

1 Manuscript submitted to **Biophysical Journal**

2 Article

3 A model for *cis*-regulation of transcriptional 4 condensates and gene expression by proximal 5 lncRNAs

6 Pradeep Natarajan¹, Krishna Shrinivas², and Arup K. Chakraborty^{3,4,5,6,*}

7 ¹Department of Chemical Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139, USA

8 ²NSF-Simons Center, Harvard University, Cambridge MA 02139, USA

9 ³Department of Physics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139, USA

10 ⁴Institute of Medical Engineering and Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139, USA

11 ⁵Ragon Institute of Massachusetts General Hospital, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University,
12 Cambridge MA 02139, USA

13 ⁶Department of Chemistry, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA 02139, USA

14 *Correspondence: arupc@mit.edu

15 **ABSTRACT** Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) perform several important functions in cells including *cis*-regulation of
16 transcription. Barring a few specific cases, the mechanisms underlying transcriptional regulation by lncRNAs remain poorly
17 understood. Transcriptional proteins can form condensates via phase separation at protein-binding loci (BL) on the genome
18 (e.g., enhancers and promoters). lncRNA-coding genes are present at loci in close genomic proximity of these BL and these
19 RNAs can interact with transcriptional proteins via attractive heterotypic interactions mediated by their net charge. Motivated
20 by these observations, we propose that lncRNAs can dynamically regulate transcription in *cis* via charge-based heterotypic
21 interactions with transcriptional proteins in condensates. To study the consequences of this mechanism, we developed
22 and studied a dynamical phase-field model. We find that proximal lncRNAs can promote condensate formation at the BL.
23 Vicinally localized lncRNA can migrate to the BL to attract more protein because of favorable interaction free energies.
24 However, increasing the distance beyond a threshold leads to a sharp decrease in protein recruitment to the BL. This finding
25 could potentially explain why genomic distances between lncRNA-coding genes and protein-coding genes are conserved
26 across metazoans. Finally, our model predicts that lncRNA transcription can fine-tune transcription from neighboring
27 condensate-controlled genes, repressing transcription from highly expressed genes and enhancing transcription of genes
28 expressed at a low level. This non-equilibrium effect can reconcile conflicting reports that lncRNAs can enhance or repress
29 transcription from proximal genes.

SIGNIFICANCE Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) form a significant part of the human genome but do not code for
any proteins. They have many hypothesized functions in the cell, including the regulation of transcription. Transcriptional
condensates are assemblies of transcriptional proteins that concentrate at specific genomic sites through phase
separation and can regulate transcription. In this study, we propose that lncRNAs can regulate transcription by
interacting with proteins in transcriptional condensates to modulate condensate formation. We find that this model can
explain some puzzling observations such as conflicting reports of gene activation and repression by lncRNAs, and
conservation of genomic distances between lncRNA-coding genes relative to protein-coding genes in metazoans.
Experimentally testable predictions that can further explore our model are discussed.

30 INTRODUCTION

31 Genes that encode long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) outnumber protein-coding genes (PCGs) in the mammalian genome
32 (1, 2). lncRNAs are RNAs that have a length of >200 nucleotides and are not translated into any proteins unlike the messenger
33 RNAs (mRNAs). Some well-studied lncRNAs include NEAT1 which acts as a scaffold in paraspeckles, MALAT1 which
34 regulates the phosphorylation of SR proteins in nuclear speckles, XIST which is involved in the silencing of the X chromosome,

Natarajan et al.

35 and NORAD which promotes genomic stability (3). Except for these and a small number of others, the biological function of
36 the vast majority of lncRNAs is poorly understood.

37 There is an emerging body of literature that suggests that lncRNAs can regulate transcription in *cis* (4–9). lncRNAs involved
38 in *cis*-regulation usually affect transcription in a manner that depends on their genomic locus. Transcription of these lncRNAs
39 has a local effect and directly correlates with the transcription of PCGs in genomic and spatial proximity in most cases (10–12).
40 However, recent experiments that perturb lncRNA transcription report conflicting observations on its impact on transcription
41 from neighboring genes. Luo and coworkers knocked down several divergent lncRNAs in mouse embryonic stem cells using
42 RNAi and observed that gene expression from neighboring PCGs went up in some cases while it went down in others (4).
43 Engreitz and coworkers suppressed lncRNA transcription in mouse cell lines by knocking out their promoters and reported a
44 similar observation (5). The promoter knockout in some rare cases dramatically decreased gene expression from the neighboring
45 PCG. We do not have a unifying framework to explain these seemingly conflicting observations.

46 Several experimental studies offer a glimpse into the mechanisms by which lncRNAs regulate transcription in *cis*. lncRNAs
47 can activate gene expression by recruiting the transcriptional coactivator Mediator to neighbor genes (4, 9), promote looping
48 between enhancers and promoters (4, 8) and recruit histone modifiers to promoter regions of neighboring genes (7). The process
49 of lncRNA transcription has also been hypothesized to activate the transcription of target genes by maintaining enhancers in an
50 active state (13) and by increasing the local concentration of transcription-associated proteins at neighboring promoters (5).
51 The *cis*-regulatory function of lncRNA sequences does not appear to depend strongly on their specific sequences as they are
52 often poorly conserved (6, 14) and only weakly selected in humans (15). However, recent evidence suggests that lncRNAs occur
53 at conserved genomic positions relative to orthologous genes (6, 16, 17). This kind of “positional” conservation rather than
54 sequence conservation motivated us to consider a physical mechanism for *cis*-regulation of gene expression that is agnostic to
55 the specific lncRNA sequence.

56 Using RNA-DNA SPRITE, Quinodoz and coworkers demonstrated that mature lncRNAs tend to localize in the vicinity of
57 their coding genomic regions and form their own compartments (18). There is emerging evidence that transcriptional proteins
58 also form their own compartments – called transcriptional condensates – at enhancers and promoters (19–23) and control gene
59 expression from target genes (24, 25). These condensates are comprised of biomolecules including transcription factors (19),
60 transcriptional coactivators (20, 23), and RNA Polymerase II (22, 23) that are recruited to enhancers and promoters via a
61 phase-separation mechanism (26). Promoters of PCGs are surrounded mostly by lncRNA-coding genes in their immediate
62 genomic and spatial neighborhood (4, 10, 11) and many enhancer loci also code for lncRNAs (27, 28). The spatial distance
63 between lncRNA-coding loci and promoters and enhancers is of the same order as the size of stable transcriptional condensates
64 (Refer to section S1 in the supplemental material). Given this spatial proximity, lncRNAs could interact with components of the
65 transcriptional condensate.

66 Motivated by these observations, we hypothesized that lncRNAs can regulate transcription in *cis* by interacting with
67 the components of the transcriptional condensate. But what is the nature of this interaction? Recent work suggests that
68 transcriptional coactivators such as Mediator subunit 1 and BRD4 have positively charged disordered domains that can interact
69 with the negatively charged RNA polymer (29) via screened electrostatic interactions. This can result in the condensation
70 of transcriptional proteins driven by the phenomenon of complex coacervation (30–32). A small concentration of RNA
71 promotes condensation driven by electrostatic attraction between the differently charged polymers. However, when the RNA
72 concentrations exceed a value that corresponds to a balance between the total positive and negative charge in the system, this
73 leads to condensate dissolution driven by entropic effects of confining the polymer within the coacervate and electrostatic
74 repulsion between like-charged RNAs (33, 34). The non-equilibrium process of RNA transcription can therefore feedback
75 on itself by initially aiding condensate formation and then dissolving it (29). This provides a sequence-agnostic biophysical
76 mechanism that could also be employed by many lncRNAs to control transcription in *cis*.

77 In this paper, we study how lncRNAs may regulate transcriptional condensates via non-equilibrium phenomena coupled to
78 complex coacervation. We develop a phase-field model for transcriptional regulation by lncRNAs that incorporates known
79 observations about lncRNAs, transcriptional condensates, and interactions between their components, and numerically
80 simulate the model equations. Using this model, we predict that vicinally localized lncRNAs can reduce the threshold protein
81 concentrations required for transcriptional condensate formation and increase protein recruitment to protein-binding loci (BL)
82 on chromatin (e.g. enhancers and promoters). This is a local effect and drops off sharply with the distance between the lncRNA
83 locus and the BL. Finally, we also predict that local transcription of lncRNAs can aid the formation of transcriptional condensates
84 at PCGs or dissolve it, depending on their level of expression. This in turn has a corresponding effect on transcription from the
85 PCGs. We predict that transcription of proximal lncRNAs enhances transcription from PCGs expressed at a low level, while the
86 same process represses transcription from highly expressed PCGs. Based on these results, we propose that lncRNA transcription
87 can act as a regulatory knob to fine-tune transcription from neighboring genes. Our model provides a mechanistic framework
88 that reconciles conflicting observations about *cis*-regulation of transcription by lncRNAs, provides a possible explanation
89 for how this function can impose genomic constraints on the positions of lncRNA loci and makes predictions that can be

90 experimentally tested to further explore this mechanism.

91 MODEL DESCRIPTION

92 We adopt a continuum phase-field approach to build our model. We have three biomolecular species in our model: the lncRNA, 93 mRNA, and transcriptional proteins (Fig. 1A). We treat the latter as a quasi-species that includes all proteins related to the 94 transcriptional machinery such as transcriptional coactivators and transcription factors. Each of these species is characterized 95 by a concentration field - ϕ_R (for lncRNA), ϕ_M (for mRNA), and ϕ_P (for protein) – which depends on the spatial position. 96 These concentration fields evolve in time governed by partial differential equations (PDE) that describe (i) the transport of these 97 species in space as a consequence of their interaction with each other and (ii) any reactions they might undergo.

98 To account for the interactions between lncRNA, mRNA, protein, and the chromatin (summarized in Fig. 1B), we write 99 down an expression for the free energy of this multi-component system that comprises the following three terms:

$$F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \phi_M, \vec{r}] = F_{FH}[\phi_P, \phi_R, \phi_M] + F_{RL}[\phi_R, \vec{r}] + F_{BL}[\phi_P, \vec{r}] + F_{surf}[\phi_P] \quad (1)$$

100 $F_{FH}[\phi_P, \phi_R, \phi_M]$ is a Flory-Huggins free energy that captures the self and cross interactions between transcriptional 101 proteins, lncRNA, and the mRNA. A detailed expression for this free energy is given in section S2.3 of the supplemental 102 material. The rationale behind choosing values for the different parameters associated with this expression is discussed in 103 sections S2.1-S2.3 in the supplemental material, and the specific values used in simulations are summarized in supplementary 104 table 1.

