

Transcription

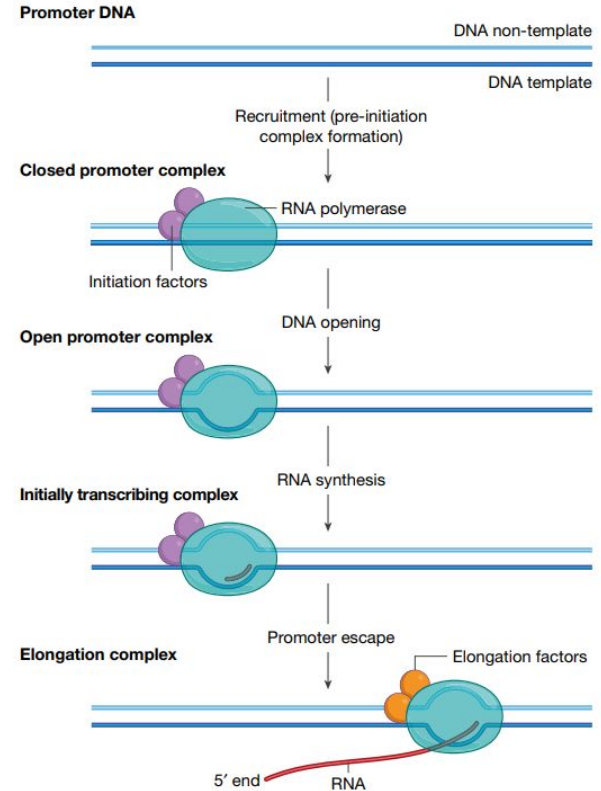
Eukaryotic transcription

RNAP forms PIC on the promoter

Promoter complex opens

DNA-dependent RNA synthesis then generates an initially transcribing complex

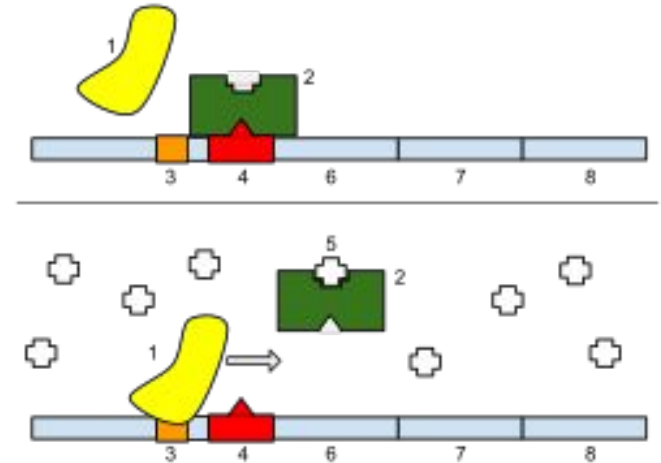
RNAP escapes promoter



Promoter

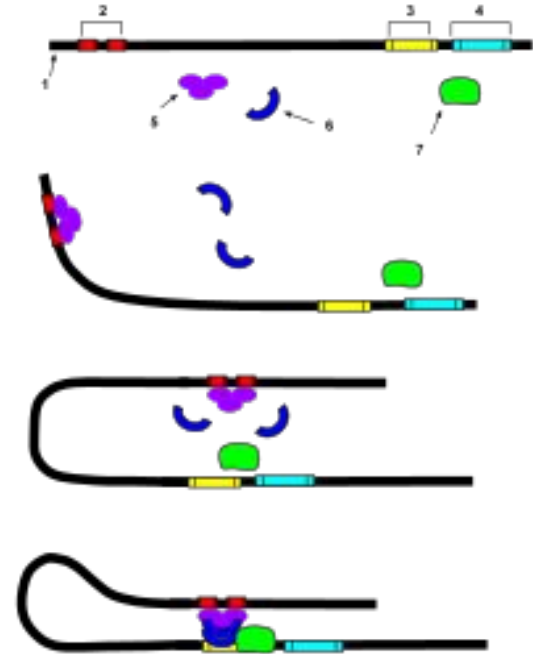
Region of transcription initiation

Located upstream of gene



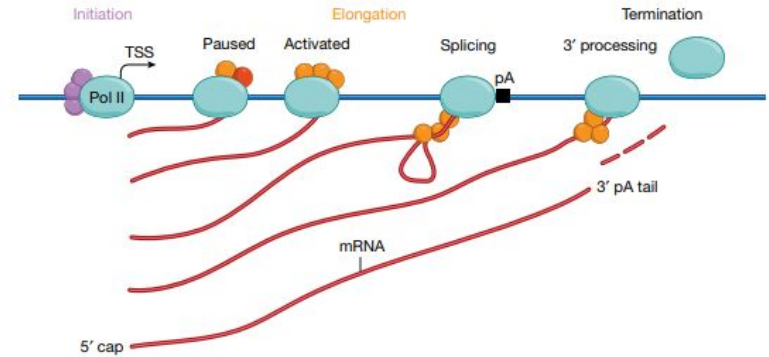
Enhancer

DNA region that binds transcription factors (TFs) to facilitate transcription



Eukaryotic transcription

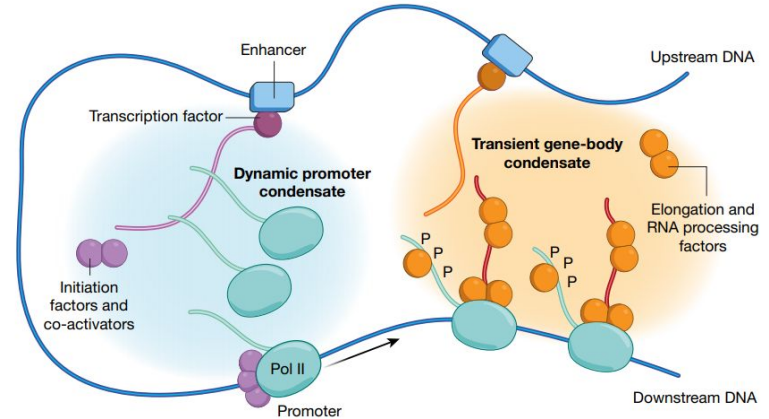
RNAPII associates with different proteins during the transcription cycle



Condensate model

TFs form condensates to recruit RNAPII to promoters

RNAPII shuttles between promoter and gene-body condensates



Transcription factors and genome architecture

Linear view of genome is outdated - 3D structure matters

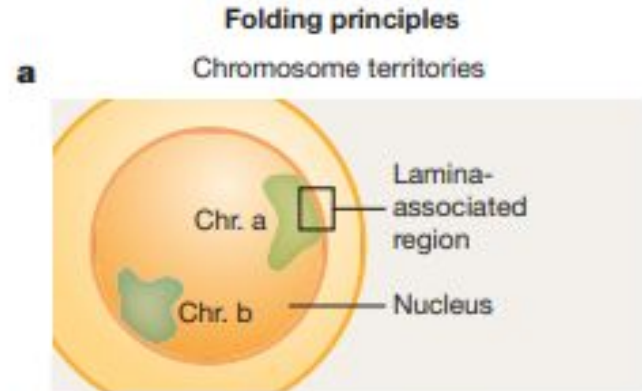
Transcription factors help shape 3D structure for altering functionality of genome

Chromosome territories

Chromosomes are organized into specific compartments in the nucleus

Interactions with nuclear lamina important for their maintenance

Territories rarely intersect



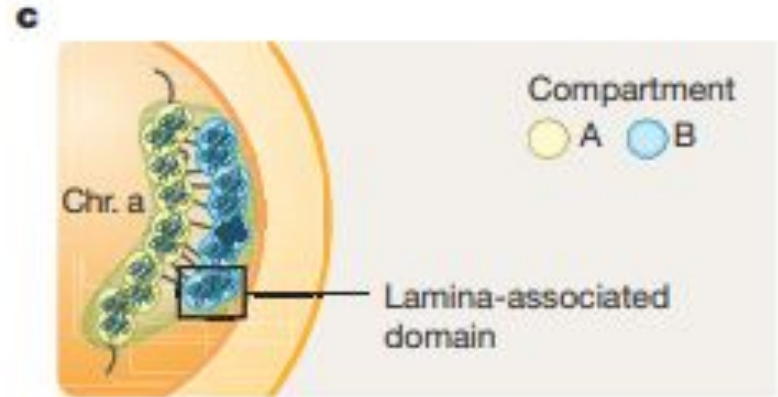
Compartments in territories

Each territory can be divided into A and B compartments

A is mostly euchromatic

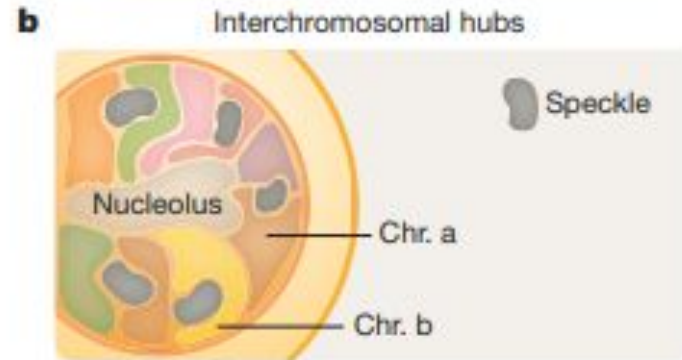
B is lamina-associated and mostly heterochromatic

Transcription factors (TFs) can reposition genes between compartments



Nuclear hubs

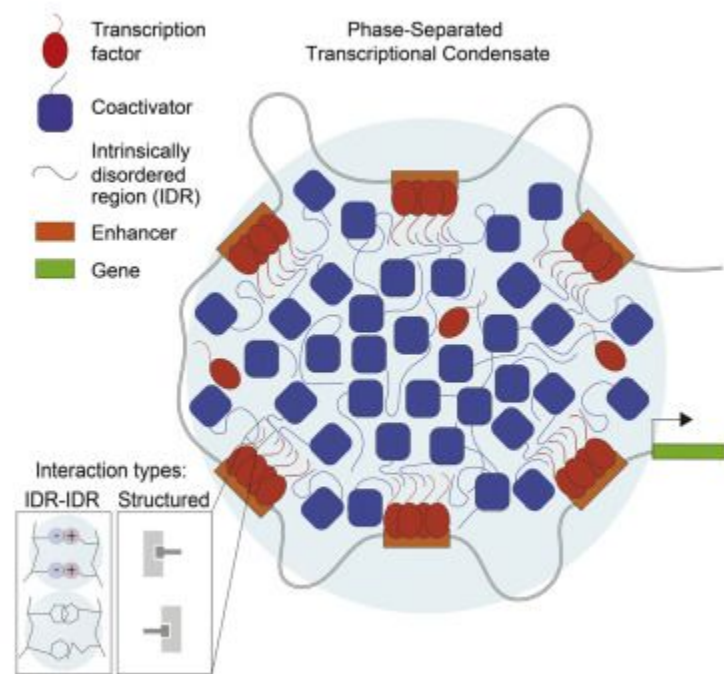
Higher order structures that form between different chromosomes



TF-induced condensates

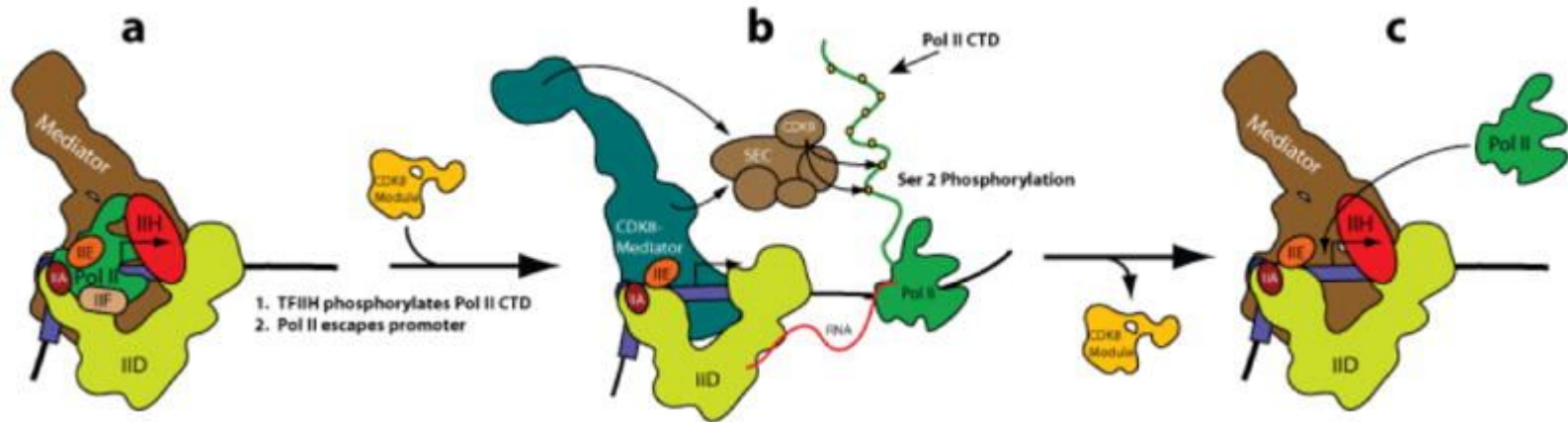
Transcription factors form
phase-separated droplets via their
activating domains

