



# Nonequilibrium correlations in minimal dynamical models of polymer copying

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**Living systems produce “persistent” copies of information-carrying polymers, in which template and copy sequences remain correlated after physically decoupling. We identify a general measure of the thermodynamic efficiency with which these nonequilibrium states are created and analyze the accuracy and efficiency of a family of dynamical models that produce persistent copies. For the weakest chemical driving, when polymer growth occurs in equilibrium, both the copy accuracy and, more surprisingly, the efficiency vanish. At higher driving strengths, accuracy and efficiency both increase, with efficiency showing one or more peaks at moderate driving. Correlations generated within the copy sequence, as well as between template and copy, store additional free energy in the copied polymer and limit the single-site accuracy for a given chemical work input. Our results provide insight into the design of natural self-replicating systems and can aid the design of synthetic replicators.**

biophysics | stochastic processes | thermodynamics | information transmission

The copying of information from a template into a substrate is fundamental to life. The most powerful copying mechanisms are persistent, autonomous, and generic. A persistent copy retains the copied data after physically decoupling from its template (1, 2). An autonomous copy process does not require systematically time-varying external conditions (2), making it more versatile. Finally, a generic copy process is able to copy arbitrary data. DNA replication and both steps of gene expression necessarily exhibit all three characteristics.

Unlike natural systems, synthetic polymer copying mechanisms developed hitherto have not incorporated all three features. Early work focused on using template polymers to synthesize specific daughter polymers, but failed to adequately demonstrate subsequent separation of copy and template (3, 4). We describe such a process as templated self-assembly (TSA), by analogy with molecular systems that assemble into a well-defined structure determined by highly specific interactions that are retained in the final state.

Due to cooperativity, the tendency of such copies to remain bound to templates grows with template length (5–7). Consequently, generic copying of long polymers [as opposed to dimers and trimers (5, 8, 9)] has proved challenging. One tactic is to consider environments in which the system experiences cyclically varying conditions, with assembly of the copy favored in one set of conditions and detachment from the template favored in another (10–12). A more subtle approach is to use a spatially nonuniform environment, so that individual molecules undergo cyclic variation in conditions (13). While these experiments may indeed reflect early life (14, 15), they do not demonstrate copying in a truly autonomous context.

We also contrast the copying of a generic polymer sequence with the approach in refs. 7 and 16. Here, the information is propagated between successive units of a single self-assembling polymer, rather than between a template and a daughter

polymer, limiting information transmission. Externally induced mechanical stress on long length scales severs the polymers, leading to exponential growth of the number of polymers.

These challenges suggest that a full understanding of the basic biophysics of copying is lacking. Recently, we outlined fundamental thermodynamic constraints imposed by persistence (1), but did not propose a dynamical mechanism for autonomous copying. Previous dynamical models fall into two major categories: those that remain agnostic about the distinction between TSA and copying by considering thermodynamically self-consistent models for only part of the polymerization process (17) and those that explicitly address TSA (18–25).

In this work, we analyze a family of model systems that generate persistent copies in an autonomous and generic way. We introduce a metric for the thermodynamic efficiency of copying, and investigate the accuracy and efficiency of our models. We highlight the profound consequences of requiring persistence, namely, that correlations between copy and template can only be generated by pushing the system out of equilibrium. Previous work has considered self-assembly (26–28) or TSA (18–25, 28) in nonequilibrium contexts; in these cases, however, the nonequilibrium driving merely modulates a nonzero equilibrium specificity. Alongside the effect on copy–template interactions, we find that intra-copy-sequence correlations arise naturally. These correlations store additional free energy in the copied polymer, which does not contribute toward the accuracy of copying.

## Significance

The ordering of chemical units within DNA, RNA, and proteins carries information about how living cells operate, and copying these sequences accurately is vital. We have a limited understanding of the fundamental physical underpinnings of these processes, since important mechanistic constraints due to the need to separate daughter sequences from their templates have never been investigated in detail. By considering the simplest models that incorporate these constraints, we highlight their profound consequences in terms of the effort that must be expended to make accurate copies. These insights will help us to understand not only life today but also how early replicators may have functioned in the past, and how we might develop synthetic copiers in the future.