105 Briefly, this free energy captures the following three biologically relevant interactions: (i) attractive protein-protein 106 interactions (ii) repulsive RNA-RNA interactions, and (iii) attractive protein-RNA interactions. We assign the protein-protein 107 interactions to be attractive motivated by the observation that many transcriptional proteins contain intrinsically disordered 108 regions (IDRs) that promote the formation of transcriptional condensates (19, 21). The attractive interactions between IDRs 109 arise from various interactions at the amino acid level such as electrostatic (35, 36), pi-pi (37), cation-pi (38) and hydrophobic 110 (35) interactions. Interactions between all the RNA species in our model are chosen to be repulsive motivated by the fact 111 that lncRNA and mRNA species are both negatively charged polymers that can interact via screened electrostatic repulsion. 112 Finally, the protein-mRNA and protein-lncRNA interactions are attractive in our model, motivated by the observation that 113 many transcriptional coactivators contain positively charged IDRs (29) and transcription factors contain positively-charged 114 RNA-binding regions (39) that can bind to negatively-charged RNA.

115 There is also emerging evidence that many lncRNAs localize in close proximity to their genomic loci (18). We refer to the 116 genomic loci that code for lncRNAs as the lncRNA locus, or RL, for the rest of this paper. There are many mechanisms that 117 could facilitate attractive interactions between lncRNAs and their RL – these include tethering by transcription factors such 118 as YY1 (40, 41) or by RNA polymerase (42). Irrespective of the mechanism, we can write down a free energy between the 119 lncRNA concentration field $\phi_R(\vec{r})$ at position \vec{r} and its RL located at position \vec{r}_{RL} using a Gaussian function that has a range 120 σ_{RL} and strength of attraction c_R :

$$F_{RL}[\phi_R, \vec{r}] = -c_R e^{-\frac{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{RL}|^2}{\sigma_{RL}^2}} \phi_R \quad (2)$$

121 Finally, the term $F_{BL}[\phi_P, \vec{r}]$ captures the interaction free energy of transcriptional proteins with regions of attractive 122 chromatin that promote condensate formation (21). We call these regions of attractive chromatin such as specific enhancers, 123 super-enhancers, or promoters as the binding locus, or BL. We can write down a free energy between transcriptional protein 124 concentration field $\phi_P(\vec{r})$ at position \vec{r} and its BL located at position \vec{r}_{BL} using a Gaussian function that has a range σ_{BL} and 125 strength of attraction c_P :

$$F_{BL}[\phi_P, \vec{r}] = -c_P e^{-\frac{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{BL}|^2}{\sigma_{BL}^2}} \phi_P \quad (3)$$

126 The term $F_{surf}[\phi_P] = \frac{\kappa}{2} |\phi_P|^2$ is a surface tension term that penalizes sharp gradients in protein concentration, with κ 127 being the strength of this energy penalty. This term is not particularly important for our results but ensures that any phase 128 separation is accompanied by smooth boundaries between phases.

129 Using this model, we hope to answer the following two questions: (1) **How does a lncRNA localized near a BL affect the** 130 **formation of transcriptional condensates?** (2) **How does an actively transcribed lncRNA affect mRNA transcription from** 131 **a nearby BL?** Specifically, we look at how the amount of lncRNA $\phi_R^{avg} = \int \phi_R(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}$, the distance between the BL and the RL 132 ($L_P = |\vec{r}_{BL} - \vec{r}_{RL}|$), and the rate of lncRNA transcription at the RL (k_R) relative to the mRNA (k_M) affect the above processes.

Natarajan et al.

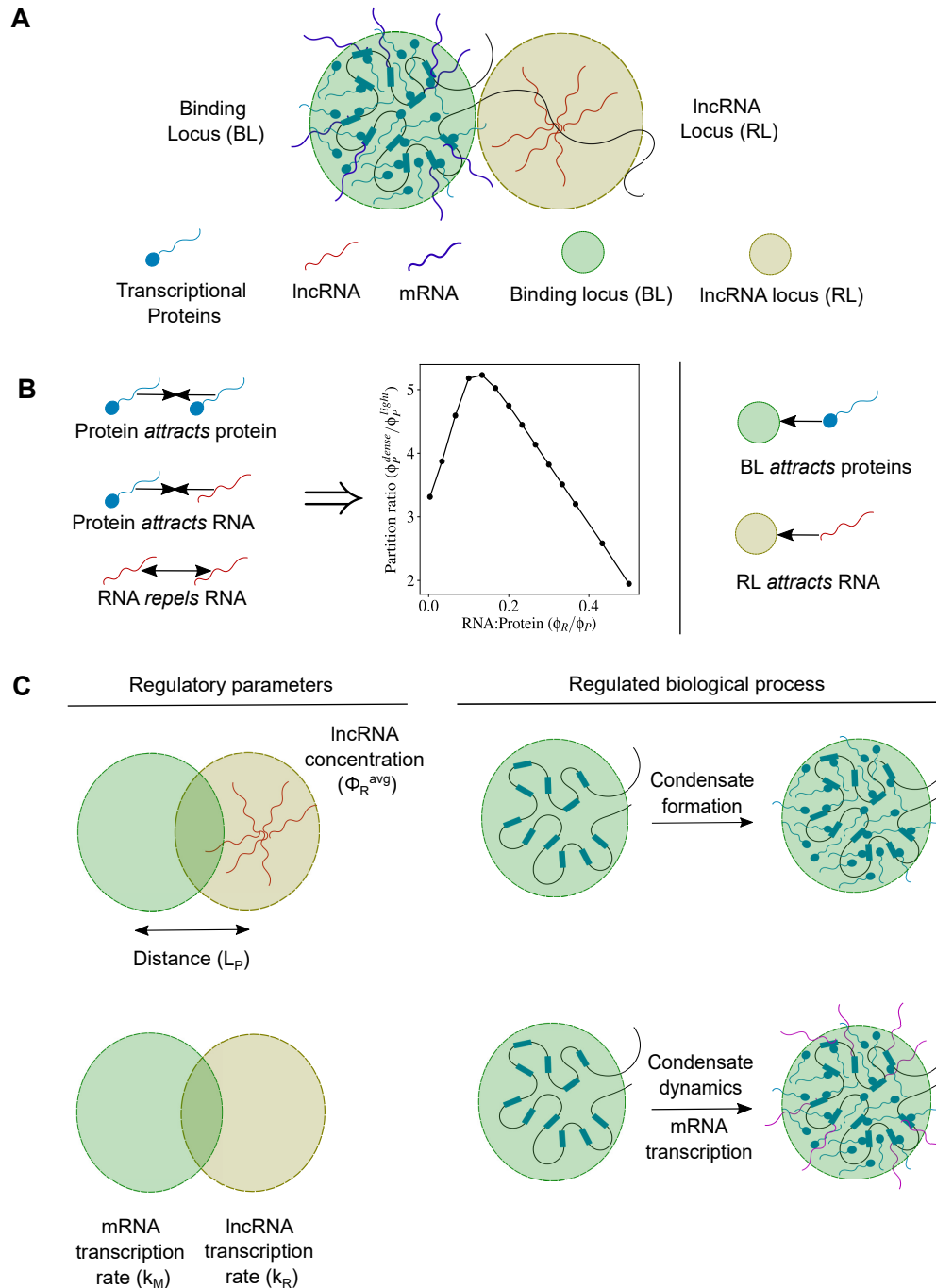


Figure 1: **A** Cartoon describing the molecular players involved in transcriptional condensate formation. **B** Transcriptional proteins attract each other through interactions mediated by their intrinsically disordered domains. RNAs (both lncRNA and mRNA) attract transcriptional proteins through interactions mediated by screened electrostatics or otherwise. RNAs repel each other due to electrostatic repulsion between like-charged polymers. These interactions result in re-entrant condensation of proteins. Transcriptional proteins can concentrate at chromatin regions rich in enhancers and promoters to form a dense phase which we call a transcriptional condensate. We call these regions of chromatin the binding locus (BL). lncRNAs localize near their genomic loci which we call the lncRNA locus (RL). **C** Cartoon describing the different regulatory parameters investigated in this study along with the biological process that they regulate. The amount of lncRNA (as measured by the average lncRNA concentration ϕ_R^{avg}) and the distance (L_P) between the RL and the BL can affect condensate formation at the BL. The relative magnitudes of the mRNA transcription rate constant (k_M) at the BL and the lncRNA transcription rate (k_L) at the lncRNA locus affects the dynamics of the protein condensate and therefore mRNA transcription from the BL.

133 Dynamics of condensate formation

134 In this section, we develop a model to answer the first question: How does a lncRNA localized near a BL affect the formation
 135 of transcriptional condensates? To do this, we consider a situation where there is a uniform concentration of transcriptional
 136 proteins everywhere in space at time $t = 0$. Some amount of lncRNA is spatially localized at the RL which is present in the
 137 vicinity of the BL. There is no active transcription of mRNA happening at the BL and the free energy, in this case, does not
 138 depend on ϕ_M i.e. $F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \vec{r}] = F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \phi_M = 0, \vec{r}]$. As time progresses, the protein starts to accumulate at the BL driven
 139 by the attractive protein-protein and protein BL interactions. We define a condensate as a region in space where the protein
 140 concentration is above a threshold value, which is set by the free energy parameters (Refer to section S2.4 in the supplemental
 141 material for details on this threshold value). The lncRNA localized at the RL can perturb the dynamics of condensate formation
 142 at the BL depending on its amount (ϕ_R^{avg}) and how far away it is (L_P).

143 Condensate formation happens over the time scale of a few minutes (24) which is much shorter compared to the half-lives
 144 of most lncRNAs (43) and proteins (44) which can span hours. Therefore, we assume that the protein and lncRNA are stable
 145 over our simulation of condensate formation. For conserved species, the spatiotemporal dynamics of concentrations are such
 146 that the molecules move down gradients in chemical potential. The coupled dynamics of the concentrations $\phi_P(\vec{r})$ and $\phi_R(\vec{r})$
 147 can be captured using the following Model B equations (45):

$$\frac{\partial \phi_P(\vec{r})}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(D_P \phi_P \left(\vec{\nabla} \frac{\delta F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \vec{r}]}{\delta \phi_P} \right) \right) \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi_R(\vec{r})}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(D_R \phi_R \left(\vec{\nabla} \frac{\delta F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \vec{r}]}{\delta \phi_R} \right) \right) \quad (5)$$

148 Dynamics of transcription

149 In this section, we develop a model to answer the second question: How does an actively transcribed lncRNA affect mRNA
 150 transcription from a nearby BL? BLs with active mRNA transcription are often not isolated but located in neighborhoods that
 151 contain other actively transcribing RNAs including lncRNAs. Transcription of neighboring lncRNAs can potentially couple to
 152 the dynamics of mRNA transcription specifically by modulating protein recruitment to the BL and transcriptional condensate
 153 formation, thereby regulating gene expression.