These droplets also contain Mediator



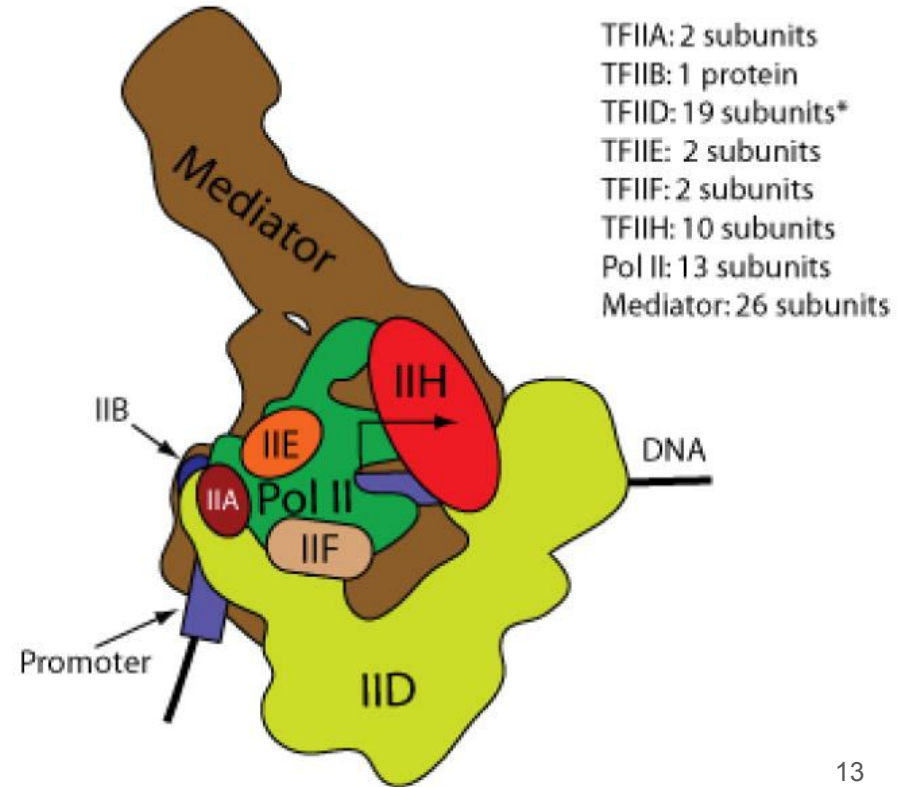
Mediator

Communicates regulatory signals from DNA-bound TFs directly to the RNA polymerase II (pol II) enzyme



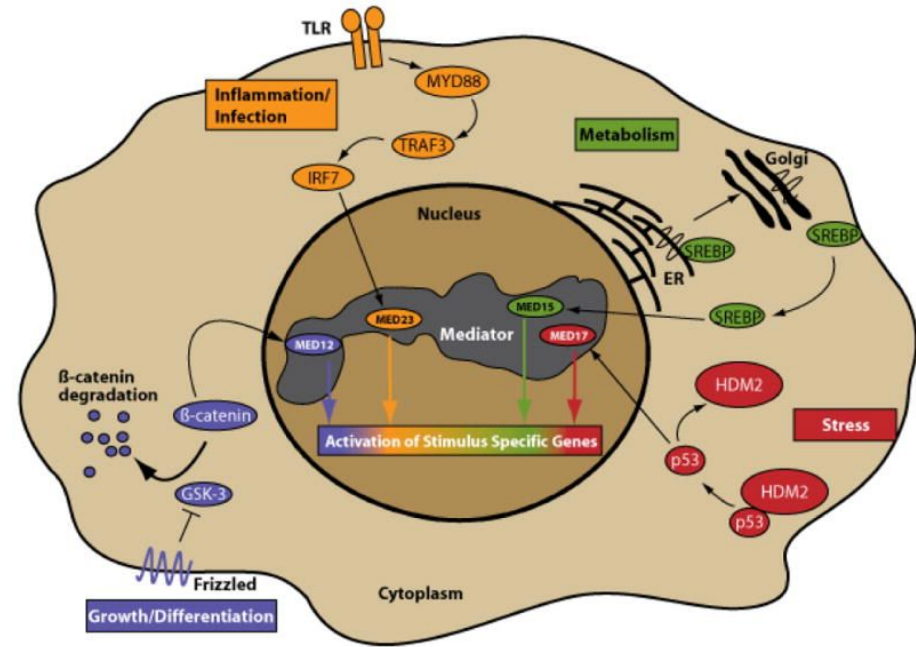
Mediator

Huge multisubunit complex



Mediator

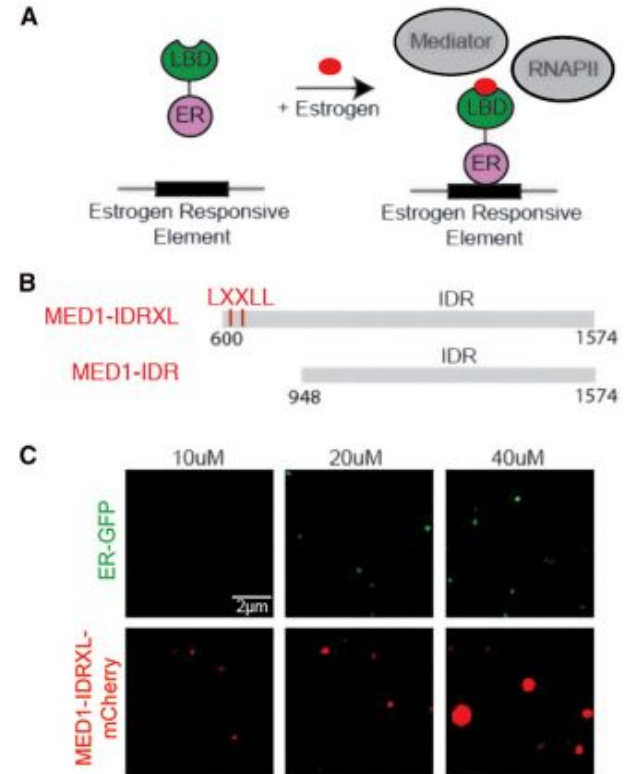
Different components of mediator are regulated via different signal pathways



TF-induced condensates

Multiple different TFs form droplets with Mediator

Estrogen receptor forms droplets with Mediator in estrogen-dependent manner

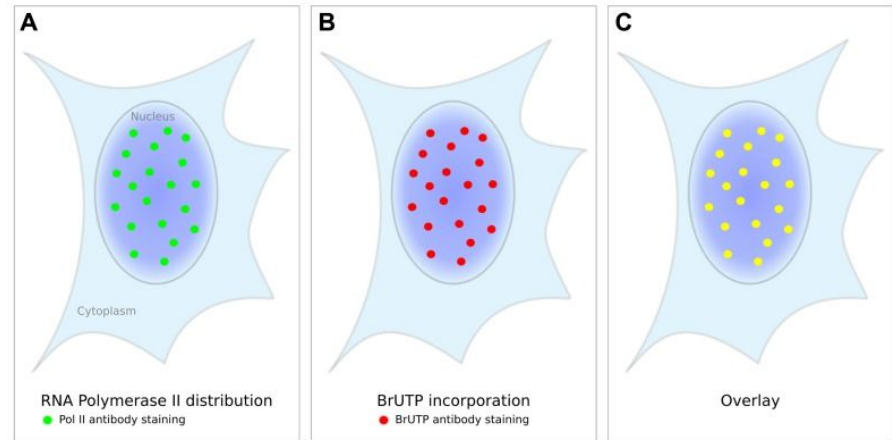


Transcription factories

Colocalization of RNAPII and UTP incorporation

100-8000 depending on cell state

Transcription occurs at discrete sites called factories

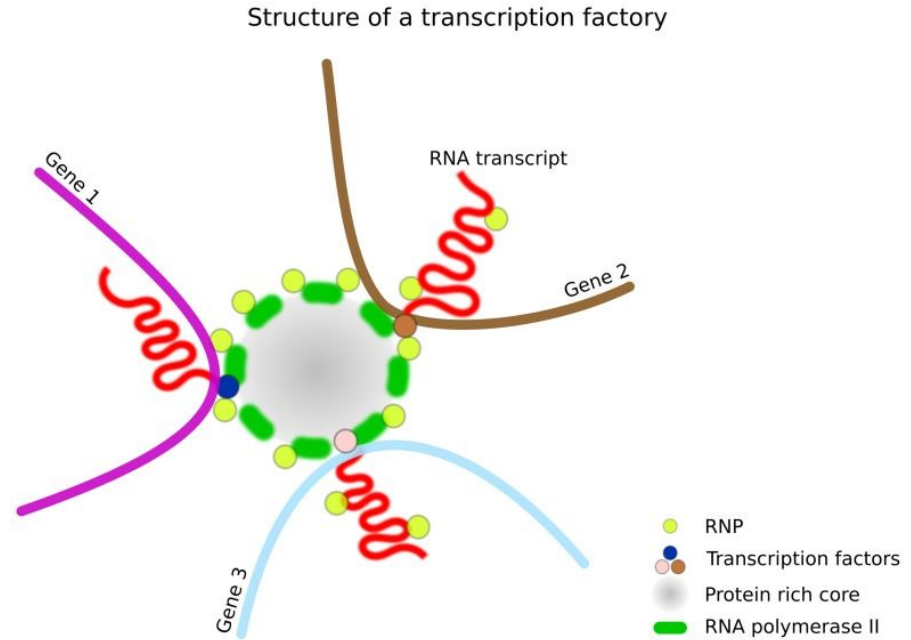


Transcription factories

Contain 4–30 stationary RNA polymerase II molecules which are located on the surface of a protein-rich core

Contain co-activators, chromatin remodelers, transcription factors, histone modification enzymes, RNPs, RNA helicases, and splicing and processing factors