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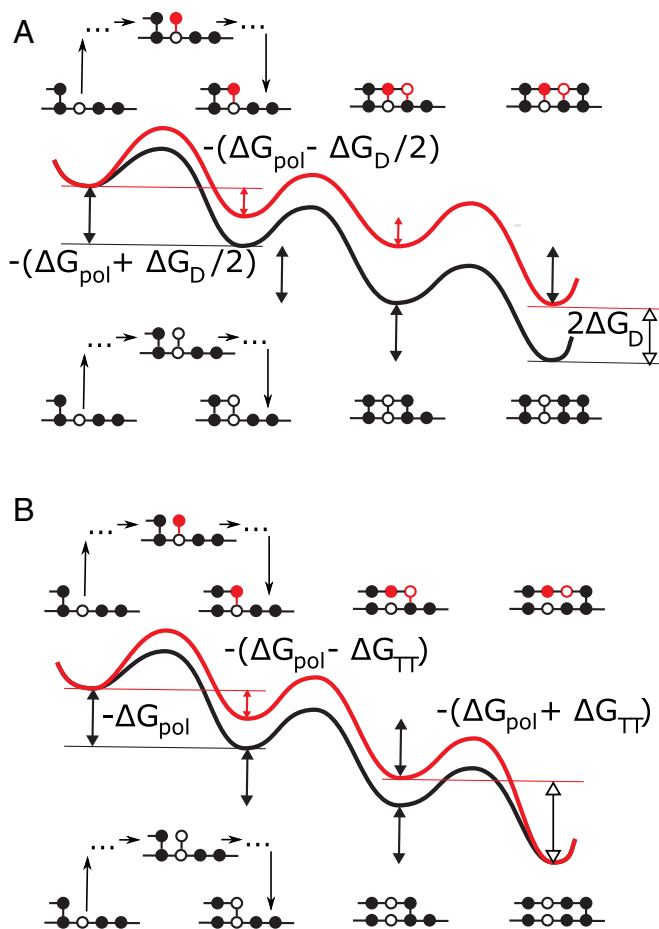
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## Models and Methods

**Model Definition.** We consider a copy polymer  $M = M_1, \dots, M_l$ , made up of a series of subunits or monomers  $M_x$ , growing with respect to a template  $N = N_1, \dots, N_L$  ( $l \leq L$ ). Inspired by transcription and translation, we consider a copy that detaches from the template as it grows; Fig. 1B shows the simplest model



**Fig. 1.** Free-energy landscapes for simple examples of (A) TSA, in which the monomers remain bound to the template during the copy process and (B) persistent copying, in which the monomers detach from the template after they have been incorporated into the polymer. Both diagrams show the addition of three monomers to a growing polymer, driven by a chemical free energy of backbone polymerization  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$ . In each subfigure, two scenarios are considered: the addition of two incorrect monomers, followed by a correct one (Top), and the addition of three correct monomers (Bottom). Local minima in the landscape represent macrostates following complete incorporation of monomers; intermediate configurations, illustrated schematically for the first transition, are part of the effective barriers. In TSA, the chemical free-energy cost of previously incorporated mismatches is retained as the daughter grows (20–25). Thus, in A, each mismatch in the daughter increases the chemical free energy by  $\Delta G_D$  relative to the perfect match. In persistent copying (in B), the chemical free-energy penalty for incorporating wrong monomers is only temporary; it arises when the incorrect monomer is added to the growing polymer, but is lost when that monomer subsequently detaches from the template. As a result, the overall chemical free-energy change of creating an incorrect polymer is the same as that for a correct one. Analyzing the consequences of this constraint, which is a generic feature of copying but does not arise in TSA, is the essence of this work. The figure also shows that, in our specific model, incorporating a wrong monomer after a correct one tends to reduce the chemical free-energy drop to  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}} - \Delta G_{\text{TT}}$ , and incorporating a correct monomer after an incorrect one tends to increase it to  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}} + \Delta G_{\text{TT}}$ ; however, adding a wrong monomer to a wrong one, and adding a correct monomer to a correct one, does not change the free-energy drop  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$ .

of this type. We consider whole steps in which a single monomer is added or removed, encompassing many individual chemical substeps (21, 24). After each step, there is only a single inter-polymer bond at position  $l$ , between  $M_l$  and  $N_l$ . As a new monomer joins the copy at position  $l + 1$ , the bond position  $l$  is broken, contrasting with previous models of TSA (20–25) (Fig. 1A). Importantly, as explained in the next paragraphs of this section, each step therefore depends on both of the two leading monomers, generating extra correlations within the copy sequence.

