Multiprotein DNA looping

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Abstract

DNA looping plays a fundamental role in a wide variety of biological processes, providing the
backbone for long range interactions on DNA. Here we develop the first model for DNA looping
by an arbitrarily large number of proteins and solve it analytically in the case of identical bind-
ing. We uncover a switch-like transition between looped and unlooped phases and identify the key
parameters that control this transition. Our results establish the basis for the quantitative under-
standing of fundamental cellular processes like DNA recombination, gene silencing, and telomere
maintenance.

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The formation of DNA loops by the binding of proteins and protein complexes at distal DNA sites plays a fundamental role in many cellular processes [1, 2, 3, 4, 5], including transcription [6], recombination [7], replication [4], and telomere maintenance [8]. Disruption or alteration of these processes often results in different developmental disorders and disease states, with cancer the most prominent example [9]. The key role of looping is to bypass the one-dimensional nature of DNA and allow distal DNA sites to come close to each other.

In gene regulation, proteins bound far away from the genes they regulate can be brought to the initiation of transcription region of the regulated genes by looping the intervening DNA [1]. Similarly, in DNA recombination, loops are formed that bring together two DNA regions to transfer the genetic information from one DNA region to another. Although there are studies of double-stranded DNA looping by DNA itself (cyclization) [10], by one protein [11, 12], or by a few proteins [1], a general understanding of the collective properties that might emerge when multiple proteins are involved is still lacking. The case of multiple proteins is specially important because it is the dominant one for loops larger than a few hundred base pairs [1, 4].

In this letter we develop the first model for DNA looping by an arbitrary number of proteins. For small number of proteins, this model accounts for previous thermodynamic approaches that have been shown to reproduce in detail available experimental data on regulation of the lac operon and phage-λ [1]. For large number of proteins, we show here that the model exhibits properties reminiscent of phase transitions [13], with a quasi-discontinuity in the occupancy of the DNA sites by DNA binding proteins. We identify the parameters that control the transition and show that there are two phases that can be associated with looped and unlooped states of DNA. The density of proteins on DNA is low for the unlooped state and high for the looped state. Despite the apparent one-dimensional physical nature of the problem, looping of DNA introduces long range interactions which make the system exhibit unexpected collective features.

We consider a system with two spatially distinct DNA regions on the same DNA double-strand, referred to as upstream (U) and downstream (D) operators (Figure 1). Each operator has \( N \) binding sites for proteins that once bound to one of them can interact with its symmetric counterpart on the other operator if DNA is looped. The typical way to obtain the statistical properties of the system is to identify the representative states and their corresponding free energies and to compute the partition function [11]. This process is usually
done by tabulating the free energies and explicitly writing down the sums of Boltzmann factors for all the states. For large systems, however, this procedure is not practical because of the exponential growth of the potential number of states (e.g., for N=3, there are already 128 states).

The facts that the free energy of a state can be decomposed into different contributions and that the states can be labelled by discrete variables allow for a Hamiltonian description of the system. Here, we describe the binding of proteins to DNA through binary variables $\sigma_{U,i}$ and $\sigma_{D,i}$, which indicate whether (= 1) or not (= 0) a protein is bound to site $i$ at the upstream or downstream operator, respectively. Similarly, an additional binary variable $\sigma_L$ indicates whether DNA is looped (= 1) or not (= 0). In terms of this set of binary variables the system is described by the following Hamiltonian:

\[
H = (c + e \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_{U,i} \sigma_{D,i}) \sigma_L + g \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\sigma_{U,i} + \sigma_{D,i}),
\]