154 Active transcription and depletion of RNAs that consume ATP can alter the local RNA concentrations and push the system
 155 far out of equilibrium. The rate of mRNA transcription must depend on both the local concentration of transcriptional proteins
 156 and the coding DNA. We take into account the local coding-DNA concentration through an effective rate constant that is a
 157 Gaussian function in space centered at the BL, reflecting the concentration of these genes at the BL. In addition to the spatially
 158 varying rate constant, the mRNA transcription rate has a simple first-order dependence on ϕ_P , reflecting the activating effect
 159 of transcriptional proteins. To be general, we assume that lncRNA transcription is not controlled by the same transcriptional
 160 proteins and its rate is independent of ϕ_P . The lncRNA transcription rate is also modeled as a Gaussian function in space
 161 centered at the RL, to reflect its transcription from its coding DNA which is localized at RL. Using this function for both the
 162 coding-DNA concentrations is a simple approximation if we assume the genomic region to be a Gaussian polymer. The values
 163 σ_R and σ_M reflect the spatial extents of the DNA that codes for the lncRNA and the mRNA respectively. In addition to the
 164 spatially varying production rates of the species, we also have a simple first-order decay of the lncRNA and mRNA species
 165 throughout space with rate constants of k_{dR} and k_{dM} respectively.

166 To understand how lncRNA transcription perturbs mRNA transcription, we use the following model where the reaction-
 167 diffusion dynamics of the lncRNA affect mRNA transcription by perturbing the dynamics of the protein field $\phi_P(\vec{r})$:

$$\frac{\partial \phi_P(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \vec{\nabla} \cdot \left(D_P \phi_P \left(\vec{\nabla} \frac{\delta F[\phi_P, \phi_R, \phi_M, \vec{r}]}{\delta \phi_P} \right) \right) \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi_M(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = D_M \nabla^2 \phi_M + k_M e^{-\frac{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{BL}|^2}{\sigma_{BL}^2}} \phi_P - k_{dM} \phi_M \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi_R(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = D_R \nabla^2 \phi_R + k_R e^{-\frac{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{RL}|^2}{\sigma_{RL}^2}} - k_{dR} \phi_R \quad (8)$$

168 Section S2.6 of the supplemental material summarizes the specific values and ranges of parameters that were used for the

Natarajan et al.

169 simulation and a rationalization for these choices. For this study, we vary the magnitudes of the lncRNA production rate (k_R)
170 and mRNA transcription rate constant (k_M), and investigate how that affects condensate dynamics and mRNA expression.

171 A difference between the model described by Eqs. 6-8 and that in the previous section is the mechanism of lncRNA
172 localization. In this model, the lncRNA production rate is peaked at the RL. Therefore, the lncRNA concentration is highest at
173 the RL and decreases with distance due to diffusion and degradation. Another important difference is that Eqs. 6-8 define
174 processes far out of equilibrium, and not dynamics down a free energy gradient.

175 Numerical simulation of model equations

176 The above partial differential equations were numerically solved using a custom python code, available [here](#). The Zenodo-
177 generated DOI for the same is 10.5281/zenodo.7461653. This code uses the finite volume solver Fipy developed by the National
178 Institute of Standards and Technology (46). All simulations in this paper were done in a 2D circular domain of radius 15 units,
179 with a circular discrete mesh. The spatially discretized PDEs were solved for each incremental time step with adaptive time
180 stepping to pick smaller or larger time steps depending on how quickly or slowly the concentration fields change. A grid size
181 of $\Delta r = 0.1$ and a typical time step size on the scale of $\Delta t = 0.2$ worked well for the simulations. Simulations were run for a
182 duration of 2000 time steps, which was sufficient for the system to reach a steady state.

183 For the dynamics of condensate formation with localized lncRNA, the equilibrium concentration profile of lncRNA was
184 obtained as described in section S2.2 of the supplemental material, which was then used as the initial condition for simulating
185 the dynamics. For all simulations, a uniform protein concentration profile was used as the initial condition, with a value of
186 $\phi_P^{avg} = 0.04$ unless stated otherwise. This corresponds to a regime where the protein does not form a condensate by itself and
187 requires lncRNA for condensate formation and this value was chosen to illustrate the effects of lncRNAs more sharply. The
188 initial concentration of mRNA everywhere was set to $\phi_M = 0$. The no-flux Neumann boundary condition was applied to all
189 species at the domain boundaries.

190 Analyses

191 Numerical simulations yield the full concentration profiles of the protein $\phi_P(\vec{r}, t)$, lncRNA $\phi_R(\vec{r}, t)$, and mRNA $\phi_M(\vec{r}, t)$ at all
192 times t . Once we have this data, we can calculate quantities such as the concentration of a species at the BL, the partition ratio
193 of species at the BL, the average concentration of the species in the system, and the chemical potential of the species. The
194 precise formula for each of these quantities is described in section S2.8 of the supplementary material.

195 RESULTS

196 Proximal lncRNAs can enhance recruitment of transcriptional proteins to super-enhancers and 197 promoters

198 Condensate formation by transcriptional proteins at BL is driven cooperatively by protein-chromatin binding interactions and
199 attractive protein-protein interactions mediated by their disordered domains (21). When the concentration of transcriptional
200 proteins crosses a threshold, there is a sharp increase in protein concentration at the BL due to phase separation and condensate
201 formation driven by these two interactions.

202 As the first step, we wanted to understand how lncRNAs localized near a BL can affect condensate formation. The amount
203 of lncRNA (ϕ_R^{avg}) is an important regulatory parameter that controls the magnitude of this effect. We started with $\phi_R^{avg} = 0$ (no
204 lncRNA) and progressively increased the amount of lncRNA in the system. We numerically simulated the model described by
205 Eqs. 4-5 by varying the protein concentration in the system (ϕ_P^{avg}) and quantified the protein partitioning to the BL at steady
206 state (Fig. 2A). We find that vicinally localized lncRNAs consistently enhance protein partitioning to the BL compared to the
207 base case where there is no lncRNA (Fig. 2B). Protein partitioning to the BL increases sharply upon increasing the protein
208 concentration before reaching a plateau. This sharp increase is due to the phase separation of the proteins, and we can define a
209 threshold value of protein concentration for which a condensate i.e. a dense phase of protein (with concentration $\geq \phi_P^{light}$) starts
210 to appear at the BL. We find that lncRNAs localized near BL can reduce the transcriptional protein concentration thresholds
211 that are required for phase separation and condensate formation (Fig. 2B). Thus, attractive interactions between transcriptional
212 proteins and lncRNAs localized in the vicinity mediated by screened electrostatic interactions or otherwise can add an additional
213 layer of cooperativity along with protein-chromatin and protein-protein interactions to aid condensate formation.

214 There exists a regime of protein concentrations for which lncRNA is necessary for condensate formation (Fig. 2B) and a
215 condensate does not form in the absence of lncRNAs (Fig. 2C). In this regime, the additional layer of cooperativity added by
216 the lncRNA-protein attractive interactions is necessary for condensate formation. This observation can explain why knocking
217 down lncRNAs can sometimes have a dramatic effect on mRNA transcription from neighboring genes (5). A transcriptional

A model for *cis*-regulation of transcriptional condensates and gene expression by proximal lncRNAs

