of the chain.

We finally discuss the dependence of looping on the size of the terminal beads. We considered chains of \(N = 10\) beads where \(R_1 = R_N\) were varied between 12.5 and 43.75 nm. We found that the increase in end spheres size had minor effect on the MFLT which, for \(\phi = 0.15\), changed by less than 10% over the explored range of terminal radii. The near constancy of the MFLT is noteworthy since the change of \(R_1 = R_N\) from 12.5 to 43.75 nm implies a two-fold increase of probability that terminal spheres contact internal ones. In contrast, the MFUT is greatly affected by changes in terminal radii. As illustrated in Fig. 2 for \(\phi = 0.15\) it increases approximately exponentially as a function of \(R_1\) and \(R_N\). This behaviour would be expected if the terminal bead exited the depletion well (whose depth increases linearly with \(R_1 = R_N\)) according to simple Arrhenius kinetics. However, the increase in MFUT also reflects the decreased diffusivity of terminal beads as a result of the linear increase in \(R\) of the friction coefficient, \(\gamma\). This second effect, dominated by the former in the presence of crowding, is readily visible in the curve pertaining to \(\phi = 0\) in Fig. 2d. The dotted line represents a fit to the 6 data points with a linear relationship in \(R_1 = R_N\) (with relative \(\chi^2\) equal to 1.5), which would be appropriate if the diffusion coefficient of the terminal spheres were the only
factor slowing unlooping. By carrying out simulations for selected values of $\phi$ it was found that increasing $\phi$ enhances the magnitude of these effects. For example, with $\phi = 0.3$, which may also be appropriate for crowding in nucleoplasm [12], the MFLT is $\sim 3$ times smaller, and the MFUT (with $R_1 = R_N = 25$ nm) $\sim 9$ times longer than with $\phi = 0.15$.

We now discuss the possible biological implications of our results. As mentioned previously, a large number of active DNA (and RNA) polymerases can attach to specific segments of a chromatin fiber thus increasing its local thickness. Experimental observations have shown that these scattered groups of polymerases eventually cluster into replication (or transcription) factories thus looping the intervening genome. In the case of transcription factories in eukaryotes, these structures contain $\sim 10$ or more polymerases and having size ranging from $\sim 100$ nm up to $\sim \mu$m [13]. Is there a simple physical mechanism leading to their establishment? Our study suggests that the formation and persistence of these loops can be aided by cellular crowding. First, using a conservative estimate of $\phi = 0.15$, we find that the depletion self-interaction of the fiber thermodynamically facilitates looping (see e.g. Fig. 4). For example, analysis of end-to-end distances in equilibrium shows that bridging the two ends of a 750-nm fiber, which would contain 75 kilobases of DNA [13], costs more than 8 $k_B T$ in the absence of crowding agents, but less than 7 $k_B T$ in their presence. We find crowding diminishes the looping cost by 1-2 $k_B T$ for all lengths simulated. All, or most, of this looping cost may be overcome by the extra depletion attraction between the thicker ends of the loop, to which the transcription machinery is attached, consistently with recent theoretical predictions [13]. Second, the results of Fig. 2d demonstrate that crowding can also aid looping dynamically by facilitating the diffusive encounter of the ends. This intriguing result is supported by theoretical arguments summarised in Fig. 4 which suggest the effect is robust. Furthermore, crowding stabilizes loops once the two ends have met. The fact that the MFUT has an approximately exponential dependence on the height of the depletion well (Fig. 2d) underscores the role that crowding has for the formation of replication/transcription factories. Via eqn. (2) we estimate the unlooping time of e.g. two transcription complexes of radius $R \approx 40$ nm with $\phi \approx 0.3$ can easily exceed 0.1 s – a macroscopic time-scale, $\sim$ the experimentally measured persistence time of factories. In living cells the life-time of such aggregates is probably longer because, besides other physical-chemical factors, many complexes may come together (rather than the two considered here) and interactions of one large bead with two or more others cooperatively increases the stabilization due to the depletion attraction [13].

In conclusion, we have considered various kinetic and thermodynamic aspects of polymer looping in a crowded medium. The process of loop formation is controlled by two opposing effects. On one hand looping is entropically aided in crowded media by the depletion effect. On the other, the enhanced friction of the medium hinders the diffusive encounter of the chain ends. The balance of the two effects is found to depend both on the length of the polymer chain and on the size of the contacting ends. Specific model parameters have been used to show quantitatively that crowding-enhanced looping formation/persistence may be actually exploited in living cells to promote the contact of actively replicated/transcribed chromatin regions as observed in recent experiments [12]. The approach outlined here demonstrates the viability of computational and analytical approaches to investigate the novel and stimulating problem of crowding effects on a single polymer. It would be interesting to confront theoretical and experiments on looping and unlooping times obtained from single molecules experiments with and without crowding agents.

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