40 to 198 nm in size



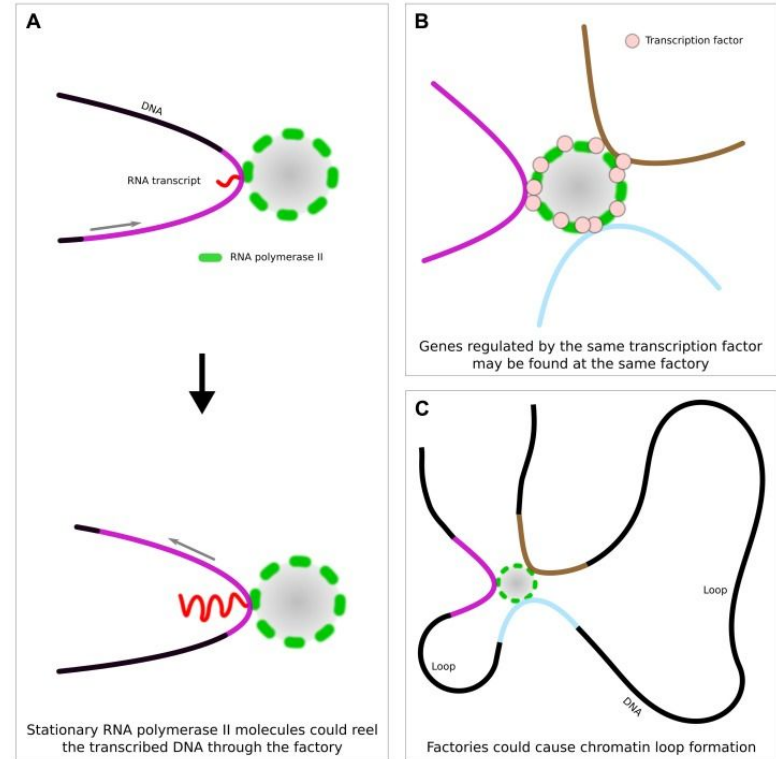
Transcription factories

Transcription factories are probably stationary

They may have TF preference

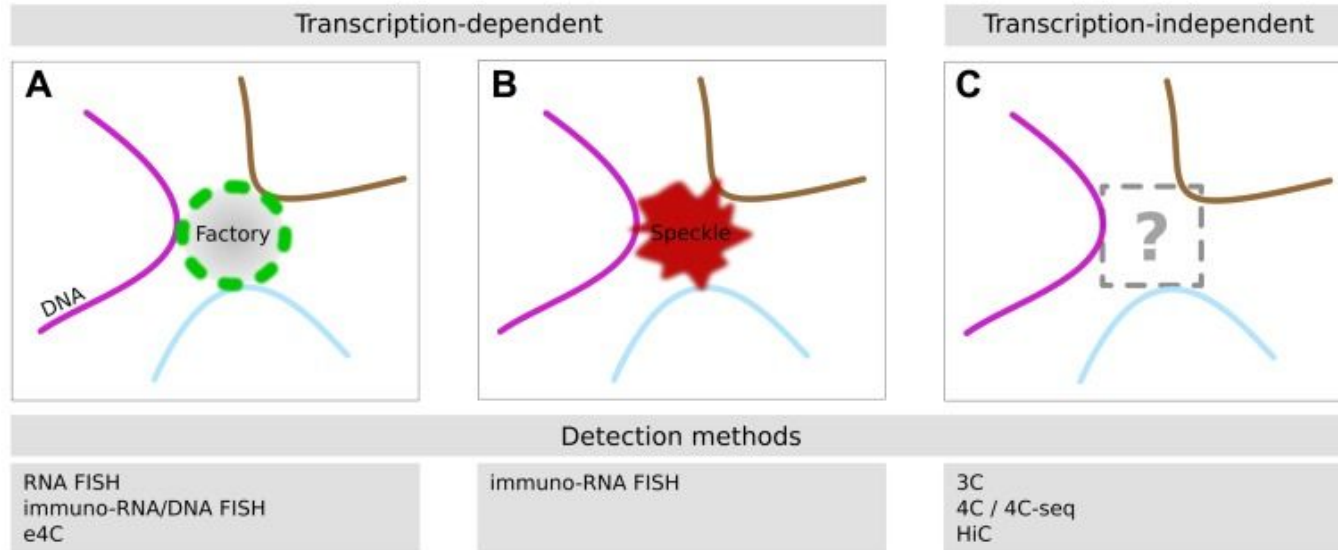
Can cause chromatin looping

Features of transcription factories



Several models of gene clustering

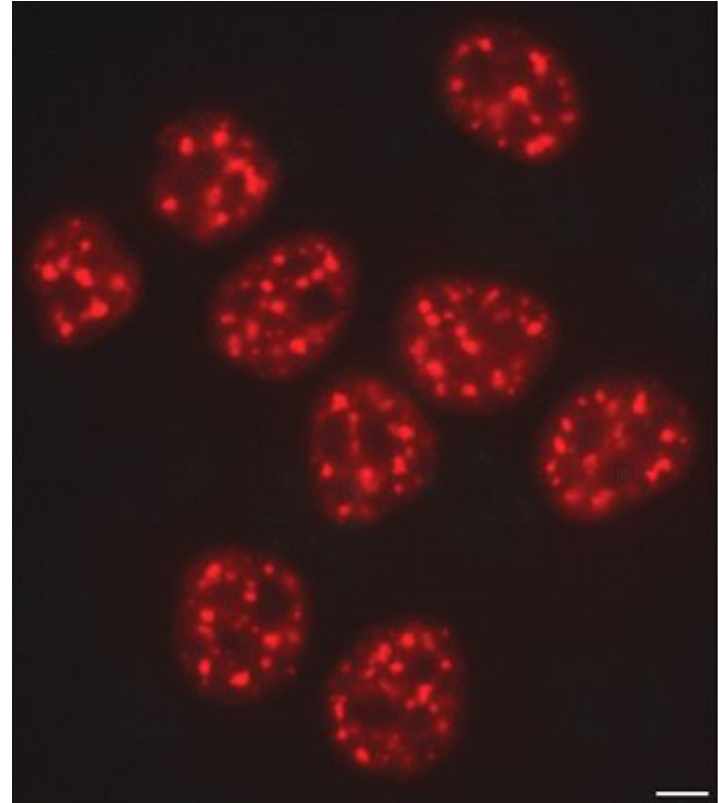
Models for gene clustering



Nuclear speckles

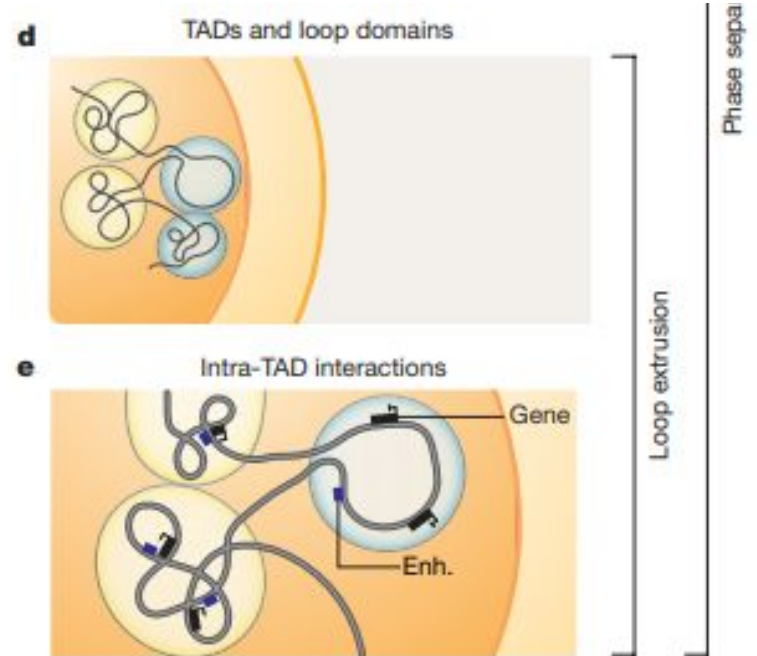
Contain splicing machinery (snRNP and SR proteins)

Some other proteins - translation factors, transcription factors



Interchromosomal domains

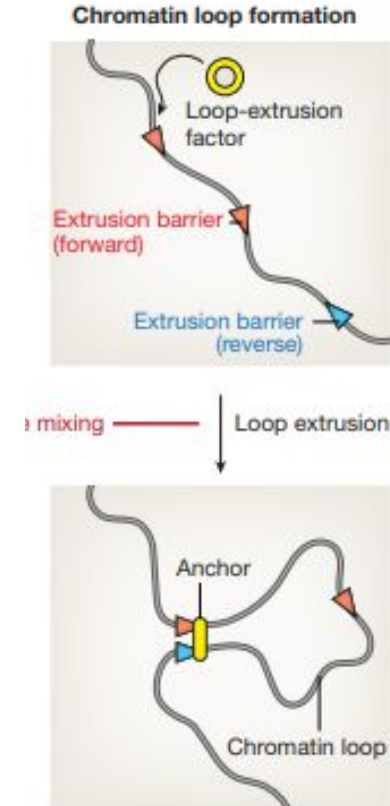
Topologically associating domains
(TADs)



TAD formation

Cohesin serves as a loop for DNA extrusion

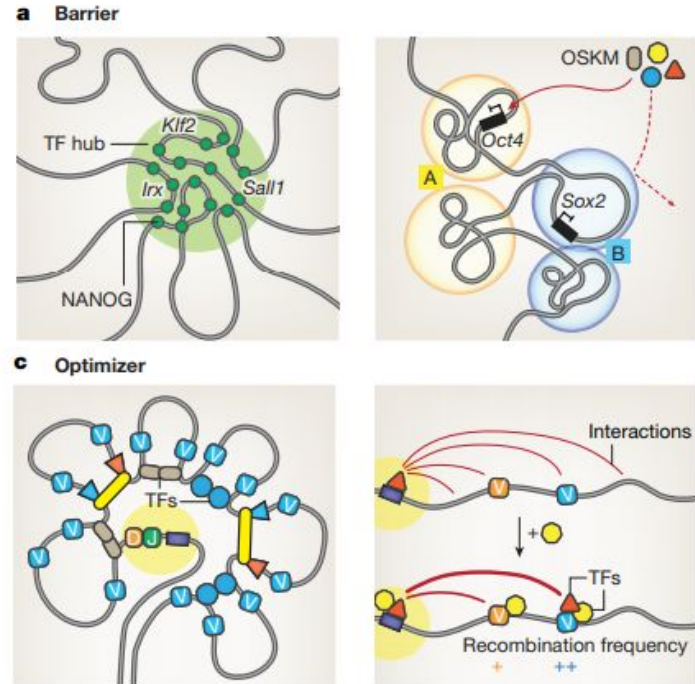
CTCF is a stopping signal. Separates heterochromatin



Topology and gene functioning

A - maintaining expression levels to ensure stability of cell fate

C - TFs initiate locus contraction to ensure that all VDJ segments are equally available

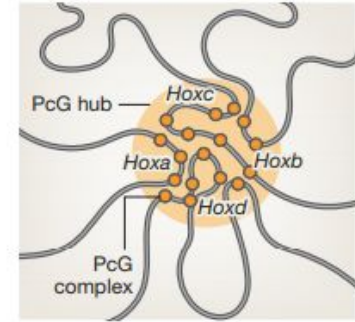
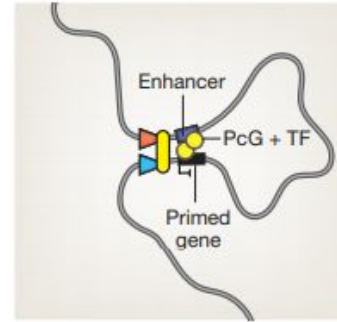


Topology and gene functioning

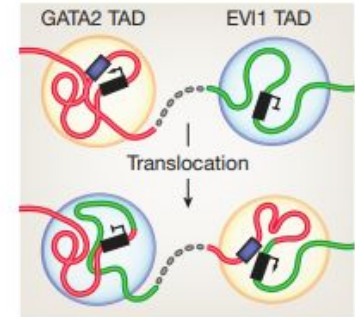
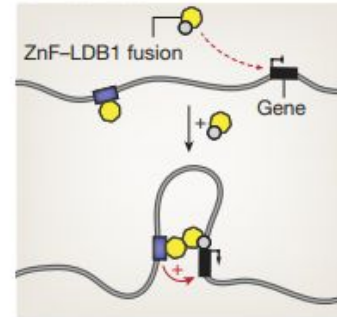
B - TFs may ensure that genes are primed for rapid activation

D - Genome architecture alteration alone can activate genes without signal transmission

