A Framework for Modeling DNA based Molecular Systems ^{*}

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Abstract. In this paper, we propose a framework for a discrete event simulator for simulating the DNA based nano-robotical systems. We describe a physical model that captures the conformational changes of the solute molecules. We also present methods to simulate various chemical reactions due to the molecular collisions, including hybridization, dehybridization and strand displacement. The feasibility of such a framework is demonstrated by some preliminary results.

1 Introduction and related work

Recent research has explored DNA as a material for self-assembly of nanoscale objects [19, 47, 58, 75, 96, 100, 101], for performing computation [1, 11, 9, 10, 55, 54, 57, 94, 95, 97], and for the construction of nano-mechanical devices [2, 20, 21, 28, 53, 59, 86, 70, 76–79, 89, 88, 102, 106, 107]. One key application of an autonomous unidirectional DNA device is to perform computation. Recently Yin proposed the design of an autonomous universal turing machine and cellular automata [105, 104]. One potential application beyond computation is the design of a controllable moving device which can be integrated into a DNA lattice for efficient transportation. One major challenge in the design of DNA based devices is the cost and time required for the experiments. Computer simulations can be performed to capture the essential physical and chemical properties, and serve as an effective tool in the design process.

Our method of simulation is different from the commonly used Gillespi algorithm [33, 42, 34, 90, 32, 69]. In the system of our interests, the geometry of the nano-structures plays an important role apart from the concentrations of the reactants and the reaction rates. Physical simulations are performed to model the molecular conformations and the chemical reactions are monitored explicitly.

Sales-Pardo et. al. modeled a ssDNA as a bead-pin rotational polymer chain and used a modified Monte Carlo simulation to investigate the dynamics of a single-stranded DNA and its associated hybridization events [72]. The geometric constraints of the nucleic chain was handled by a lattice model [72]. Isambert and Siggia modeled RNA helices as rods and single stranded RNA as Gaussian chains [38]. Kinetic Monte Carlo method was used to sample RNA conformational changes [38]. They also used the short-scale and the large-scale conformation descriptors, i.e. *nets* and *crosslinked gel*,

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to model geometric constraints related to complex RNA folding conformations. Bois et. al. investigated the possible effects of topological constraints in DNA hybridization kinetics [13]. Recently Dirks et. al. developed an algorithm aiming at analyzing the thermodynamics of unpseudo-knotted multiple interacting DNA strands in a dilute solution [27].

In this paper, we describe a framework for the design of a discrete event simulator, which simulates DNA based nano-robotical devices. Section 2 gives an overview of the system. Section 3 describes the physical simulation of the molecules. Section 4 discusses the event simulation based on the kinetic and thermodynamic studies. Section 5 describes the adaptive time-steps to optimize the physical simulation, and Section 6 describes the analysis of the complete algorithm. Section 7 presents some preliminary results to support such a framework. Discussions and future work is described in Section 8. It should be noted that in this paper, we present the framework for building such a simulator and not the simulator itself.

2 Discrete Event Simulation

The simulator performs the molecular-level simulations and provides an useful tool to study DNA based nano-mechanical devices. It has two major components. The first component is the physical simulation of the molecule conformations. The second component is the event simulation (hybridization, dehybridization and strand displacement events) which depends on the kinetics, thermodynamics and geometry of the molecules. Due to the large number of molecules in a given solution, we sample and simulate molecules within a small cell volume, assuming the solution is well mixed.

The modeled system consists of three types of molecules, single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) and complex DNA nano-structure with both single-stranded and double stranded segments, as shown in Figure 2. We assume no self-hybridization and no pseudo-knots formation for the complex DNA nano-structures. Therefore, to the first approximation, the complex DNA nano-structures are reducible to a collection of WLC segments with different parameters, i. e. persistence length. For more complicated DNA nano-structures, we can adapt the geometric descriptors used in [38, 13], as discussed in section 8.

During the simulation, three types of reaction take place in the solution: the hybridization between a pair of ssDNA segments with complementary base-pairing, the dehybridization of the dsDNA portion of a nano-structure and the strand displacement. The DNA molecule contains potential hybridization sites at its free-end (sticky ends).

Fig. 1. Schematic view of the molecules in the modeled system. Bold solid lines represent the WLC model used for dsDNA segments while thin solid lines represent the WLC model used for ssDNA segments.

