Supporting Information for: Energy Landscapes and Hybridization Pathways for DNA Hexamer Duplexes

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SUPPORTING SECTION 1: METHODS

Exploration of the energy landscapes.

Discrete path sampling^{1,2} was used to construct and analyze the kinetic transition networks³⁻⁵ for hybridization of DNA duplexes. A discrete path is an ordered sequence of pairs of minima, and the transition states connecting them, between two states of interest. A kinetic transition network is a coarse-grained representation of an energy landscape that is built up using geometry optimization methods to locate the local minima and intervening transition states of a potential energy surface. First, low energy minima, including the global minimum, are determined by basin-hopping global optimization⁶⁻⁹ using the GMIN program.¹⁰ Initial discrete paths between selected pairs of endpoints are determined using the doubly-nudged¹¹ elastic band^{12,13} (DNEB) method to find transition state candidates, and then hybrid eigenvector-following^{12,14,15} to converge high-energy images of the band to transition states. The two minima connected by each transition state are determined by a modified version of the limited-memory BFGS local minimization algorithm.¹⁶ These calculations were carried out using the OPTIM program¹⁷ interfaced with AMBER9.¹⁸ The root mean square gradient convergence criterion for stationary point optimization was set to 10^{-6} kcal mol⁻¹Å⁻¹.

The initial discrete path between a pair of distant endpoints is unlikely to be kinetically relevant, and frequently has high energy barriers, and unnecessary detours. Hence, initial discrete paths between endpoints of interest are used as the starting point to grow the stationary point database and determine kinetically relevant pathways. Here, the SHORT-CUT^{19,20} and UNTRAP²⁰ schemes within the PATHSAMPLE driver program²¹ for OPTIM were used to further sample the potential energy landscapes. The SHORTCUT scheme selects pairs of minima along the current fastest path, and aims to determine refined discrete paths with fewer steps and lower energy barriers. The UNTRAP scheme is used to eliminate artificial kinetic traps in the kinetic transition networks, which arise due to incomplete sampling. Connections are attempted between pairs of low energy minima for which the energy difference is small, but which are separated by high energy barriers. Sampling to locate alternative pathways and explore new regions of the energy landscape is continued until observable quantities, such as phenomenological rate constants, have converged.

The starting coordinates of the selected sequences were for the B-form and were generated using the program *nab* from AMBER.¹⁸ The DNA duplexes were modelled using the allatom AMBER99/bsc0 force field,²² employing the χ OL4 torsional corrections.²³ Water was modelled by a generalized Born implicit solvent model^{24,25} and the salt concentration was maintained at 1.0 M using the Debye-Hückel approximation.²⁶

Our focus in the present work is to discover details of mechanisms that may correspond to long timescales in the range of tens of microseconds to seconds and even longer.²⁷ We have therefore chosen to use an implicit solvent model to facilitate sampling these rare events. Although such continuum models introduce a further approximation, there is evidence that the energetics can be reproduced with sufficient accuracy to produce useful predictions.^{27,28} For example, Tsui *et al.* employed the generalized Born (GB) model to simulate the Aand B-forms of a duplex DNA d(CCAACGTTGG)₂ and the corresponding duplex RNA r(CCAACGUUGG)₂, demonstrating good agreement with simulations using explicit water in terms of both structure and energetics.²⁹ In particular, the energy differences between the A and B form duplexes derived from GB trajectories for both DNA and RNA closely matched those obtained using explicit water simulations.²⁹ Recent systematic evaluations of DNA force fields with implicit solvation have also produced reasonable agreement with explicit solvation and experimental data for both structural and dynamical properties.^{30,31}