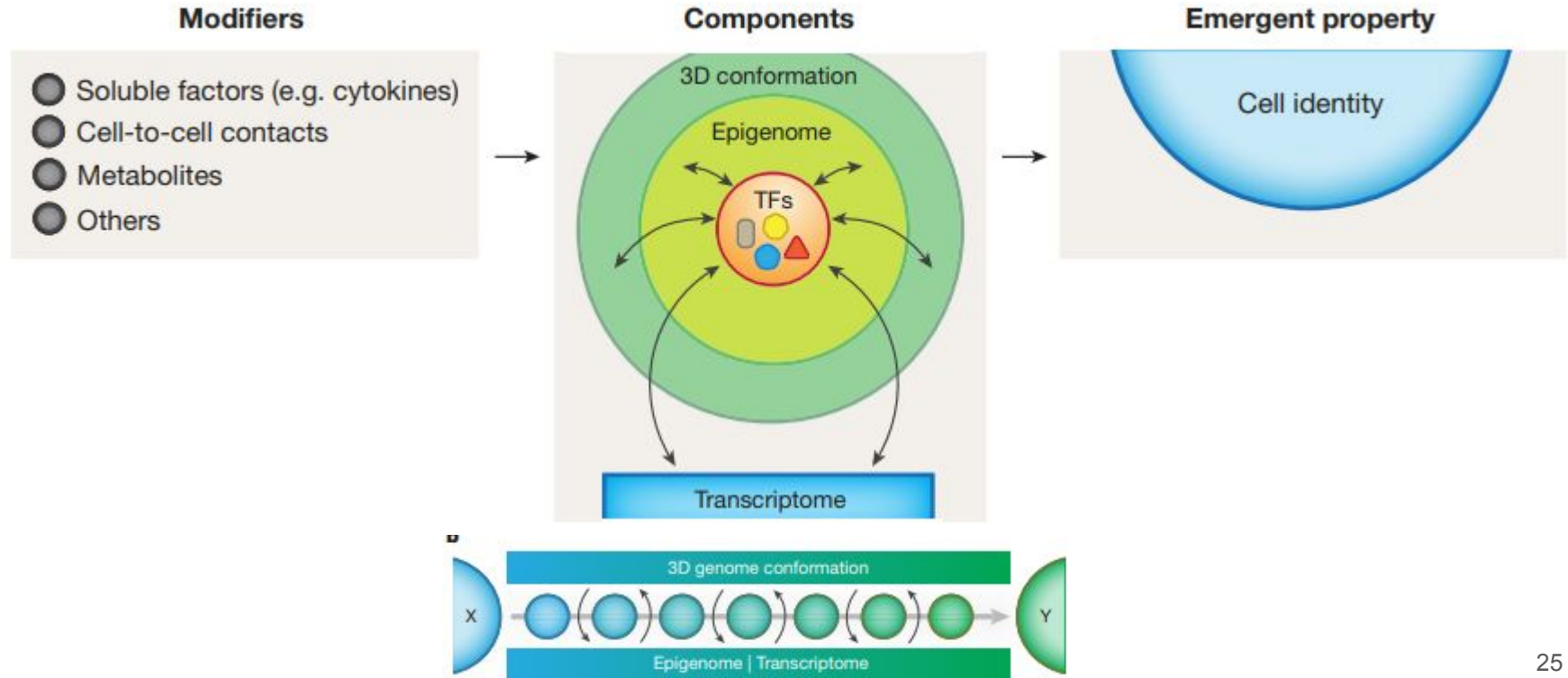
b Primer



d Facilitator

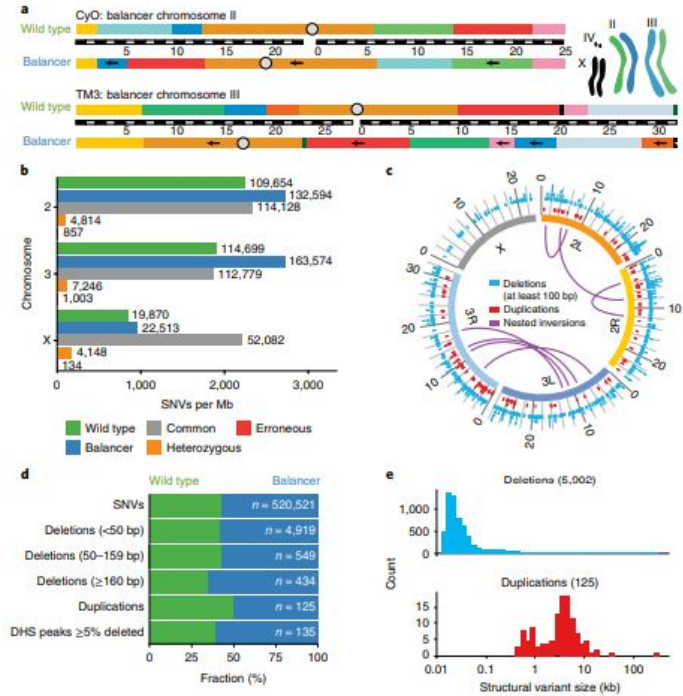


Overall regulatory scheme



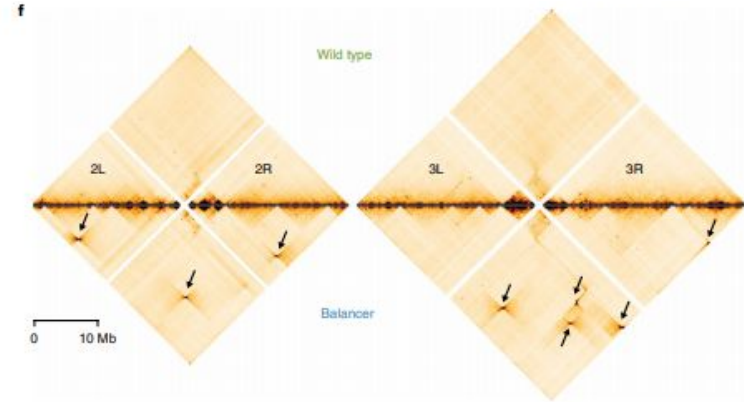
3D structure is not everything

Drosophila lines with highly rearranged genome



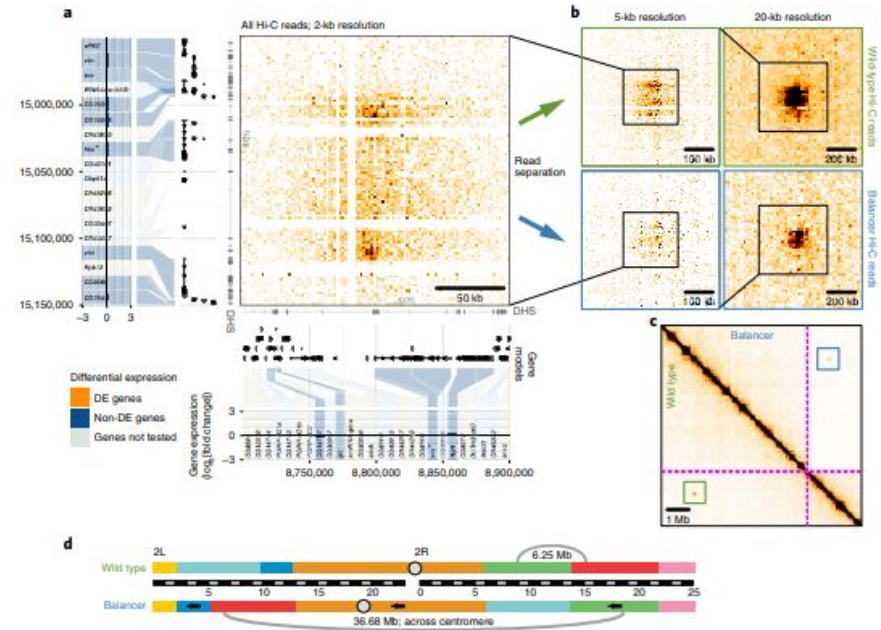
TAD disruption

Disrupted both long and short-range interactions



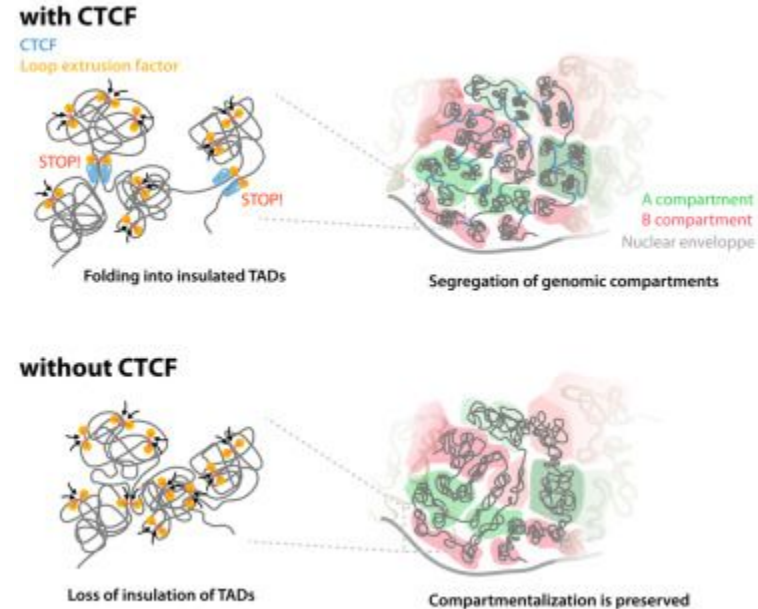
Gene expression changes

Gene expression near rearrangements was mostly unaltered



CTCF loss

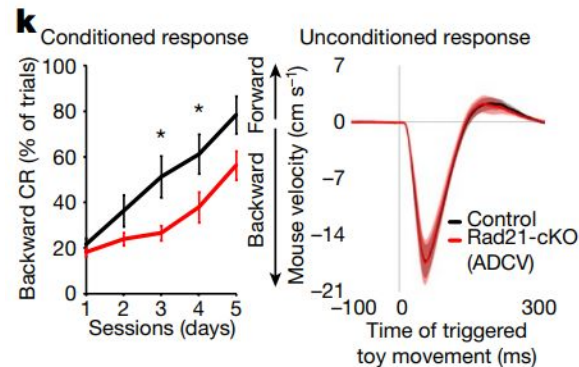
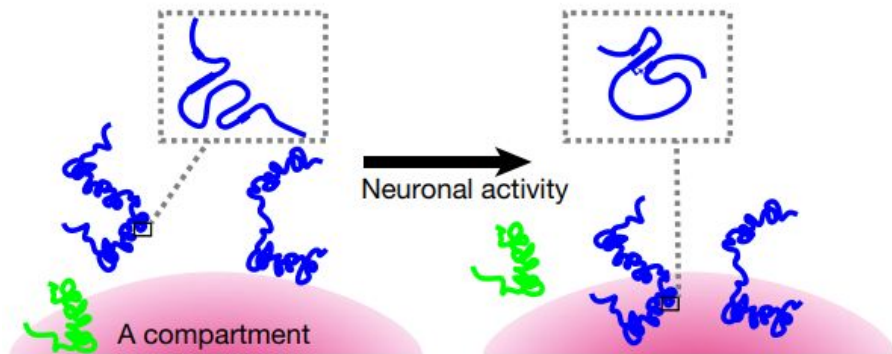
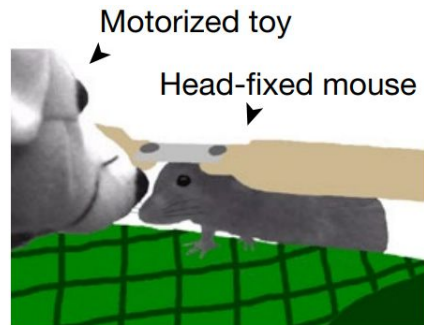
CTCF degradation leaves genomic compartmentalization mostly unaffected



Manipulating 3D architecture to learn

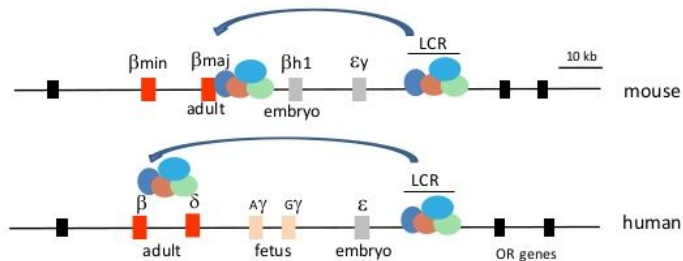
Motor learning causes chromatin rearrangement

Depletion of cohesin impairs learning



Manipulating 3D architecture for therapy

The mammalian β -globin loci

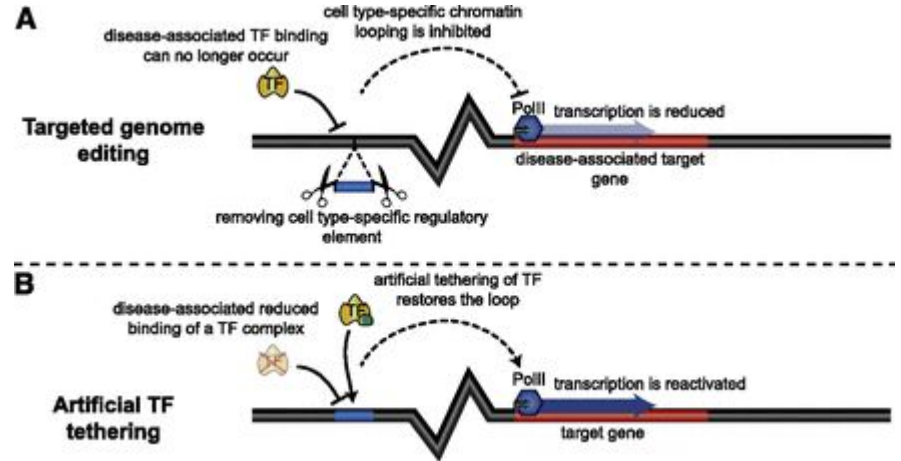


Tolhuis et al, Mol. Cell, 2002
Palstra et al, Nat. Genet., 2003

Locus control region (LCR) enhancer loops to genes determining which one is active as development proceeds



Drissen et al, Genes Dev., 2004
Vakoc et al, Cell, 2005
Song et al, Mol. Cell, 2007
Yun et al, NAR, 2014

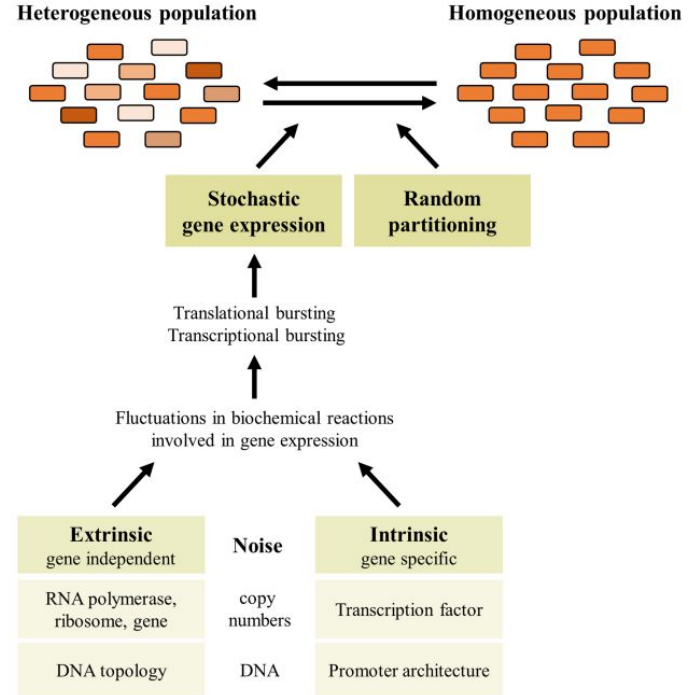


Why do we need biological replicates?

Cell-to-cell variation

Living cells are not homogenous even in the same environment

There are different reasons for that

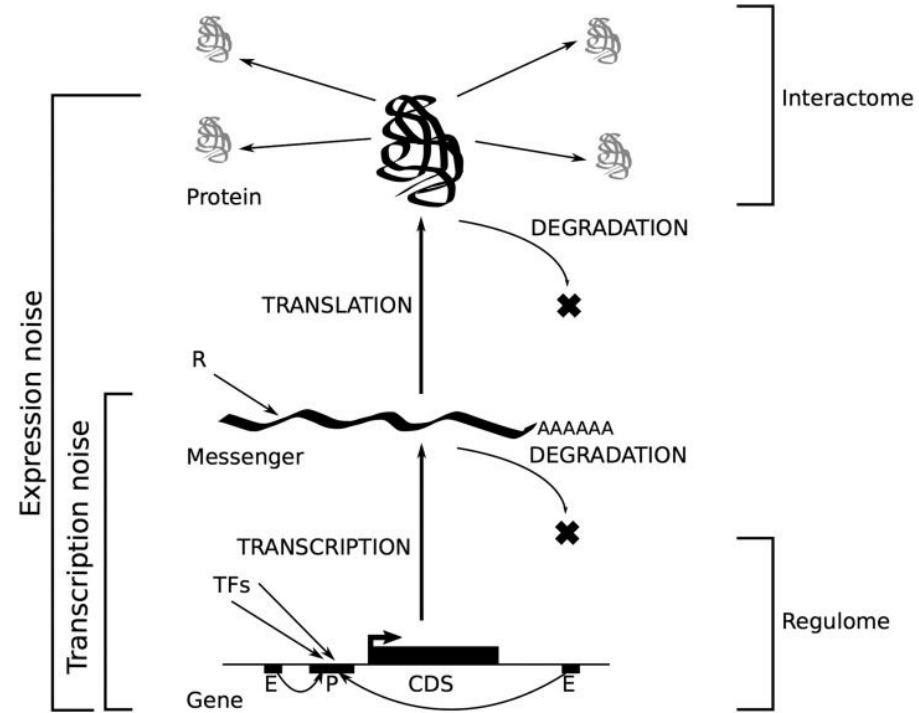


Expression noise

Biochemical reactions rely on interacting molecules

Diffusion and binding are stochastic

Isogenic cells in the same environment can be different



Stochasticity in cells

Intrinsic stochasticity is “generated by the dynamics of the system from the random timing of individual reactions” and extrinsic stochasticity is “generated by the system interacting with other stochastic systems in the cell or its environment.” (Shahrezaei and Swain, 2008)

Transcription noise

Intrinsic - gene-specific (promoter architecture, transcription factors)

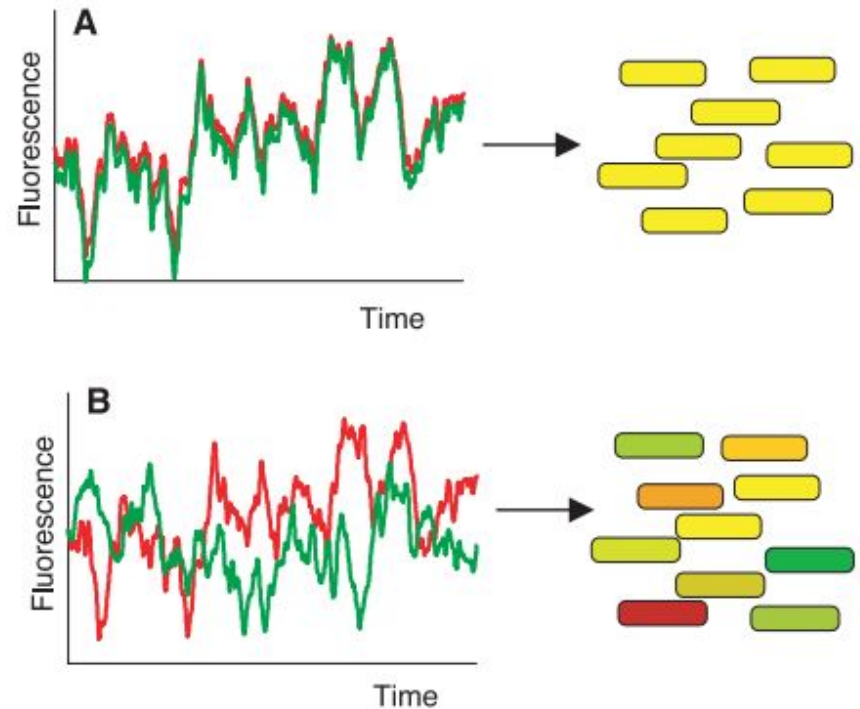
Extrinsic - cell-specific (availability of RNAP, DNA topology, ribosomes, copy number variation)