Following earlier work, we assume that both polymers are copolymers, and that the two monomer types are symmetric (20–25). Thus, the relevant question is whether monomers  $M_l$  and  $N_l$  match; we ignore the specific sequence of  $N$  and describe  $M_l$  simply as right or wrong. Thus,  $M_l \in r, w$ , with example chain  $M = rrwurrrrrrrwrr$ . An excess of  $r$  indicates a correlation between template and copy sequences. Breaking this symmetry would favor specific template sequences over others, disfavoring the accurate copying of other templates and compromising the generality of the process.

Given the model's state space, we now consider state free energies (which must be time-invariant for autonomy). We treat the environment as a bath of monomers at constant chemical potential (20–25). By symmetry, extending the polymer while leaving the copy–template interaction unchanged involves a fixed polymerization free energy. We thus define  $-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$  as the chemical free-energy change for the transition between any specific sequence  $m_1, \dots, m_l$  and any specific sequence  $m_1, \dots, m_{l+1}$ , ignoring any contribution from interactions with the template. We then define  $\Delta G_{\text{TT}}$  as the effect of the free-energy difference between  $r$  and  $w$  interactions with template. This bias can be described as “temporary thermodynamic” (TT), since it only lasts until that contact is broken.

Overall, each forward step makes and breaks one copy–template bond. There are four possibilities: either adding  $r$  or  $w$  at position  $l + 1$  to a template with  $M_l = r$  or adding  $r$  or  $w$  in position  $l + 1$  to a template with  $M_l = w$ . The first and last of these options make and break the same kind of template bond, so the total free-energy change is  $-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$ . For the second case, there is a  $r$  bond broken and a  $w$  bond added, implying a free-energy change of  $-\Delta G_{\text{pol}} + \Delta G_{\text{TT}}$ . Conversely, for the third case, there is a  $w$  bond broken and a  $r$  bond added, giving a free-energy change of  $-\Delta G_{\text{pol}} - \Delta G_{\text{TT}}$ . These constraints are highlighted in Fig. 1B; the contribution of this work is to study the consequences of these constraints. Models of TSA (Fig. 1A) of equivalent complexity can be constructed, but they are not bound by these constraints, and hence the underlying results and biophysical interpretation are distinct.

Having specified model thermodynamics, we now parameterize kinetics. We assume that there are no “futile cycles,” such as appear in kinetic proofreading (17). Reactions are thus tightly coupled: Each step requires a well-defined input of free energy determined by  $-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$  and  $\pm \Delta G_{\text{TT}}$  (29), and no free-energy release occurs without a step.

A full kinetic treatment would be a continuous time Markov process incorporating the intermediate states shown schematically in Fig. 1B. To identify sequence output, however, we need only consider the state space in Fig. 1B and the relative probabilities for transitions between these explicitly modeled states, ignoring the complexity of nonexponential transition waiting times (21). We define propensity  $\psi_{xy}^+$  as the rate per unit time in which a system in state  $\&x$  starts the process of becoming  $\&xy$  and, propensity  $\psi_{xy}^-$  as the equivalent quantity in the reverse direction ( $\&$  is an unspecified polymer sequence). Our system has eight of these propensities ( $\psi_{rr}^\pm, \psi_{rw}^\pm, \psi_{wr}^\pm, \psi_{ww}^\pm$ ); the simplest TSA models require four (20, 21, 23–25).

Prior literature on TSA (23) has differentiated between purely “kinetic” discrimination, in which  $r$  and  $w$  have an equal

template-binding free energy but different binding rates, and purely thermodynamic discrimination in which  $r$  and  $w$  bind at the same rate, but  $r$  is stabilized in equilibrium by stronger binding interactions. Eventually, all discrimination is kinetic for persistent copying, since there is no lasting equilibrium bias (Fig. 1B). However, by analogy with TSA, we do consider two distinct mechanisms for discrimination: a kinetic one, in which  $r$  is added faster than  $w$  to the growing tip, and one based on the TT bias toward correct matches at the tip of the growing polymer due to short-lived favorable interactions with the template, quantified by  $\Delta G_{\text{TT}} > 0$  (Fig. 1B). The kinetic mechanism should not be conflated with fuel-consuming “kinetic proofreading” cycles that are not considered.