Within the present framework, an implicit solvent model is particularly useful because the additional degrees of freedom associated with explicit solvent molecules and counterions would complicate the landscape, making it harder to identify the key transition pathways.³² Comparison with explicit solvent results in previous work has demonstrated that implicit solvent landscape can capture the mechanism and kinetics underlying conformational changes of biomolecules.^{33,34} Using the all-atom AMBER99/bsc0²² + χ OL4 torsional corrections²³ with a GB implicit solvent model, Chakraborty *et al.* characterised the folding mechanisms and kinetics of RNA tetraloop hairpins, and the calculated rate constants for folding of both UUCG and GCAA hairpins were in excellent agreement with the values reported for hairpins of similar size in temperature jump experiments.³⁵ In a recent work, we have demonstrated that the latest AMBER force fields in conjunction with the GB model can also reproduce the experimental free energy difference, as well interconversion rates for a RNA conformational switch, where the major and minor conformations only differ in the stacking orientation of the central adenines.³² Similarly, we also investigated the transitions between Watson-Crick (WC) and Hoogsteen (HG) base pairing in DNA using an implicit solvent model, revealing multiple pathways.³⁶ Our analysis indicates that the transition state ensemble corresponds to base flipped-out states, in agreement with the experimental work of Nikolova *et al.*³⁷ Based on all this evidence, we believe that implicit solvent landscapes can capture the essential features of the underlying landscape, and provide key mechanic insight into the kinetics of conformational transitions.

Based on our previous experience, we anticipate that the topography of the free energy landscape and its emergent properties (transition mechanism, thermodynamics, and kinetics) would remain qualitatively similar if explicit ions or solvent molecules are included, although some reorganization of minima within the major free energy basins is expected. The kinetic transition networks described here can provide starting points for such studies. We note that unbiased all-atom simulations of DNA hybridization using explicit solvent (even for the short oligonucleotides considered here) would be extremely challenging, if not computationally intractable, due to the long time scales involved. Enhanced sampling of the kind employed by Zacharias and coworkers,³⁸ or similar, could be useful in addressing this sampling bottleneck, but these approaches also have their own limitations, be it the loss of kinetic information due to biasing along reaction coordinates or exchanges in temperature/Hamiltonian space, or difficulties/inaccuracies associated with partitioning of the phase space into a few metastable states (Markov-State Model based frameworks³⁹). These limitations could potentially lead to a misleading picture of thermodynamics and kinetics even when a more detailed description of the DNA and the surrounding solvent is invoked. Our results, which do not require such approximations, provide a powerful alternative approach, with a different set of assumptions. The ultimate validation must be comparison with experimental observables.

Analysis and visualization of the energy landscapes.

Given a database of stationary points on the potential energy landscape, a self-consistent regrouping scheme^{40,41} was used to recursively group together minima, separated by free energy barriers below a chosen threshold, at a given temperature. Within the harmonic superposition approximation (HSA),⁴² the partition function is a sum of individual contributions from local minima, each of which is represented by a locally harmonic vibrational density of states. The minimum-to-minimum rate constants are likewise assumed to be given by harmonic transition state theory.^{43–45} The free energies of groups of minima and transition states are then estimated by appropriate sums over partition functions of the individual stationary points.

Assigning appropriate edge weights to a kinetic transition network, 1,46 the 'fastest' discrete path, *i.e.* that which makes the largest contribution to the steady-state rate constant, can be determined by Dijkstra's algorithm.⁴⁷ A path deviation algorithm^{48–50} was used to determine the complete set of distinct paths in the network, where each discrete path is distinguished on the basis of having a unique rate-limiting step, and to characterise the transition state ensemble. The representative pathways are chosen by manually examining the pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to the dissociated and fully-hybridized states. A longer path with a distinct potential energy profile is recognized as a representative pathway. The new graph transformation (NGT) method⁵¹ allows calculation of phenomenological rate constants.

Disconnectivity graphs 52-56 are used to visualize potential and free energy landscapes, in

a manner that preserves their full dimensionality. In a disconnectivity graph, the vertical axis corresponds to energy. Local minima are represented by the leaves of the graph, which terminate at their energies. The connected minima are classified into disjoint sets, or 'superbasins',⁵² at regular threshold increments, by inducing a cut in the graph if groups of minima are separated by a barrier that exceeds the threshold. The disconnectivity graphs are coloured according to the total number of hydrogen-bonds between complementary D-NA strands. The VMD program⁵⁷ was used to visualize the structures for representative stationary points.

