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Recommended Citation

Moroz, J. D., & Nelson, P. C. (1997). Torsional Directed Walks, Entropic Elasticity, and DNA Twist Stiffness. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 94 (26), 14418-14422. http://dx.doi.org/10.1073/pnas.94.26.14418

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Abstract

DNA and other biopolymers differ from classical polymers because of their torsional stiffness. This property changes the statistical character of their conformations under tension from a classical random walk to a problem we call the "torsional directed walk." Motivated by a recent experiment on single lambda-DNA molecules [Strick, T. R., Allemand, J.-F., Bensimon, D., Bensimon, A. & Croquette, V. (1996) Science 271, 1835-1837], we formulate the torsional directed walk problem and solve it analytically in the appropriate force regime. Our technique affords a direct physical determination of the microscopic twist stiffness C and twist-stretch coupling D relevant for DNA functionality. The theory quantitatively fits existing experimental data for relative extension as a function of overtwist over a wide range of applied force; fitting to the experimental data yields the numerical values C = 120 nm and D = 50 nm. Future experiments will refine these values. We also predict that the phenomenon of reduction of effective twist stiffness by bend fluctuations should be testable in future single-molecule experiments, and we give its analytic form.

Disciplines

Physical Sciences and Mathematics | Physics

Torsional Directed Walks, Entropic Elasticity, and DNA Twist Stiffness

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DNA and other biopolymers differ from classical polymers due to their torsional stiffness. This property changes the statistical character of their conformations under tension from a classical random walk to a problem we call the "torsional directed walk". Motivated by a recent experiment on single lambda-DNA molecules [Strick *et al.* Science **271** (1996) 1835], we formulate the torsional directed walk problem and solve it *analytically* in the appropriate force regime. Our technique affords a direct physical determination of the microscopic twist stiffness C and twist-stretch coupling D relevant for DNA functionality. The theory quantitatively fits existing experimental data for relative extension as a function of overtwist over a wide range of applied force; fitting to the experimental data yields the numerical values C = 120 nm and D = 50 nm. Future experiments will refine these values. We also predict that the phenomenon of *reduction of effective twist stiffness by bend fluctuations* should be testable in future single-molecule experiments, and we give its analytic form.

1. Introduction and Summary

The theory of random walks is one of the most fundamental problems in statistical mechanics, with applications throughout physics, biology, and even finance. The discovery that polymer conformations afford a concrete realization of this mathematical problem, and the understanding that rubber elasticity is inherently an *entropic* phenomenon, marked the birth of polymer physics [1]. Remarkably, it has recently become possible to apply minuscule forces to *single molecules* of DNA in solution and observe their extension [2]. Besides allowing a detailed confirmation of the directed random walk model of entropic elasticity, these experiments allow direct physical measurement of microscopic (nanometer-scale) mechanical properties of DNA relevant to its function, using mesoscopic (micron-scale) apparatus. Two linear elastic parameters of DNA have now been measured in this way: the bend persistence length A and the intrinsic-stretch modulus γ [3][4][5][6][7].

DNA and other stiff biopolymers differ from classical polymers, however, in that they exhibit *torsional* as well as bend stiffness. Thus their conformations reflect not a classical directed walk but a new fundamental problem: the "torsional directed walk" (TDW), whose random variables are the direction of each step relative to its predecessor, together with a relative axial twist. In this letter we will formulate the version of the TDW appropriate to DNA, solve it *analytically* in a regime appropriate to a recent experiment [8], and show that the model quantitatively fits the data over a wide range of applied forces (Fig. 1) [9]. Besides being transparent, analytic formulæ facilitate systematic least-squares fitting to experimental data. We fit to obtain three microscopic elastic constants: the twist persistence length C, bend persistence length A, and intrinsic twist-stretch coupling D [10][11]. Since A is known independently we have a check on the model. The experiment is not sensitive to the other allowed linear-elastic constants such as twist-bend coupling [12].

We find that the existing data [8] yield A = 49 nm, C = 120 nm, and D = 50 nm; future experiments will refine these values when fit to our formula. Many authors have sought to extract the value of C from both cyclization experiments and fluorescence depolarization [13]. A key point of this paper is that the force regime we study is free from some vexing physical and mathematical difficulties which have helped make the determination of Cfrom these experiments controversial. In particular, we can use a continuum model with no need for the short-length cutoff required to make Monte Carlo calculations tractable [14].