Extrinsic gene independent	Noise	Intrinsic gene specific
RNA polymerase, ribosome, gene	copy numbers	Transcription factor
DNA topology	DNA	Promoter architecture

Measuring transcription noise

A - extrinsic noise. Cells may differ but all genes are equally affected

B - intrinsic noise. Genes differ



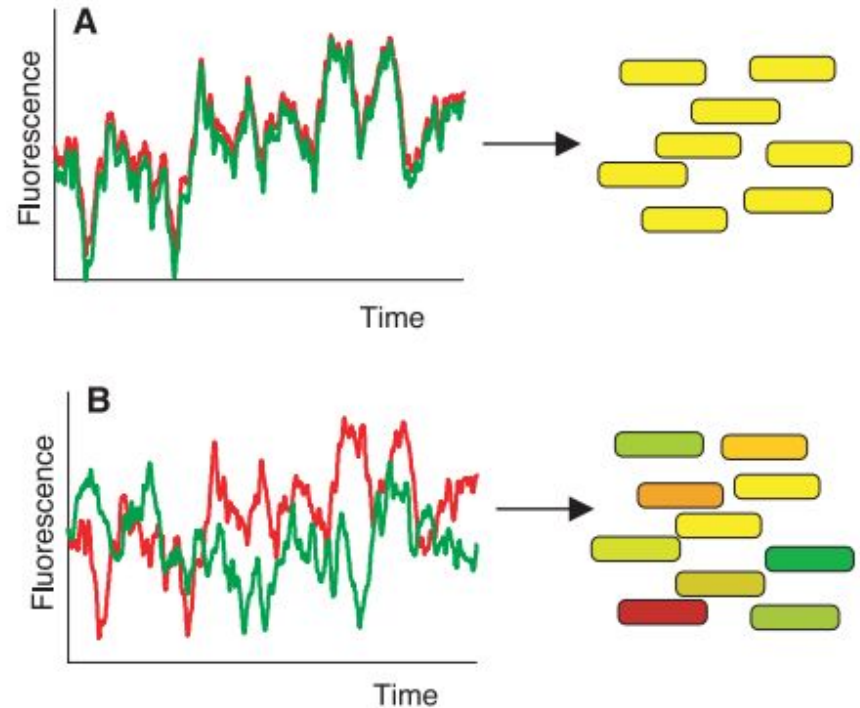
Measure different noises

YFP and CFP controlled by lac promoter

Genes are equidistant from oriC

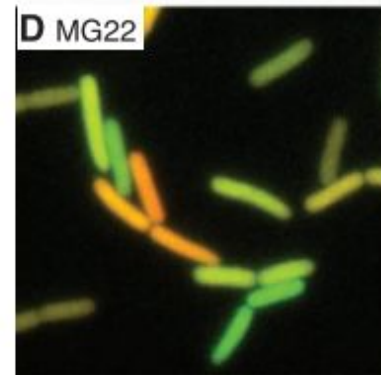
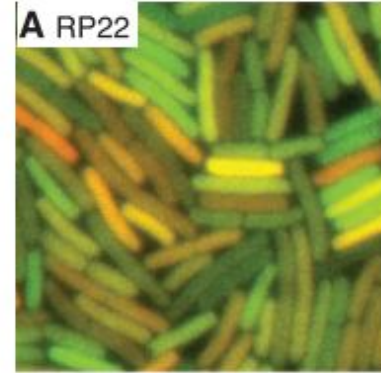
Fluorescent intensity difference tells about intrinsic noise

Total noise $^2 = \text{Intrinsic noise}^2 + \text{Extrinsic noise}^2$



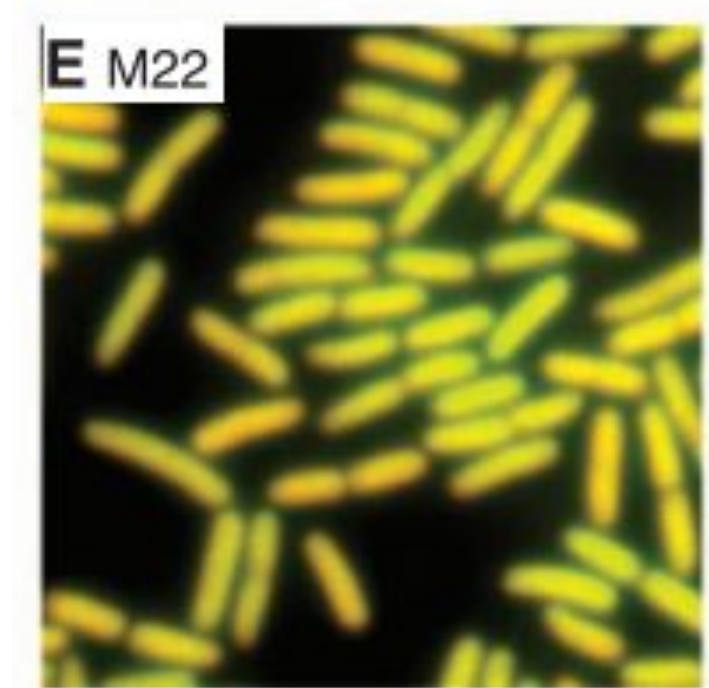
Distinguishing between extrinsic and intrinsic noise

Wild-type (i.e. *lacI*⁺) strains are noisy



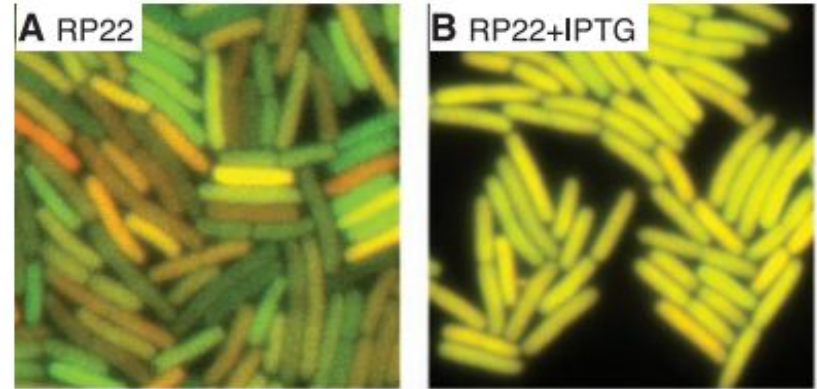
Distinguishing between extrinsic and intrinsic noise

Strain without *lacI* is not noisy



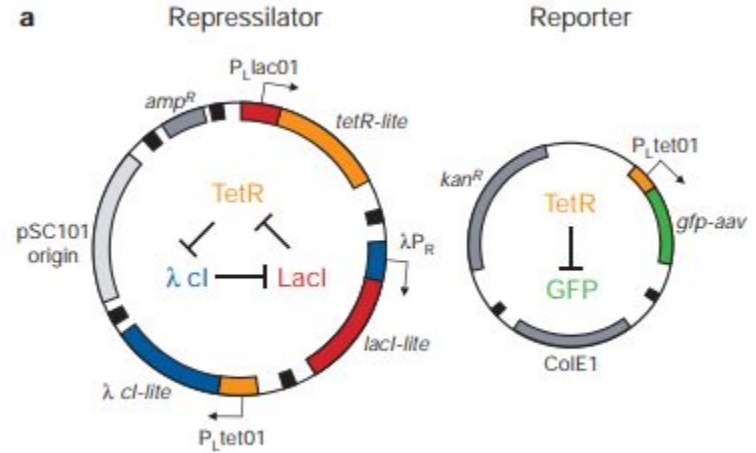
Distinguishing between extrinsic and intrinsic noise

Blocking *lacI* with IPTG reduces noise



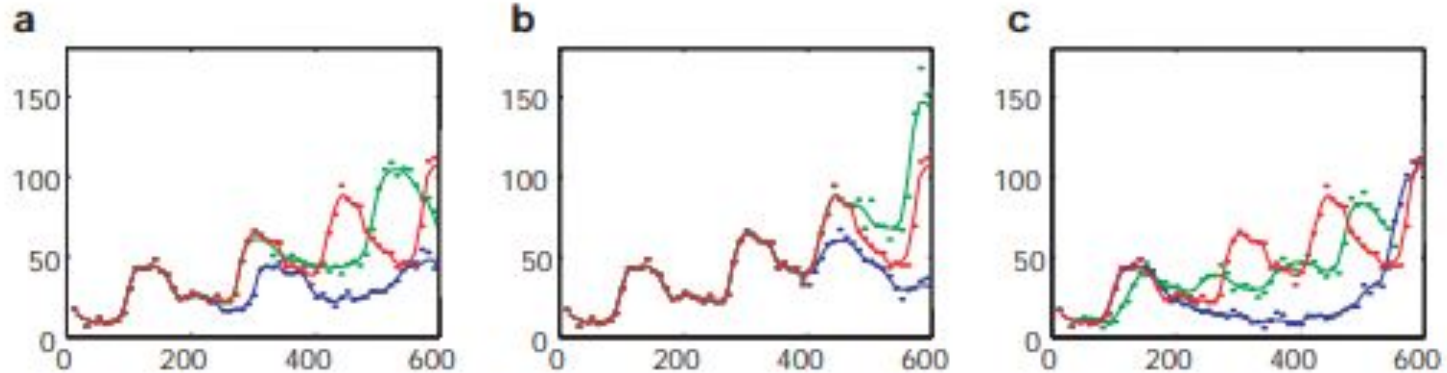
Repressilator

Oscillatory behaviour because of mutually repressed genes



Repressilator

Oscillatory behaviour rapidly falls apart :(

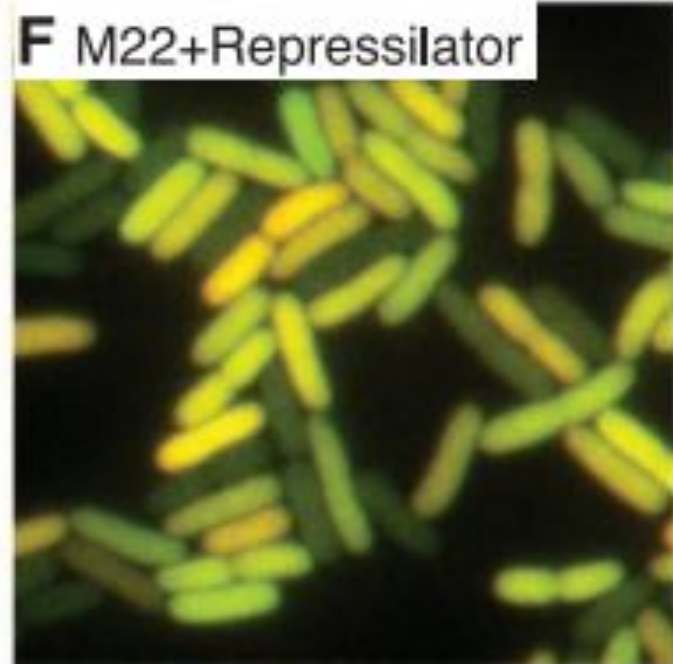


Distinguishing between extrinsic and intrinsic noise

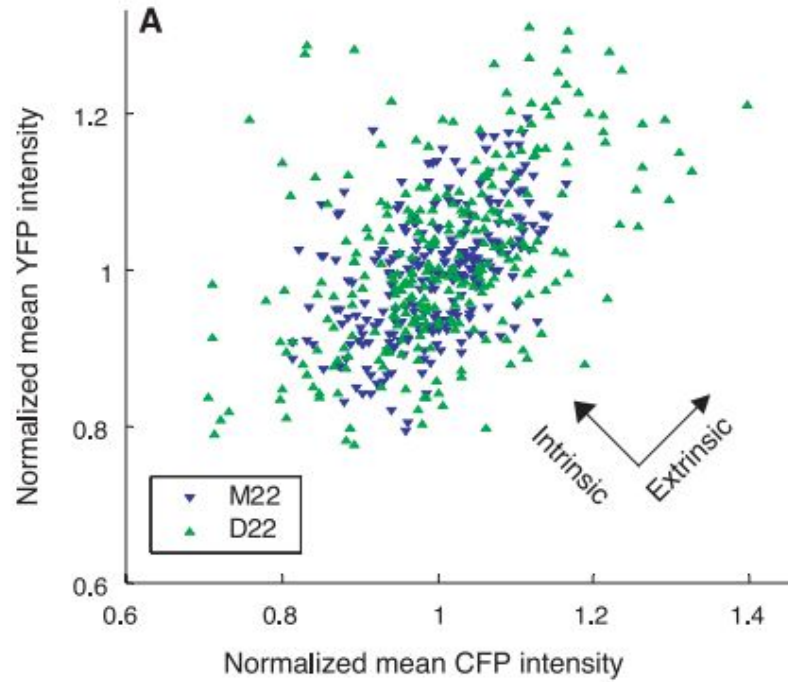
Repressilator induces noise

Also note increased total noise

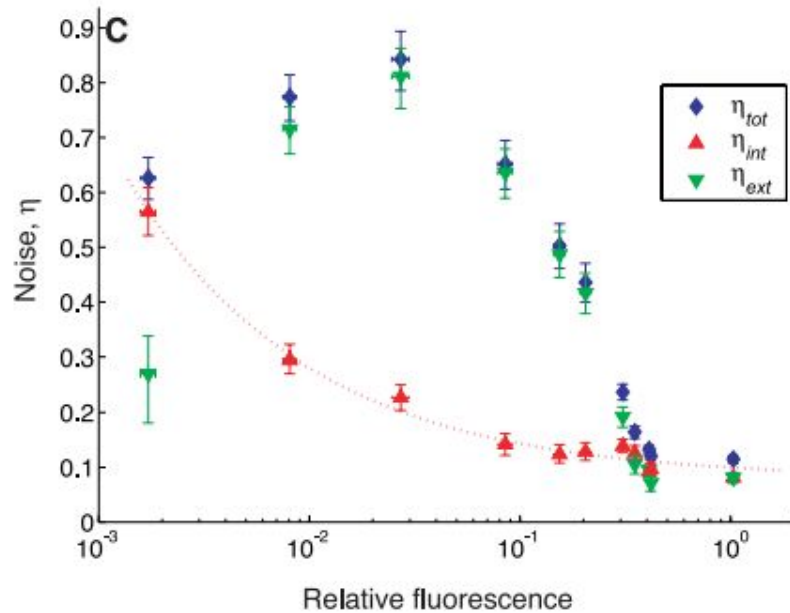
Intrinsic noise is increased when not in a steady state