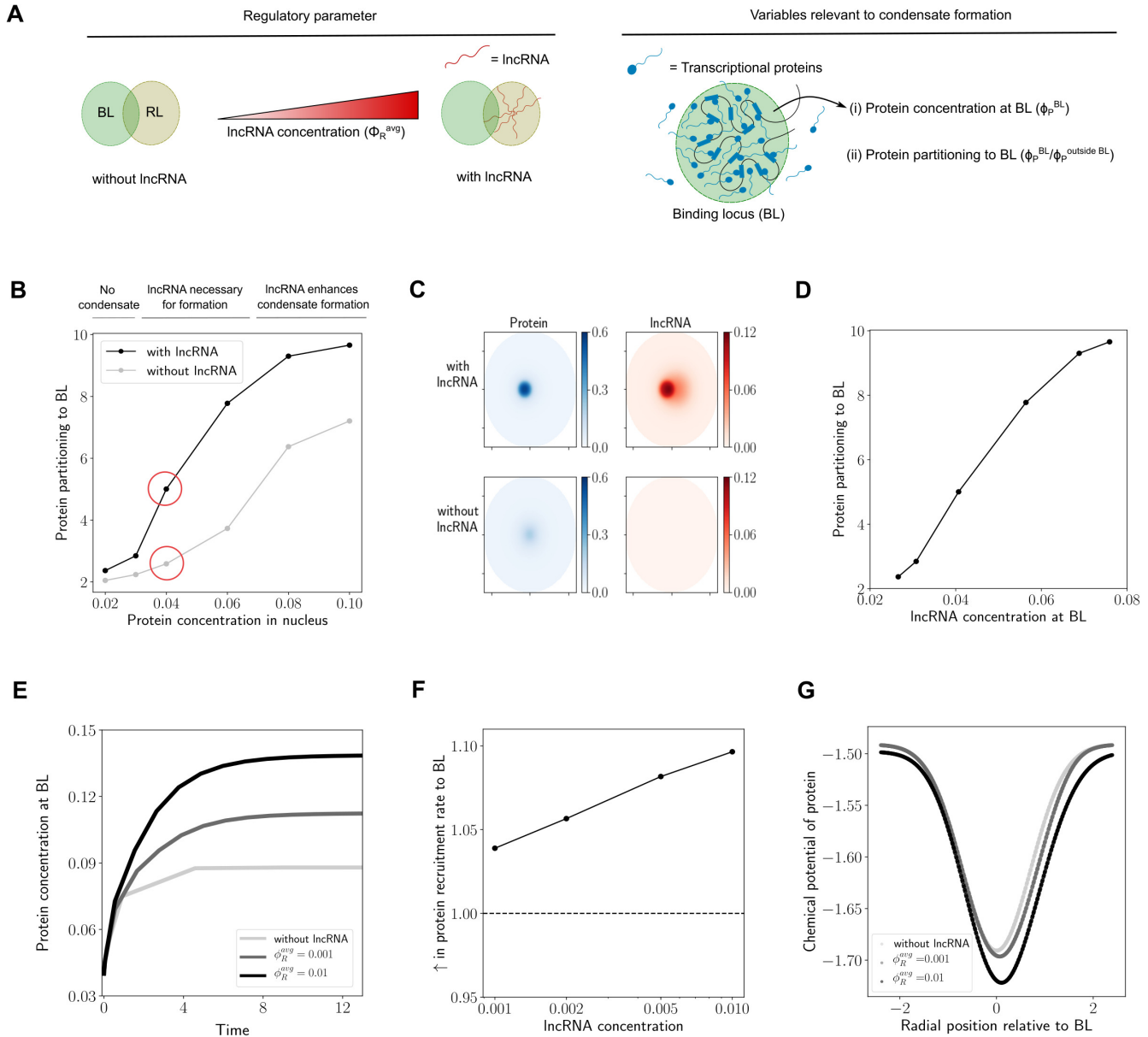


Figure 2: **A** In this figure, results are shown for what happens when we increase the lncRNA concentration (ϕ_R^{avg}) starting from a case without lncRNA ($\phi_R^{avg} = 0$). We quantify protein recruitment to the BL using the following two metrics: the protein concentration (ϕ_P^{BL}) in the BL and the protein partitioning to the BL (ϕ_P^{BL}/ϕ_P^{out}). The distance between the loci was set to $L_P/\sigma = 0.8$ **B** *Condensate formation*: Change in protein partitioning to the BL upon increasing the amount of protein in the nucleus. A protein condensate is formed when there is a sharp increase in protein partitioning to the BL. The grey curve corresponds to the case without lncRNA and the black curve corresponds to a case with a lncRNA amount of $\phi_R^{avg} = 0.01$. The concentration profiles of protein and lncRNA in space are depicted for the circled data points in figure C. **C** The protein and lncRNA concentration profiles are illustrated for the case with and without lncRNA. The average protein concentration in the nucleus for both cases is $\phi_P^{avg} = 0.04$. **D** The relationship between protein partitioning to the BL and the average lncRNA concentration in the BL for different amounts of protein in the nucleus. **E** *Dynamics of protein recruitment*: Protein concentration in the BL vs. time for different amounts of lncRNA. The time (t) is reported in dimensionless units as tD_P/R^2 . D_P is the diffusion coefficient of the protein and R is the radius of the nucleus. **F** The initial rate of protein recruitment to the BL for different amounts of lncRNA. The initial rate of protein recruitment is the slope of the graphs in figure E at $t = 0$. They are reported in this figure as a ratio relative to the case with no lncRNA ($\phi_R^{avg} = 0$). **G** Chemical potential of protein vs. radial position at $t = 0$ for different amounts of lncRNA. The radial position is measured relative to the center of the BL, with the origin being the center.

Natarajan et al.

condensate simply does not form to initiate transcription. At large protein concentrations where condensate formation happens even in the absence of lncRNAs, the presence of lncRNAs in the vicinity can still enhance protein recruitment to the BL (Fig. 2B). In all cases, protein partitioning to the BL directly correlates with the lncRNA concentration at the BL (Fig. 2D).

The dynamics of protein recruitment to the BL dictates the speed of cellular response to an external stimulus by activating gene expression. Therefore, we wanted to understand how different amounts of proximally localized lncRNA (ϕ_R^{avg}) affect the dynamics of protein recruitment to the BL. We graphed the evolution of protein concentration at the BL with time (Fig. 2E) and find that increasing the amount of lncRNA has two distinct effects, which point to two distinct regulatory roles: (i) Higher amounts of lncRNA can increase the initial rate of protein recruitment to the BL (Fig. 2F), speeding up the response time between the cells receiving a stimulus and forming transcriptional condensates, (ii) Higher amounts of lncRNA can increase the protein concentration at the BL at steady state (Fig. 2E), increasing the strength of response to the stimulus. In this way, a cell can regulate the speed and magnitude of protein recruitment to the BL by using the amounts of proximally localized lncRNAs as a tunable knob.

To shed light on the mechanistic basis of these effects, we graphed the chemical potential profiles of the protein at initial times (Fig. 2G). The chemical potential at initial times has a shape of a Gaussian well, which is what we would expect based on the attractive protein-chromatin interactions at the BL described by Eq. 3. Increasing the amount of lncRNA (ϕ_R^{avg}) in the vicinity of the BL has two effects: it makes the well deeper and broader. The presence of lncRNAs near the BL and their attractive interactions with the protein provides a free energy benefit in addition to the protein-chromatin interactions, which translates to a deeper chemical potential well. A deeper well means that the chemical potential gradients are steeper, resulting in higher fluxes of the protein and a faster speed of protein recruitment to the BL. Spatial overlap between the BL and the localized lncRNA results in a broader effective region in space that attracts the protein. A broader well leads to increased overall protein recruitment to the BL as a broader well can hold more overall amount of protein.

In summary, the two ingredients – (i) localization of lncRNA near BL and (ii) attractive interactions between lncRNAs and proteins, possibly due to complementary charges and the resultant screened electrostatic interaction, can enhance the magnitude and dynamics of protein recruitment to the BL.

lncRNAs can migrate to the BL to aid recruitment of transcriptional proteins

Since lncRNAs localize at the RL, their concentration profile is peaked at the center of the RL and decays over a length scale of $\sigma_{RL} = \sigma$ (Figure S2B). The distance (L_P) between the BL and the RL relative to this length scale is an important regulatory parameter that can affect local lncRNA concentration at the BL and therefore affect protein recruitment (Fig. 3A). Therefore, we wanted to understand how the relative distance (L_P/σ) affects the dynamics of protein recruitment to the BL and condensate formation. It is also important to note that the lncRNA concentration profile can dynamically change due to protein accumulation at the BL, leading to interesting and non-trivial dynamics. We numerically simulated the dynamics described by Eq. 4-5 by varying the distance $L_P = |\vec{r}_{BL} - \vec{r}_{RL}|$ between the loci. We then quantified the protein partitioning to the BL at equilibrium. Protein partitioning to the BL sharply decreases upon increasing the normalized distance L_P/σ (Fig. 3B). When the BL and the RL are in close proximity (small L_P/σ), the protein concentrations at the BL are large enough to form a condensate. At intermediate distances ($L_P/\sigma = 2$) which corresponds to the BL and the RL just touching each other, the protein partitioning to the BL begins to decline sharply to a lower value. When the BL and the RL are far away ($L_P/\sigma > 2$), the protein partitioning to the BL does not change much and stays at the same low value, which is not enough to form a condensate. In summary, we predict that lncRNAs have a local effect on protein partitioning and condensate formation, that reduces sharply with distance. This local effect is mostly a consequence of lncRNA concentrations decaying over the length scale σ , beyond which it has minimal impact on protein recruitment to the BL.

However, this picture is more nuanced when we look at the dynamics. Since the initial lncRNA concentration profile is peaked at the RL and decays with distance, the distance between the BL and the RL affects the initial lncRNA concentration at the BL, and therefore the dynamics of protein recruitment to the BL. To understand this effect, we graphed the concentration profiles of protein and lncRNA for three different values of the scaled distance L_P/σ . At small distances (Fig. 3C, left panel) the RL and the BL are close enough that they almost overlap. The initial lncRNA concentrations at the BL are high because of their proximity to the RL. This helps start a positive feedback cycle, where high lncRNA concentrations at the BL help recruit more protein due to attractive protein-lncRNA interactions, which in turn recruits more lncRNA. This cycle continues until an equilibrium is reached. When the RL and the BL are quite far away (Fig. 3C, right panel), the initial lncRNA concentration at the BL is quite low. In this case, only a small amount of lncRNA migrates from the RL to the BL. Since condensates form only beyond a threshold protein concentration (Fig. 2B), the protein recruited to the BL due to this small amount of lncRNA may not be sufficient to help form a condensate despite the feedback cycle (Fig. 3C). At intermediate distances (Fig. 3C, middle panel) something interesting happens at equilibrium: the lncRNA concentration at the BL seems to be much higher than the RL even though initial lncRNA concentrations at the RL were higher. The time evolution of protein and lncRNA concentration profiles

A model for *cis*-regulation of transcriptional condensates and gene expression by proximal lncRNAs