Estimating free energies and interconversion rates.

The vibrational partition functions associated with the minima and the transition states in the network were estimated using a harmonic approximation.^{58,59}

$$Z_i(T) = \frac{n_i e^{-V_i/kT}}{(h\overline{\nu}_i/kT)^{\kappa}}.$$
(1)

The local free energy, $F_i(T)$ of each minimum can be written as:

$$F_i(T) = -kT \ln Z_i(T), \tag{2}$$

The equilibrium occupation probability of each minimum $p_i^{eq}(T)$ is:

$$p_i^{eq}(T) = \frac{Z_i(T)}{Z(T)}.$$
(3)

Z(T) is the full canonical partition function, which can be written as a sum of all the contributions from the different catchment basins.

$$Z(T) = \sum_{i}^{N} Z_i(T).$$
(4)

In Eq. (1), V_i denotes the potential energy of minimum i, n_i is the number of distinct permutational isomers of i, $\overline{\nu}_i$ denotes the geometric mean normal mode frequency associated with minimum i, and $\kappa = 3N - 6$ is the number of vibrational degrees of freedom, where Nis the number of atoms.

The partition functions and the free energies for the transition states are defined in an analogous way, except that the normal mode frequency corresponding to the unique negative Hessian eigenvalue (imaginary normal mode frequency) is excluded.

The minimum-to-minimum rate constants are estimated using harmonic transition state theory (TST).

$$k_i^{\dagger}(T) = \frac{kT}{h} \frac{Z^{\dagger}(T)}{Z_i(T)} e^{-\beta \Delta V}.$$
(5)

In Eq. (5), $Z^{\dagger}(T)$ denotes the partition function of the transition state; $Z_i(T)$ is the partition function of minimum i; ΔV is the potential energy difference between the transition state and minimum i. The total rate constant $k_{ji}(T)$ for an elementary transition from minimum ito minimum j is obtained by summing the $k_i^{\dagger}(T)$ values for all transition states that connect the two minima.

Within the steady-state approximation for intervening minima, the rate constants, k_{AB}^{SS} and k_{BA}^{SS} between reactant (A) and product (B) states, can be expressed as weighted sums over all discrete paths in the network, assuming that the dynamics between adjacent minima or lumped states⁴⁰ is Markovian:¹

$$k_{AB}^{SS} = \frac{1}{p_B^{eq}} \sum_{a \leftarrow b} \frac{k_{ai_1} k_{i_1 i_2} k_{i_2 i_3} \dots k_{i_n b} p_b^{eq}}{\sum_{j_1} k_{j_1 i_1} \sum_{j_2} k_{j_2 i_2} \sum_{j_3} k_{j_3 i_3} \dots \sum_{j_n} k_{j_n i_n}}.$$
(6)

In terms of transition probabilities, $P_{\gamma\alpha}$ between directly connected minima γ and α , Eq. (6) can be rewritten as:¹

$$k_{AB}^{SS} = \frac{1}{p_B^{eq}} \sum_{a \leftarrow b} P_{ai_1} P_{i_1 i_2} P_{i_2 i_3} \dots P_{i_n b} p_b^{eq} \tau_b^{-1}.$$
 (7)

The individual sums in the denominators of Eq. (6) consist of the unimolecular rate con-

stants for all direct transitions from minimum j_k to i_k . The discrete path that makes the largest contribution to the steady-state rate constant is termed the 'fastest path', and can be extracted from the network using Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm with appropriate edge weights⁶⁰ – ln $P_{\alpha\beta}$, providing access to the product of transition probabilities in Eq. (7). To characterize additional paths in order of their contribution to k^{SS} we employ the recursive enumeration algorithm⁶¹ within the same framework,⁴¹ and these pathways were examined to deduce mechanistic details of the adenine conformational switch. The steady-state approximation for the intervening minima can be relaxed to yield rate constants k_{AB} and k_{BA} that correspond to the mean first passage times between reactants and products.⁵¹ To extract these values we employ a graph transformation technique (NGT)^{51,62} where minima in the intervening region are progressively removed, and the transition probabilities as well as the waiting times are renormalised to conserve the average mean first passage time (MFPT).^{51,63}

