Supporting Information Appendix

Limitations of the computational methodology:

We calculated the equilibrium probabilities of observing various states of the CoQ10 system, 5 where a "state" is defined by the value of a specific interatomic distance. In general, the least likely state along a series of states should dominantly affect the distribution of times (and therefore the average time) it takes for a system at equilibrium to move from the first state to the last state in the series. In our system, this corresponds to the rate at which CoQ10 exits the binding channel of the enzyme. Following conventions in the field of chemistry, we call the least 10 likely state the transition state and quantify the probability difference as the free energy barrier.

The results of this paper are based on the Jarzynski Identity (*1*). This identity states that equilibrium (time-independent) properties can be calculated from non-equilibrium (finite time) trajectories. The practical difficulty in applying this identity is that it requires the population average of a specific quantity over the trajectories. The distribution of the population of that 15 quantity is so skewed that, without extensive sampling to sufficiently observe rare events, the sample average is not quantitatively correct.

According to the Jarzynski Identity, the timescale of the simulations does not affect the final result or the calculated free energy barrier at the transition state. However, the Jarzynski Identity only applies to the population average. In practice, the timescale of the simulations 20 affects the convergence of the sample average to the population average. Slower simulations require fewer trajectories for the quantity of interest to converge. The distribution resulting from faster trajectories is more skewed, with most trajectories requiring extra energy and a few outliers that require much less. With high probability, the sample average describes typical trajectories at a given timescale. The extra energy required by typical trajectories can then be 25 understood as timescale-dependent "friction".

This can be seen in our results, as values from our slowest trajectories show the least friction and presumably give the best approximations to the true energy barriers, although we doubt that they are sufficiently converged for the values to be absolutely precise. However, we do believe that all the results are qualitatively accurate when comparing wild-type and mutant 30 enzymes. We could rephrase our method as averaging the work performed during a process in a way that converges to the free energy difference in the limit of infinite trajectories but drawing qualitative conclusions as approximations before we reach that limit.

In Figure 3b, the ΔG axis shows the amount of work needed to overcome friction for CoQ10H² egress within the specified time period and should not be confused as showing the 35 relative free energy between the two configurations, the former being a quantity that is addressed in Figure 2. The difference in the energy required for egress between the WT and A52T-mutant proteins is extremely high (~50 kT), suggesting that at the speed of this simulation, the egress of CoQ10H² from the A52T mutant is far less likely to occur than its egress from the WT. However, within the modelled time scale, the barrier for retracting $CoQ10H₂$ in WT is 40 insurmountable, meaning that egress over a period of 3 or 30 ns is non-physiological. Unfortunately, what happens at lower speeds of egress cannot be simulated computationally given the time required from available resources.

The biophysics of this process requires a sufficiently rapid turnover of CoQ10 so as to allow delivery of electrons to Complex III and to prevent ROS-producing spillage. The biological timescale of CoQ10 mobility in Complex I is not known but considering the energetics encountered in this simulation, it is much slower that the 30 ns timescales used in 5 these computations. Thus, the data in Fig 2b are considered qualitative, not quantitative. We can confidently say that there is much more friction in the A52T channel than in the WT channel, even if we cannot precisely quantify that difference. But the qualitative observation is sufficient to show that egress of CoQ10H² from the mutant channel is a much slower process than egress from the WT channel, a situation that leads to more electron spillage and ROS production, thus 10 increasing the risk of blindness.

Our results also include other approximations, including classical force-fields, a truncated enzyme model, and periodic boundary conditions. These approximations lead to inaccuracies but in ways identical for the two systems that we compared, and thus they do not override the qualitative conclusions.

Marcus Theory of Electron Tunneling Kinetics:

Since the edge-to-edge distance between the donor (CoQ10) and acceptor (N2) is greater than 10 Å, we can consider the electronic states of each to be weakly coupled. Further, electron transfer timescales relative to nuclear motion follow the Frank-Condon principle, we can use the 20 following Marcus Theory expression for the rate constant of electron tunneling (*2,3*):

$$
k_{et} = \frac{1}{h} \left(\frac{\pi^3}{RT\Delta E_R}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} (H_{et}^0)^2 e^{-\beta L} e^{-\Delta^{\frac{1}{2}} G/(RT)}
$$

Here, H_{et}^0 is the electronic coupling matrix element at 0 distance between donor and acceptor, ΔE_R is the energy required to arrange the donor and acceptor into a conformation favorable for charge transfer, and $\Delta^{\ddagger}G$ is the free energy required to activate charge transfer, and 25 is dependent on the reorganization energy ΔE_R . The parameter β depends on the environment of the electron transfer, and for electron transfer in vacuum, takes on a value of ca. 30 nm⁻¹. Since the electron is not tunneling through a molecule from CoQ10 to N2, we can use this value for β in vacuum. Lastly, the parameter *L* is the edge-to-edge donor-acceptor distance, which can be determined by the peaks in Figure 2b.

30 Due to the wild-type and mutant structures of ND1 not affecting the donor and acceptor molecular structure, we can treat the electronic coupling H_{et}^0 to be the same between both wildtype and mutant ND1. Assuming that there is no further rearrangement cost of CoQ10 for ND1 wild type and mutant, we can estimate that the ratio of k_{et} for wild-type (WT) and mutant (MUT) using the dominant peak only is:

$$
\frac{k_{et}(WT)}{k_{et}(MT)} \approx 0.16
$$

15

35

More accurately, if we consider a mean donor-acceptor distance for the mutant that is a weighted sum of both 13.5 Å and 14 Å peaks in Figure 2b, the ratio is:

This provides a strong implication that the reaction rate of electron tunneling, with simple

$$
\frac{k_{et}(WT)}{k_{et}(MUT)} \approx 0.32
$$

through the Fe-S cluster increases markedly.

5 assumptions, is higher for the mutant ND1, and given that the mutant ND1 causes CoQ10 to get kinetically trapped in the binding pocket, the probability of back-tunneling of the electron

FEP data

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FIGURE S1 NEAR HERE.

Figure S1. FEP simulations results for the alchemical mutation on the protein in the presence of 5 bound ubiquinol (forward and backward simulations are shown – the close agreement between the two indicates convergence of the result).

FIGURE S2 NEAR HERE.

5 **Figure S2.** FEP simulations results for the alchemical mutation on the protein in the presence of bound ubiquinone (forward and backward simulations are shown – the close agreement between the two indicates convergence of the result).

FIGURE S3 NEAR HERE.

Figure S3. FEP simulations results for the alchemical mutation on the protein in the absence of 5 the bound CoQ10 (forward and backward simulations are shown – the close agreement between the two indicates convergence of the result).

SI References

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