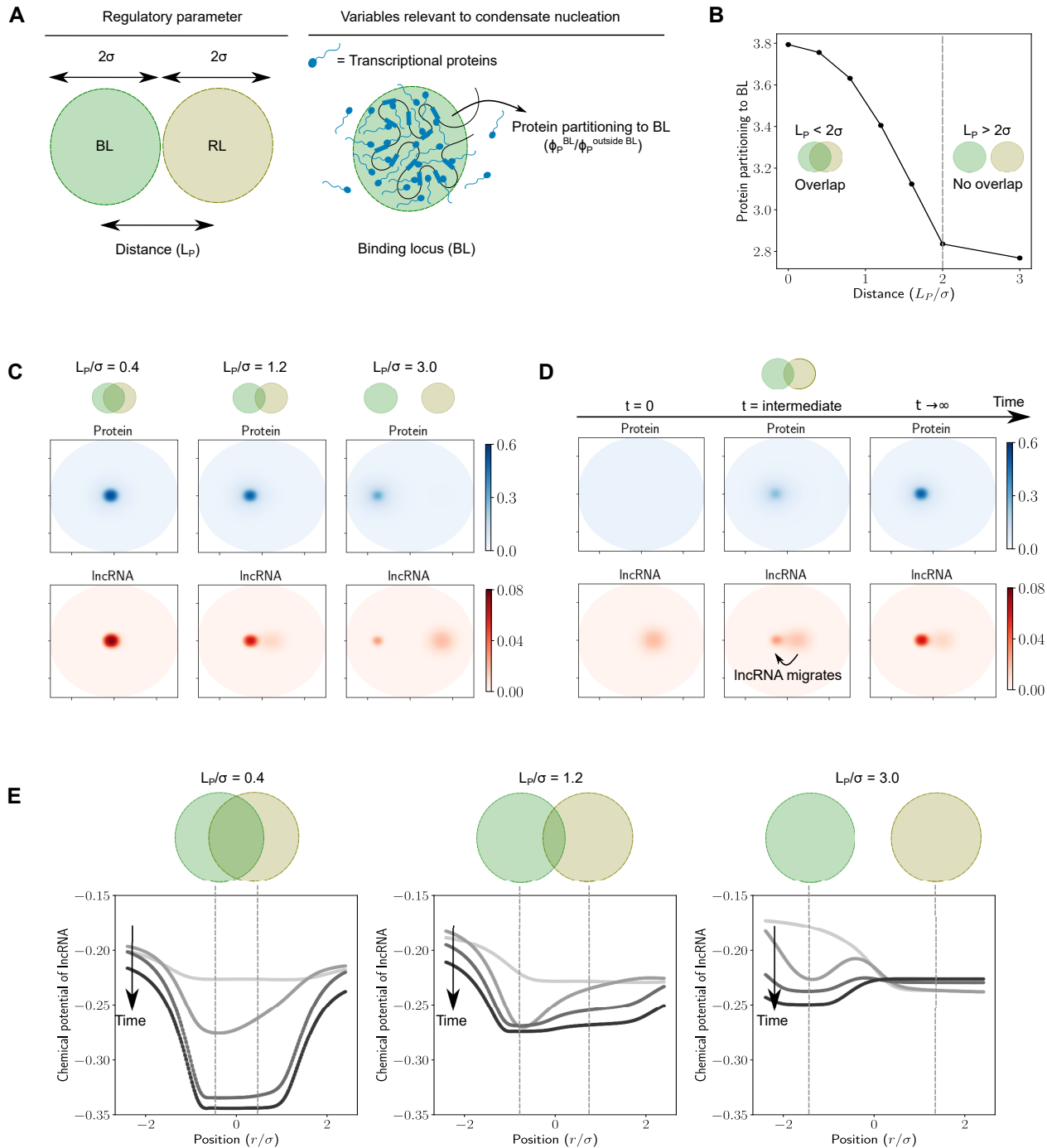


Figure 3: **A** In this figure, we change the distance (L_P) between BL and RL and quantify the protein partitioning to the BL (ϕ_P^{BL}/ϕ_P^{out}). The amount of lncRNA was set to $\phi_R^{avg} = 0.001$ and the average protein concentration to $\phi_P^{avg} = 0.04$. **B** Condensate formation: Protein partitioning to the BL upon changing the distance between BL and RL. The distance is reported as the normalized value L_P/σ . When $L_P/\sigma < 2$, there is some overlap between the BL and the RL. When $L_P/\sigma > 2$, there isn't any appreciable overlap between the BL and the RL. **C** Concentration profiles of protein and lncRNA at equilibrium for different values of the normalized distance L_P/σ . **D** Dynamics of protein recruitment: Snapshots of protein and lncRNA concentration profiles at different times. At $t = 0$, the protein is present at a uniform constant concentration everywhere while the lncRNA has a concentration profile peaked at the center of the RL. The distance between the RL and BL is $L_P/\sigma = 1.2$, which corresponds to the case with partial overlap. **E** The chemical potential of lncRNA vs. radial position at $t = 0$ for different amounts of lncRNA. The radial position is measured relative to the midpoint of the line connecting the BL and RL, with the origin being the midpoint.

Natarajan et al.

271 sheds light on this observation (Fig. 3D). At intermediate times, we find that the lncRNA migrates from the RL to the BL.
272 Once this happens, the lncRNA concentration at the BL increases and the positive feedback cycle is initiated, resulting in more
273 protein recruitment.

274 To understand the mechanistic origin of lncRNA migration, we graphed the chemical potential profile of the lncRNA for
275 different distances (Fig. 3D). This profile dynamically evolves with time. As time progresses, the protein accumulates at the BL
276 because of the attractive well described by Eq. 3. Since proteins attract lncRNAs, increasing protein concentration at the BL
277 makes it an attractive well for the lncRNA which gets deeper with time as proteins accumulate the BL. At short distances (Fig.
278 3E, left panel), the loci overlap and this well forms essentially at the same location as the RL. Therefore, there is an influx of
279 lncRNA into this region that contains both the RL and the BL. When the distance between the loci is large (Fig. 3E, right
280 panel), not much protein accumulates at the BL initially due to low local lncRNA concentrations. This results in a shallower
281 chemical potential well at the BL for the lncRNA with a chemical potential barrier between the BL and the RL at intermediate
282 times, resulting in a lower migration of lncRNA to the BL. At intermediate distances, there is a partial overlap between the loci
283 (Fig. 3E, middle panel) and the chemical potential for the lncRNA at the BL starts decreasing with protein accumulation at the
284 BL. This leads to a flux of lncRNA away from the RL and into the BL, which is what we see as lncRNA migration.

285 Given the contrasting effects of the two regulatory parameters - the amount of lncRNA (ϕ_R^{avg}) and distance between loci
286 (L_P/σ) - on protein recruitment to the BL, we wanted to understand the impact of them in conjunction (supplemental figure
287 S4). In this figure, the contours correspond to combinations of lncRNA amount and distance that result in the same protein
288 partitioning to the BL. We found that the effect of distance and lncRNA amounts can compensate for each other, resulting in the
289 same value of protein partitioning to the BL for different combinations of these regulatory parameters.

290 **Non-equilibrium effects result in enhancement or repression of gene expression due to** 291 **transcription of proximal lncRNAs**

292 The transcription of neighboring lncRNAs can interfere with mRNA transcription by affecting protein concentrations and
293 condensate formation at the BL. Therefore, we next wanted to understand how localized lncRNA transcription from RL affects
294 mRNA transcription from neighboring genes at the BL.

295 To get a baseline in the absence of lncRNA transcription, we first simulated the model Eq. 6-8 with just mRNA transcription,
296 setting the lncRNA concentrations and transcription rates to zero. We increased the mRNA transcription rate constant k_M
297 and studied the resultant phenomena (section S3 in the supplemental material). Simulations were done using low protein
298 concentrations such that the process of mRNA transcription is necessary for condensate formation. As mRNA is transcribed at
299 the BL, it attracts more protein to the BL, which in turn results in more mRNA transcription since the mRNA transcription rate
300 is coupled to local protein concentration. For a gene expressed at a low level (low k_M), there is not enough mRNA transcription
301 for this positive feedback cycle to recruit enough protein and form a condensate (Fig. S5B, S5C). For moderately expressed
302 genes (moderate k_M), there is enough transcription of mRNA, and the positive feedback cycle results in a stable condensate at
303 steady-state (Fig. S5B, S5C) with a long lifetime (Fig. S5D). For highly expressed genes (large k_M), there is enough mRNA
304 transcription to form a condensate (Fig. S5C). But as mRNA accumulates, the entropic penalty of confining proteins and
305 mRNAs into a dense phase reduces protein concentrations and results in a dissolved condensate at steady-state (Fig. S5B) with
306 a short lifetime (Fig. S5D). These results recapitulate the findings of prior related work in literature (29).

307 To study the impact of lncRNA transcription on mRNA transcription from the BL, we performed numerical simulations of
308 the model described by Eq. 6-8. The lncRNA transcription rate k_R is an important regulatory parameter here. We increased the
309 lncRNA transcription rate and quantified metrics related to condensate dynamics and gene expression for three different cases:
310 genes expressed at low level i.e. low k_M , genes expressed at moderate level i.e. moderate k_M , and highly expressed genes i.e.
311 high k_M (Fig. 4A).

312 For genes expressed at a low level (low k_M), we predict that active transcription of lncRNA at the RL enhances mRNA
313 transcription (Fig. 4B). In this regime, increasing the lncRNA transcription rate leads to an increase in mRNA transcription.
314 This enhancement is accompanied by a corresponding sharp increase in condensate lifetime (Fig. 4C), suggesting that proximal
315 lncRNA transcription enhances protein recruitment to the BL through attractive interactions to form a condensate. This is
316 consistent with the large increase in the protein concentration at the BL at steady state (Fig. 4D, top panel) observed upon
317 increasing the lncRNA transcription rate (k_R) from 0.001 to 0.005. Since the mRNA transcription rate is coupled to protein
318 concentration (Eq. 7), this results in a higher rate of mRNA transcription and therefore higher gene expression, as measured
319 by the steady-state concentration of mRNA (Fig. 4D, bottom panel). However, there are limits to this enhancement in gene
320 expression. Upon further increasing the lncRNA transcription rate k_R , the fold change in mRNA transcription reaches a peak
321 and then reduces (Fig. 4B, $k_M = 0.001$). This is a consequence of the re-entrant effect of lncRNA concentration on protein
322 condensation. The lncRNA concentration at the BL crosses over from a regime where lncRNA enhances protein recruitment to
323 BL via attractive protein-RNA interactions, to a regime where the lncRNA hinders protein recruitment to the BL due to the

A model for *cis*-regulation of transcriptional condensates and gene expression by proximal lncRNAs