Fig. 1: Relative extension of lambda-DNA versus applied force f and overtwist σ . From top to bottom, the curves are at fixed force 8.0, 1.3, 0.8, 0.6, 0.3, and 0.1 pN. The dots are experimental data from Fig. 3 of [8], excluding values of f, σ where the DNA is known to denature by strand separation. Open dots are outside the range of validity of the phantom chain model and were not used in the fit. The corresponding points from Fig. 2 of [8] were also used in the fit (not shown), for a total of 49 points. The lines are our theoretical predictions after fitting to A, C, and D (see text).

We also give a simple analytical prediction for the reduction of effective twist stiffness by bend fluctuations. This renormalization may explain why some other determinations of C give slightly lower values than ours. While its existence was appreciated long ago by Shimada and Yamakawa [15], a clear experimental test has hitherto not been possible. While this effect is only marginally visible in the extant data, again future experiments should be able to test our prediction by checking the dependence of C_{eff} on the applied force (see below). Our value for D is similar to within the large errors to recent estimates [10][11].

In a recent preprint Bouchiat and Mézard have independently addressed several overlapping issues [16]. We comment on their approach below.

2. Experiment

In the experiment of Ref. [8], DNA was bound to a wall at one end and a magnetic bead at the other, with bonds which did not permit free pivoting. Constraining the orientation of the bead with an applied magnetic field thus constrained the orientation of the DNA strand at its end. Since the bead was too large for the DNA to loop around it, this procedure effectively fixed the *total Link* of the circuit consisting of the DNA plus a fixed imaginary closing path. Rotating the applied magnetic field then allowed the authors to freeze the Link to any desired value and find the extension Z for various values of the applied stretching force f. Alternatively, the force could be held fixed while the Link was varied, as in Fig. 1 above. The intensive strain variable describing Link is the *relative overtwist* $\sigma \equiv \Delta Lk \cdot (3.4 \text{ nm}/L)$, where L = 16400 nm is the total contour length.

Subsequent work showed that the DNA denatures by strand separation for high applied stresses, roughly f > 0.4 pN and $\sigma < -0.01$ or $\sigma > 0.03$ (D. Bensimon, private communication). The loss of twist rigidity is also clearly visible in the curves in [8]. We have omitted such points from Fig. 1. Also, DNA undergoes a dramatic overstretching transition at around 60 pN [6]; all the data discussed here concern forces $f \leq 8$ pN.

3. Physical Picture

We will begin with a picture of DNA as a thin cylindrical elastic rod of fixed contour length L; below we will discuss corrections reflecting the more detailed architecture of the molecule. The conformations of such a rod under an applied tension are controlled by the elastic energy functional¹

$$E/k_{\rm B}T = \frac{1}{2} \int \left[A((\Omega_1)^2 + (\Omega_2)^2) + C(\Omega_3 - \omega_0)^2 \right] \mathrm{d}s - \tilde{f} \cdot Z - 2\pi\tau \cdot \mathrm{Lk} \quad . \tag{3.1}$$

Here s is arc length, $\Omega_{1,2}(s)$ are bending strains, $\Omega_3 - \omega_0$ is twist strain, A, C are the bend and twist persistence lengths, $\tilde{f} \equiv f/k_{\rm B}T$, and $\omega_0 \equiv 2\pi/3.4$ nm is the unstressed

¹ Our notation is similar to [12]. Throughout we will neglect sequence dependence. In the force regime in question we expect linear rod elasticity to be a good approximation. Higher-order bend elasticity effects are expected to be suppressed by powers of the rod radius (1 nm), which is much smaller than any other length scale. Indeed a linear-elastic model, the "extensible worm-like chain", describes accurately the extension of torsionally unconstrained DNA up to forces greater than those considered here, with an intrinsic stretch modulus more than a hundred times greater than the forces of interest to us [7].

molecule's helix density. τ is a dimensionless torque variable which we will choose to obtain the required overtwist $\langle Lk \rangle = (1 + \sigma)L\omega_0/2\pi$.