During the simulation, when two molecule come into contact (reactive collision), a potential hybridization event is reported. The corresponding free-end base-pairs are investigated to determine the probability of its actual occurrence. Strand displacement is a reaction in which two strands compete against each other to hybridize with a common strand as shown in Figure 2. Strand *B* and *C* compete against each other to hybridize with strand *A*. At a time instance, *B* (or *C*) makes one more bond with *A* and removes one bond of *C* (or *B*).

The required discrete event simulation with Δt as the time-interval is described as follows. Algorithm 1 describes the major steps of the simulation. m_i is a data structure that stores individual molecular configurations, including sequence and secondary structure. MQ stores all m_i in the system. T is the total simulation time. Δt is the simulation time per step. *Initialize* is a function that initialize the MQ based on the user input. The detailed algorithms are described in the subsequent sections.

Algorithm 2 describes steps involved in generating random conformations for all molecules in the system. *Enqueue* and *Dequeue* are standard queueing operations that insert and delete an element in the queue. *MCSimulation*(m) generates new conformation for the molecule m .

Algorithm 3 describes reactive collision detection which leads to potential hybridization events. *Collide*(m_i, m_j) returns true if the sticky ends of molecule m_i and m_j collide. e is a data structure that stores an event (hybridization, dehybridization or strand displacement), including all the molecular configurations involved in the event and inter-molecule relations. For example, in the case of hybridization, it stores the molecular configurations and the information of the hybridization sites. *HEvent*(m_i, m_j) creates a potential hybridization event based on colliding molecule m_i and m_j . *HQ* stores all potential hybridization events.

Algorithm 4 presents algorithm involved in hybridization. *Hybridize*(e) probabilistically determines the hybridization product based on the change in free energy as described in Section 4. *PotentialSD*(e) returns true if event e is a potential strand-displacement event. *SDQ* stores all potential strand-displacement events. *Update*(MQ, e) updates the configurations of the molecule in the system based on the occurred event e .

Algorithm 5 describes dehybridization event. *PotentialD*(m) returns true if molecule m could potentially dehybridize. *Dehybridization*(m) probabilistically dehybridizes molecule m .

Algorithm 6 shows the steps involved in the strand displacement event. *StrandDisplacement*($e, \Delta t$) probabilistically proceeds with the strand displacement event e within time frame Δt . *IncompleteSD*(e) returns true if the strand displacement event has not completed within the given time frame.

Fig. 2. Strand displacement: molecule *B* and *C* compete against each other to hybridize with molecule *A*.

Algorithm 1 Discrete Event Simulation

```
1: Initialize(MQ)
2: while  $t \leq T$  do
3:    $t = t + \Delta t$ 
4:   {PHYSICAL SIMULATION}
5:   Physical simulation
6:   Collision detection
7:   {EVENT SIMULATION}
8:   Hybridization
9:   Dehybridization
10:  Strand displacement
11: end while
```

Algorithm 2 Physical Simulation

```
1: for  $\forall m_i \in MQ$  do
2:   MCSimulation( $m_i$ )
3: end for
```

Algorithm 3 Collision Detection

```
1: for  $\forall m_i, m_j \in MQ, i \neq j$  do
2:   if collide( $m_i, m_j$ ) then
3:      $e = \text{HEvent}(m_i, m_j)$ 
4:     Enqueue( $HQ, e$ )
5:   end if
6: end for
```

Algorithm 4 Hybridization

```
1: while HQ is NOT empty do
2:    $e = \text{Dequeue}(HQ)$ 
3:    $e^* = \text{Hybridize}(e)$ 
4:   if PotentialSD( $e^*$ ) then
5:     Enqueue( $SDQ, e^*$ )
6:   end if
7:   Update( $MQ, e^*$ )
8: end while
```

Algorithm 5 Dehybridization

```
1: for  $\forall m_i \in MQ$  do
2:   if PotentialD( $m_i$ ) then
3:      $e = \text{Dehybridization}(m_i)$ 
4:     Update( $MQ, e$ )
5:   end if
6: end for
```

