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Supplementary Materials for

Differences in ion-RNA binding modes due to charge density variations explain the stability of RNA in monovalent salts

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Section S1

General Setting for Molecular Dynamic Simulations.

We added explicit water and ions to neutralize the RNA charge, and to mimic the experimental concentration of 400 mM monovalent salt. We created two systems, one RNA in NaCl aqueous solution and the other is in KCl with the same ionic strength. We kept the number of atoms constant in each simulation to allow direct comparison of the extensive properties of RNA in Na^+ and K^+ . We added 771 Cl^- and 822 (Na^+/K^+) to the simulation boxes by replacing some of the water molecules. We used ff99paramsbc0 force field to represent the RNA,⁵² Smith and Dang parameters⁵⁹ for ions, and TIP3P⁶⁰ for water.

The energy of the solvated systems were minimized for about 5000 MD steps using the steepest descent method. This process eliminated high energy contacts that may arise due to random placement of water and ions. The minimized structures were then equilibrated as explained below.

First, we employed a 2.5-ns long simulation in isothermal – isobaric ensemble (NPT) by keeping the temperature at 300 K using the Berendsen thermostat.⁶¹ Parrinello-Rahman barostat⁶² was used to maintain the pressure at 1 bar. The heavy atoms of the RNA were restrained to their initial positions using harmonic restraints with a force constant of 1000 kJ/nm^2 while ions and water were allowed to move freely. Periodic boundary conditions were implemented in the three directions. Particle Mesh Ewald (PME) summation⁶³ was used to compute long-range electrostatic interactions. The real space distance cutoff (for electrostatics and van der Waals energies) was set to 11Å. The grid for the Fourier space summation in the PME was 1.6Å, and fourth order splines were used to interpolate the charge density on the grid. A dispersion correction was made for the van der Waals cutoff. Covalent bonds in the water and RNA were constrained to their equilibrium geometries using SETTLE⁶⁴ and LINCS⁶⁵ algorithms, respectively. The equations of motion were integrated using the Leap-Frog scheme with a time step of 1 fs. The dimensions and the positions of atoms at the last snapshot of the NPT simulation were saved and used to initiate the solvent equilibration step. This procedure ensures that ions and water molecules reach equilibrium before the production runs. For this purpose, we used a further restrained, 60-ns long NVT run keeping all the settings from the previous section the same except the barostats were turned, off and Velocity scaling was employed.⁶⁶

Supplementary Figures and Analysis



Figure S1: Free energy at the unfolding transition where folded and unfolded populations of RNA are equal. The effect of force (f) on the landscape F_f is given as $F_f(x) = F_0(x) - fx$, with x the displacement along the pulling direction. (A) is for K^+ , and (B) is for Na^+ . Major intermediate states are represented by vertical lines that explained in Fig. 2. The minimum at the midpoint force corresponds to I1 state where additional stabilization occurs due to non-native contact formation explained in Figure S2.



Figure S2: Average number of inter-residue hydrogen bond formation as a function of extension for HIV-1 TAR hairpin in NaCl. The average number of hydrogen bonds were computed between segments 6U-14C and 21U-37C. Insets show representative structures at $x \approx 10.1$, 11.1, 13.1, and 15.1 nm. The residues that form hydrogen bonds are highlighted in blue. Similar results obtained for RNA in KCl

Conformational entropy and radius of gyration analysis. To elucidate the mechanism of cation size on RNA stability we compute the conformational entropy and the degree of compaction as a function of extension. As the RNA unfolds the conformational entropy increases (Fig. S3A). A linear increase in the entropy between $x \approx (0-9nm)$ coincides with the unzipping of the extended stem region. Interestingly, unzipping in the range $x \approx (9-16 nm)$ results in a smaller change in entropy because it involves disruption of 3-nt apical loop region, which is structurally already disordered even in the folded state. The rupture of the base pair 36U-18A (Inset in Fig. 2A-B) results in an abrupt increase in entropy. The rupture coincides well with the transition state location (Fig. 2A-B). After the transition state, the entropy change shows a linear increase with extension.

The change in the radius of gyration (R_g) of RNA on the other hand, is impervious to increase in the extension at $x \approx (0 - 8 nm)$, as is evident from the nearly flat region in Fig. S3(B). After the rupture of the lower stem (Fig. 2A-B) the R_g ramps up. However, neither entropy, nor radius of gyration show cation size related differences.



Figure S3: The change in the RNA conformational entropy and RNA compaction as RNA undergoes unfolding transition with applied force. The RNA in the presence of KCl (orange) or in NaCl (blue). A) The change in the RNA conformational entropy in (TS) as a function of extension. B) The change in the radius of gyration during the unfolding process.



Figure S4: Radial distribution function (RDF) of water molecules around the surface of HIV-1 TAR hairpin at the folded and unfolded states. Data for Na^+ and K^+ are given in blue and orange, respectively. A-B) RDF of water (W) with the RNA surface (s) at the folded and at the unfolded states respectively. (C-D) Changes in the cumulative number of water molecules around RNA as a function of extension. The number of surface-bound water molecules was calculated based on equation 1. C) Directly binding water coordination (set by cut-off: 0.22 nm) and, D) in directly binding water coordination (cut-off: 0.36 nm).



Figure S5: Radial distribution function (RDF) of cation–RNA, $g_{X-S}(r)$, for the unfolded state U.



Figure S6: Solvent accessible surface area (SASA) computed along the unfolding pathway. A) SASA of the major grooves and, B) SASA of the phosphate groups. Na^+ (blue) and K^+ (orange)

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