Real time observations of single bacteriophage λ DNA ejections in vitro.

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Supplement A. Image processing.

Recorded movies of DNA ejection experiments were analyzed in two steps: First, ejections judged “good” (no DNA sticking to the slide, overlapping, or obvious photodamage) were manually selected from the movies, and 20 s of video, starting from the beginning of ejection, was converted into individual cropped image files. Examples of “bad” trajectories are shown in Figure 1. Second, these files were analyzed by a computer subroutine that automatically measured the length of the DNA using a Difference-of-Gaussians (DOG) filter [1, 2].

The DOG filter is used as a convenient approximation to the Laplacian-of-Gaussian (LOG) filter, an edge-detection algorithm that works as follows: We start with a raw image \( I \) that contains a certain amount of noise. The image is smoothed with a Gaussian filter, which we denote by \( G(\sigma) \). The standard deviation of the filter, \( \sigma \), must be selected so that the filter erases most of the noise. Then, the Laplacian \( L = \nabla^2 \) is applied to compute the curvature, which we denote by \( C \). Mathematically,

\[
C = L(G(\sigma) * I) = (L G(\sigma)) * I ,
\]

where \( * \) represents the convolution operation. The final form of this expression follows because both \( L \) and \( G(\sigma) \) are linear: thus the LOG filter can be represented as a convolution of a single function, \( L G(\sigma) \) with the image.

This function is closely approximated by the difference of two Gaussians with slightly different values of \( \sigma \)

\[
L G(\sigma) \approx G(\sigma) - G(1.6\sigma) ,
\]

which we call the DOG filter. In Fourier space, this convolution can be computed more efficiently as a product:

\[
\hat{C} = (\hat{G}(\sigma) - \hat{G}(1.6\sigma)) \times \hat{I} .
\]

The value of \( C \) is expected to change sign at edges, so by thresholding, the shape of the DNA may be extracted from the image. The following code, written in the Octave language, was used to apply the DOG filter to images and find the length of the given piece of DNA.

```octave
function [mylength] = find_length(img,sigma)
    w = size(img)(2);
    h = size(img)(1);

    ## generate the filter function
    g1 = zeros(h,w);
    g2 = zeros(h,w);

    for i=1:h
        for j=1:w
            ii = min(i-1,h+1-i);
            jj = min(j-1,w+1-j);

            g1(ii,jj) = 1 / (2 * pi * sigma^2) * exp(-ii^2/jj^2 / (2 * sigma^2));
            g2(ii,jj) = 1 / (2 * pi * sigma^2) * exp(-(ii+1)^2/jj^2 / (2 * sigma^2));
        endfor
    endfor

    ## apply the filter
    g1 = g1 / sum(g1);  
    g2 = g2 / sum(g2);
    I = g1 * img + g2 * img;

    ## compute the Laplacian
    L = conv2(I, [-1  1], 'same');

    ## compute the curvature
    C = L * I;

    ## thresholding
    C(C > 0) = C(C > 0) * (C(C > 0));
    C(C < 0) = C(C < 0) * (C(C < 0));

    ## find the length
    mylength = sum(abs(C));
endfunction
```
\[
g_1(i,j) = \exp\left(-\frac{(ii^2+jj^2)}{2\cdot\sigma^2}\right);
g_2(i,j) = \exp\left(-\frac{(ii^2+jj^2)}{2\cdot(\sigma\cdot1.6)^2}\right);
\]

end

## compute the curvature, C

\[
dog_f = \text{fft2}(dog);
\]

\[
img_f = \text{fft2}(img);
\]

\[
C = \text{real}(\text{ifft2}(img_f .* dog_f));
\]

## compute the thresholded image, T

\[
cutoff = 0.2 \times \text{max}(\text{max}(C));
\]

\[
T = \text{curvature} > \text{cutoff};
\]

\[
\text{mylength} = \text{rightedge} - \text{leftedge};
\]

end

The removed section ... finds the left and right edges of the largest region in the image. Figure 2 shows an example of the effect of the DOG filter, applied to image series from the text. As the figure shows, the size of small pieces of DNA is slightly exaggerated by a filter with a large value of \(\sigma\), and the smallest pieces were entirely lost. We found that by reducing \(\sigma\) iteratively for smaller pieces of DNA, these problems could be eliminated.

As discussed in the main text, in order to compute the DNA length in kbp corresponding to a given number of pixels, tethered restriction fragments of \(\lambda\) DNA were recorded and analyzed according to the above techniques. Figure 1 shows the calibration data that was used to analyze DNA ejections.

**Supplement B. Effect of flow.**

In this section we present a brief theoretical treatment of the effect of flow and an additional plot in support the claim that the dynamics of DNA translocation is determined primarily by internal pressure rather than force from the flow.

As discussed in the text, one model for the state of a tethered piece of DNA in a shear flow is that there is a ball of unstretched DNA of length \(L_0\) at the free end. The ball experiences a force from the flow; this force is what causes the remained \(L - L_0\) of the DNA to be stretched out. We can use the Stokes formula to approximate this force:

\[
F_{\text{flow}} = 6\pi \eta rv,
\]

(4)

where \(r\) is the radius of the ball and \(v\) represents the average flow velocity over the ball. This force stretching out the DNA is balanced against its tendency to form a random coil: approximately 1 \(k_B T\) of free energy is required for each persistence length \(\xi\) of DNA. Balancing the forces, we find

\[
F_{\text{flow}} \approx 1 k_B T/\xi \approx 0.1 \text{pN},
\]

(5)

independent of the size of the ball. This force is trivial compared to the 10–40 pN of internal force found in \(\lambda\), so we do not expect it to make a significant difference.

Figure 4 shows that when flow velocity is reduced by a factor of four, there is no significant change in the ejection process, indicating that the presence of a flow does not have an important effect on ejection. Additionally, Figure 5 compares the velocity of ejection under both flow rates, binned according to the method described in the text. What Figure 5 shows is that the translocation velocity is not increased under a stronger flow. In fact, for several data points,
the translocation appears faster under the weaker flow. We believe that the faster points are due to the high fluctuations that are observed in a weak flow: in particular, the DNA tether calibration at 14 s\(^{-1}\) did not fit our model as well as it did at 57 s\(^{-1}\) (data not shown.) Our conclusion is that 57 s\(^{-1}\) is a value that allows the DNA to be stretched out sufficiently to limit fluctuations, but without significantly affecting the translocation process.

**Supplement C. Ejections in an intermediate buffer.**

Ejections were performed in buffer A, which consisted of 50 mM Tris, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM MgSO\(_4\). The calibration DNA in buffer A behaved identically to DNA in Mg buffer, but, as shown in Figure 6, DNA translocation required about 4 s, intermediate between the values for the Na and Mg buffers. This result is unusual, because if Mg\(^{2+}\) ions have a dominant effect on free DNA, we would expect them to also be dominant when the DNA is tightly packaged.

**References**
