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Using QM/MM methods to explore Sortase Enzyme Intermediates, Kinetics, and Stability

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Using QM/MM methods to explore Sortase Enzyme Intermediates, Kinetics, and Stability

By

Kyle Maxwell Whitham

Accepted in Completion Of the Requirements for the Degree Master's of Science

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

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Master's Thesis

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Kyle Whitham

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Using QM/MM methods to explore Sortase Enzyme Intermediates, Kinetics, and Stability

A Thesis Presented to The Faculty of Western Washington University

In Partial Fulfilment Of the Requirements for the Degree Master's of Science

> By Kyle Maxwell Whitham August 2023

Abstract

Biochemistry has seen advancements in methods and understanding of the inner workings of proteins, yet biochemists struggle to see real time reaction pathways of protein intermediates. This is where computational chemistry comes in and fills in the holes in knowledge through the use of Quantum Mechanical (QM) models. QM chemistry alone does not give results in a reasonable timescale to predict protein chemistry in a reasonable amount of time. Computational chemistry methods such as Quantum mechanical (QM)/ Molecular Mechanical (MM) (QM/MM), allow us to split the *in-silico* system into two regions that utilize a fast MM force field region and slow, but a chemically accurate, (QM) region. Our project will utilize docking programs and QM/MM methods to give accurate results in a reasonable timeframe to show the intermediate pathway in the Sortase A/B enzyme, meta-stable and stable intermediate information on the ligand and Sortase B enzyme structure. Several docking suites: AutoDock, FlexPepDock, a manual docking procedure, and a predicted folded structure from AlphaFold will be used to dock the *Bacillus anthracis* Sortase B (baSrtB) ligand to the active site of the enzyme. baSrtB simulation is supplemented by single point energy calculations of specific frames of structures to be used as a reference to compare to the Free Energy Surface (FES) results. This thesis will show that we have successfully modeled the Sortase B from *Bacillus anthracis* showing the accurate intermediate pathway.

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1 Introduction:

 In the field of biochemistry, a long-standing goal is to know at atomistic resolution a reaction pathway inside of a protein when multiple complex intermediates are present. High-energy transitions states that represent kinetic barriers are short-lived,^[1] making conventional biochemistry methods too slow to see the intermediates happen in real time. Structural biochemistry methods that rely on creating a covalently bound intermediate with a resolved crystal structure, which is obtained either through X-ray crystallography or through Cryogenic Electron Microscopy (Cryo EM)^[2], can take weeks or months to grow a crystal and a usable crystal can take longer to form. On top of growing a crystal, a protein crystal can fail in Cryo EM due to a crystal cracking that occurs when transferring a crystal to the Cryo solution rendering months of work useless. As an alternative, computational chemistry working in tandem with structural biochemistry can provide greater insight into the mechanisms of enzymes.

Computational chemistry allows one to investigate the dynamics of a molecule as the system evolves in time on the picosecond to up to microsecond time scales^[3]. Sampling dynamic conformations at this time scale allows biochemists to quantify structural fluctuations, observe interactions of small molecules with amino acid side chains important for ligand specificity and recognition, and track reaction mechanisms^[3].

In this work, several different, but complementary, computational chemistry methods will be employed. Molecular Dynamics (MD) uses classical Newtonian physics to propagate the system in time using Molecular Mechanics (MM) force fields ^[3]. Performing Classical MD on modern GPU hardware makes it possible to run trajectories in the microsecond timescale for medium-sized proteins in solution with an integration timestep of 1 fs. Classical MD is thus useful for studying protein conformational dynamics that evolve over 100s of nanoseconds where no covalent bonds are breaking or forming $^{[3]}$. This makes MD simulations good for visualizing protein stability, hydrophobic/hydrophilic interactions, and dimerization interactions on the surface of the protein. For viewing bond breaking/forming events we need to use Quantum Mechanics (QM) to calculate the ground state electronic structure that changes during the formation or breaking of a chemical bond. QM simulations, while more accurate, are more computationally expensive than MD simulations^[4]. In this work, I will describe my efforts

to use a hybrid approach, QM/MM that is capable of bridging the gap between these two methods and enable more efficient simulations that can show bond breaking and forming events within protein enzymes. My goal is to apply these methods to study sortase chemistry that has important application in human health and protein engineering.

The thesis is organized as follows. First, in the Introduction, I will describe the necessary background on sortase chemistry, motivation for this research, and the computational methods that will be used in this study. Next, I will describe different computational approaches I have employed to study sortase chemistry. I will discuss molecular docking approaches to predict the holoenzyme/ligand complex structure. This provides a starting structure from which to perform QM/MM simulations. I will then describe QM/MM simulations of three different systems: 1) sortase A in solution, 2) sortase B in solution, and 3) a smaller, minimal model of the sortase B active site in complex with the ligand, that is more computationally efficient than the full systems. After a discussion of the results of these simulations, I will discuss future directions and areas for continued research.

1.1 Sortase Chemistry:

Figure 1) In white the LPATG substrate peptide is shown bound in the active site of *Staphylococcus aureus* Sortase A (Periwinkle). On the Sortase A protein the catalytic cysteine and histidine with the stabilizing arginine are labeled. The target for catalysis is shown with the black dotted line to form the thiol bond. The intended targets for the stabilization are shown in yellow and green for arginine and histidine respectively.

 Sortase chemistry has been increasingly relevant to the field of protein engineering. Sortase enzymes are cysteine transpeptidases localized to the surface of Gram-positive bacteria. They play an important role in attaching proteins to the peptidoglycan cell wall. Sortases recognize and cleave specific target sequences, followed by ligation to a second fragment that contains an amine nucleophile ^[4-7]. The most studied sortase is Sortase A from Staphylococcus aureus (saSrtA). saSrtA recognizes the pentapeptide LPXTG motif, cleaving between the T and G residues, then ligating the LPXT- fragment to a lipid II molecule that is embedded in the cell wall^[4-6]. The ligation of the LPXTG motif is made possible by a stable intermediate formed by the catalytic cysteine 208 and substrate Threonine (P1 position) peptide carbon shown in figure 1. The full catalytic pathway with the thioester intermediate formed by the cysteine is then broken when a poly-Glycine nucleophile comes in and ligates the thiol intermediate to the poly-Glycine tail and restores the cysteine active site shown in Scheme 1. While most of the literature concerns the saSrtA, other sortases recognize a different peptide motif and have different activity and selectivity. Despite these differences, every Sortase A and B is expected to follow the same basic catalysis method involving a catalytic triad of His, Cys, Arg that is highly conserved among class A and B sortases. However, the conservation of the catalytic triad does not explain the differences in enzyme kinetics between Sortase A and B. Differences in the recognition motif based on the class of sortase and organism it is found in^[9] are shown in Table 1.

Scheme 1) Shown is the full reaction pathway from Apo-enzyme (A) to the intermediate formed by the *Staphylococcus aureus* Sortase A of the LPXT-Cys thiol bond (B). Finally releasing the LPXT-thiol substrate via nucleophilic attack by the Poly-Glycine (C).