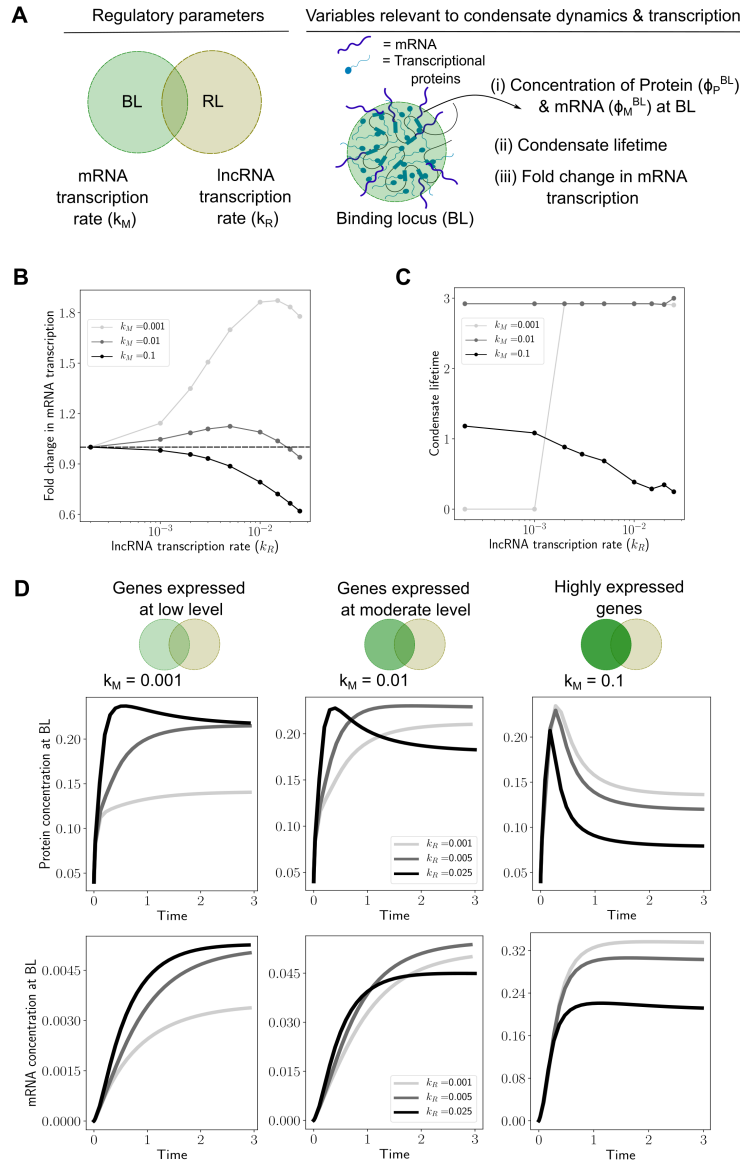


Figure 4: **A** In this figure, we change the transcription rate of the lncRNA (k_R) and study how that impacts condensate dynamics and mRNA transcription for three different regimes of gene expression – (i) genes expressed at low level ($k_M = 0.001$), (ii) genes expressed at a moderate level ($k_M = 0.01$), and (iii) highly expressed genes ($k_M = 0.1$). For each case, we quantified the fold change in mRNA transcription at steady state, condensate lifetime, and the dynamics of protein concentration (ϕ_P^{BL}) and mRNA concentration (ϕ_M^{BL}) at the BL. For all simulations results in this figure, the distance between the loci was $L_P/\sigma = 0.8$, and the protein amount was $\phi_P^{avg} = 0.04$ **B Gene expression:** Fold change in mRNA transcription upon changing the lncRNA transcription rate for the three different gene expression regimes. The fold change in mRNA transcription is calculated as $=(\phi_M^{BL} \text{ when lncRNA is being transcribed at rate } k_R) / (\phi_M^{BL} \text{ when there is no lncRNA transcription i.e. } k_R = 0)$. The dotted horizontal line corresponds to a fold change value of 1, which means that the lncRNA transcription neither enhances nor represses mRNA transcription. **C Condensate lifetime:** The dependence of condensate lifetime on lncRNA transcription rate for the three different regimes of gene expression. The condensate lifetime is also reported in the dimensionless units ($k_d t$), and is defined as the duration of time for which protein concentration at the BL is “appreciable”. We chose a cutoff $\phi_P^{BL} > 0.15$ to define “appreciable” protein concentration at the BL. Note that this specific numerical choice of the cutoff value doesn’t change the qualitative nature of the trends or results. **D Dynamics of condensate and gene expression:** Dynamics of protein and mRNA concentration at the BL. Each vertical panel corresponds to a different regime of gene expression. The top panel plots track the protein concentration at the BL with time upon increasing the lncRNA transcription rate (k_R). The bottom panel plots track the mRNA concentration at the BL with time. The time is reported in dimensionless units ($k_d t$) where k_d is the degradation rate of the mRNA.

Natarajan et al.

324 entropic costs of confining the proteins and RNAs into a dense phase (Fig. 4B). Transcription of proximal lncRNAs also speeds
325 up response times for gene expression by increasing the initial rate of mRNA transcription (Fig. 4D, bottom panel). The mRNA
326 accumulates more quickly for higher values of k_R , and this is a non-equilibrium effect caused by active lncRNA transcription.

327 For genes expressed at a moderate level (moderate k_M), active transcription of lncRNA at the RL only has a mild effect on
328 mRNA transcription (Fig. 4B). In this regime, the condensate lifetime is predominantly determined by the dynamics of mRNA
329 transcription and it does not change with increasing k_R (Fig. 4C). The fold change in mRNA transcription has a non-monotonic
330 trend (Fig. 4B). The dynamics of protein and mRNA concentrations at the BL sheds some light on this (Fig. 4D, middle panel).
331 The protein concentration at BL at steady state initially increases and then decreases with k_R . This is again a consequence of
332 switching over to a regime where RNA-RNA repulsion and entropic costs of confining the RNAs and proteins dissolve the
333 condensate. The dynamics (Fig. 4D, middle panel) again reveal that transcription of proximal lncRNAs speeds up response
334 times for gene expression.

335 For highly expressed genes (moderate k_M), active transcription of lncRNA at the RL has a largely repressive effect on gene
336 expression as the fold change in mRNA transcription monotonically decreases with k_R (Fig. 4B). In this regime, the high k_M
337 already leads to condensate dissolution (Fig. 4D, right panel). lncRNA transcription at the RL further destabilizes condensates
338 as the condensate lifetime decreases with k_R (Fig. 4C). Since increasing k_R reduces the protein concentration at the BL at
339 steady state (Fig. 4D, right panel), this results in slower rates of mRNA transcription and therefore lower gene expression.

340 In summary, we find that lncRNA transcription has contrasting effects on mRNA transcription from genes expressed at a
341 low level and highly expressed genes. Transcription of proximal lncRNAs increases transcription from the former and represses
342 transcription from the latter. This follows directly from a non-equilibrium model where active lncRNA transcription affects
343 condensate formation at the BL. lncRNA transcription in proximity can alter local RNA concentrations at the BL, which in turn
344 has consequences for protein condensation, and therefore mRNA transcription.

345 DISCUSSION

346 In this study, we propose a simple physical mechanism by which lncRNAs can regulate transcriptional activation and transcription
347 - via attractive interactions with transcriptional proteins that form condensates. Attractive interactions between transcriptional
348 proteins and RNA could arise due to screened electrostatic attraction between oppositely charge polymers (29) which makes
349 this a sequence-agnostic mechanism. At low RNA concentrations, these interactions promote condensation of proteins while
350 high RNA concentrations lead to re-entrant dissolution (Fig. 1B). When coupled with equilibrium mechanisms (e.g. binding)
351 or non-equilibrium mechanisms (e.g. spatially local transcription) that alter their local concentrations, lncRNAs can act as
352 rheostats to fine-tune transcription from neighboring PCGs by regulating transcriptional condensates.

353 While there has been some experimental work investigating gene regulation by lncRNAs through transcriptional condensates
354 (47), much remains to be understood. Our model makes specific predictions about how different regulatory parameters affect
355 condensate formation, dynamics, and gene expression (Fig. 5), and it serves as a useful conceptual framework to understand
356 many puzzling observations in the literature.

357 First, we predict that the presence of a proximal lncRNA near a BL such as a super-enhancer, enhancer, or promoter can
358 reduce threshold protein concentrations required for transcriptional condensate formation, enhance protein partitioning to these
359 loci, and speed up the response time between a stimulus and transcriptional activation.

360 Second, we predict that the lncRNAs have a spatially local effect on condensate formation, which imposes physical
361 constraints on the spatial and genomic organization of BLs and the lncRNAs that regulate them. This observation can provide
362 a possible explanation for the origin of some known biological facts about lncRNAs. If lncRNAs function by recruiting
363 transcriptional proteins to enhancers and promoters present locally, this can explain why many PCGs are preferentially
364 surrounded by lncRNA-coding loci in their genomic neighborhood (4, 10, 11). Another puzzling fact about lncRNAs is that
365 they have conserved synteny across vertebrates - their genomic positions relative to other genes are conserved rather than their
366 sequence (16). If this local effect of lncRNAs is under evolutionary selection, the effect we predict imposes constraints on
367 the spatial distance between lncRNA-coding genes and promoters. This, together with the observation that syntenic regions
368 in mammals have evolutionarily conserved preferences for spatial contacts (48), can provide a mechanistic explanation for
369 syntenic conservation of lncRNAs across vertebrates (16).

370 Finally, we predict that proximal transcription of lncRNAs largely represses gene expression from highly transcribed
371 genes while enhancing gene expression from those expressed at a low level. This is also correlated with condensate stability –
372 transcription of proximal lncRNAs enhances gene expression by stabilizing condensates and represses gene expression by
373 destabilizing condensates, depending on the transcription rates of the lncRNA and the mRNA. Experiments that perturb
374 lncRNA amounts and transcription and image condensates and measure gene expression can be used to test this model of
375 whether lncRNAs regulate proximal BLs via interactions with components of transcriptional condensates. This observation
376 also provides a useful framework to understand some conflicting findings in the literature. Studies of transcription regulation

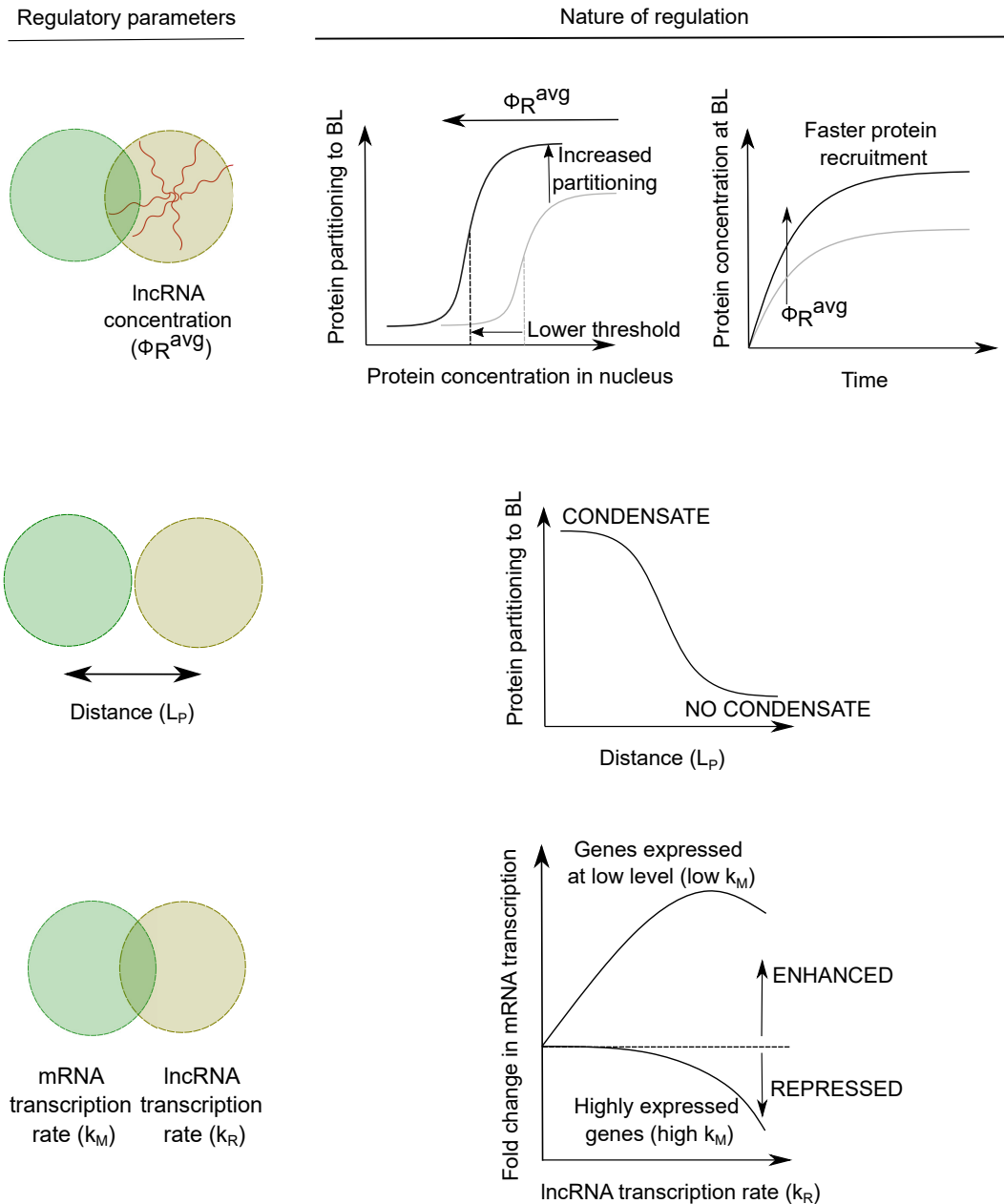


Figure 5: Proximal lncRNAs can regulate condensate formation and mRNA transcription in different ways depending on the regulatory parameter. **A** Increasing the concentration of proximal lncRNAs localized near a BL can bring down the concentration thresholds of transcriptional proteins required for condensate formation, enhance the partitioning of these proteins into the condensate, and speed up protein recruitment to the BL. **B** lncRNAs exert a local effect in enhancing protein partitioning to the BL, and this effect sharply falls off with distance. In some cases, this local effect can be the driving force for condensate formation, with the distance determining whether a condensate will form at the BL or not. **C** Transcription of proximal lncRNAs can increase mRNA transcription from genes expressed at low levels. For highly expressed genes, transcription of proximal lncRNAs represses gene expression.