We compute the rate constants in conjunction with a recursive free energy regrouping scheme,⁴⁰ which lumps together structures separated by free energy barriers below a certain threshold into a single macrostate. This approach is similar in spirit to the kinetic clustering schemes employed in methods based upon explicit dynamics.^{64,65} In the regrouping, the original reactant and product states are expanded into ensembles of conformations assumed to be in local equilibrium, and hence the global dynamics can be directly compared to the observation time scale of experiments.⁶⁶ After regrouping, the equilibrium occupation probability and the free energy associated with group J are

$$p_J^{eq}(T) = \sum_{j \in J} p_j^{eq}(T),$$
(8)

$$F_J = -kT \ln \sum_{j \in J} Z_j(T).$$
(9)

where minimum j is a member of group J. The free energy of the group of transition states

linking J and K is:⁴⁰

$$F_{KJ}^{\dagger} = -kT \ln \sum_{k \leftarrow j} Z_{kj}^{\dagger}(T) \equiv -kT \ln Z_{KJ}^{\dagger}(T), \qquad (10)$$

To analyze global dynamics corresponding to regrouped databases, the rate constants corresponding to transitions between different free energy groups are required, which can then be used in the appropriate expressions for rate constants and committor probabilities.⁵¹ The intergroup rate constant from J to K is:⁴⁰

$$k_{KJ} = \sum_{k \leftarrow j} \frac{p_j^{eq}(T)}{p_J^{eq}(T)} k_{kj}(T) = \sum_{k \leftarrow j} \frac{Z_j(T)}{Z_J(T)} \frac{kT}{h} \frac{Z_{kj}^{\dagger}(T)}{Z_j(T)},$$

$$= \frac{kT}{h} \frac{Z_{KJ}^{\dagger}(T)}{Z_J(T)} = \frac{kT}{h} e^{-[F_{KJ}^{\dagger}(T) - F_J(T)]/kT}.$$
(11)

SUPPORTING SECTION 2: FIGURES



Figure S1: Potential energy disconnectivity graph for d(GGGGGG). The branches are coloured according to the total number of hydrogen-bonds between the two DNA strands. Some representative local minima from the different conformational ensembles are shown.



Figure S2: Potential energy disconnectivity graph for d(GCGCGC). The branches are coloured according to the total number of hydrogen-bonds between the two DNA strands. Some representative local minima from the different conformational ensembles are shown.



Figure S3: Some representative structures located in the low free energy region of the landscapes for (A) d(GGGGG) and (B) d(GCGCGC). Note that all the structures are the same as those in Figs 1 and 2 of the main text.



Figure S4: Top: Distribution of the normal mode frequencies (Λ) for minima constituting the free energy groups corresponding to the canonical duplex, dissociated strands, misaligned structure G3, and compact structure G1 for d(GGGGGG). The regrouping calculations were performed using the recursive regrouping scheme,^{40,41} with a barrier threshold of 3.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Bottom: Distribution of Λ values for minima constituting the free energy groups corresponding to the canonical duplex, dissociated strands, misaligned structure W5, and compact structure W1 for d(GCGCGC). The regrouping calculations were performed using the recursive regrouping scheme, 40,41 with a barrier threshold of 4.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Within the harmonic approximation, vibrational entropy is $-k_B \Lambda^{67-69}$ and more flexible structures are therefore expected to have lower Λ values. Note that the Λ values for slipped conformations G3 are lower than the those of the dissociated structures for d(GGGGGG). This is because the nucleobases of the two single-stranded oligonucleotides for the dissociated strands of d(GGGGGG) stack with each other, and even form hydrogen-bonds with their neighbours, producing compact-like structures rather than fully extended single-stranded oligonucleotides. The 'dissociated' structures do not refer to separated strands here. All the conformations are the same as those in Figures 1 and 2 of the main text.