The transpeptidation reaction of the sortase enzyme makes sortase-mediated-ligation (SML) a powerful tool in protein engineering. A truncated version of the protein consisting of just the carboxy terminal catalytic domain is soluble in water, making the enzyme suitable for *in* vitro applications. SML utilizes ^[9] two different polypeptide chains with the five amino acid sortase recognition motif on one of the target proteins, and a poly-Glycine tail that has been added to the end of the other target protein. Following the same reaction scheme as Scheme 1, SML can be used to ligate drug payloads, polypeptides, synthetic proteins, and solid support particles to one another. The ability to ligate different targets, especially drug payloads, has allowed SML to come into the eye of biochemists. However, recent work suggests that saSrtA may not be broadly representative of other Sortase A enzymes and biochemists still have a very limited understanding of the catalytic mechanism of other classes of sortases including the class

B Sortases. Class B sortases have a different recognition motif, NPKTG, from Class A sortases. This change in recognition motif could guide us to make discoveries about binding specificity. With only two changes in amino acid sequence (from LPXTG to NPKTG) in saSrtA to baSrtB, we expect that a major charge-based interactions are occurring with the Asn and Lys of the baSrtB ligand to key residues on the protein structure to allow substrate recognition.

1.2 Molecular mechanics, Quantum Molecular Mechanics, and QM/MM:

 Molecular dynamics (MD) is a computational method for investigating the motion of atoms given some initial value of the nuclear positions and velocities and the forces acting on each atom. The equation of motion is computed numerically on the computer at a finite (small) timestep. After a period of equilibration, the dynamic trajectory of the atomic positions as a function of time can be used to calculate observables of interest. These may be equilibrium (thermodynamic) quantities such as energies or dynamic quantities such as time correlation functions.

In general, MD simulations can be performed using any suitable method of describing the molecules and calculating the forces acting on the atomic nuclei. The starting point for any non-relativistic quantum system is the time-dependent Schrödinger equation:

$$
i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\{R_I\}, \{r_i\}, t) = \hat{H}(\{R_I\}, \{r_i\}) \Psi(\{R_I\}, \{r_i\}, t) \tag{1}
$$

where $\Psi(\{R_I\}, \{r_i\},t)$ is the wavefunction for the molecular system at time, t, that depends on the set of nuclear coordinates ($\{R_I\}$) and the set of electronic degrees of freedom ($\{r_i\}$), and $\widehat{H}(\{R_{I}\},\{r_{\hat{t}}\})$ is the Hamiltonian operator that contains kinetic energy terms for both the nuclei and electrons and the electron-electron, electron-nuclear, and nuclear-nuclear Coulomb interactions. A next step is to introduce the famous "Born-Oppenheimer" approximation by considering the electronic part of the Hamiltonian for fixed nuclei. The ground state electronic energy is then computed from the *time-independent* Schrödinger equation for the electrons at a *fixed* nuclear configuration {**R**}:

$$
\widehat{H_e}\psi_e = E_0\psi_e \tag{2}
$$

where it is noted that \widehat{H}_e depends parametrically on the nuclear positions ($\{R\}$). In *ab initio* Molecular Dynamics (AIMD), the electronic structure problem is solved concurrently to propagating the atomic nuclei according to classical mechanics^[10]. Because the electronic energy depends parametrically on the nuclear positions, the electronic energy must be computed at each iteration. From the perspective of the atomic nuclei, the nuclei move along an effective Born-Oppenheimer potential energy surface determined from the electronic degrees of freedom. The atomic nuclei are updated according to the equation of motion:

$$
M_I \frac{d^2 R_I}{dt^2} = -\nabla_{R_I} \min_{\psi_0} \{ \langle \psi_0 | \widehat{H_e} | \psi_0 \rangle \} \quad (3.a)
$$

where

$$
\min_{\psi_0} \{ \langle \psi_0 | \, \widehat{H_e} | \psi_0 \rangle \} = V^{BO}(\{R\}) \quad (3.b)
$$

defines an effective potential energy surface obtained by solving the time-independent Schrödinger equation (Equation 2). AIMD is not tied to any particular electronic structure method used to solve the time-independent Schrödinger equation, although very accurate methods are often prohibitively expensive. Several different methods have been used including density functional theory (DFT)^[11], Hartree-Fock^[12], generalized valence bond (GVB)^[13], complete active space SCF (CASSCF)^[13], second-order many-body perturbation theory (MP2)^[14], coupled cluster^[15], and semiempirical methods^[12]. Because it is often the best compromise between accuracy and computational efficiency, Kohn-Sham (KS) DFT $^{[16]}$ is a popular QM method for AIMD applications. In KS DFT, the ground state energy of an interacting system of electrons is obtained by minimizing the Kohn-Sham energy functional of the electron density:

$$
E_0 = \min_{\psi_0} {\{\psi_0 | \widehat{H_e} | \psi_0 \}} = \min_{\{\phi_i\}} E^{KS}[\{\phi_i\}] \tag{4}
$$

where the energy function $E^{KS}[\{\boldsymbol{\phi}_l\}]$ is optimized with respect to a set of auxiliary functions $\{\boldsymbol{\phi}_i\}$, the Kohn-Sham orbitals that satisfy the orthonormality relation:

$$
\int d\mathbf{r} \, \phi_i^*(r) \phi_j(\mathbf{r}) = \delta_{ij} \qquad (5)
$$

The advantage of this approach is that the full many-body wavefunctions $\psi_0(r_1, \ldots, r_N)$ are replaced by solving a system of single-electron equations (the Kohn-Sham equations) for a

system of non-interacting particles with a local potential energy that generates the same density as the fully interacting system:

$$
\rho(r) = \sum_{i} |\phi_i(r)|^2 \quad (6)
$$

The KS energy functional has the form

$$
E^{KS}[\{\phi_i\}] = E[\rho] = E_{KE}[\rho] + E_{ext}[\rho] + E_{Hartree}[\rho] + E_{ex}[\rho]
$$
\n
$$
(7)
$$

where the first term is the kinetic energy of a non-interacting reference system of electrons, the second term comes from the electron motion in a fixed external potential defined by nuclear positions and charges, the third term is the Hartree energy, and the last contribution is the exchange-correlation energy that results from the difference between the exact energy and the decomposition into the three previous Kohn-Sham terms. All the terms in the above expression are known apart from the exchange-correlation term. In practice, several different exchange-correlation functionals are widely used including the famous "Local Density Approximation" (LDA), "Generalized Gradient Approximation" (GGA)^[17], or hybrid functionals that include to some extent the Hartree-Fock exchange in addition to the standard GGA expression^[18]. In addition to the choice for the exchange-correlation functional, the basis set to use to represent the orbitals ϕ_i must also be specified. In general, the orbitals are represented as a linear combination of basis set functions:

$$
\phi_i(r) = \sum_{k=1} a_k g_k(r) \tag{8}
$$

where $\{g_k(r)\}$ are the basis functions that may be localized Gaussian-type basis functions (GTOs) or non-local plane waves (PW). The electronic structure in CP2K^[19] is calculated using the Quickstep module that uses a plane wave auxiliary basis set within a Gaussian orbital scheme (Gaussian and Plane Waves scheme or GPW). Although DFT methods are reasonably fast for systems of up to 100 atoms, a number of semi-empirical methods have been developed for treating large system where the full DFT method would be too computationally expensive. Semi-empirical methods are based on the Hartree-Fock method, but make approximation, usually by introducing empirical parameter sets (a parameter based on experimental results) to speed up the calculation. Semiempirical methods implemented in the CP2K program include AM1^[20,21], PM3, and PM6^[22] semiempirical methods. An alternative approximation to DFT is the DFTB (Density Functional based Tight-Binding) method^[23]. A more recent tight-binding method is the GFN-xTB extended tight binding semiempirical method^[24].