Natarajan et al.

377 by lncRNAs show that they enhance transcription from neighboring PCGs in some cases and inhibit transcription in others
378 (4, 5). Figure 5B gives us a unifying principle that can help reconcile both these observations. For highly expressed genes,
379 transcription of proximal lncRNAs predominantly has a repressive effect as the locally high mRNA concentrations at the BL
380 disfavor condensate formation due to entropic penalties. For genes expressed at low levels, transcription of proximal lncRNAs
381 predominantly enhances gene expression as lncRNAs help attract more protein to the BL via enthalpically favored interactions.

382 In addition to the regulatory parameters studied in this paper, there is also emerging evidence that RNA secondary structure
383 plays an important role in regulating the formation of biomolecular condensates (49). While we do not explicitly study this
384 effect, our model could be extended to account for this. If we have a description of secondary structures of particular RNA
385 species from experimental techniques such as SHAPE-MaP (50) and if we also know the specific transcriptional proteins this
386 RNA interacts with, we could in principle perform molecular simulations to extract the RNA-protein interaction strength. This
387 can then be an input into our model to perform simulations.

388 The model itself is agnostic to the identity of RNA species and the principles we identify in this study can be equally
389 applied to understand gene regulation by other kinds of RNA species beyond lncRNAs. For example, this model can be used to
390 understand how an actively transcribing mRNA can lead to transcriptional cross-talk and affect the transcription of neighboring
391 mRNAs. Also, there are several RNA species that can be localized or transcribed near transcriptional condensates including
392 lncRNAs, eRNAs, and divergently transcribed RNAs. These RNAs are often present in low copy numbers in cells (29, 51).
393 Even if the effect of a single locus is mild, several of these RNA loci can act cooperatively to regulate condensate formation and
394 transcription. For example, it is well known that the chromatin is organized into topologically associating domains or TADs
395 (52), which are characterized by a high contact probability of loci within the TAD. Therefore, lncRNAs could cooperatively
396 regulate gene expression within the TAD. Investigating the nature of this cooperative regulation could be an interesting future
397 direction of research.

398 Our model due to its simplified nature does have several limitations. First, our model is a mean-field description that ignores
399 any stochastic effects that arise due to concentration fluctuations of the protein and RNA species. These fluctuations can be quite
400 important for condensate nucleation and gene expression, and taking them into account can help make additional predictions
401 about how lncRNAs can fine-tune the cell-cell heterogeneity of these phenotypes. Second, our model assumes that the protein
402 concentrations follow Model B dynamics based on a free energy that can be written in terms of the concentration fields. It
403 is quite possible that the dynamics of transcriptional proteins within the dense milieu of condensates with many interacting
404 species can be quite non-trivial and requires other model descriptions. Molecular simulations that model the dynamics of these
405 interacting polymeric species will be required to test whether and when the approximations made in our simplified model break
406 down. Finally, our model assumes that the lncRNA locus and BL do not move much in transcription time scales, which are
407 usually a few minutes for most RNAs. While this is a reasonable approximation given the low diffusivity of the chromatin
408 loci (53), the dynamics of chromatin can couple with the dynamics of transcription and give rise to rich emergent physical
409 phenomena that can provide insights into how transcription shapes genome organization and vice versa. This may be another
410 interesting avenue for future research.

411 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

412 P.N. and A.K.C conceived the project. P.N. and A.K.C. developed the model. K.S. provided initial code for simulations which
413 was further developed by P.N. P.N. ran numerical simulations and analyzed data. P.N. wrote the first draft of the manuscript and
414 designed the figures. K.S. provided helpful guidance throughout the project. All authors contributed to editing and revising the
415 manuscript.

416 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

417 P.N. and A.K.C acknowledge support from NSF (Award #2044895). K.S. acknowledges support from the NSF-Simons Center
418 for Mathematical and Statistical Analysis of Biology at Harvard (Award #1764269) and the Harvard Faculty of Arts and
419 Sciences Quantitative Biology Initiative. We thank Jonathan Henninger, Ozgur Oksuz, Kalon Overholt, Richard Young, and
420 Phillip Sharp for several useful discussions.

421 COMPETING INTERESTS

422 A.K.C is a consultant (titled Academic Partner) for Flagship Pioneering and also serves on the Strategic Oversight Board of its
423 affiliated company, Apriori Bio, and is a consultant and SAB member of another affiliated company, FL72. The authors declare
424 no other competing interests.

REFERENCES

1. Zhao, L., J. Wang, Y. Li, T. Song, Y. Wu, S. Fang, D. Bu, H. Li, L. Sun, D. Pei, Y. Zheng, J. Huang, M. Xu, R. Chen, Y. Zhao, and S. He, 2021. NONCODEV6: An updated database dedicated to long non-coding RNA annotation in both animals and plants. *Nucleic Acids Res* 49:D165–D171.
2. Uszczynska-Ratajczak, B., J. Lagarde, A. Frankish, R. Guigó, and R. Johnson, 2018. Towards a complete map of the human long non-coding RNA transcriptome. *Nat. Rev. Genet* 19:535–548.
3. Statello, L., C. Guo, L. Chen, and M. Huarte, 2021. Gene regulation by long non-coding RNAs and its biological functions. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol* 22:96–118.
4. Luo, S., J. Lu, L. Liu, Y. Yin, C. Chen, X. Han, B. Wu, R. Xu, W. Liu, P. Yan, W. Shao, Z. Lu, H. Li, J. Na, F. Tang, J. Wang, Y. Zhang, and X. Shen, 2016. Divergent lncRNAs regulate gene expression and lineage differentiation in pluripotent cells. *Cell Stem Cell* 18:637–652.
5. Engreitz, J., J. Haines, E. Perez, G. Munson, J. Chen, M. Kane, P. McDonel, M. Guttman, and E. Lander, 2016. Local regulation of gene expression by lncRNA promoters, transcription and splicing. *Nature* 539:452–455.
6. Gil, N., and I. Ulitsky, 2020. Regulation of gene expression by cis-acting long non-coding RNAs. *Nat. Rev. Genet* 21:102–117.
7. Fanucchi, S., E. Fok, E. Dalla, Y. Shibayama, K. Börner, E. Chang, S. Stoychev, M. Imakaev, D. Grimm, K. Wang, G. Li, W. Sung, and M. Mhlanga, 2019. Immune genes are primed for robust transcription by proximal long noncoding RNAs located in nuclear compartments. *Nat. Genet* 51:138–150.
8. Xiang, J., Q. Yin, T. Chen, Y. Zhang, X. Zhang, Z. Wu, S. Zhang, H. Wang, J. Ge, X. Lu, L. Yang, and L. Chen, 2014. Human colorectal cancer-specific CCAT1-L lncRNA regulates long-range chromatin interactions at the MYC locus. *Cell Res* 24:513–531.
9. Lai, F., U. Orom, M. Cesaroni, M. Beringer, D. Taatjes, G. Blobel, and R. Shiekhattar, 2013. Activating RNAs associate with Mediator to enhance chromatin architecture and transcription. *Nature* 494:497–501.
10. Ponjavic, J., P. Oliver, G. Lunter, and C. Ponting, 2009. Genomic and transcriptional co-localization of protein-coding and long non-coding RNA pairs in the developing brain. *PLoS Genet* 5:e1000617.
11. Herriges, M., D. Swarr, M. Morley, K. Rathi, T. Peng, K. Stewart, and E. Morrisey, 2014. Long noncoding RNAs are spatially correlated with transcription factors and regulate lung development. *Genes Dev* 28:1363–1379.
12. Ørom, U., T. Derrien, M. Beringer, K. Gumireddy, A. Gardini, G. Bussotti, F. Lai, M. Zytnicki, C. Notredame, Q. Huang, R. Guigo, and R. Shiekhattar, 2010. Long noncoding RNAs with enhancer-like function in human cells. *Cell* 143:46–58.
13. Anderson, K., D. Anderson, J. McAnally, J. Shelton, R. Bassel-Duby, and E. Olson, 2016. Transcription of the non-coding RNA upperhand controls Hand2 expression and heart development. *Nature* 539:433–436.
14. Iyer, M., Y. Niknafs, R. Malik, U. Singhal, A. Sahu, Y. Hosono, T. Barrette, J. Prensner, J. Evans, S. Zhao, A. Poliakov, X. Cao, S. Dhanasekaran, Y. Wu, D. Robinson, D. Beer, F. Feng, H. Iyer, and A. Chinnaiyan, 2015. The landscape of long noncoding RNAs in the human transcriptome. *Nat. Genet* 47:199–208.
15. Haerty, W., and C. Ponting, 2013. Mutations within lncRNAs are effectively selected against in fruitfly but not in human. *Genome Biol* 14:1–16.
16. Hezroni, H., D. Koppstein, M. Schwartz, A. Avrutin, D. Bartel, and I. Ulitsky, 2015. Principles of Long Noncoding RNA Evolution Derived from Direct Comparison of Transcriptomes in 17 Species. *Cell Rep* 11:1110–1122.
17. Ulitsky, I., A. Shkumatava, C. Jan, H. Sive, and D. Bartel, 2011. Conserved function of lincRNAs in vertebrate embryonic development despite rapid sequence evolution. *Cell* 147:1537–1550.
18. Quinodoz, S., J. Jachowicz, P. Bhat, N. Ollikainen, A. Banerjee, I. Goronzy, M. Blanco, P. Chovanec, A. Chow, Y. Markaki, J. Thai, K. Plath, and M. Guttman, 2021. RNA promotes the formation of spatial compartments in the nucleus. *Cell* 184:5775–5790.