Algorithm 6 Strand Displacement

```
1: while SDQ is NOT empty do
2:    $e = \text{Dequeue}(SDQ)$ 
3:    $e^* = \text{StrandDisplacement}(e, \Delta t)$ 
4:   if IncompleteSD( $e^*$ ) then
5:     Enqueue( $SDQ^*, e^*$ )
6:   end if
7:   Update( $MQ, e^*$ )
8: end while
9:  $SDQ = SDQ^*$ 
```

Algorithm 7 MCSimulation (m), $m \in MQ$

```
1:  $m^* = \text{RandomConformation}(m)$ 
2: if SelfCollision( $m^*$ ) then
3:   continue to next iteration
4: end if
5:  $\Delta E = E(m^*) - E(m)$ 
6: if ( $\Delta E > 0$ ) then
7:    $x \in_{var} [0, 1]$ 
8:   if ( $x > \exp(-\frac{\Delta E}{K_B T})$ ) then
9:     continue to next iteration
10:  end if
11: end if
12:  $m = m^*$ 
```

3 Physical simulation

The discrete worm-like chain model (WLC) is used to model the polymer-like DNA molecules in solution. Monte Carlo (MC) computer simulations are used to determine their conformations.

3.1 Discrete Wormlike Chain Model

The advancement of single molecule dynamics offers experimental validations of various DNA polymer models, among which Gaussian Chain Model, Freely-Jointed Chain (FJC) and Worm-Like Chain (WLC) are widely investigated [67, 45, 39, 81, 65, 29, 44, 5, 99, 80, 48, 14, 15, 46]. The choice of a polymer model depends on the physical property of the DNA chain, affordable computation and molecular-details of interest [26].

Our simulation is constructed using the discrete wormlike chain model. Marko and Siggia used the model to derive the elastic theory suitable for DNA and further completed the model to include bending and twisting elasticity of DNA and the free energy required for deformation [60, 61]. Bustamante et al. proposed an interpolation of the Marko-Siggia model for fitting and experimental elasticity curve of single DNA molecules [15]. Klenin et al. modeled linear and circular DNA where the DNA polymers are represented by a WLC of stiff segments connected by bending torsion and stretching potentials [43]. Tinnoco et. al. used WLC as their polymer chain conformation to investigate force effect on thermodynamics and kinetics of single molecule reaction [87]. Larson et al used a similar model to predict the behavior of tethered dsDNA in a constant-velocity flow [51, 25]. Experimental data has shown some reasonably good agreement with the model [64].

The DNA molecule (Figure 3.1) is initialized as $N + 1$ beads ($0, 1 \dots N$) connected by N mass-less extendable segments (springs) of the same length [25, 31, 52]. The contour length of the chain is L . The position of the bead i is denoted as $\mathbf{x}_i$. The segment vectors are given by

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_{i-1} \quad (1)$$

Therefore the chain is represented by a set of $N + 1$ vectors $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$ [18]. We use WLC to model ssDNA, dsDNA and complex DNA nanostructure. Specifically for complex DNA nanostructure, different parameters are applied to different segments of the chain depending on whether the segment is double-stranded or single-stranded.

3.2 Monte Carlo Simulation

The molecules are simulated through Monte Carlo simulation for a desired number of time steps as Algorithm 7. According to the Metropolis algorithm used in the simulation, $E(m)$ is the energy associated with conformation of molecule m . The computation of $E(m)$ will be discussed in a later section. ΔE is defined as the energy change of the system due to the new conformation. K_B is the Boltzman constant,

Fig. 3. WLC model

and T is the absolute temperature. MQ is the set of all molecules in the simulation. *RandomConformation* is a function that achieves a new conformation of the molecule through random walk in three dimension. *SelfCollision* detects and excludes the self-crossing conformations. The detail algorithm is shown in Algorithm 7. Similar methods have been used in [108, 7, 56]. To achieve random conformation of the molecules, more permutations can be used such as random rotation of an interval chain or bond-length change, which are described in [108].

3.3 Collision Detection: Cylinder Model

To simulate the motion of the molecule, each segment occupies a finite volume. Instead of using repulsive forces (weak and short-ranged) to maintain the excluded volume of the individual segments of the chain [17], for two disjoint segments, we assume a minimum distance D between them in three-dimension. In other words, we assume each segment is a cylinder with a certain radius R , when two cylinders contact ($2R \geq D$), a collision occurs (Figure 3.3). If the two cylinders belong to the same chain, the self-avoiding criteria is violated. If the two cylinders belong to neighboring DNA molecules, a potential hybridization event occurs.