An even more drastic simplification is to approximate the Born Oppenheimer potential energy surface $V^{BO}(\lbrace R \rbrace)$ with an analytical function, usually using only two-body terms:

$$
V^{BO}(\{R\}) = \sum_{I < J} V(R_I, R_J) = V^{FF}(\{R_I\}) \tag{9}
$$

which is sometimes called the "force field." In this case the equation of motion (Equation 3) reduces to Newton's equation of motion for the atomic nuclei:

$$
M_I \frac{d^2 R_I}{dt^2} = -\nabla_{R_I} V^{FF}(\{R_I\})
$$
 (10)

Equation 10 is the purely classical equation of motion used in "Standard" molecular dynamics (MD). In force-field based MD, the electronic degrees of freedom are no longer included explicitly and are replaced by a set of empirical interaction potentials. These molecular mechanics (MM) potentials give the potential energy of the molecular system in terms of the positions of the atomic nuclei and are generally divided into a covalent-bond-type component (including bond, angle, and dihedral terms) and a non-covalent component (including electrostatic and van der Waals terms).

MM utilizes classical physics with point charges^[4] to simulate the vibrations and attractions of atoms in the simulation. A typical molecular mechanics potential energy function for biological systems takes the form:

$$
V^{FF}(\lbrace R_{I} \rbrace) = \sum_{bonds} \frac{k_{i}}{2} (l_{i} - l_{i,eq})^{2} + \sum_{angles} \frac{b_{i}}{2} (\theta_{i} - \theta_{i,eq})^{2} + \sum_{torsions} A_{i} [1 + \cos(n\omega_{i} - \phi_{i})] + \sum_{atoms pairs} 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}}\right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}}\right)^{6} \right] + \sum_{atoms pairs} \frac{q_{i}q_{j}}{\epsilon_{r_{ij}}} \qquad (11)
$$

The first three terms describe the covalent structure where the sum runs over all bonds, angles, and torsions. The last two terms account for the non-bonded van der Waals and electrostatic interactions, respectively, and the sum runs over all pairs of atoms separated by a distance $r_{ij} = | r_i - r_j |$, excluding chemically bonded pairs. Each step of the simulation calculates the force acting on each individual atom. Each atom's individual force is then applied to each atom over the time step in which your simulation is running. The position and velocities of the particles are updated in discrete time with a finite step that must be small enough to ensure stability of the numerical integration of the equation of motion (refer to eq 10). A typical

timestep used in classical MD is 2 fs. The accumulated data of positions and velocities as a function of time for all the atoms is called the trajectory, and provides information on both the structure and dynamics of the protein. The downside to classical MD is that through using classical physics (classical potential energy functions) we are unable to break and form bonds due to the neglect of the motion of electrons.

 Any system over the size of roughly 1000 atoms is not feasible to simulate on a relevant time scale at the full quantum mechanical (QM) level with the current state of the art hardware and software technologies. However, typical biological systems contain much more than 1000 atoms. A typical MD simulation contains 100,000 atoms with simulations times approaching 1 microsecond. This leads us to a hybrid system that allows for faster simulation time but still allows specific bonds to be formed or broken, QM/MM.

 Utilizing QM/MM allows computational chemists to speed up calculation time by treating the active site as a QM region and the rest of the system under MM parameters (figure 2A). The hybrid QM/MM potential energy contains three types of interactions in an additive scheme:

$$
E^{Total} = E^{QM} + E^{MM} + E^{QM/MM} \tag{12}
$$

The first term is the interactions between particles within the QM region and is computed directly within the QM system. The second term is the interactions between atoms in the MM region and is calculated directly within the MM system. The final term is the coupling between the QM particles and MM (classical) particles. This coupling term contains both a non-bonded term to accounts for non-covalent interactions between the QM atoms and the MM atoms and a bonded term that is included when a QM atom is bonded to an MM atom. The long-range electrostatic contribution to the interaction energy can be categorized by the type of coupling scheme used. In "mechanical embedding", there is no influence of the MM charge distribution on the QM atoms. In "electrostatic embedding" schemes, the electric field from the classical ions in the MM acts on the Gaussian basis functions through an additional term in the QM Hamiltonian. A third scheme is "polarized embedding" in which both the MM region and the QM region may polarize each other^[25]. Throughout this work, we will use an electrostatic embedding scheme to couple the QM and MM regions.


```
\hat{H}_{Tot} = \hat{H}_{OM} + \hat{H}_{MM} + \hat{H}_{OM/MM}
```
Figure 2A/B) A cartoon image of the summation of the Hamiltonian wave functions in the simulation to give the total Hamiltonian of the system. In the white box each atom that is outside of the QM region is treated as a point charge affecting the QM specified atoms. In green the Linker region is shown as it is outside the MM and QM region. Shown in Figure 2B is the breakdown of a Linker Atom. This atom rests between the backbone carbon and the side chain carbon. This Linker Atom allows the atoms of the QM and MM region to interact with one another.

Sometimes partitioning the system into QM regions and MM regions leads to a situation where at least one covalent exists between a QM atom and an MM atom. A straightforward cut through the QM/MM boundary would lead to spurious unpaired electrons in the QM subsystem because in reality these electrons are paired in bonding orbitals with electrons belonging to atoms in the MM subsystem. In this case, to avoid these so-called dangling valences, the boundary of the QM and MM region requires a monovalent "linking atom" to bridge the gap (figure 2B). This linking atom can act both as a QM atom and a MM atom and is usually added as a hydrogen atom, as it has the smallest orbital. The linking atom also possesses both an electron able to covalently bond with the QM region and a point charge able to interact with the MM region. We use the "Integrated Molecular Orbital and Molecular Mechanics" (IMOMM) method as implemented in CP2K. In this method, the extra degrees of freedom due to the linking atom are removed by constraining the MM linking atom along the bond vector of the linking atom bond via the relation:

$$
R_{MM} = \alpha R_{linking} + (1 - \alpha)R_{QM} \qquad (13)
$$

where R is the Cartesian coordinate of the subscripted atom, and α is a scaling factor. When a hydrogen linking atom is used to cap a single C-C bond, α is set to 1.38. Without the Linker atom the protein would either have to be simulated with full MM force fields or QM methods, sacrificing catalytic activity or extreme computational intensity respectively due to the protein being a continuous chain of atoms.

1.3 Free energy methods:

 In the canonical ensemble (system of *N* particles in a fixed volume, *V*, and temperature, *T*), expectation values of any observable $\langle A \rangle$ are sampled by the Boltzmann configurational probability distribution:

$$
\langle A \rangle = \frac{\int d\mathbf{R} A(\mathbf{R}) e^{-U(\mathbf{R})/k_B T}}{Z} \tag{14}
$$

where the integral is overall all possible values of the atomic coordinates R, $U(R)$ is the potential energy, k_B is Boltzmann's constant, and T is the temperature. The denominator

$$
Z = Z_0 \int d\mathbf{R} \ e^{-U(R)/k_B T} \qquad (15)
$$

is the canonical partition function with Z_0 the partition function of an ideal gas (non-interacting particles). To compute averages according to Equation 14, we need to generate a sufficiently long trajectory that is consistent with the Boltzmann probability distribution under the ergodic hypothesis. The free energy is defined as the logarithm of the partition function:

$$
F = -k_B T \ln Z = F_0 - k_B T \int d\mathbf{R} \ e^{-U(R)/k_B T} \tag{16}
$$

where $F_0 = -k_B T \ln Z_0$ is an additive constant that will be subsequently ignored.