Figure S5: Top: The potential energy as a function of the integrated path length (\mathbf{s}) for the fastest zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to dissociated and fully-hybridized states for d(GGGGGG). Bottom: The fastest slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases and the fully-hybridized state for d(GGGGGG). Each step along the pathway is one stationary point. Selected structures are illustrated along the path, as indicated by the red dots.



Figure S6: Top: The potential energy as a function of the integrated path length (s) for the fastest zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to melted and fully-hybridized states for d(GCGCGC). Bottom: The fastest slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases and the fully-hybridized state for d(GCGCGC). Each step along the pathway represents one stationary point. Selected structures are illustrated along the path, as indicated by the red dots.



Figure S7: The sum of edge weights as a function of distinct paths on the network for the hybridization of d(GGGGGG), determined by the path deviation algorithm.^{48,49} Each distinct path is distinguished on the basis of having a unique rate-limiting step. The distinct paths are indexed from one, starting from the fastest. For both zippering (top) and slithering (bottom) mechanisms, three representative pathways belonging to families with distinct potential energy profiles shown in Figures S8 and S9 are indicated using filled circles in red on the profiles.



Figure S8: Potential energy profiles of three representative pathways for the hybridization of d(GGGGGG) by a zippering mechanism, determined by the path deviation algorithm ^{48,49} to find kinetically distinguishable pathway ensembles. The first path (top) shown is the fastest, and the second (middle) and third (bottom) paths are the 20th and 70th fastest distinct paths, respectively, which are highlighted in Figure S7. Snapshots of some representative local minima that are encountered at different stages of the hybridization process are shown.



Figure S9: Potential energy profiles of three representative pathways for the hybridization of d(GGGGGG) by a slithering mechanism, determined by the path deviation algorithm to find kinetically distinguishable pathway ensembles. The first path (top) shown is the fastest, and the second (middle) and third (bottom) paths are the 800th and 1070th fastest distinct paths, respectively, which are highlighted in Figure S7. Snapshots of some representative local minima that are encountered at different stages of the hybridization process are shown.



Figure S10: The sum of edge weights as a function of distinct paths on the network for the hybridization of d(GCGCGC), determined by the path deviation algorithm.^{48,49} Each distinct path is distinguished on the basis of having a unique rate-limiting step. The distinct paths are indexed from one, starting from the fastest. For both zippering (top) and slithering (bottom) mechanisms, three representative pathways belonging to families with distinct potential energy profiles shown in Figures S11 and S12 are highlighted using filled circles in red on the profiles.



Figure S11: Potential energy profiles of three representative pathways for the hybridization of d(GCGCGC) by a zippering mechanism, determined by the path deviation algorithm ^{48,49} to find kinetically distinguishable pathway ensembles. The first path (top) shown is the fastest, and the second (middle) and third (bottom) paths are the 250th and 700th fastest distinct paths, respectively, which are highlighted in Figure S10. Snapshots of some representative local minima that are encountered at different stages of the hybridization process are shown.



Figure S12: Potential energy profiles of three representative pathways for the hybridization of d(GCGCGC) by a slithering mechanism, determined by the path deviation algorithm ^{48,49} to find kinetically distinguishable pathway ensembles. The first path (top) shown is the fastest, and the second (middle) and third (bottom) paths are the 200th and 1000th fastest distinct paths, respectively, which are highlighted in Figure S10. Snapshots of some representative local minima that are encountered at different stages of the hybridization process are shown.



Figure S13: Variations of the rate constants (k, s^{-1}) corresponding to the zippering (forward and backward transition, top) and the slithering (forward and backward transition, bottom) pathways with reciprocal temperature ranging from 250 K to 350 K for d(GGGGGG), depicted using open circles. The best fits to the Arrhenius equation, $k(T) = \text{Aexp}(-E_a/k_BT)$ are depicted as solid lines in red. Significant deviations from Arrhenius behaviour are evident in each case.