Fig.4. Collision detection in 3D

3.4 Random Conformation

The random conformation of the DNA molecule is generated by a random walk in three dimension. Based on [6],

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{R}_i \quad (2)$$

where $\Delta \mathbf{x}_i$ is the change of $\mathbf{x}_i$ in time step Δt , $\mathbf{R}_i$ is the random displacement. Let D be the diffusion coefficient, we assume $\mathbf{R}_i$ as a Gaussian random variable which is distributed according to

$$W(\mathbf{R}_i) = (4A\pi)^{-3/2} \exp(-\mathbf{R}_i/4A) \quad (3)$$

where $A = D\Delta t$. The diffusion coefficient D of a macromolecule in an ideal dilute solution is computed according to $D = K_B T / f$, where f is the hydrodynamic frictional coefficient of the macromolecule [83]. f of a rigid, rod-like molecule can be written as $f = 3\pi\eta L / (\ln \rho + \gamma)$, where η is the viscosity of the solution, L is the length of the DNA molecule, ρ is the axial ratio and γ is a correction for end effects [83].

3.5 Energy

Now we describe how we calculate $E(m)$ as stated in Algorithm 7. Our current simplified model neglects the following energies though more accurate model should take

them into consideration [108, 24]: pairing potential between complementary bases, stacking energy from the vertical interactions between neighboring base pairs and hydrodynamic interaction energy with the solvent. We shall consider the torsional rigidity in the forms of bending torque and twisting torque for the DNA molecules in a more sophisticated model. The total energy of a DNA conformation is given as the sum of stretching, bending, twisting and electrostatic interaction energy among negatively charged phosphate groups along the chain [43, 108, 49], which are denoted as E^s , E^b , E^t and E^e , respectively.

$$E^{total} = E^s + E^b + E^t + E^e \quad (4)$$

Stretching Energy. The stretching energy is defined as

$$E^s = \frac{1}{2}Y \sum_{i=1}^N (u_i - l_0)^2 \quad (5)$$

where l_0 is the segment equilibrium length, Y is the stiffness parameter defined previously [108].

Please refer to [74] for description of the *bending energy*, *twisting energy*, *electrostatic energy*, and other physical models.

3.6 Parameters

We use WLC model for both ssDNA and dsDNA for modeling consistency, it is important to notice that there are different set of parameters used for each of them.

Parameters for ssDNA. Let L be the contour length of the ssDNA, $L = l_{bp}N_{bp} = l_0N$. l_{bp} is the length of the ssDNA per base pair. N_{bp} is the number of bases. N is the number of beads (monomer) in our WLC model. l_0 is the length per segment. The average length of ssDNA in the system is approximately 25 – 30 *bp*. According to [103], $l_{bp} = 0.7 \text{ nm}$. Many groups have obtained the force/extension data for ssDNA in different salt environment [108, 81, 71, 8, 16]. Parameters used in our model is obtained from [108], where $l_0 = 1.5 \text{ nm}$ and $Y = 120 \text{ } K_B T / \text{nm}^2$. The persistence length $P = 0.7 \text{ nm}$ [81]. The diffusion coefficient D of ssDNA is obtained from [83] as approximately $1.52 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for a 20 *bp* strand. The diameter of the ssDNA backbone is 1 *nm* [23].

Parameters for dsDNA. For dsDNA, the parameters associated with the equations are difference, i.e. $l_0 = 100 \text{ nm}$ [43, 22, 62], $P = 50 \text{ nm}$, $Y = 3K_B T / 2P$ [22, 84], $l_{bp} = 0.34 \text{ nm}$ [103], and $D = 1.07 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ [83]. For short dsDNA segment (20 *bp*), WLC model can be simplified as the straight, rigid cylinder model with reasonable adequacy [3, 62]. WLC models are used for simulation consistency.

3.7 Motion of the complex nano-structure.

The MC simulation described previously can be applied to the complex nano-structure. Since it is reducible to a collection of ssDNA and dsDNA WLC segments, perturbations of each segment is done independently. The total energy is computed as

a summation of the energies associated with individual segments. For more accurate model, loop energy and the energy associated with each branching point should also be considered.