Natarajan et al.

- 468 19. Boija, A., I. Klein, B. Sabari, A. Dall’Agnese, E. Coffey, A. Zamudio, C. Li, K. Shrinivas, J. Manteiga, N. Hannett,
469 B. Abraham, L. Afeyan, Y. Guo, J. Rimel, C. Fant, J. Schuijers, T. Lee, D. Taatjes, and R. Young, 2018. Transcription
470 Factors Activate Genes through the Phase-Separation Capacity of Their Activation Domains. *Cell* 175:1842–1855.
- 471 20. Sabari, B., A. Dall’Agnese, A. Boija, I. Klein, E. Coffey, K. Shrinivas, B. Abraham, N. Hannett, A. Zamudio, J. Manteiga,
472 C. Li, Y. Guo, D. Day, J. Schuijers, E. Vasile, S. Malik, D. Hnisz, T. Lee, I. Cisse, R. Roeder, P. Sharp, A. Chakraborty, and
473 R. Young, 2018. Coactivator condensation at super-enhancers links phase separation and gene control. *Science* 80-.).
474 361:eaar3958.
- 475 21. Shrinivas, K., B. Sabari, E. Coffey, I. Klein, A. Boija, A. Zamudio, J. Schuijers, N. Hannett, P. Sharp, R. Young, and
476 A. Chakraborty, 2019. Enhancer Features that Drive Formation of Transcriptional Condensates. *Mol. Cell* 75:549–561.
- 477 22. Cho, W., N. Jayanth, B. English, T. Inoue, J. Andrews, W. Conway, J. Grimm, J. Spille, L. Lavis, T. Lionnet, and I. Cisse,
478 2016. RNA Polymerase II cluster dynamics predict mRNA output in living cells. *Elife* 5:1–31.
- 479 23. Cho, W., J. Spille, M. Hecht, C. Lee, C. Li, V. Grube, and I. Cisse, 2018. Mediator and RNA polymerase II clusters
480 associate in transcription-dependent condensates. *Science* 361:412–415.
- 481 24. Wei, M., Y. Chang, S. Shimobayashi, Y. Shin, A. Strom, and C. Brangwynne, 2020. Nucleated transcriptional condensates
482 amplify gene expression. *Nat. Cell Biol* 22.
- 483 25. Wu, J., B. Chen, Y. Liu, L. Ma, W. Huang, and Y. Lin, 2022. Modulating gene regulation function by chemically controlled
484 transcription factor clustering. *Nat. Commun* 13:1–15.
- 485 26. Hnisz, D., K. Shrinivas, R. Young, A. Chakraborty, and P. Sharp, 2017. A Phase Separation Model for Transcriptional
486 Control. *Cell* 169:13–23.
- 487 27. Kim, T., M. Hemberg, J. Gray, A. Costa, D. Bear, J. Wu, D. Harmin, M. Laptewicz, K. Barbara-Haley, S. Kuersten,
488 E. Markenscoff-Papadimitriou, D. Kuhl, H. Bito, P. Worley, G. Kreiman, and M. Greenberg, 2010. Widespread transcription
489 at neuronal activity-regulated enhancers. *Nature* 465:182–187.
- 490 28. Li, W., D. Notani, and M. Rosenfeld, 2016. Enhancers as non-coding RNA transcription units: Recent insights and future
491 perspectives. *Nat. Rev. Genet* 17:207–223.
- 492 29. Henninger, J., O. Oksuz, K. Shrinivas, I. Sagi, G. LeRoy, M. Zheng, J. Andrews, A. Zamudio, C. Lazaris, N. Hannett,
493 T. Lee, P. Sharp, I. Cissé, A. Chakraborty, and R. Young, 2021. RNA-Mediated Feedback Control of Transcriptional
494 Condensates. *Cell* 184:207–225.
- 495 30. Srivastava, S., and M. Tirrell, 2016. Polyelectrolyte Complexation. *In Advances in Chemical Physics*, John Wiley Sons,
496 Ltd, 499–544.
- 497 31. Lin, Y., J. Brady, J. Forman-Kay, and H. Chan, 2017. Charge pattern matching as a “fuzzy” mode of molecular recognition
498 for the functional phase separations of intrinsically disordered proteins. *New J. Phys* 19.
- 499 32. Lin, Y., J. McCarty, J. Rauch, K. Delaney, K. Kosik, G. Fredrickson, J. Shea, and S. Han, 2019. Narrow equilibrium
500 window for complex coacervation of tau and RNA under cellular conditions. *Elife* 8:1–31.
- 501 33. Banerjee, P., A. Milin, M. Moosa, P. Onuchic, and A. Deniz, 2017. Reentrant Phase Transition Drives Dynamic Substructure
502 Formation in Ribonucleoprotein Droplets. *Angew. Chemie - Int. Ed* 56:11354–11359.
- 503 34. Milin, A., and A. Deniz, 2018. Reentrant Phase Transitions and Non-Equilibrium Dynamics in Membraneless Organelles.
504 *Biochemistry* 57:2470–2477.
- 505 35. Pak, C., M. Kosno, A. Holehouse, S. Padrick, A. Mittal, R. Ali, A. Yunus, D. Liu, R. Pappu, and M. Rosen, 2016. Sequence
506 Determinants of Intracellular Phase Separation by Complex Coacervation of a Disordered Protein. *Mol. Cell* 63:72–85.
- 507 36. Nott, T., E. Petsalaki, P. Farber, D. Jervis, E. Fussner, A. Plochowitz, T. Craggs, D. Bazett-Jones, T. Pawson, J. Forman-
508 Kay, and A. Baldwin, 2015. Phase Transition of a Disordered Nuage Protein Generates Environmentally Responsive
509 Membraneless Organelles. *Mol. Cell* 57:936–947.
- 510 37. Vernon, R., P. Chong, B. Tsang, T. Kim, A. Bah, P. Farber, H. Lin, and J. Forman-Kay, 2018. Pi-Pi contacts are an
511 overlooked protein feature relevant to phase separation. *Elife* 7:1–48.

- 512 38. Wang, J., J. Choi, A. Holehouse, H. Lee, X. Zhang, M. Jahnel, S. Maharana, R. Lemaitre, A. Pozniakovsky, D. Drechsel,
513 I. Poser, R. Pappu, S. Alberti, and A. Hyman, 2018. A Molecular Grammar Governing the Driving Forces for Phase
514 Separation of Prion-like RNA Binding Proteins. *Cell* 174:688–699.
- 515 39. Hou, L., Y. Wei, Y. Lin, X. Wang, Y. Lai, M. Yin, Y. Chen, X. Guo, S. Wu, Y. Zhu, J. Yuan, M. Tariq, N. Li, H. Sun,
516 H. Wang, X. Zhang, J. Chen, X. Bao, and R. Jauch, 2020. Concurrent binding to DNA and RNA facilitates the pluripotency
517 reprogramming activity of Sox2. *Nucleic Acids Res* 48:3869–3887.
- 518 40. Sigova, A., B. Abraham, X. Ji, B. Molinie, N. Hannett, Y. Guo, M. Jangi, C. Giallourakis, P. Sharp, and R. Young, 2015.
519 Transcription factor trapping by RNA in gene regulatory elements. *Science* 350:978–981.
- 520 41. Jeon, Y., and J. Lee, 2011. YY1 tethers Xist RNA to the inactive X nucleation center. *Cell* 146:119–133.
- 521 42. Werner, M., and A. Ruthenburg, 2015. Nuclear Fractionation Reveals Thousands of Chromatin-Tethered Noncoding RNAs
522 Adjacent to Active Genes. *Cell Rep* 12:1089–1098.
- 523 43. Shi, K., T. Liu, H. Fu, W. Li, and X. Zheng, 2021. Genome-wide analysis of lncRNA stability in human. *PLoS Comput.*
524 *Biol* 17:1–25.
- 525 44. Chen, W., J. Smeeckens, and R. Wu, 2016. Systematic study of the dynamics and half-lives of newly synthesized proteins in
526 human cells. *Chem. Sci* 7:1393–1400.
- 527 45. Hohenberg, P., and B. Halperin, 1977. Theory of dynamic critical phenomena. *Rev. Mod. Phys* 49:435–479.
- 528 46. Guyer, J., D. Wheeler, and J. Warren, 2009. FiPy: Partial Differential Equations with Python. *Comput. Sci. Eng* 11:6–15.
- 529 47. Daneshvar, K., M. Ardehali, I. Klein, F. Hsieh, A. Kratkiewicz, A. Mahpour, S. Cancelliere, C. Zhou, B. Cook, W. Li,
530 J. Pondick, S. Gupta, S. Moran, R. Young, R. Kingston, and A. Mullen, 2020. lncRNA DIGIT and BRD3 protein form
531 phase-separated condensates to regulate endoderm differentiation. *Nat. Cell Biol* 22:1211–1222.
- 532 48. Imakaev, M., G. Fudenberg, R. McCord, N. Naumova, A. Goloborodko, B. Lajoie, J. Dekker, and L. Mirny, 2012. Iterative
533 correction of Hi-C data reveals hallmarks of chromosome organization. *Nat. Methods* 9:999–1003.
- 534 49. Langdon, E., Y. Qiu, A. Niaki, G. McLaughlin, C. Weidmann, T. Gerbich, J. Smith, J. Crutchley, C. Termini, K. Weeks,
535 S. Myong, and A. Gladfelder, 2018. mRNA structure determines specificity of a polyQ-driven phase separation. *Science*
536 (80-). 360:922–927.
- 537 50. Langdon, E., and A. Gladfelder, 2018. Probing RNA Structure in Liquid–Liquid Phase Separation Using SHAPE-MaP.
538 *Methods in Enzymology. Academic Press Inc* 67–79.
- 539 51. Cabili, M., M. Dunagin, P. McClanahan, A. Biaisch, O. Padovan-Merhar, A. Regev, J. Rinn, and A. Raj, 2015. Localization
540 and abundance analysis of human lncRNAs at single-cell and single-molecule resolution. *Genome Biol* 16.
- 541 52. Nora, E., J. Dekker, and E. Heard, 2013. Segmental folding of chromosomes: A basis for structural and regulatory
542 chromosomal neighborhoods? *BioEssays* 35:818–828.
- 543 53. Gu, B., T. Swigut, A. Spencley, M. Bauer, M. Chung, T. Meyer, and J. Wysocka, 2018. Transcription-coupled changes in
544 nuclear mobility of mammalian *cis*-regulatory elements. *Science* 359:1050–1055.

545 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

546 An online supplement to this article can be found by visiting BJ Online at <http://www.biophysj.org>.