Figure S14: Variations of the rate constants (k, s^{-1}) corresponding to the zippering (forward and backward transition, top) and the slithering (forward and backward transition, bottom) pathways with reciprocal temperature ranging from 250 K to 350 K for d(GCGCGC), depicted using open circles. The best fits to the Arrhenius equation, $k(T) = \text{Aexp}(-E_a/k_BT)$ are depicted as solid lines in red. Significant deviations from Arrhenius behaviour are evident in the zippering pathway.



Figure S15: Top: The fastest free energy zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to dissociated (A) and fully-hybridized (B) states for d(GGGGGG). The points correspond to groups of minima and transition states, obtained by the recursive regrouping scheme^{40,41} using a barrier threshold of 5.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Bottom: The fastest free energy slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases (A) and the fully-hybridized state (B) for d(GGGGGG), using a regrouping threshold of 3.5 kcal mol⁻¹. In the calculations, the temperature was set to 270 K.



Figure S16: Top: The fastest free energy zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to dissociated (A) and fully-hybridized (B) states for d(GGGGGG). The points correspond to groups of minima and transition states, obtained by the recursive regrouping scheme^{40,41} using a barrier threshold of 5.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Bottom: The fastest free energy slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases (A) and the fully-hybridized state (B) for d(GGGGGG), using a regrouping threshold of 3.5 kcal mol⁻¹. In the calculations, the temperature was set to 350 K.



Figure S17: Top: The fastest free energy zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to dissociated (A) and fully-hybridized (B) states for d(GCGCGC). The points correspond to free energy groups of minima and transition states, obtained by the recursive regrouping scheme^{40,41} using a barrier threshold of 4.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Bottom: The fastest free energy slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases (A) and the fully-hybridized state (B) for d(GCGCGC), using a regrouping threshold was 6.0 kcal mol⁻¹. In the calculations, the temperature was set to 270 K.



Figure S18: Top: The fastest free energy zippering pathway between the conformational ensembles corresponding to dissociated (A) and fully-hybridized (B) states for d(GCGCGC). The points correspond to free energy groups of minima and transition states, obtained by the recursive regrouping scheme^{40,41} using a barrier threshold of 4.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Bottom: The fastest free energy slithering pathway between the ensemble of structures slipped by four bases (A) and the fully-hybridized state (B) for d(GCGCGC), using a regrouping threshold was 6.0 kcal mol⁻¹. In the calculations, the temperature was set to 350 K.

SUPPORTING SECTION 3: TABLE

Table 1: Average values of base pair step parameters for standard B-DNA,⁷⁰ for the G1 structure of d(GGGGGG), and for the W1 and W2 structures of d(GCGCGC). For the G1, W1 and W2 structures, only the base paired segment was used for the calculations of local base pair step parameters. The local base pair parameters were calculated using 3DNA.⁷¹

Local base-pair	B-DNA	G1	W1	W2
step parameter				
Tilt (deg.)	-0.10 ± 2.5	0.99 ± 2.04	-0.68 ± 5.58	-0.74 ± 5.29
Roll (deg.)	0.60 ± 5.2	9.26 ± 2.84	5.84 ± 5.42	6.90 ± 7.20
Twist $(deg.)$	36.00 ± 6.8	31.13 ± 2.18	36.14 ± 1.92	38.03 ± 12.99
Shift (Å)	-0.02 ± 0.45	0.00 ± 0.49	-0.22 ± 0.79	0.11 ± 1.18
Slide (Å)	0.23 ± 0.87	-1.29 ± 0.12	-0.17 ± 0.14	-0.04 ± 0.71
Rise (Å)	3.32 ± 0.18	3.41 ± 0.04	3.28 ± 0.17	3.18 ± 0.20
Form	B-DNA	B-DNA	B-DNA	B-DNA

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