It is common in physics to reduce the complexity of a high-dimensional problem to a restricted number of variables called collective variables, CVs. Examples include so-called order parameters in Landau's theory of phase transitions or the solvent coordinate in Marcus theory of electron transfer. In enzyme catalysis we can think of a general reaction coordinate, $X(R)$, that defines the progress of the reaction from reactant to product along a low-dimensional coordinate. From transition state theory the rate constant for an elementary reaction is

$$
k = \kappa v e^{-\Delta G^{\ddagger}/RT} \tag{17}
$$

where ΔG^{\ddagger} is the difference in free energy between the reactant and transition state, and $\kappa \nu$ is the pre-exponential factor. The transition state is defined as the high-energy, unstable complex corresponding to the maximum in free energy along the reaction coordinate. Once the free energy barrier to form the transition state is overcome, the reaction can progress and the product forms.

Having a set of the order parameters or CVs allow us to represent the progress of a reaction along the reaction coordinate in a concise and conceptually simple way. Mathematically, the CVs are defined as functions (usually nonlinear) of the atomic coordinates R: *S(R)*. The CVs should be able to distinguish between all relevant metastable states, and ideally would represent all the slow degrees of freedom. The choice of CVs in our work will be discussed shortly. Having defined the CVs, the free energy surface (FES) is defined as the logarithm of the equilibrium distribution of the CVs. Up to an arbitrary constant, the FES is then given as:

$$
F(s) = -k_B T \ln \int dR \, \delta(s - S(R)) e^{-U(R)/k_B T} \qquad (18)
$$

The relative free energy difference between metastable states A and B along the reaction coordinate is determined from integrating the probabilities of the metastable states:

$$
\Delta F_{A,B} = -k_B T \ln \frac{\int_A ds \, e^{-F(s)/k_B T}}{\int_B ds \, e^{-F(s)/k_B T}} \qquad (19)
$$

where the integrations are performed overall all configurations in CV space that define the two metastable states A and B, respectively.

From the above discussion, it would seem straightforward to evaluate the FES, and free energy changes simply from histograms of the sampled configurations. However, in practice this is often not feasible because the sampling is nonergodic on the timescales accessible to atomistic simulation. Often, the system will remain trapped in a local metastable state and will only fluctuate within this local free energy minimum. From this perspective, reactions that proceed from reactant to product by transitioning over a high-energy barrier through the transition state complex are seen as rare events that occur on time scales longer than that sampled from the simulation. We wish to enhance the probability of observing these transitions at a reasonable computational cost. One way to achieve this is to add an external bias potential

 $V(s)$ that depends on the CVs, *s*, and thus also on the configuration *R* (through $S(R)$). The external bias enhances fluctuations along the CVs, leading to improved sampling along the reaction coordinate.

Metadynamics is an enhanced sampling method in which the bias is iteratively built through successive deposition of small repulsive biasing kernels in the form a localized Gaussian centered at the current CV value[24,25] , *s'*:

$$
G(s, s') = W e^{-\|s(t) - s'\|^2} \qquad (20)
$$

where W is the height of the Gaussian and $\|s - s'\|^2$ is the distance between the value of *s* at time *t* and *s'*. When more than one CV is used, the distance metric is that of a multivariate Gaussian:

$$
||s(t) - s'||^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} (s_i - s'_i) \sum_{i,j}^{-1} (s_j - s'_j)
$$
 (21)

where $\sum_{i,j}$ is the covariance matrix, which for simplicity is taken as diagonal with matrix elements, $\sum_{i,j}=\delta_{i,j}\sigma_i$, where σ_i is the width of the Gaussian for the *i*-th CV. The value of the Gaussian widths can be chosen from the unbiased fluctuations of the CV or estimated on the fly using an adaptive Gaussian approach. We use an open-source software known as PLUMED2^{[36-} ^{38]} to perform metadynamics. As the simulation progresses, new Gaussian hills are continuously added, and these Gaussian peaks fill the FES with bias as the system runs. The addition of bias encourages the simulation to sample new regions of configuration space along the FES (Figure 3).

Figure 3) Shown is a FES ($F(s)$) mapped over a CV, shown in black. Shown in red is the deposited bias that fills the FES until the simulation, shown as a blue ball, enters a new basin signaling a conformation change in the protein.

The bias, when built up high enough on the FES, can cause chemical reactions to take place as new FES basins are sampled^[29]. Under the action of the bias potential, the instantaneous probability distribution will be that of a time-dependent, *modified* Boltzmann distribution

$$
P(R, t) = \frac{e^{-(U(R) + V(s, t))/k_B T}}{z_b} \quad (21)
$$

which can be recast in the form:

$$
P(R, t) = e^{-(V(s,t) - c(t))/k_B T} \cdot P_0(R)
$$
 (22)

where $P_0(R)$ is the unbiased Boltzmann distribution and the time-dependent function c(t) is

$$
c(t) = k_B T \ln \frac{Z}{Z_b} = k_B T \ln \frac{\int ds \, e^{-F(s)/k_B T}}{\int ds \, e^{-(F(s) + V(s,t))/k_B T}}
$$
(23)

With these definitions it is possible to reweight any arbitrary position-dependent quantity to obtain an unbiased estimate of the ensemble average from averages over a biased trajectory according to $[28]$

$$
\langle A \rangle_0 = \langle A \cdot e^{(V(s,t) - c(t))/k_B T} \rangle \tag{24}
$$

where the right-hand average is performed over a metadynamics trajectory. This allows us to reweight any equilibrium property from a biased simulation given enough sampling to obtain meaningful statistics on the ensemble averages. If we are interested in dynamic quantities such as rate constants, the acceleration factor due to the bias can be estimated within transition state theory assuming that no bias is deposited in the transition state region of the free energy. Under this assumption the ratio of the biased to unbiased reaction rate is given as $^{[28]}$:

$$
\frac{k_b}{k_0} = \frac{Z}{Z_b} = \langle e^{V(s,t)/k_B T} \rangle \tag{25}
$$

where the angular brackets denote an average over a metadynamics run confined to one of the metastable basins. This condition is met by increasing the lag time between Gaussian hill depositions to avoid completely filling the free energy basin during the simulation window.

PLUMED is also able to add constraints to our system to prevent the system from exploring irrelevant or nonphysical configurations^[36-38]. These constraints add a harmonic restraint that puts an exponential force on two atoms either to keep them within or outside of a specified distance^[36-38]. We also use a number of CVs to visualize our data from the simulation and track reaction progress. The distance CV is simply the distance from one atom to another^{[36-} ^{38]}. This can be used to monitor the formation or breaking of covalent bonds. The coordination CV allows us to monitor the number of contacts formed between two groups of atoms (A and B) as the sum given by equation 26. The calculation consists of setting a cutoff distance for two groups of atoms. The cutoff distance adds a true (One) or false (Zero) value whenever an atom *(i)* comes within or leaves the cutoff distance of another atom *(j)* of a different group (equation 27).

$$
\sum_{i \in A} \sum_{i \in B} S_{ij} \tag{26}
$$

The cutoff is implemented as a differentiable switching function of the form

$$
S_{ij} = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{r_{ij} - d_0}{r_0}\right)^n}{1 - \left(\frac{r_{ij} - d_0}{r_0}\right)^m}
$$
(27)

This CV will allow us to monitor the coordination number between two groups of atoms as they sample different conformations. As the simulation progresses, we look to see changes in how the interaction of groups of atoms progresses.