where $g$ is the change in free energy upon binding of a protein to a DNA site; $e$ is the free energy of interaction between proteins symmetrically bound at opposite operators; and $c$ is the free energy of forming the DNA loop. Therefore, the free energy of each of the $2^N$ looped and $2^N$ unlooped states is obtained directly from the previous Hamiltonian. The dependence of the Hamiltonian on the concentration of binding proteins $n$ enters, in the usual form, through the quantity $g$, which can be viewed as a chemical potential: $g = g^o - \frac{1}{T} \ln n$, where $g^o$ denotes the value of $g$ at a protein concentration of 1 M and $\beta^{-1} = RT$ (the gas constant times the absolute temperature). This type of Hamiltonians account for thermodynamic models that have recently been shown to accurately describe gene regulation in the lac operon by the lac repressor ($N = 1$) and in phage-\(\lambda\) by the cl2 repressor ($N = 3$). A systematic analysis for large systems, however, is still missing.

In order to compute the partition function, it is convenient to rewrite the Hamiltonian as the sum of quasi-independent single-pair Hamiltonians:

\[
H = \sum_{i=1}^{N} H_{P,i},
\]

where

\[
H_{P,i} = \sigma_L(c/N + e\sigma_{U,i}\sigma_{D,i}) + g(\sigma_{U,i} + \sigma_{D,i}).
\]

The coupling of single-pair Hamiltonians is established through the three-body terms
\( e \sigma_{U,i} \sigma_{D,i} \sigma_{L} \), which account for the interactions between DNA looping and DNA-bound proteins.

The quasi-independence property allows us to express the partition function as

\[
Z = \sum_{\sigma_L=\{0,1\}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} Z_{P,i},
\]

with

\[
Z_{P,i} = \sum_{\sigma_{U,i}=\{0,1\}} \sum_{\sigma_{D,i}=\{0,1\}} e^{-\beta H_{P,i}}
= e^{-\frac{c_3 \sigma_{L}}{N}} + e^{-\beta \left( 2g + \left( \frac{c}{N} + e \right) \sigma_{L} \right) + 2e^{-\beta \left( g + \frac{c}{N} \sigma_{L} \right)}} ,
\]

which leads to

\[
Z = \left( e^{-2g \beta} \left( 1 + e^{g \beta} \right)^2 \right)^N + \left( 2e^{-\left( \frac{c}{N} + g \right)^\beta} + e^{-\left( \frac{c}{N} + e + 2g \right)^\beta} + e^{-\frac{c}{N}} \right)^N .
\]

The two properties of interest are the looping probability and the occupancy of the sites, which follow straightforwardly from the previous expression of the partition function. The probability of the looped state is given by the average value of \( \sigma_{L} \), \( \langle \sigma_{L} \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial}{\partial c} \ln Z \). After taking the logarithmic derivative and performing algebraic manipulations, we obtain

\[
\langle \sigma_{L} \rangle = \frac{1}{1 + X^N} ,
\]

with

\[
X = \frac{e^{\left( \frac{c}{N} + e \right) \beta} \left( 1 + e^{g \beta} \right)^2}{1 + 2e^{(e+g)\beta} \left( 1 + e^{(e+2g)\beta} \right)} .
\]

This expression for \( \langle \sigma_{L} \rangle \) indicates that, for large \( N \), there is the potential for a sharp transition between two states: the loop is always present if \( X < 1 \) and absent if \( X > 1 \). This discontinuity can also propagate to the probability for a site to be occupied, given by

\[
\langle \sigma_{U/D,i} \rangle = -\frac{1}{2N\beta} \frac{\partial}{\partial g} \ln Z ,
\]

which is related to the looping probability through

\[
\langle \sigma_{U/D,i} \rangle = \frac{1}{1 + e^{g \beta}} \langle 1 - \sigma_{L} \rangle + \frac{1 + e^{(e+g)\beta}}{1 + 2e^{(e+g)\beta} + e^{(e+2g)\beta}} \langle \sigma_{L} \rangle .
\]

Under physiological conditions, the parameter typically used by the cell to control DNA looping is the protein concentration. Figure 2 shows the system behavior as a function of
the protein concentration and the number of binding sites for representative values of the parameters \[16\]. The figure illustrates the presence of looped and unlooped phases (Figure 2a). Only for intermediate concentrations the occupancy of the sites (Figure 2b) displays a discontinuous behavior. For concentrations in the high and low extremes, DNA looping does not substantially affect the binding of proteins.