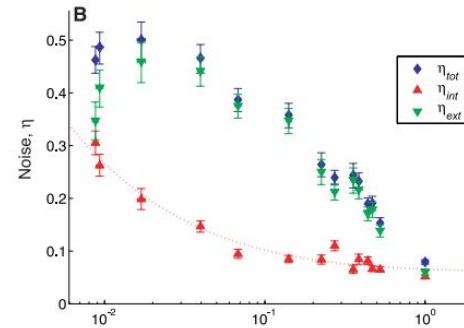
Noisy vs non-noisy strain



RecA decreases intrinsic noise



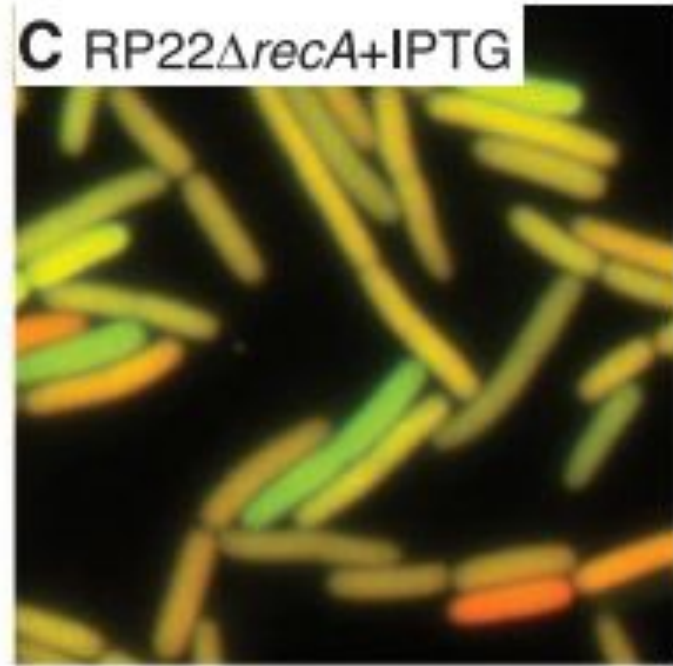
D22 (recA⁻, lacI⁻)



M22 (recA⁺, lacI⁻)

Distinguishing between extrinsic and intrinsic noise

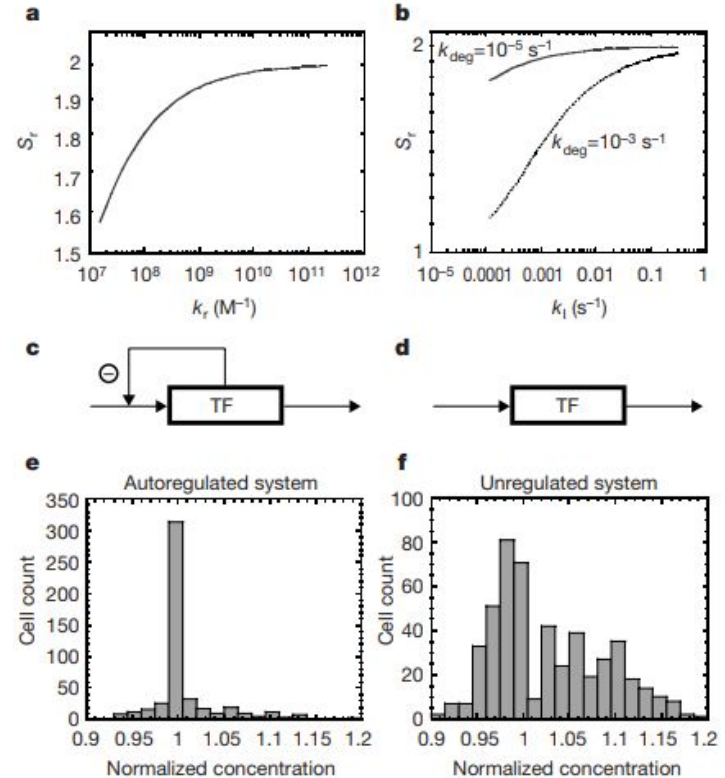
recA deletion increases intrinsic noise



Feedback regulation

Feedback regulation decreases noise

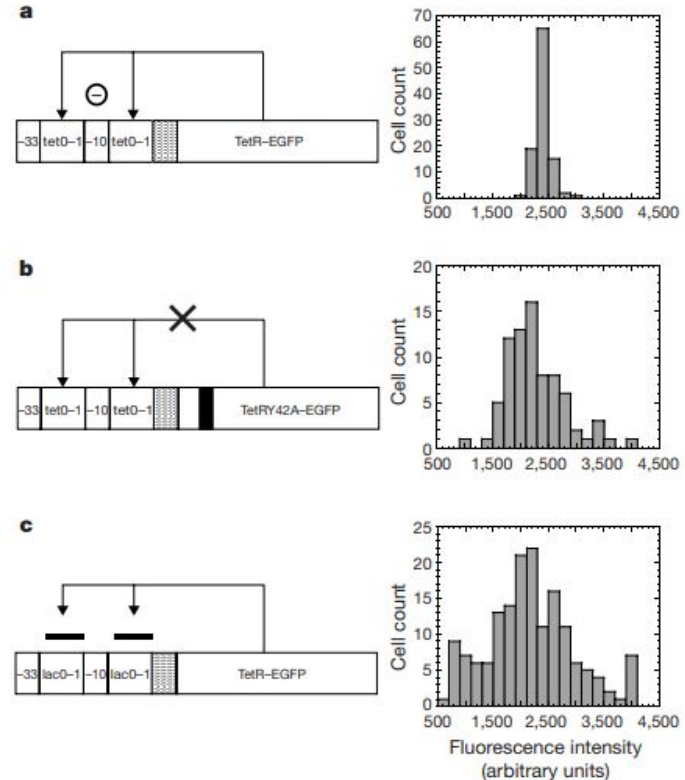
May be the reason why it is so popular
in gene regulatory networks



Feedback regulation

Repressing feedback regulation
increases noise

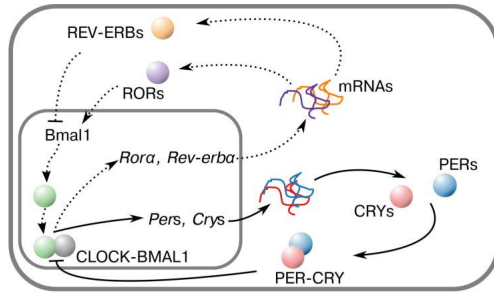
Can be done via mutating repressor or
deleting operators



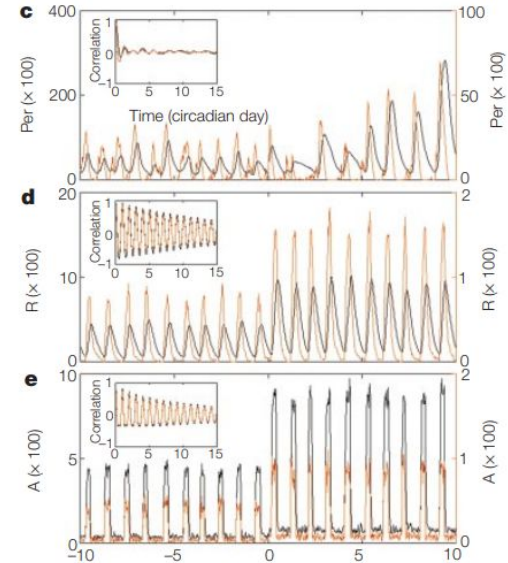
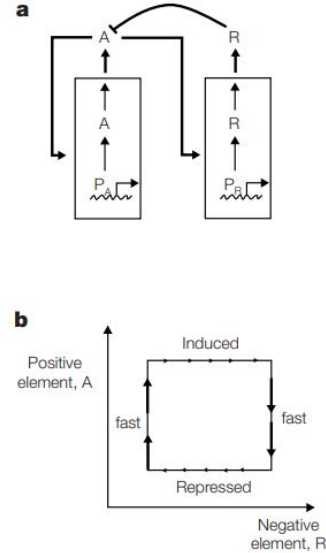
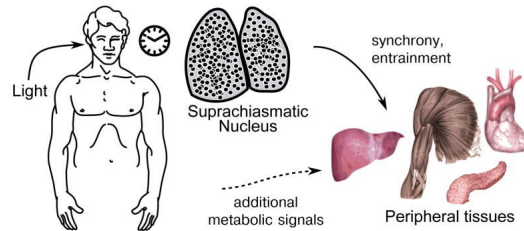
Fighting noise in circadian clocks

Circadian systems should be noise resistant

A Mammalian Circadian Feedback Loops

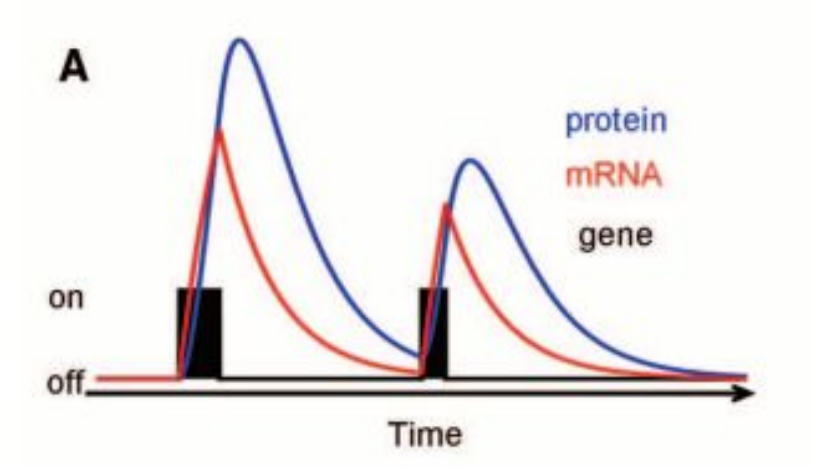


B Mammalian Circadian Hierarchy



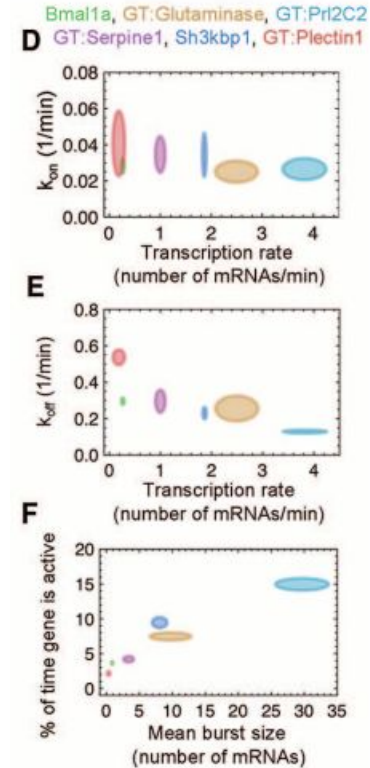
Transcription bursts

In prokaryotes and eukaryotes, most genes appear to be transcribed during short periods called transcriptional bursts, interspersed by silent intervals



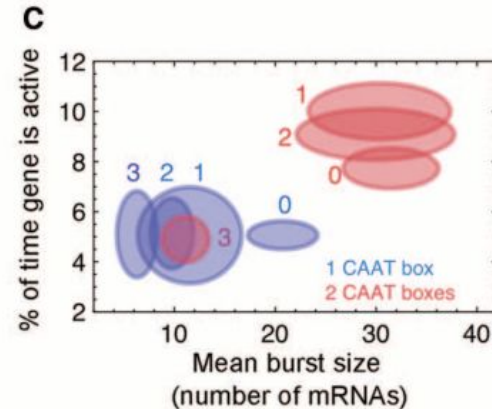
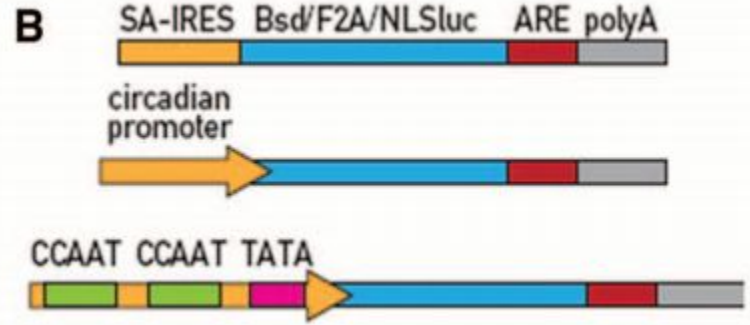
Transcription bursts