3.8 Physical model for hybridization

Though extensive research has been done for RNA folding simulation [30, 98], to the best of our knowledge, there is no empirical results that describe: 1) the location of contact that initializes the hybridization; 2) the motions of each individual strands during the hybridizations; nor 3) the actual physical location of the hybridized products relative to other molecules in the system. We make the following hypothesis: 1) location of contact is not explicitly modeled in the simulation; 2) upon collision that leads to potential hybridization, two strands immediately align their bases involved in the formation of duplex with the right orientation; 3) during the hybridization process, the displacement of the two strands is inversely proportional to their mass (or number of bases in the structure). The model can be subsequently improved as the empirical evidence become available. Figure 3.8 illustrates one schematic to depict our hypothesis.

Fig. 5. Figure illustrates various steps wrt the physical motion of the strands during hybridization.

4 Event Simulation

In the event simulation module, we use thermodynamics and kinetics principles to calculate the probabilities of various events. Possible events in our systems are hybridization, dehybridization (melting/dissociation) and strand displacement.

4.1 Hybridization

The nearest-neighbor (NN) model is used to model the hybridization event[41]. The model assumes that the stability of a given base-pair depends on the identity and orientation of neighboring base pairs [41]. Empirical data are used to determine parameters for all possible alignments of base pairs. The model has been shown to describe the thermodynamics of DNA structure that involves mismatches and neighboring base pairs beyond the Watson-Crick pairs [68, 73]. When a potential hybridization event that involves molecules m_1 and m_2 is detected due to a collision, the simulator examines all possible alignments of m_1 and m_2 . For hybridization according to alignment i , its free energy ΔG_i° is computed using the NN model. Let $m_1 m_2^i$ be its hybridization product. Let p_i be the stability measurement of $m_1 m_2^i$, $p_i \propto \exp(-\Delta G_i^\circ / RT)$. Let P_h^i be the

probability of hybridization according to alignment i , for all p_j that exceeds a given threshold, we have

$$P_h^i = \frac{p_i}{\sum_j p_j} \quad (6)$$

4.2 Dehybridization

Let P_d be the dehybridization probability of a molecule m_1m_2 and $[m_1m_2]$ be its concentration. Let k_r be the reverse rate constant, R_r be the reverse rate, where $R_r = k_r[m_1m_2]$. The number of molecules dehybridized in time Δt is $R_r\Delta t$. Therefore the probability that the molecule m_1m_2 dehybridizes in Δt can be approximated as

$$P_d = \frac{k_r[m_1m_2]\Delta t}{[m_1m_2]} = k_r\Delta t \quad (7)$$

Refer to [74] for more details.

4.3 Strand Displacement

Strand displacement is modeled as a random walk in which the direction of movement of the branch point along the DNA is chosen probabilistically and is independent of its previous movements. It has been shown that the branch migration and strand displacement is a biased random walk due to mismatches [12]. In other words, migration probability towards the direction with mismatches are substantially decreased. Based on Figure 2, molecule ABC is denoted as the DNA nanostructure involving molecule A , B and C before the strand displacement. Let G_{ABC}° be its free energy. Denote G_{rABC}° and G_{lABC}° as the free energy of ABC after 1 base pair migration towards right, and left, respectively. Let $\Delta G_r^\circ = G_{rABC}^\circ - G_{ABC}^\circ$ and $\Delta G_l^\circ = G_{lABC}^\circ - G_{ABC}^\circ$. Let p_r be the probability of the right-directional migration and p_l be the probability of the left-directional migration. It has been shown in [12] that $p_r \propto \exp(-\Delta G_r^\circ/RT)$, similarly $p_l \propto \exp(-\Delta G_l^\circ/RT)$, where the change of free energies can be computed by the NN model described previously.

5 Adaptive time step

We use adaptive time steps in our simulation. The simulation captures various processes at different time-scales. Ideally, the smallest time unit should be chosen as the time step $\delta t \sim 10^{-6}$ to resolve the conformations and trajectory of each individual molecule using the WLC model and MC simulation. Inspired by ideas in the kinetic Monte Carlo method [92], long-time system dynamics of the system consists of diffusive jumps from state to state. There are series of simulation steps where no collisions take place and molecules remain far apart. We attempt to overcome the limitations of such a short time-scale approach. In other words, we differ the time intervals between long-ranged molecules and short-ranged molecules.