We parameterize the propensities as follows. Assuming, for simplicity, that the propensity for adding  $r$  or  $w$  is independent of the previous monomer, we have  $\psi_{rr}^+ = \psi_{wr}^+$  and  $\psi_{rw}^+ = \psi_{ww}^+ = 1$ , also defining the overall timescale. Kinetic discrimination is then quantified by  $\psi_{xr}^+/\psi_{xw}^+ = \exp(\Delta G_{\text{K}}/k_B T)$ . Forward propensities are thus differentiated solely by  $\Delta G_{\text{K}}$ ; backward propensities are set by fixing the ratios  $\psi_{xy}^+/\psi_{xy}^-$  according to the free-energy change of the reaction, which follows from  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$  and  $\Delta G_{\text{TT}}$  (Fig. 1B). Thus, setting  $k_B T = 1$ ,

$$\psi_{rr}^+ = e^{\Delta G_{\text{K}}}, \psi_{rr}^- = e^{-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}} e^{\Delta G_{\text{K}}}, \quad [1]$$

$$\psi_{rw}^+ = 1, \psi_{rw}^- = e^{-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}} e^{\Delta G_{\text{TT}}}, \quad [2]$$

$$\psi_{wr}^+ = e^{\Delta G_{\text{K}}}, \psi_{wr}^- = e^{-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}} e^{\Delta G_{\text{K}}} e^{-\Delta G_{\text{TT}}}, \quad [3]$$

$$\psi_{ww}^+ = 1, \psi_{ww}^- = e^{-\Delta G_{\text{pol}}}. \quad [4]$$

For a given  $\Delta G_{\text{K}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$ , and  $\Delta G_{\text{TT}}$ , Eqs. 1–4 describe a set of models with distinct intermediate states that yield the same copy sequence distribution. We can thus analyze the simplest model in each set, which is Markovian at the level of the explicitly modeled states, and has  $\psi_{xy}^\pm$  as rate constants.

**Model Analysis.** We use Gaspard’s method to solve the system (28); we note that the underlying kinetic equations can also be mapped to models of distinct physical systems that have different constraints on the parameters (26). In this approach, the tip monomer identity probabilities  $[\mu(m_i)]$ , the joint tip and penultimate monomer identity probabilities  $[\mu(m_{i-1}, m_i)]$ , and the conditional probabilities  $[\mu(m_{i-1} | m_i)]$  become stationary for a long polymer and can be calculated. One must first calculate the partial velocities,  $v_r$  and  $v_w$ . The quantity  $v_x \mu(x)$  is the net rate at which monomers are added after an  $x$ ,

$$v_x = \psi_{xr}^+ - \frac{\mu(x|r)\mu(r)}{\mu(x)} \psi_{xr}^- + \psi_{xw}^+ - \frac{\mu(x|w)\mu(w)}{\mu(x)} \psi_{xw}^-. \quad [5]$$

Following ref. 28, these velocities can be solved in terms of the propensities. In turn, the velocities and propensities determine tip and conditional probabilities  $\mu(m_i)$  and  $\mu(m_{i-1} | m_i)$  (28). Further details are provided in *SI Appendix*.

Gaspard’s method describes the chain while it is still growing through the stochastic variables  $M_l$  and  $M_{l-1}$ , with the index  $l$  being the current length of the polymer. We, however, are interested in the identity of the monomer at position  $n$  when  $l \gg n$ . We label this “final” state of the monomer at position  $n$  as  $M_n^\infty$ . As discussed in *SI Appendix*,  $M_n^\infty$  is distinct from  $M_n$  near the tip.  $M_n^\infty$  is described by the error probability  $\epsilon$  and the conditional error probabilities  $\epsilon_r$  and  $\epsilon_w$ , defined as the probability that  $M_{n+1} = w$  given that  $M_n^\infty = r$  or  $M_n^\infty = w$ , respectively. In *SI Appendix*, we show that  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon_r$ , and  $\epsilon_w$  are sufficient to describe the final state, by proving that the  $M^\infty$  is a Markov chain of  $r$  and  $w$  monomers (this requirement is distinct from the Markovian growth dynamics). We note that  $\epsilon \neq \epsilon_r \neq \epsilon_w$  as a direct result of the dependence of the transition propensities on the current and previous tip monomers, which in turn arises from detachment.