Burst kinetics is gene-specific



Transcription bursts

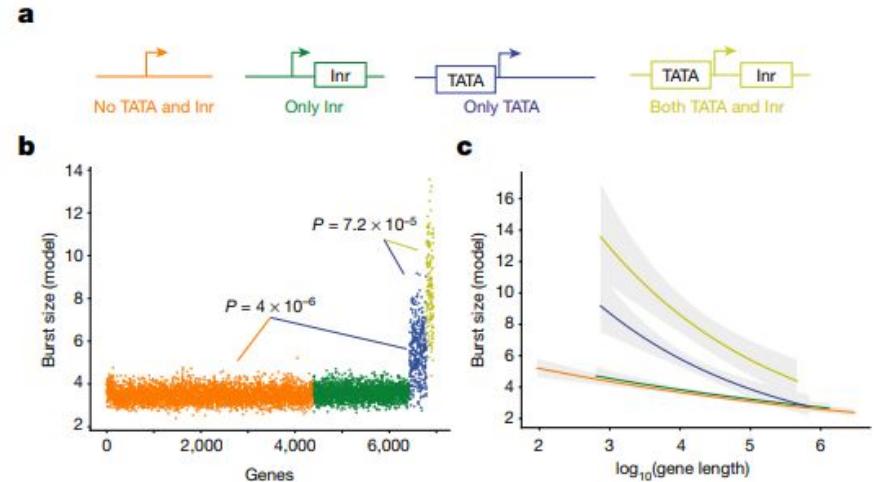
Promoter structure influences burst kinetics



Core promoter regulates bursts

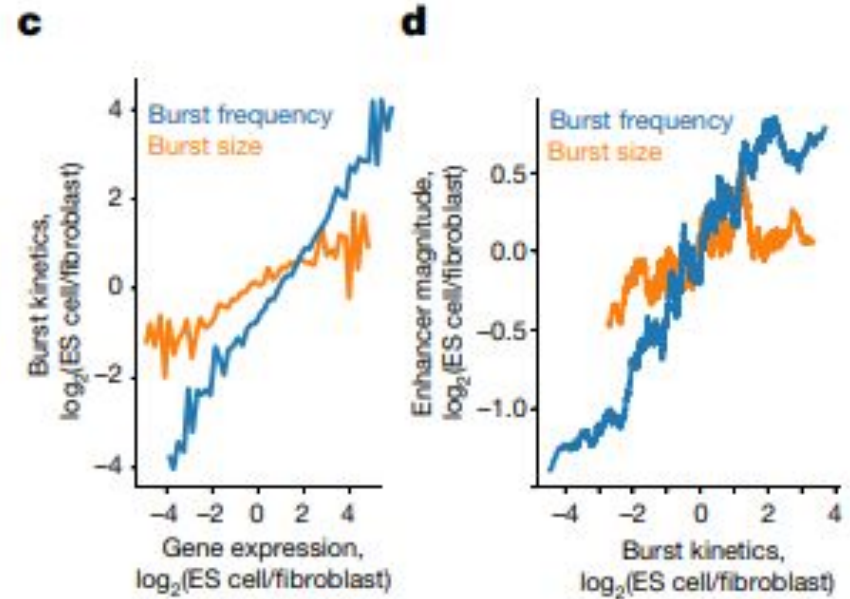
TATA increases bursts

Initiator increases bursts if TATA is present



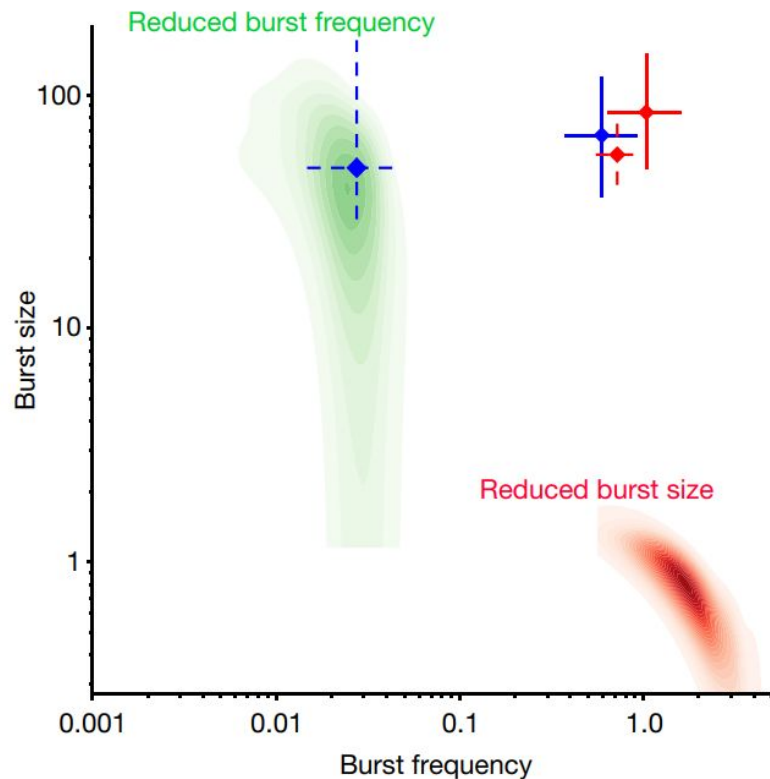
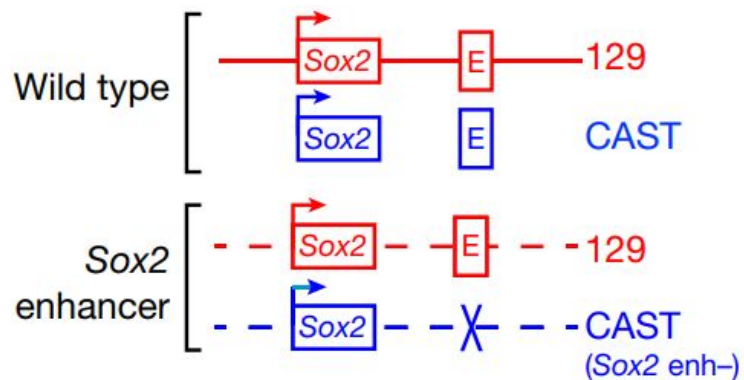
Enhancers also regulate bursts

Transcription bursts are cell type-specific



Enhancers also regulate bursts

Mutating enhancer can alter burst kinetics

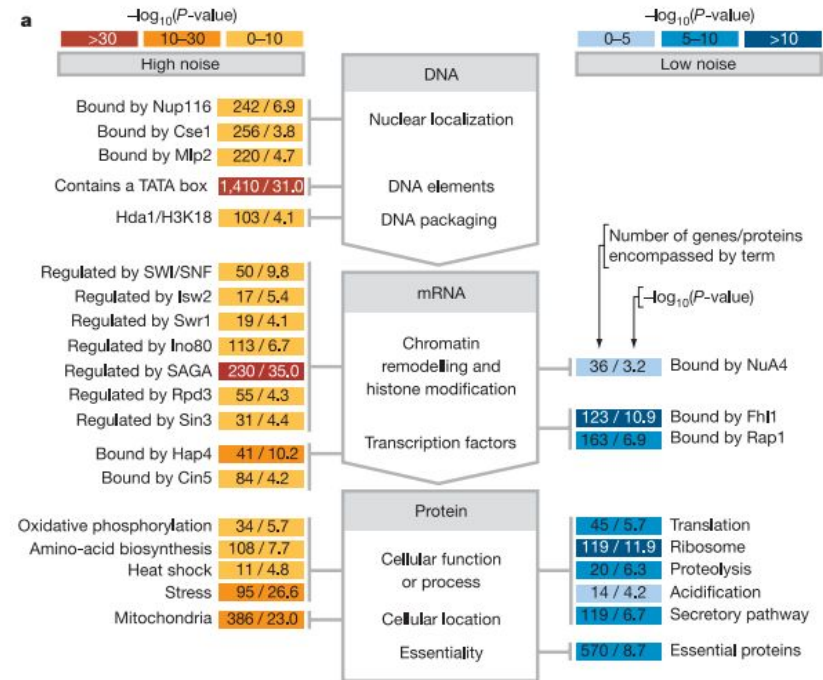


Noise is random but noisiness is not

Biological noise differs highly across biological groups

Housekeeping genes tend to be less noisy

Chromatin remodeling tends to induce noise in target genes



Noise is random but noisiness is not

mRNA or protein copy number and the variation in mRNA expression are very strongly correlated with CV and DM values, respectively

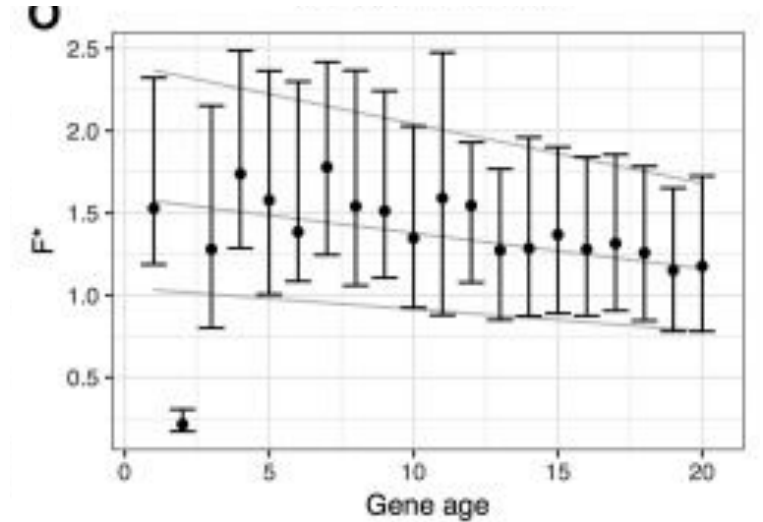
b Cellular properties correlated with variation

Property	Test	$-\log_{10}(P\text{-value})$
Gene proximity	Dist. vs DM or CV	0.2–2.7
mRNA copy number	mRNA per cell vs CV	109.0
mRNA half-life	mRNA $t_{1/2}$ vs DM	3.0
mRNA variation	mRNA σ vs DM	67.0
CAI score	CAI vs DM	3.0
Ribosome density	Ribos. dens. vs DM	6.5
No. of proteins/mRNA	No. prot./mRNA vs DM	5.9
Protein copy number	Protein per cell vs CV	321.0
Protein interactions	No. PPI vs DM	0.5

Correlation 0–3 3–5 5–10 >10

Noisiness is important in evolution

Older genes are less noisy

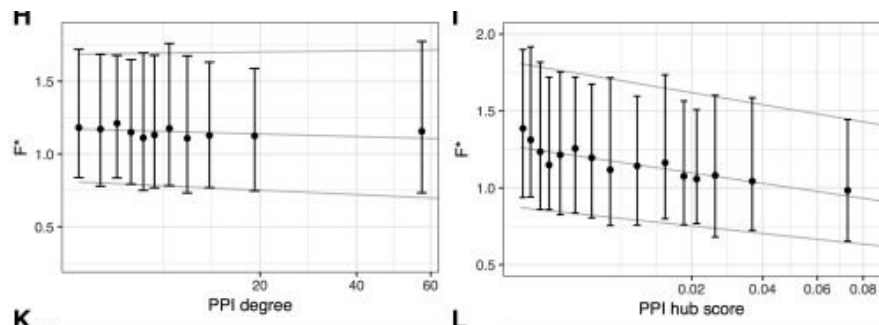


Noisiness is important in evolution

Genes that encode highly connected proteins are less noisy

Protein position in PPI network defines transcriptional noise

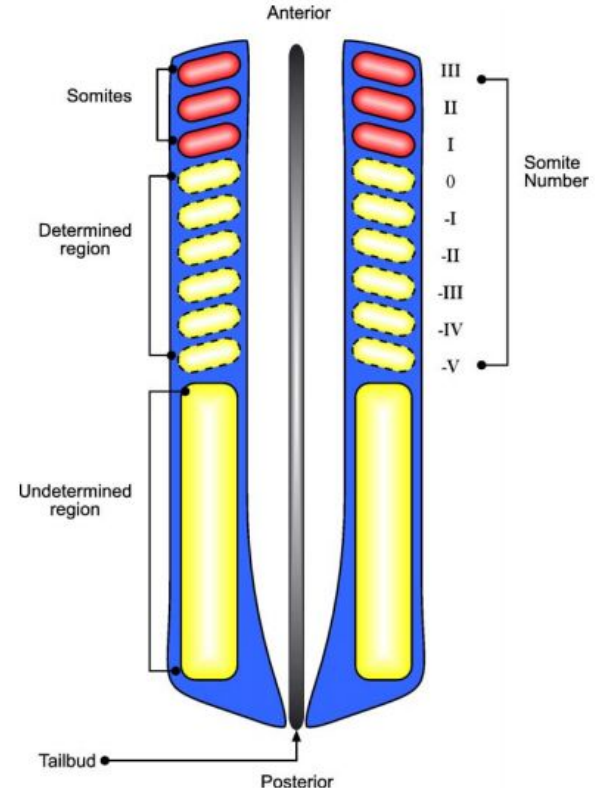
Noisiness and mean expression are separate parameters in evolution