1.4 Project Goals:

In this thesis I am to produce a QM/MM model of the saSrtA and baSrtB systems with kinetic catalysis data and FES. This will be to understand the catalytic mechanism of the saSrtA and baSrtB enzymes at a quantum level, something not easily measured and viewed by

biochemists. Utilizing the FES will be integral to understanding the catalytic pathway in the baSrtB enzyme and provide understanding of the metastable states the are present in the catalytic pathway. Another goal is to understand the interactions between the ligand and key residue interactions with other amino acid residues of the protein. The second aim of my thesis will be to create a moving restraint to build a CV from that will drive our reaction. The moving restraint will be used to make the Harmonic Linear Discriminant Analysis (HLDA) CV which will be able to linearize our reaction and drive our reaction forward and backward. The third aim of my project is to build a QM/MM model of the saSrtA enzyme. The saSrtA model will be used to compare the catalytic pathway to baSrtB and help understand subtle differences in the catalytic mechanism. The fourth aim of my thesis is to run multiple docking simulations using AutoDock, FlexPepDock, a manual docking procedure, and AlphaFold. Running multiple docking simulations will allow us to tease out not only the best docked structure, but also allow us in the future to select the best docking software right away.

2 Discussion and Results :

2.1 Docking Experiments:

For modeling sortase catalysis, a starting point is to know the structure of the enzyme with its substrate in a bound confirmation. Since proteins and substrates are dynamic, there may be cooperative motion and many degrees of freedom involved. For the catalytic reaction to take place the enzyme and substrate must be arranged in near-attack conformation (NAC) for chemistry to occur. Because there are no high resolution structures available for Sortase B with a bound substrate, we turned to molecular modeling to construct a working model of sortase B with a peptide substrate.

For predicting binding poses of small molecule drugs in their protein targets, molecular docking software is a popular and computationally efficient method of evaluating potential binding sites and ranking ligand bound structures according to predicted binding affinity. Molecular docking methods use a search algorithm that generates a large number of possible bound structures. Typically, the receptor binding site is kept rigid, but different conformations

of the ligand are sampled. Typically, conformations are sampled using Monte Carlo moves, and binding poses are scored using an empirical scoring function. Traditional docking methods such as AutoDock use a scoring function that includes non-bonded van der Waals and Coulombic terms in addition to a phenomenological term to account for hydrogen bonds and/or hydrophobic interactions^[30,31]. More recently, protein structure prediction methods such as AlphaFold use machine-learning, deep neural networks, and structural databases to predict folded protein structures with high accuracy^[32]. When the ligand is a flexible peptide, the conformational search space is increased because of the large degrees of freedom of the peptide. Additionally, small peptides have many non-specific interactions with protein surfaces. These two features: many degrees of freedom and many non-specific interactions, makes the prediction of flexible docking of peptides particularly challenging. Recently, a new docking protocol for flexible peptides, FlexPepDock was introduced by the Furman Lab and included in the Rosetta suite of programs for protein structure prediction^[31].

In this work, we evaluated three software packages on their ability to find a near-active conformation of ligand binding motif to the baSrtB binding cleft. The three software packages we used were,: AutoDock^[30], which is a traditional docking program used for small molecule docking, FlexPepDock, developed for flexible peptide docking within Rosetta^[31], and AlphaFold^[32], which uses a deep neural network to predict protein tertiary structure. AutoDock performed the worst out of the three and had the tendency to create an ouroboros type structure out of the ligand, probably because of the increased flexibility and degrees of freedom of the peptide not being properly accounted for in the model. FlexPepDock had a decent binding configuration, however it uses a two-step process that first involves breaking the protein and peptide into smaller fragments or chunks to explore different conformations and orientations. After favorable fragments are found, FlexPepDock proceeds to a rigid-body docking step where the best fragment combinations are assembled to form the complex. Unfortunately, an additional alignment in PyMol was needed due to the FlexPepDock procedure ruining the target binding protein PDB output file. Another strategy that was tried was a more manual approach. In the manual approach an iterative docking procedure was performed where a small fragment of the ligand was added to the active site. Then an energy

minimization was performed after manually placing in the amino acid string one by one until you have the completed the ligand motif. Lastly, AlphaFold was used by Dr. John Antos to create the best docked structure available to our group. In this procedure, Dr. Antos used the full baSrtB sequence with the peptide linked to the protein via a flexible linker (see Appendix).

2.1.1 AutoDock results:

Starting with AutoDock; an attempt to do the simplest docking procedure of putting the NPKTG motif into the binding site of baSrtB and running the program. After several attempts, AutoDock yielded one "good" structure. However, even AutoDock's best structure was curled into a "ouroboros" like stricture (see figure 4) where the C-terminus and N-terminus amino acid side chains (Glu and Asp) were interacting with each other and not lying flat in the binding cleft. Steps to curb this phenomenon were taken by increasing the box size to be more elongated and rectangular along the surface of the protein. Yet, these steps to fix the problem did not help due to the inability to rotate the box on an axis as it is fixed to Cartesian coordinates and would never lay parallel to the angle of the binding cleft. Quickly moving on from AutoDock to the next docking suite that had a better user interface (UI) and was browser based was FlexPepDock.

Figure 4) Shown in orange is the baSrtB catalytic triad (His 101, Cys 233, and Arg 243) and shown in slate is the binding ligand DNPKTGDE (Asp -> Glu). Shown by the black dotted line is the close contact the Autodock was making with two negatively charged sidechains at 3.8Å. The red dotted line (4.3Å) is showing the second problem with Autodock in that in never placed the ligand Thr in a close enough proximity to the active site.

2.1.2 FlexPep Dock results:

FlexPepDock (FlexPep) Is a Web browser-based docking suite that specializes in flexible peptide docking. FlexPep also allows the user to see the docking box size and location before you submit the docking request, making the user experience very intuitive. When submitting the docking request, FlexPep asks several questions based on the chemistry of the ligand residues whether the residues are charged or uncharged, lacking or have additional hydrogens, and any bonds that should be non-rotatable. Another helpful feature was the ability to see exactly what the dimensions of the docking box looked like before submitting the job and FlexPep allows the user to see the changes made to the limits of the box made in real time when the user changes the X, Y, and Z dimensions of the box. Another plus for FlexPep is that

being web based is that you do not need a dedicated machine to dock a peptide on a computer that normally could not handle running a docking simulation such as a laptop. However, FlexPep was not the best docking suite we used. Though FlexPep had a better UI it suffered from some of the same problems as AutoDock, one of which was the self-interacting N and C terminus of the Ouroboros (see figure 4) on some of the lower scoring submissions. The higher scoring submissions had the problem of binding in the reverse orientation (see figure 5). It is unknown if the reverse orientation of the DNPKTGDE is active within the enzyme, but without published work stating the binding site of baSrtB, therefore models were selected that had similarities in both position and orientation with the inhouse *strep pyogenes* Sortase A structure^[33]. Another failure of FlexPepDock was the baSrtB enzyme body was chopped up

Figure 5) Shown in orange is the baSrtB catalytic triad (His 101, Cys 233, and Arg 243) and shown in slate is the binding ligand DNPKTGDE (Asp -> Glu). This structure was generated by FlexPep Dock and as you can see this is not a good binding due to the fact that not only is the structure in the reverse orientation and completely outside the binding pocket, the dotted red line connecting the catalytic Sulfur Cys 233 to the carbonyl carbon on the Thr is 11.3Å away from each other.

when the output file was returned. This failure is more of a minor concern and can easily be fixed with an alignment with the apo protein body and deletion of the output files enzyme body and saving the new combined structure in PyMol. Still a major problem existed with both FlexPep dock and AutoDock and that is neither docking suite gave a good Near Active Conformation (NAC) of the ligand bound in the enzyme. Therefore, it was decided to dock the ligand utilizing an iterative energy minimization process in CP2K and utilize PLUMED to keep the carbonyl carbon on the ligand Thr in place so we can keep the NAC of the ligand while adding amino acids to the ligand.