To calculate  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon_r$ , and  $\epsilon_w$ , we define currents  $J_{xy}$  that are related to  $\psi_{xy}^\pm$ , and to  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon_r$ , and  $\epsilon_w$ , separately. The current  $J_{xy}$  is the net rate per unit time at which transitions  $\&x \rightarrow \&xy$  occur:  $J_{xy} = \psi_{xy}^+ \mu(x) - \psi_{xy}^- \mu(x, y)$ . By considering the transitions in our system as a tree, as in Fig. 2, we can relate the current through a branch to the overall rate at which errors are permanently incorporated into a polymer growing at total velocity  $v = v_r \mu(r) + v_w \mu(w)$ ,

$$J_{rr} = (1 - \epsilon)(1 - \epsilon_r)v = \mu(r)\psi_{rr}^+ - \mu(r, r)\psi_{rr}^-, \quad [6]$$

$$J_{rw} = (1 - \epsilon)\epsilon_r v = \mu(r)\psi_{rw}^+ - \mu(r, w)\psi_{rw}^-, \quad [7]$$

$$J_{wr} = \epsilon(1 - \epsilon_w)v = \mu(w)\psi_{wr}^+ - \mu(w, r)\psi_{wr}^-, \quad [8]$$

$$J_{ww} = \epsilon\epsilon_w v = \mu(w)\psi_{ww}^+ - \mu(w, w)\psi_{ww}^-. \quad [9]$$

Eliminating  $\epsilon$  from the simultaneous Eqs. 6–9 yields  $\epsilon_r$  and  $\epsilon_w$  in terms of known quantities. To find  $\epsilon$ , note that the final sequence itself is a Markov chain with a transition matrix parameterized by  $\epsilon_r$  and  $\epsilon_w$ , with the overall error  $\epsilon$  given by its dominant eigenvector. As detailed in *SI Appendix*, we obtain  $\epsilon = \epsilon_r/(1 + \epsilon_r - \epsilon_w)$ . From  $\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon_r$ , and  $\epsilon_w$ , we calculate copy properties in terms of  $\psi_{xy}^\pm$  and thus the free energies. We corroborate the results with simulation (see *SI Appendix*).

## Results

**General Thermodynamic Bounds.** The free energy of the combined bath and polymer system decreases over time. There are two contributions to the free-energy change per added monomer: the chemical free energy  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$  and a contribution from the uncertainty of the final polymer sequence (1). The latter is quantified by the entropy rate  $H$  (30, 31),

$$H(M^\infty) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} H(M_1^\infty, M_2^\infty, \dots, M_n^\infty), \quad [10]$$

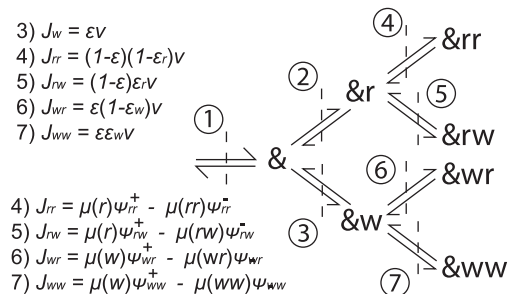
which, in our case, is given by (31)

$$H(M^\infty) = -\epsilon(\epsilon_w \ln \epsilon_w + (1 - \epsilon_w) \ln (1 - \epsilon_w)) - (1 - \epsilon)(\epsilon_r \ln \epsilon_r + (1 - \epsilon_r) \ln (1 - \epsilon_r)). \quad [11]$$

The overall free-energy change per added monomer is then  $\Delta G_{\text{tot}} = -\Delta G_{\text{pol}} - H$ , which must be negative for growth:  $H \geq -\Delta G_{\text{pol}}$ . Since copy–template interactions are not extensive in the copy length, they do not contribute. Given that  $H \geq 0$ , growth is possible in the region where  $\Delta G_{\text{pol}} < 0$ , corresponding to the “entropically driven” regime (20, 25).

Flux in terms of properties of final chain:

Flux in terms of properties of growing chain:



**Fig. 2.** Transitions of an arbitrary polymer  $\&x$ . To relate the final chain to the growing chain, it is useful to consider fluxes through interfaces in this transition diagram. Using the tip and combined probabilities, along with relative propensities, it is possible to describe the fluxes through interfaces 4 to 7 in terms of properties of the growing chain. Equally, by considering errors and conditional errors and taking fractions of the overall growth velocity, it is possible to find the fluxes through interfaces 4 to 7 in terms of properties of the final chain and growth velocity.