In the absence of thermal fluctuations, a rod under extensional stress remains straight as we apply increasing torque to the ends, then becomes linearly unstable at a critical value of torque which increases with the applied force [17]. The end-to-end distance Z of the rod does not change at all for applied overtwist less than the critical value $\tau_{\rm crit} = 2\sqrt{A\tilde{f}}$, since the rod remains a straight line of constant contour length.

Thermal fluctuations change this picture completely. The rod is never straight; every Fourier mode of its shape is excited in accordance with the equipartition theorem of statistical physics, so the net length Z is always less than L. The applied tension suppresses those modes of wavenumber smaller than $q_0 \equiv \sqrt{\tilde{f}/A}$, with the dominant contribution to 1 - (Z/L) coming from $q \approx q_0$. Now when we apply torque below the critical value, the modes with the same helical sense as the torque get pushed *closer to* instability and their fluctuations are enhanced, shortening the rod. The modes with the opposite helical sense are suppressed, and to first order in σ there is no effect, consistent with the obvious fact that the elastic energy (3.1) does not break inversion symmetry. We *do* expect an effect to $\mathcal{O}(\sigma^2)$; indeed this is the dominant feature of the data in Fig. 1. As the force decreases the effect increases, as seen in the increasing curvature of the curves in the figure.

In eqn. (3.1) we have neglected any self-avoidance effects; these would appear as interactions between rod elements distant in s. In the usual directed walk this is not a serious omission: the crossover to self-avoiding-walk scaling occurs only for chain lengths much longer, and forces much smaller, than those encountered in DNA. In the TDW we must be more careful, since the linking number appearing in (3.1) is undefined when the chain crosses itself. Physically the problem is that the chain can form a loop, pass through itself, and in the process lose a unit of Link: the *phantom torsional chain cannot* support any imposed torque. If we seek an equilibrium at nonzero τ we must expect to find mathematical pathologies; they will arrive in due course. A related problem is that the statistical sum for the phantom torsional chain includes all knotted configurations, an error with noticeable effects [18].

One approach to this problem is to introduce realistic self-avoidance and knot rejection into eqn. (3.1) [18][14]. The resulting nonlocal model requires numerical Monte Carlo solution, and the results depend on the details of the chain interaction chosen. From the physical picture, however, it is clear that at high enough applied tension f the problematic loops and knots will be so rare as to be negligible: the chain remains nearly straight, and we may use (3.1) without modification. We will find below the precise condition to be in this regime; it corresponds to the solid dots in Fig. 1.

Eqn. (3.1) also neglects any effects of rod anisotropy. For example, bending into the major groove ("Roll") is obviously easier than bending in the perpendicular direction ("Tilt"); less obvious is an allowed twist-bend coupling [12]. Such anisotropies can lead to chiral effects, for example an asymmetry between σ and $-\sigma$, but their effects on Fig. 1 are negligible (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation). Indeed we only expect the helical pitch to affect entropic elasticity when the dominant wavenumber q_0 approaches ω_0 , *i.e.* at unattainably large forces.²

Instead the asymmetry visible in Fig. 1 has its origin in the *intrinsic stretch* elasticity of a chiral rod, which gives Z a contribution linear in σ and independent of f [11]. This coupling may be relevant for the binding of the protein RecA to DNA, which stretches and untwists the DNA [19]. The effect should be masked by the entropic σ^2 term for small force, emerging when the latter is suppressed at high force, exactly as seen in Fig. 1.

4. Calculation

We now sketch a calculation embodying the above physical picture (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation). We introduce three local configuration variables: a unit vector $\mathbf{t}(s)$ describing the tangent to the chain, and an angle $\zeta(s)$ for the remaining torsional degree of freedom. We take the applied force along the \mathbf{z} direction and orient the chain so that $\mathbf{t}=\mathbf{z}$ in equilibrium. To define $\zeta(s)$ we use Fuller's local formula for the writhe of a curve whose tangent never points along the $-\mathbf{z}$ axis [20][21]: Wr= $\frac{1}{2\pi}\int ds(\mathbf{t} \times \frac{d\mathbf{z}}{ds}) \cdot \mathbf{z}/(1 + \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{z})$. Combined with White's theorem that $2\pi Wr + \int \Omega_3 ds$ is a topological invariant, we see that $\Omega_3 + (\mathbf{t} \times \frac{d\mathbf{z}}{ds}) \cdot \mathbf{z}/(1 + \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{z})$ must be a total derivative; we will call this quantity $\omega_0 + \frac{d\zeta}{ds}$ and eliminate $\Omega_3(s)$ in favor of $\zeta(s)$.³ The advantage of this choice is that (3.1) is now quadratic in ζ , which may be summarily eliminated.