2.1.3 Iterative docking/refinement procedure:

Building our own docked ligand was done via an iterative energy minimization on several structures being built and modeled by hand in PyMol. The manual docking method requires that the user makes multiple files after each energy minimization step due to the fact that; adding atoms to the system after the energy minimization step ruins the topology file. This

Figure 6): A flow chart depicting the major steps to building a fully equilibrated QM/MM system. Only building a system through steps 1-7 will still build you a fully functional MM system.

Figure 7) A) Shown is the baSrtB catalytic triad (orange) with the manually docked NPKTG binding motif. The reason for the higher confidence of this docking procedure is that the binding motif is laying flat across the binding region, the Lys was inside of a void in the protein binding domain, and the Thr carbonyl carbon (red circle) was 2.5Å away from the catalytic sulfur on Cys 208. B) However, as you can see the AlphaFold structure, by our collaborator Dr. John Antos, has the Thr carbonyl carbon (red circle) in close proximity to the Cys 208 sulfur, in addition to straddling the gap between His 101 and Cys 233. Arg 243 in the alpha fold model is also making hydrogen bond contacts with the Asn and Pro of the ligand binding motif.

requires the system to build a new topology file after step 5 (see figure 6) and figure 6 shows a flow chart that follows the method iteratively for steps 1-5 for each amino acid added to the ligand motif. However, even though this process is intensive and hands on, this method proved to be better than AutoDock or FlexPep. With PLUMED patched into CP2K the Thr was able to keep its carbonyl carbon within 2.5 Angstroms from the catalytic Cys while freely allowing the energy minimization and geometry optimization to minimize the energy of the other atoms. After finishing the ligand this method had a lot of important interactions with the acidic flankers, DNPKTGDE, on the ligand. Ultimately this method still was not perfect because the Lys was sticking into the binding pocket (see figure 7A) rather than out of the pocket (see figure 7B).

2.1.4 AlphaFold predicted structure:

The manual docking method was ultimately trumped by the Alpha Fold predicted structure (created by Dr. Antos) that had extreme similarities to the saSrtA binding where the Lys is facing out of the binding pocket. This similarity with the Sortase A structure is not

Figure 8) Shown in orange are three protein residues of Tyr 37, Lys 104, and Tyr 235 making hydrogen bond contacts with the N-terminal Asp on the binding ligand. The hydrogen bonds are shown by dotted lines with lengths of 2.2Å (Red), 1.6Å (Black), 3.1Å (Magenta), and 2.3Å (Cyan)

accidental since AlphaFold was trained on known folded structures in the PDB database. In the AlphaFold structure, the aspartic acid is coordinated to nothing on the protein and the side chain is solvent exposed. The asparagine on the N-terminus and the Proline are coordinated to arginine 243 of the catalytic triad (see figure 9A). The Lys is coordinated to the Glu 241 on the β7-β8 loop (see figure 9B). The Thr side chain is inside of a small pocket and is interacting with the backbone nitrogen on the catalytic Cys 233 (see figure 9C). The Gly residue on the ligand is making two contacts, one with the backbone oxygen to the backbone nitrogen on Arg 102 and the Gly backbone nitrogen to the ligand Thr backbone oxygen (see figure 9D). The flanking Glu interacts with three residues Tyr 37, Lys 104, and Tyr 235. Tyr 37 interacts with Glu by making a hydrogen bond to the carboxyl group on the side chain. Lys 104 makes two connections, one from the side chain nitrogen to the backbone oxygen and another from the backbone nitrogen to the carboxyl group on the side chain of the Glu (see figure 8). The final residue, Tyr 235

Figure 9) A) Show in orange is Arg 243 making close contacts with the binding motif ligand residues of Asn and Pro. Hydrogen bond contacts made by the residues are shown by the colored dotted lines at distances 2.7Å (Red), 2.0Å (Black), 3.2Å (Magenta), and 1.9Å (Cyan). B) Shown in orange is the protein Glu 241 making hydrogen bonds with the sidechain of the ligand binding motif Lys. The two hydrogen bonds are formed by Glu 241's sidechain carboxyl group and the nitrogen on the Lys at distances of 2.6Å (Red) and 1.8Å (Black). C) Shown in orange is Cys 233 forming a single hydrogen bond at 2.4Å (Red) between the backbone nitrogen of Cys 233 and the sidechain alcohol group of the ligand Thr. D) Shown in orange is Arg 102 making a hydrogen bond at a distance of 2.4Å (Red) with the backbone oxygen of the ligand Thr. The second hydrogen bond contact is between the ligand Gly nitrogen and the backbone oxygen of the ligand Lys at 2.1Å (Black).

makes a hydrogen bond with the backbone nitrogen on the Glu (see figure 8) The final Asp residue is once again solvent exposed.

2.2 Sortase A/B Introduction

Sortase A from *staphylococcus aureus* (saSrtA) is the most widely studied sortase enzyme in the literature, and prior QM/MM simulations have been performed by Tian and Erikson^[34] who found support for the reverse protonation mechanism where Cys208 and His141 exist as a thiolate anion and imidazolium cation before substrate binding. Tian and Erikson also argue that the Arg218 is not involved in stabilizing the tetrahedral intermediate as previously hypothesized^[34]. Subsequent QM/MM simulations performed by Shrestha and Wereszczynski investigated the catalytic mechanism of saSrtA using QM/MM simulations with multi-dimensional metadynamics finding that the free energy barriers (FES) for the reaction are lower in the "Thr-In" binding motif where the threonine residue of the sorting signal is oriented into the binding site, suggesting the Thr-In configuration is the catalytically active state^[35].

Initially, an attempt to build a working QM/MM simulation on the saSrtA system was done with the goal of using more advanced collective variables to try and sample the entirety of the reaction space using metadynamics. Work began by using the published NMR structure (PDB: 2KID). The 2KID structure has a substrate analog that is covalently linked to the enzyme to mimic the thioacyl intermediate. The first step was to replace the analog with the enzyme recognition LPATG motif and perform an energy minimization of the modified structure.

When building a QM/MM system several steps must be done first to ensure that the system is correctly built and equilibrated. The first 3 steps of this process use MM force fields and do not involve bond breaking or formation. In the MM force fields, covalent bonds are described with a harmonic potential energy, equivalent to the description that all the bonds and atoms are held together by ball and spring (see figure 10).

To set up the system we first perform a geometry optimization or energy minimization (EM). The EM step in CP2K uses the limited memory Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (LBFGS) optimizer that is suitable for large systems. The LBFGS algorithm uses a variant of Newton's method based on the gradient of an objective function to find the minimum. For this step we update the positions of the atoms to find the configuration that minimizes the energy between all the bonded atoms by moving the system down the path of steepest descent on the energy funnel (see figure 11). This process of energy minimization will go on iteratively until the simulation cannot minimize the system past the energy value set to minimize past or until the

Figure 10): A representative "Ball and Spring" model of Proline showing the bonds as "Springs" and Atoms as "Balls". This assumption allows for a simplification during the MM calculation and use of a constant for determining the bond length based on what the atom is bonded to.