The entropy rate is bounded by the single-site entropy  $H \leq H_{ss} = -\epsilon \ln \epsilon - (1 - \epsilon) \ln(1 - \epsilon)$ .  $H_{ss}$  quantifies the desired correlations between copy and template. For previous models of TSA with uncorrelated monomer incorporation,  $H = H_{ss}$  (20–25, 28). In our model, the necessary complexity of  $\psi_{xy}^{\pm}$  generates correlations within the copy, as well as between copy and template. A stronger constraint on the single site entropy, and hence accuracy, then follows:  $H_{ss} \geq H \geq -\Delta G_{pol}$ .

Fundamentally, a persistent copy is a high free-energy state, as the entropic cost of copy–template correlations cannot be counteracted by stabilizing copy–template interactions. Thus, the process moves a system between two high free-energy states, converting chemical work into correlations. In general, only a fraction of the chemical work done by the monomer bath is retained in the final state, implying dissipation, and so it is natural to introduce an efficiency. The overall free energy stored in the polymer has contributions both from the creation of an equilibrium (uncorrelated) polymer and from correlations within the copy and with the template. We are interested only in the contributions above equilibrium. The efficiency  $\eta$  is then the proportion of the additional free energy expended in making a copy above the minimum required to grow a random equilibrium polymer that is successfully converted into the nonequilibrium free energy of the copy sequence rather than being dissipated. In our simple case,

$$\eta \equiv \frac{H_{eq} - H}{H_{eq} + \Delta G_{pol}} \leq 1. \quad [12]$$

Here,  $\Delta G_{pol} + H_{eq} = \Delta G_{pol} + \ln 2$  is the extra chemical work done by the buffer above that required to grow an equilibrium polymer,  $\Delta G_{pol}^{eq} = -H_{eq} = -\ln 2$ . The free energy stored in the copy sequence, above that stored in an equilibrium system, is  $H_{eq} - H$ ;  $\eta \leq 1$  follows from  $\Delta G_{pol} + H \geq 0$ . Similarly, since  $H_{ss} \geq H$ , we can define a single-site efficiency,

$$\eta_{ss} \equiv \frac{H_{eq} - H_{ss}}{H_{eq} + \Delta G_{pol}} \leq \eta \leq 1. \quad [13]$$

Unlike  $\eta$ , the single-site efficiency  $\eta_{ss}$  discounts the free energy stored in “useless” correlations within the copy.

**Behavior of Specific Systems.** We consider three representative models consistent with Eqs. 1–4. First, we consider the purely kinetic mechanism obtained by setting  $\Delta G_{TT} = 0$  and

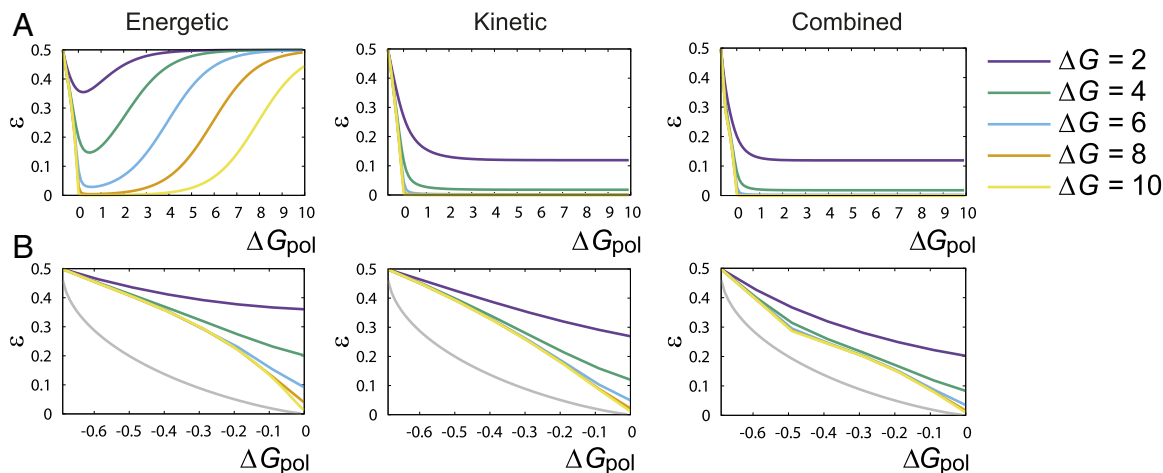
$\Delta G_K = \Delta G$  in Eqs. 1–4. Originally proposed by Bennett (20) for TSA, it is coincidentally a limiting case of persistent copying, since there is no equilibrium bias. We also consider two other mechanisms: pure “TT discrimination,” with  $\Delta G_K = 0$  and  $\Delta G_{TT} = \Delta G$ , and a “combined discrimination mechanism,” in which both template binding strengths and rates of addition favor  $r$  monomers:  $\Delta G_K = \Delta G_{TT} = \Delta G$ .