² Certainly the omitted anisotropic couplings will also renormalize the constants A, C in (3.1) (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation). The model (3.1) is to be regarded as coarse-grained to the scale of the helix pitch.

³ A more elegant, equivalent, approach takes the configuration variables to be a 3×3 rotation matrix; the torque term then takes the form $-\tau \int ds [\Omega_3 + \check{\Omega}_3]/(1 + \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{z})$, where $\check{\Omega}_i$ are the *space-fixed* angular velocities of a rigid body (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation).

It proves convenient to define dimensionless quantities $K \equiv \sqrt{A\tilde{f} - \tau^2/4}$ and $\bar{s} \equiv Ks/A$; we then find

$$E/k_{\rm B}T = \mathcal{E}_0 + \frac{K}{2} \int \mathrm{d}\bar{s} \left[\|\dot{\mathbf{t}}\|^2 + \frac{2\tilde{f}A}{K^2} (1 - \mathbf{z} \cdot \mathbf{t}) - \frac{2\tau}{K} (\mathbf{t} \times \mathrm{d}\mathbf{t}/\mathrm{d}s) \cdot \mathbf{z}/(1 + \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{z}) \right] , \quad (4.1)$$

where $\mathcal{E}_0 \equiv -L(\tilde{f} + \tau^2/2C)$ and dot denotes $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\bar{s}}$. The second term defines a nonlinear fluctuation problem, which we will expand in powers of 1/K. From its partition function $\mathcal{Z}(f,\tau)$ we may then extract the extension and excess link as

$$Z = \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{f}} \Big|_{\tau} \log \mathcal{Z} , \quad \omega_0(1+\sigma) = \frac{1}{L} \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \right|_{\tilde{f}} \log \mathcal{Z} .$$
(4.2)

We will use the second of these to solve for $\tau(f, \sigma)$, then substitute into the first to get the desired extension $Z(f, \sigma)$.

To find \mathcal{Z} we adapt the standard trick used in the wormlike chain [1][5]: for long chains \mathcal{Z} approaches the unnormalized correlation function of \mathbf{t} . Holding $\mathbf{t}(0)$ fixed, this correlator $\psi(\mathbf{t}, s)$ obeys the Schrödinger-like equation $\dot{\psi} = -H\psi$, where (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation)

$$H = K(1 - \cos\theta) - \frac{1}{2K}\mathbf{L}^2 + \frac{\tau}{K}(1 + \cos\theta)^{-1}L_z + \frac{\tau^2}{2K}\left(\frac{1}{2} - (1 + \cos\theta)^{-1}\right)(1 - \cos\theta) .$$
(4.3)

Here $\cos \theta = \mathbf{t} \cdot \mathbf{z}$, \mathbf{L}^2 is the angular part of the Laplace operator, and L_z is the azimuthal derivative. The main novelty of this derivation is the presence of first-order derivatives in (4.1) when $\tau \neq 0$, leading to the τ^2 terms in K and in (4.3). The asymptotic value of \mathcal{Z} is then controlled by the lowest ("ground-state") eigenvalue of (4.3) via $\mathcal{Z} \propto e^{-\mathcal{E}_0 - \lambda_0 L}$.

Unfortunately (4.3) has no ground state for any nonzero τ , due to its singularity at $\theta = \pi$! This unphysical pathology was predicted in the previous section; its mathematical origin is the breakdown of Fuller's formula when $\mathbf{t} = -\mathbf{z}$. To see the connection to the physical discussion, note that the unphysical link-dropping process in the phantom torsional chain necessarily involves the tangent $\mathbf{t}(s)$ passing through $-\mathbf{z}$ at some intermediate point. As discussed above, a physically meaningful and analytically tractable resolution to the problem is to restrict attention to large f. We can then solve (4.3) in perturbtion theory about $\theta = 0$, where the problem is invisible, provided the perturbative ground state

value is smaller than the "tunneling barrier" of (4.3).⁴ Imposing this condition and $K^2 > 2$ selects the solid dots in Fig. 1.