Overall Position of Protein

Figure 11) Shown is a simplistic 2D energy funnel. During the Energy Minimization process depending on your original configuration of the protein you could find the global minima (shown by red) or a local minimum with an energy barrier that is too high to cross over (shown by blue and green).

total step count has been reached. Once this step has finished you now have a system that is ready to be thermally equilibrated. The next step is to equilibrate the system using only MM force fields. The NVT step adds a thermal energy element to the simulation where the system is calibrated to a set temperature. Details of the thermostat used can be found in the Methods Section. NVE equilibration is important because the EM structure only considers structural energy minimization and not the thermal energy of the system. Now with a thermostat we can get Brownian motion to occur in our simulation through the addition or removal of kinetic energy from the system to maintain an equilibrium temperature in our system. Thermal fluctuations (Brownian motion) are important for overcoming kinetic barriers. The magnitude of random thermal motions is quantified by the thermal energy of the system, which is given by the value of kBT (Boltzmann's constant times the temperature). Typically, kinetic barriers that are on the same order of magnitude as $k_B T$ can be sampled during the simulation; however, metastable states that are separated by free energy barriers much larger than $k_B T$ cannot be
sampled with conventional MD methods – hence the need for enhanced sampling methods such as metadynamics. Finally, the NPT equilibration implements a barostat and allows the system cell to fluctuate during the equilibration process to a set pressure of 1 atm. Details of the barostat can be found in the Methods section. This step is the most important because if the system cell structure was rigid it may be impossible to replicate benchtop experiments at 1atm. In other words, this allows us to perform simulations at a density that matches experimental conditions. The timeline for the EM, NVT, and NPT equilibration steps takes roughly 2 days (working on a single workstation described in the Methods Section) to fully complete (see figure 6). If you want to make any slight changes to the protein or ligand structure, such as a point mutation or change of protonation state, the system will need to start over completely from the energy minimization step. After NPT equilibration, the next step is to equilibrate the system at the QM/MM level. For the Sortase A QM/MM system, this is where all the problems began and did not stop. Building the QM/MM region is relatively simple in CP2K. All CP2K needs is a list of each atom that will be in the QM region and the two atoms (one in MM and one in QM) that you want to link (see figure 2B). The catalytic triad had the entire side chain in the QM region while the Alpha Carbon was connected to the Beta Carbon via a pseudo hydrogen atom. This set up should give you a system that is ready to run and collect data, this is what we thought too for the Sortase A system.

The first and most major problem that plagued the simulations was a "Cholesky decompose failed" error. Cholesky decomposition is a numerical procedure to factorize a positive definite matrix. This failure indicates that the matrix may be ill-conditioned or not positive definite. This failure occurs during the self-consistent field (SCF) step in the QM calculation. The likely cause of this error is that the structure is not stable causing the SCF to leave the loop without converging, but this is surprising since this step follows an energy minimization and equilibration of the system using the MM force fields. This error plagued every simulation that was ran on saSrtA work and some of the work on the Sortase B systems. Fortunately, we have solved this issue for the Sortase B system and have plans to use newly obtained knowledge of this solution on our Sortase A system. Understanding how the different

systems of MM and QM/MM interact with the close and tightly packed nature of the active sites in both Sortase A and B is key.

2.2.1 Sortase A:

The *staphylococcus aureus* Sortase A system proved to be a hurdle, as the system was not well defined with the given Protein Database files (PDB) available. The starting structure was taken from the PDB database entry 2KID, which was the truncated protein bound to a substrate mimetic. The initial thought was that it would be straightforward to build the peptide ligand into the catalytic binding site by converting the substrate mimetic to the peptide ligand LPXTG modified the structure in PyMol and performing the energy minimization, NVT, and NPT equilibration runs. When the saSrtA system was built with the QM/MM interface with the linker pseudo atoms, the Self Consistent Field (SCF) failed to converge. Every time the simulation was

Figure 12) Shown on side A is the start of the QM/MM simulation on saSrtA that has been truncated down for simplicity. Shown on side B is the end of the 17.2 femtosecond simulation that is showing that the Arg 216's hydrogens are collapsing into the center atoms along the entire amino acid causing the simulation to crash.

started the SCF would leave the loop after 50 steps. The first solution to fix this was to slow down the step time from 0.5fs to 0.1fs. The original hope was to allow the energy to converge to a stable state. This didn't work as the simulation still crashed this time just slower than before. However, the slower time step allowed a window to visualize in VMD what was happening to the simulation. In the simulation on saSrtA we noticed that the hydrogens on the side chains of the QM region of the catalytic triad were pulsating in and out at a rate that was too fast for a reasonable movement at a time step of 0.1fs (see figure 12). After a few steps of the hydrogen bonds pulsating, the system crashed, and the hydrogen atoms collapsed into the center atom (see figure 12B). This system was never finished due to this problem, but a fix has been found due to work on the baSrtB system and will be implemented in future runs.

2.2.2 Sortase B:

The start of the *bacillus anthracis* Sortase B system was not a straightforward endeavor. There were a lot of revisions done to the baSrtB system to get a structure suitable for QM/MM simulations, most of which were docking the NPKTG binding motif into the active site of the enzyme. After the docking simulations, however, a choice was made to use on of two viable structures to pursue; the manually docked binding motif and the Alpha fold structure provided by Dr. Antos. It was decided to pursue the Alpha fold structure as this ligand had binding similarities to the known *streptococcus pyogenes* Sortase A structure. The main binding similarities to the *pyogenes* structure include the position of the ligand Lysine tail and the Thr side chain pointing into the pocket. The workup began with the *bacillus anthracis* Sortase B PDB file that was created by Dr. Antos utilizing Alpha Fold to predict the binding motif of DNPKTGDE attached to a peptide chain off the N-terminus of the truncated protein. This structure was then edited until only the bench top truncated baSrtB protein was left and the ligand binding motif docked inside of the binding site. The N-terminal was capped with an Acyl group along with the N and C-terminus of the ligand binding motif with Acyl and N-Methyl respectively. The new Sortase B system was then put through the EM, NVT, NPT equilibration, and QM/MM system setup.

The "Cholesky decompose failed" error that was given was the same error that was happening with the Sortase A system, and the SCF left the loop and never converged. However, observations while viewing the output file showed that instead of converging to a single value, the SCF values alternated between two values. This can occur in numerical methods when the starting initial guess is poor. In such cases, convergence can be obtained by a better initial guess of the wavefunction. The starting guess were the atomic orbitals. It seemed like the system was having struggling finding the position that would best minimize the energy of the electrons in the QM region of the system, this was the same error that plagued the saSrtA system. This error can come about when the time independent Schrödinger equation takes the best guess and outputs an answer that gets put back in to equation only to give out the original input. To fix this we went back to the NPT equilibration step and increased the upper bound constraint on the carbonyl and sulfur distance from 2.5Å to 6.0Å and restarted the run for an additional 10ps. This allowed the carbonyl and sulfur distance to increase slightly. After this fix the SCF converged in 23 steps and has yet to become another problem for the simulation and allowed us to finally begin exploring the active site. This highlights the importance of having a wellequilibrated and reasonable starting structure for QM/MM simulations.