All three mechanisms have two free parameters, the overall driving strength  $\Delta G_{pol}$  and the discrimination parameter  $\Delta G$ . We plot error probability against  $\Delta G_{pol}$  for various  $\Delta G$  in Fig. 3. Also shown is the thermodynamic lower bound on  $\epsilon$  implied by  $H_{ss} \geq H \geq -\Delta G_{pol}$ . All three cases have no accuracy ( $\epsilon = 0.5$ ) in equilibrium ( $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$ ), since an accurate persistent copy is necessarily out of equilibrium (1). By contrast, TSA allows for accuracy in equilibrium (19, 23, 24).

The TT mechanism is always the least effective. It has no accuracy for high  $\Delta G_{pol}$ , as the difference between  $r$  and  $w$  is only manifest when stepping backward, and, for high  $\Delta G_{pol}$ , back steps are rare (23, 24). More interestingly, TT discrimination is also inaccurate as  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$ , when the system takes so many back steps that it fully equilibrates. Low  $\epsilon$  only occurs when  $\Delta G_{pol}$  is sufficient to inhibit the detachment of  $r$  monomers, but not the detachment of  $w$  monomers. This trade-off region grows with  $\Delta G$ . By contrast, both the combined case and the kinetic case have accuracy in the limit of  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow \infty$ , since they allow  $r$  to bind faster than  $w$ . Considering  $\Delta G_{pol} \leq 0$  closely (Fig. 3B) shows the combined case to be superior.

Intriguingly, all three mechanisms are far from the fundamental bound on  $\epsilon$  implied by  $H_{ss} \geq H \geq -\Delta G_{pol}$  as  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$ , and there is an apparent cusp in  $\epsilon$  at  $\Delta G_{pol} \approx 0.48$  as  $\Delta G \rightarrow \infty$  in the combined case. The performance relative to the bound is quantified by  $\eta_{ss}$  (Fig. 4). Surprisingly, we observe, in Fig. 4A, that not only does  $\epsilon$  go to zero as  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$ , but so does  $\eta_{ss}$  in all cases. For small nonequilibrium driving, none of the extra chemical work input is stored in correlations with the template. Mathematically, this inefficiency arises because  $\epsilon - 0.5 \propto \Delta G_{pol} - \ln 2$  as  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$  (as observed in Fig. 3), and  $H_{ss} - \ln 2 \propto (\epsilon - 0.5)^2$  for  $\epsilon \approx 0.5$ , by definition. Thus, from Eq. 13,  $\eta_{ss} \propto \Delta G_{pol} - \ln 2$  as  $\Delta G_{pol} \rightarrow -\ln 2$ . That this result only depends on error probability decreasing proportionally with  $\Delta G_{pol}$  for small driving suggests that a vanishing  $\eta_{ss}$  in equilibrium may be quite general.

In all cases, the single-site efficiency  $\eta_{ss}$  increases from 0 at  $\Delta G_{pol} = -\ln 2$  to a peak near  $\Delta G_{pol} = 0$ , with  $\eta_{ss} \rightarrow 1$  as



**Fig. 3.** Error probability  $\epsilon$  as a function of  $\Delta G_{pol}$  for all three mechanisms: (A) over a wide range of  $\Delta G_{pol}$  and (B) within the entropy-driven region  $\Delta G_{pol} \leq 0$ . The TT mechanism is always the least accurate, and the combined mechanism is the most accurate. All mechanisms have no accuracy in the limit of  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , and are far from the fundamental bound on single-site accuracy imposed by  $H_{ss} = -\epsilon \ln \epsilon - (1 - \epsilon) \ln(1 - \epsilon) \geq -\Delta G_{pol}$ , except at  $\Delta G_{pol} \approx 0$ .