The perturbative solution of (4.3) gives the ground state eigenvalue $\lambda_0 = 1 - 1/4K - 1/64K^2 \cdots$, so (4.2) gives $\sigma = \frac{\tau}{\omega_0} (C^{-1} + (4KA)^{-1} + \mathcal{O}(K^{-3})), Z/L = 1 - (2K)^{-1}(1 + 1/64K^2 + \mathcal{O}(K^{-3}))$. Solving by iteration gives the torque

$$\tau(f,\sigma) = \omega_0 \sigma / \left[C^{-1} + \left(4A\sqrt{Af/k_{\rm B}T} \right)^{-1} \right] \,, \tag{4.4}$$

plus corrections of $\mathcal{O}(K^{-3})$. Formula (4.4) displays the promised renormalization of twist stiffness by bend fluctuations. While direct torque measurements are not currently possible, this effect nevertheless enters the force curves since τ enters Z/L.

Assembling the pieces gives our theoretical prediction for the force curve: the relative extension Z/L is

$$Z(f,\sigma)/L = 1 - \frac{1}{2} (Af/k_{\rm B}T - (\tau/2)^2 - 1/32)^{-1/2} + (f - D\sigma)/\gamma + A/LK^2 , \qquad (4.5)$$

with τ from (4.4). We have improved the previous formula (J.D. Moroz and P. Nelson, in preparation) by summing perturbation theory, introducing the intrinsic-stretch terms mentioned in the previous section, and including a small finite-length correction.

In formulas (4.4)(4.5) the parameters ω_0, L are known and we use the value $\gamma = 1100 \text{ pN}$ for the linear stretch constant obtained from higher-force experiments [7]. This leaves A, C, and D which we fit to the experimental data after the cuts described above. Fig. 1 shows that a single choice of A, C, D fits all the curves.⁵ A nontrivial check is that several points just outside our accepted set, not used in the fit, nevertheless lie on our theoretical curves.

⁴ To justify perturbation theory itself we note that it gives an excellent approximation to the exact solution of the wormlike chain [5] when K > 1, as may be expected from the form of the leading anharmonic correction below. Nonperturbative effects in the variational approach to the WLC [5] are also small when K > 1. Note that our data cuts also eliminate the region $\sigma > 2\pi/C\omega_0$ where plectoneme formation (and hence large self-avoidance effects) is expected [22]. Raising our threshold on K selected fewer points with little effect on our result.

⁵ The variance of the data from our curves is $\sigma_{Z/L} = 0.013$, comparable to the visible scatter in the data. The formal covariances for A, C, Q correspond to very small errors; in practice the fit is visibly worse for C outside the range 70 < C < 150.

Bouchiat and Mézard have recently analyzed the f = 0.1 pN curve [16]. They independently obtained formulæ equivalent to (4.2)(4.3). Since the 0.1 pN curve is entirely outside the range of validity of the phantom chain model, however, they were obliged to address the unphysical pathology of (4.3), both by Monte Carlo simulation and by introducing a new short-scale cutoff. The new cutoff introduces a new unknown parameter into the theory, and moreover does not correspond in a simple way to the actual physics of self-avoidance. Nevertheless they found an impressive fit to the 0.1 pN curve and relative insensitivity to their choice of cutoff for $|\sigma| < 0.015$.

Formulas (4.4)(4.5) make many predictions. We note that the fit value of A is consistent with [7]. Omitting either the f/γ or the $-D\sigma/\gamma$ terms makes a poorer fit, as does replacing (4.4) by the naïve $\tau = \omega_0 \sigma/C_{\text{eff}}$ with constant C_{eff} . (It is interesting to note that the value $C_{\text{eff}} = 98 \text{ nm}$ obtained in this way is closer to earlier determinations than our microscopic value of C.) Definitive test of (4.4) must await further experiments.

We would like to thank B. Fain, R.D. Kamien, T.C. Lubensky, C. O'Hern, J. Rudnick, and M. Zapotocky for helpful discussions, C. Bouchiat and M. Mézard for correspondence, and D. Bensimon and V. Croquette for supplying us with experimental details and the numerical data from [8]. This work was supported in part by NSF grant DMR95–07366. JDM was supported in part by an FCAR Graduate Fellowship from the government of Quebec.

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