The concentration \[\tilde{n}\] at which the transition happens \((X = 1)\) is given by

\[
\tilde{n} = e^{\beta g} \frac{e^{c\beta} (e^{\frac{c\beta}{N}} - 1) + \sqrt{e^{c\beta} (1 - e^{c\beta}) (e^{\frac{c\beta}{N}} - 1)}}{1 - e^{(\frac{c\beta}{N} + e)\beta}}. \tag{10}
\]

This equation has a positive solution if and only if \(e < -c/N\). If \(e \geq -c/N\) there is no positive solution and the sites become occupied as the concentration increases without the system ever reaching the looped state (Figure 2). Therefore, the inter-operator protein interactions need to exceed a strength threshold in order for DNA looping to have the potential to be present. Remarkably, this threshold goes to zero as the number of binding sites increases. This constraint correlates with the general trend that the number of proteins used to tie the DNA loop increases with the length of the loop \[1, 4\]. A longer loop typically implies a higher free energy of looping, \(c\), which in turn requires a stronger interaction between proteins (a more negative \(e\)) or a higher number of sites in order for the system to switch to the looped state.

A remarkable property inferred from the previous equations is that the looping free energy and the number of binding sites affect the concentration at which the transition occurs only through the ratio \(c/N\). If this ratio is kept constant, coordinated changes in \(c\) and \(N\) modify the sharpness of the transition but not the concentration at which it happens (Figure 3). The main trends observed in the looping behavior with respect to \(c\) and \(N\) are also observed in the occupancy of the sites (Equation 9), which depends on \(c\) and \(N\) only through the looping probability.

In the case of large \(N\), by expanding in terms of the dimensionless parameter \(\beta c/N\), the previous equation simplifies to

\[
\tilde{n} = e^{\beta g} \sqrt{\frac{c\beta}{N (e^{-c\beta} - 1)}}, \tag{11}
\]

which indicates that the concentration at which the transition happens decreases asymptotically like \(N^{-1/2}\) as the number of binding sites increases (as demonstrated in Figure 2b).
Therefore, by increasing the number of binding sites, the system can reach the looped phase at arbitrarily small protein concentrations.

This asymptotic equation indicates that, for large $N$, changes of $e$ and $N$ that keep $N(e^{-e\beta} - 1)$ constant do not affect the transition point. Because of the strong dependence of the occupancy on $e$ for looped phases (Equation 9), coordinated changes of $e$ and $N$ can keep the looping properties while strongly affecting the occupancy of the sites (Figure 4).

In conclusion, we have developed the first model for DNA looping by an arbitrary number of proteins and found that, for large number of binding sites, the system exhibits a phase-transition-like behavior with two phases in which DNA is either looped or unlooped. Many cellular processes rely on the existence a looped phase to work (e.g. telomere maintenance), others on the occupancies of the sites that comes with the looped phase (e.g. gene regulation), and others on the transition from one phase to another to trigger its effects (e.g. DNA recombination). Our results indicate that DNA looping by multiple proteins has a high versatility to achieve different behaviors. Explicitly, the system can reach the looped phase at arbitrarily small protein concentrations, the sharpness of the transition can easily be tuned, and the system can choose the degree to which switching to the looped state affects occupancy of the DNA binding sites. This versatility underlies the many facets of DNA looping across the spectrum of biological processes where it is at play.