If all the strands are far apart, we can guarantee that within a particular time-interval δT there will not be any collisions. We treat each molecule in the system as a unit of

rigid body and assign a random momentum to each unit. We apply this large-scale time step δT as the simulation step at that instance. δT moves the entire system from state to state, which is computationally efficient. We store the distance between the closest pair of potential reactive molecules. As the distance reaches a given threshold where the conformations of molecules can no longer being ignored, we change to a smaller-scale time step δt .

6 Algorithm analysis

The major portion of the time taken by the algorithm is in the physical simulation, so it suffices to analyze the time-complexity of the physical simulation of the molecules in the system. The discrete WLC model is used to replace the continuous WLC for computational simplification. As the (discrete) WLC consists of N segments, it is an approximation that improves as N increase. For a WLC simulation of a single chain (dsDNA or ssDNA), due to the self-collision detections, it runs in $O(N^2)$ time for a single simulation step. Similar analysis applies to complex DNA nano-structures where N is equal in this case to the total number of double-stranded or single-stranded segments in the structure. Let M be the total number of the molecules in the small cell volume. For a long-ranged simulation period, each molecule in the system is treated as a rigid unit. Therefore the complexity per simulation step is $O(M)$. If M' is the number of molecule pairs that reach the short-range simulation threshold, then the simulation time per step is $O(M'N^2)$.

7 Preliminary Results

Our preliminary results demonstrate the feasibility of such a framework in modeling DNA based molecular systems.

7.1 Physical Simulation

The results presented here are obtained using the less computer-intensive Monte Carlo simulation of a discrete WLC model. The physical simulation module is demonstrated through the simulation of a tethered ssDNA. The same module applies to the modeling of other DNA molecules in the system. For demonstration purpose, we neglect twisting energy and focus primarily on the stretching energy and optional bending energy of the tethered DNA. Ideally, relatively long runs are carried out to generate initial conditions for simulations of the tethered-DNA chains, allowing the chains to reach their equilibrium configurations [52]. Then these configurations are saved for the actual simulation. The figures shown here are snapshots of a simulation during different time steps, from both 2D and 3D (Figure 7.1) perspective, visualized by Matlab.

Fig. 6. 2D and 3D snapshots of the simulation for a single tethered DNA

The scales for the x -axis and the y -axis are enlarged to show the details of the conformational changes relative to the horizontal plane. The simulations are preliminary but promising.

7.2 Event Simulation

We present here a snapshot of a hybridization event in simulation based on our framework in Figure 7.2. Bold black lines represent the double stranded DNA regions, while the thinner lines are single-stranded. The ssDNA we display in the above snapshots are 20 – 30 bp .

Fig. 7. Simulation of a hybridization event.

8 Discussion and Future work

We presented a comprehensive framework for building a software tool for simulating DNA based molecular system, and not the actual software tool itself. It is important to note that, as a framework, the physical simulation component and event simulation component can be decoupled as we improve each component individually. As we improve the accuracy of the physical simulation, i.e. to reflect topological constraints by modeling more complicated DNA nano-structures such as pseudo-knots [38, 13]; to provide more biophysical sound behavior of DNA strands by considering stacking energy and electrostatic energy; or to achieve the molecular details by replacing the MC simulation with a BD simulation once computational resources are available, we can validate its correctness against polymer theory and experimental data, i.e. average radius of gyration and the diffusion constant. We can constantly update the physical simulation component to result in more realistic simulation.

During the physical simulation the random perturbations often lead to a configuration that can be achieved only with a low probability. Can we optimize the simulation so that we sample a larger space of configurations to avoid these with low probability, therefore making the simulation more computational efficient?

The first extension to our framework is to consider more complicated interactions, i.e. the enzyme restriction event and the hairpin formation. The second extension is to incorporate sequence design capabilities. We would like to design and optimize sequences based on the given nano-structure conformations. Furthermore, a conformation change of a nano-device can be decomposed into units of local deformations to ease the sequence design.

We believe that the methods presented here make a good framework for designing the simulator for DNA based molecular systems. The preliminary results in this paper support the feasibility of the approach. We describe that it is possible to capture geometric constraints of the molecules with the polymer theory and MC simulation. We also described the approximations and limitations in this framework and the ways of improving them.

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