Cell fate vs noise

Somite differentiation

Highly uniform process despite potential noise sources

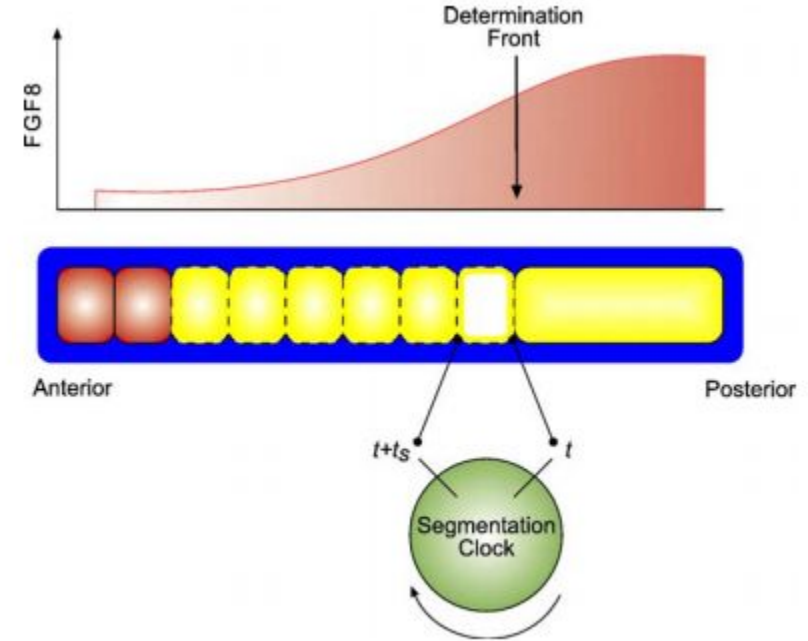


Clock and wavefront model

Longitudinal positional information
gradient down the AP

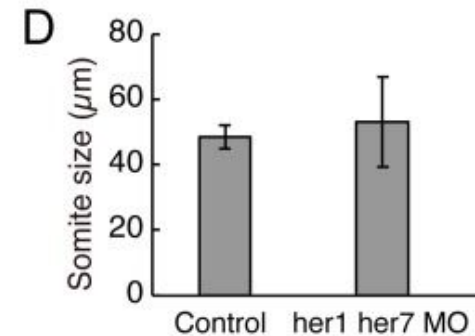
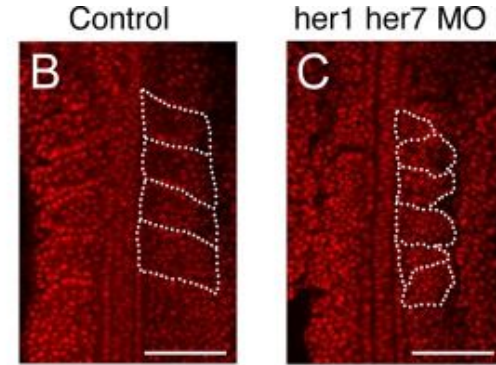
Interaction with cellular oscillator

Clock determines the time of
catastrophe - rapid change of cell state



Breaking clock disrupts somites

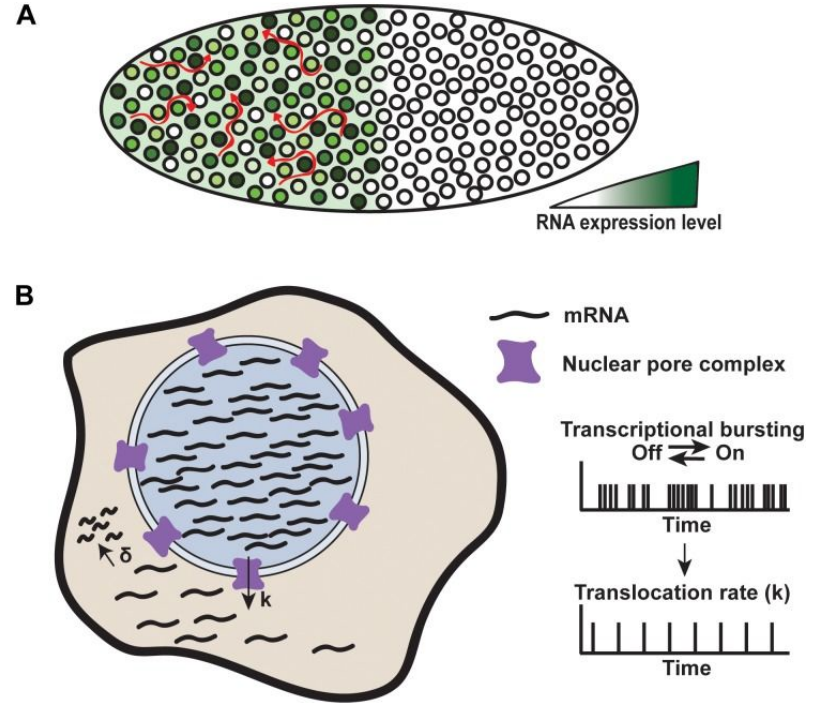
Zebrafish mutants with disrupted clock have larger variation in somite size



Other ways to buffer noise

A - RNA levels are buffered across syncytium

B - transcription is noisy but translocation is not

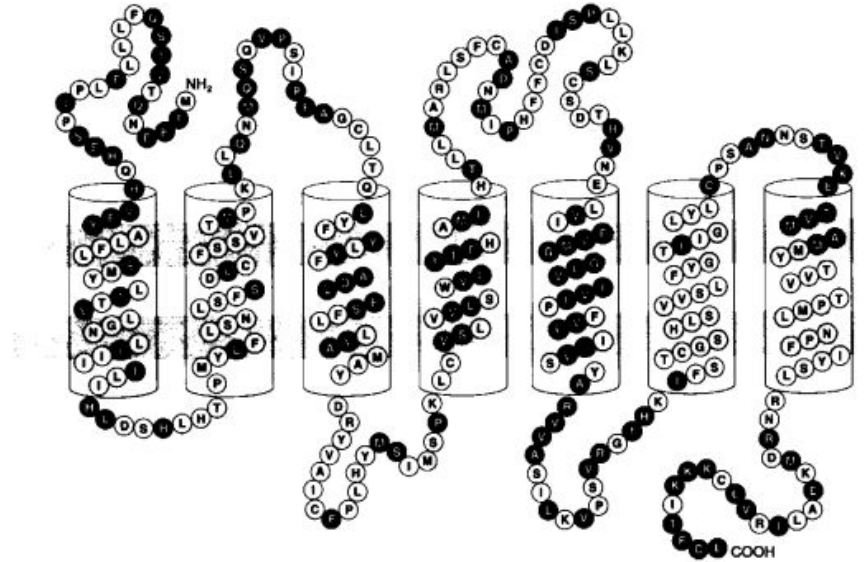


Olfactory receptors (ORs)

Encoded by a huge multigene family

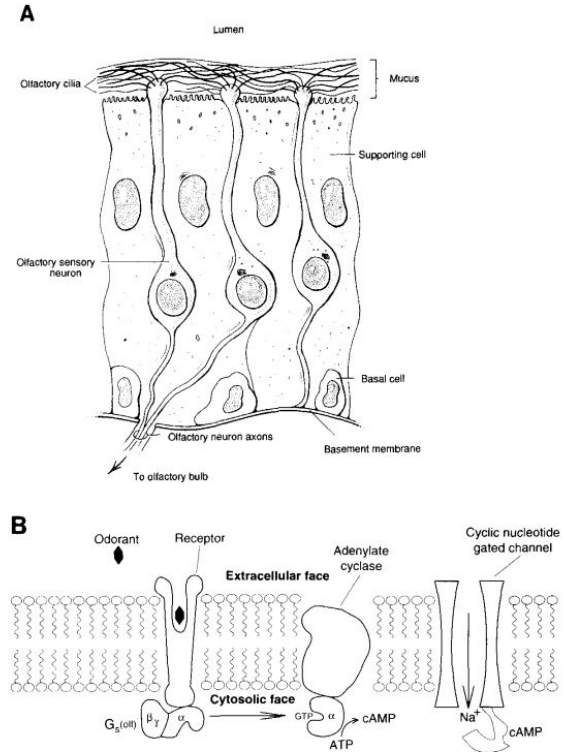
Mice have ~1000 functional genes (3% of genome)

Humans have around 400



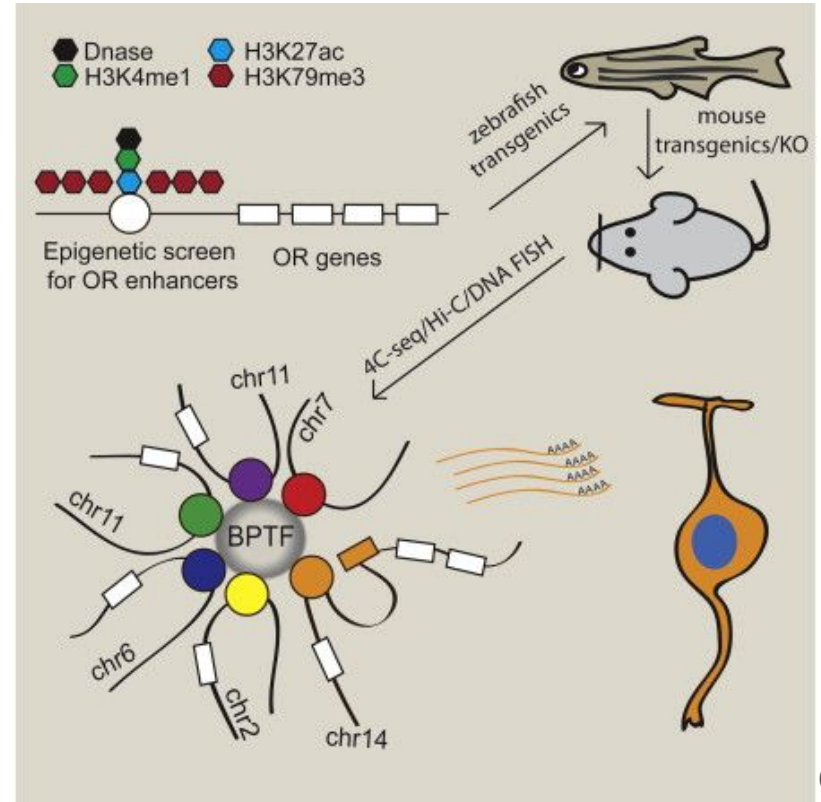
Olfactory sensory neurons

Each mature olfactory sensory neuron expresses one olfactory receptor gene in monoallelic and stochastic fashion



Greek islands

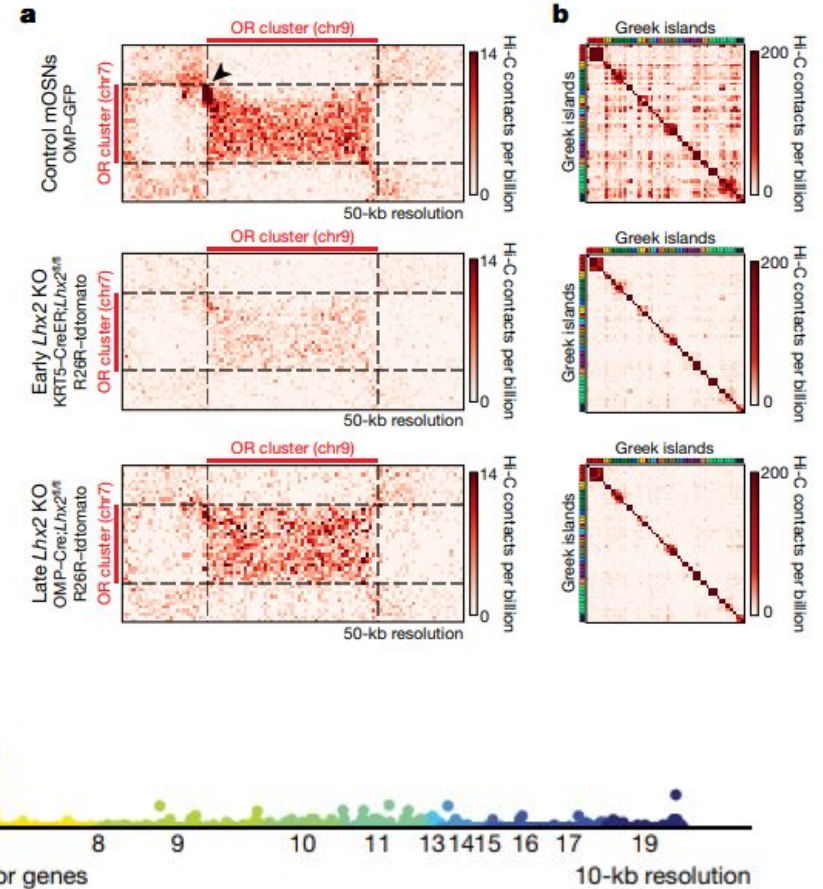
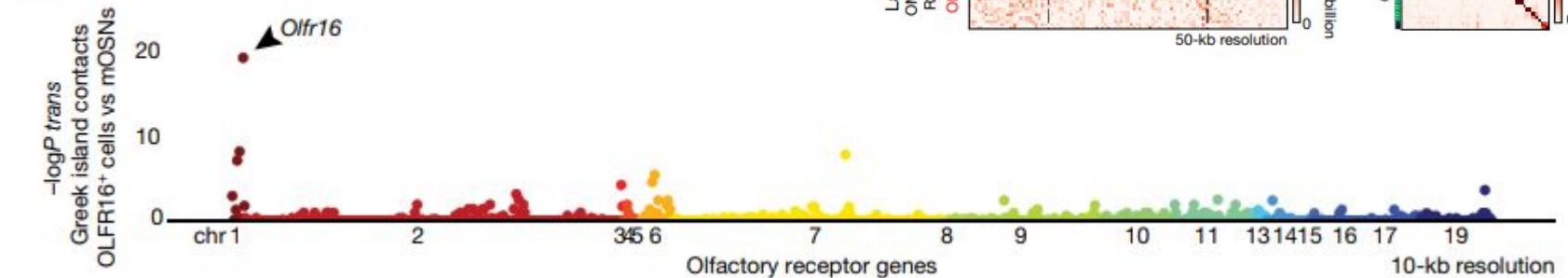
OR gene choice is controlled by multiple enhancers scattered across genome



Greek islands and ORs

Greek islands are bound by LHX2 and LDB1

Greek islands only interact with active OR genes



Questions?