The model we have proposed and its potential extensions encompass a broad range of biological processes. The case of identical binding we have discussed here in detail closely approximates DNA looping in DNA recombination and telomere maintenance [7, 8]. Both of these processes play a fundamental role in the functioning of the cell and their deregulation is responsible for a variety of diseases, including different types of cancer [9]. Our model provides a backbone to build upon and to tackle more complex situations, involving for instance non-identical binding, multiple loops, and intra-operator interactions [17]. From a methodological point of view, our approach provides a full Hamiltonian formulation of DNA looping that opens the applicability of the techniques of statistical physics, both computational and analytical, to a new range of biological problems of basic and medical importance.

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[16] The typical values of the parameters $e$ and $c$ for DNA looping in the natural environment of the cell fall in the range $e < 0$ and $c > 0$ (attractive interactions between DNA-binding molecules and DNA naturally unlooped). The model, analysis, and results are in general valid for any value of the parameters $e$ and $c$. The case in which $e > 0$ and $c < 0$ would mean that the loop is intrinsically stable and the DNA-binding molecules “open” the loop. For $e > 0$ and $c > 0$, the system is always unlooped, and for $e < 0$ and $c < 0$, the system is always looped.

[17] A more general Hamiltonian is given by:

$$ H = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \left[ \sigma_{L,k} \left( c_k + \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} e_{i,j,k} \sigma_{U,i} \sigma_{D,j} \right) \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( g_{U,i} \sigma_{U,i} + g_{D,i} \sigma_{D,i} \right), $$

where the binding free energy $g_{U/D,i}$ depends on the site, there are $M$ different types of DNA loops with potentially different free energies $c_k$, and the interaction free energy $e_{i,j,k}$ between
proteins bound at opposite operators depends on the type of loop and the particular binding sites.
Figure 1: Schematic representation of looped DNA. Proteins (filled circles) bind to DNA (black line) at specific sites (rectangles on the line). Proteins bound at one operator, upstream (U) or downstream (D), can interact with their counterparts at the opposite operator if DNA forms a loop (L). In this example, the number of binding sites per operator is $N$. The binary variables $\sigma_{U,i}$ and $\sigma_{D,i}$ are 1 when proteins are bound to the corresponding DNA site and are 0 otherwise. Here, only the two proteins bound at sites $i = N$ on the upstream ($U,N$) and downstream ($D,N$) operator interact with each other.
Figure 2: Looping probability $P_{\text{loop}}$ (a) and site occupancy $P_{\text{bound}}$ (b) as functions of the protein concentration $n$ (in nM) and the number of binding sites per operator $N$. The values of the parameters are $\beta^{-1} = 0.6$ kcal/mol, $\sigma^o = -7.2$ kcal/mol, $c = 30$ kcal/mol, $e = -5.5$ kcal/mol. Black and white colors in the 2-D density plot projections of the 3-D surfaces represent probabilities 0 and 1, respectively. The green line corresponds to $\tilde{n}$ (given by Equation [10]) and indicates the separation between looped and unlooped phases (regions with concentrations above and below the line, respectively). Note that there is no looped phase for $N < -c/e = 5.45$. 
Figure 3: Looping probability $P_{\text{loop}}$ and site occupancy $P_{\text{bound}}$ as functions of the protein concentration $n$ (in nM) for coordinated changes of the free energy of looping and number of binding sites. The values of the parameters are $\beta^{-1} = 0.6$ kcal/mol, $g^o = -7.2$ kcal/mol, $e = -7.5$ kcal/mol, $c = 0.1N$ kcal/mol, $N = 10$ (top), $N = 100$ (middle), and $N = 1000$ (bottom).

Figure 4: Looping probability $P_{\text{loop}}$ and site occupancy $P_{\text{bound}}$ as functions of the protein concentration $n$ (in nM) for coordinated changes in the interaction free energy and number of binding sites. The values of the parameters are $\beta^{-1} = 0.6$ kcal/mol, $g^o = -7.2$ kcal/mol, $c = 30$ kcal/mol, $e = -10.96$ kcal/mol $+ \beta^{-1} \ln N$, $N = 100$ (top), $N = 1000$ (middle), and $N = 10000$ (bottom).