In order to explore the catalytic mechanism of Sortase B we need a configuration that is representative of the intermediate state of the enzyme. To do this a simulation was ran with a

Scheme 2) This scheme shows the forward and reverse reaction of the baSrtB enzyme with the DNPKTGDE ligand. On the left is the reactant state showing the nucleophilic attack from the sulfur on Cys 233 and proton transfer from His 101. Shown on the right is the ligand protein complex having a nucleophilic attack from the incoming ligand Gly. These two states represent the catalytic chemistry of baSrtB that we are exploring in our QM/MM simulations.

pulling restraint (steered MD), to pull the three bonds important to the catalytic mechanism to build the intermediate (product) state of the enzyme active site (see scheme 2). The Thr-Gly peptide bond needed to be broken, a proton transfer from the protonated histidine 101 to the Gly peptide nitrogen needed to be formed, and the thiol bond formation of the cysteine 233 Sulfur and the Ligand Thr Carbonyl Carbon. Details of the steered MD are described in the Methods Section. This intermediate configuration is necessary for the use of a diagonalized vector CVs that can represent the reaction coordinate and allow us to simulate the reaction with a single set of CVs. The steered MD was successfully able to make the tetrahedral intermediate, but unfortunately, the simulation has been unable to be restarted from the tetrahedral intermediate formed by the Thr carbonyl carbon, Gly nitrogen, catalytic Cys sulfur, and Thr backbone oxygen. This may be due to a problem with CP2K and initiating the restart file, where the initial guess for the wavefunction should be the molecular wavefunction of the previous step, and not the atomic orbitals. This is due to each time we try restarting the run from the tetrahedral formation the SCF fails to converge just like previous errors. There are two possible causes to this failure; one was the QM region was too small to allow the electron cloud to move and extend the range of the backbone oxygen to single bond distance. The solution to give more electron cloud mobility to the backbone oxygen was to increase the QM region on either side of the Thr carbonyl carbon and Gly peptide nitrogen as to make the electron cloud more mobile allowing the double bonded oxygen to pull the electron density toward it, lengthening the double bond to a single bond distance (see figure 14). The second problem could be that CP2K is unable to properly read the wave function file from the wave function restart file. Since the latter option involves dealing with the source code of CP2K and likely wouldn't finish in time for writing this thesis, it was decided to go with the first option and rebuild the system from scratch.

2.2.3 Stripped Sortase B System:

encompass more of the ligand

The first step was to construct a minimal system that could be simulated efficiently in CP2K. Using a reduced system gave two benefits: It allowed us to speed up the computational time for each timestep. And second, it allowed for the use of an expanded QM region to

inside of the QM region (see figure 13 and 14). Encompassing more atoms inside of the QM region allows more of the electron cloud to be moved and manipulated by atoms in proximity within the QM region. Also, by stripping the system of most of the non-essential atoms the simulation has decreased the time per step by a factor of ten allowing for simulations to only take overnight to produce results rather than 3 days for useful results. However, this new structure has its own set of challenges that needed to be solved before it was running smoothly. When we expanded the QM region, more constraints had to be put on atoms to prevent bonds breaking between atom

Figure 13) The representative atoms inside the QM region of the baSrtB system are shown between the two red lines consisting of the carbonyl carbon, backbone oxygen, peptide nitrogen, and amine hydrogen.

Figure 14) The representative atoms inside the QM region of the stripped baSrtB system are shown between the two red lines consisting of the carbonyl carbon, backbone oxygen, peptide nitrogen, amine hydrogen, in addition to the entire Thr side chain and both Thr and Gly α -carbons.

pairs that are not important to the overall chemistry of the Sortase B enzyme. Some atoms that needed to be restrained to their neighboring atoms were the second nitrogen on the catalytic histidine. The hydrogen atoms ended up swapping with the Gly peptide nitrogen's hydrogen and the first hydrogen on the histidine so that in the end each hydrogen had swapped positions from their original partner. The second problem was that the alcohol group on the side chain of the ligand Threonine needed to be restrained as well as when biasing the proton transfer because this led to the creation of a spurious water molecule that flew off in the simulation. During this time, some CVs were decoupled as it was discovered that the simulation may be missing the tetrahedral, state due to the coupled CVs being anti-correlated. The HLDA method, discussed above in section 1.3 and in the methods section to generate a single diagonalized

Figure 15) Five of the most important snapshots of frames from the baSrtB trajectory showing the catalytic triad (orange) and the ligand (teal) in different conformations. The representative snapshots have corresponding single point energy calculations in Table 2.

vector from reactant to product, from the steered MD, was too low dimensional for this complex reaction. The one-dimensional CV coupled the anti-correlated peptide bond breaking and threonine carbonyl carbon and catalytic cysteine sulfur thiol bond formation; the

correlation of the two was concerning due to wanting to find the tetrahedral state. So, the CVs were split into three separate CVs. The first CV is the threonine carbonyl carbon and catalytic cysteine sulfur distance (Thr c -Cyss), the second CV is the ligand peptide bond of the Threonine carbon and Glycine nitrogen (Thr_C-Gly_N), the third CV is a combined CV encompassing the proton transfer from the catalytic histidine to the peptide nitrogen on the Glycine (HisN-HisH minus the distance from Gly_N-His_H). The combined CV is the anti-correlated bond distances from the catalytic His nitrogen and hydrogen and the Gly peptide nitrogen and catalytic His hydrogen. As this reaction is a proton transfer the reaction mechanism is a quick and simple proton transfer and coupling the two distances to one CV should not interfere with the formation of the tetrahedral intermediate. With the three CVs working in unison, the simulation was successfully able to model the active site of the baSrtB enzyme and started to characterize the active site by taking single point energies of key frames along the trajectory. Details of the metadynamics procedure are included in the Methods Section.

From the trajectory, snapshots were taken of representative structures to perform a single energy point calculation using DFT with the DZVP basis set and both the PBE or BLYP exchange correlation functional were used. The trajectory FES yielded results, while not what was initially expected, that agreed with our single point DFT energy calculations with both BLYP and PBE. The results show a deviation from the common school of thought that the baSrtB has

Figure 16) Shown are two FES plot with the distances from Thrc-Cyss, Thrc-Gly_N, and Gly_N-His_H. FES A shows the initial starting position [3,1.5], the intermediate step as the area in the bottom left [2,1.5], and the product state [1.9,4.5]. For FES B the surface isn't as clearly defined but can be thought of as a "U" shape in its forward reaction going from top right, bottom right, bottom left, and finally top left.

Figure 17) Shown are two FES plot with the distances from His_N-His_H, and Gly_N-His_H for part A and Thr_C-Gly_N the combined distances from His_N-His_H, minus the distance from Gly_N-His_H (This represents the anti-correlated? CV). FES A Shows the proton transfer from the His 142 to the Gly_N. FES B shows the correlation between the proton transfer CV and the from Thr_C-Gly_N , CV.

only a tetrahedral intermediate with the Thr carbonyl carbon that gets cleaved via the proton transfer. Instead, the results show that baSrtB undergoes a secondary amide dual tetrahedral (SADT) meta-stable state. When the 3 CVs are plotted against one another they show that the Cys 233 sulfur and Gly peptide nitrogen must form a tetrahedral complex in order to form the product state (see figure 15). Another requirement to form the product state is that both the proton transfer to the Gly peptide nitrogen and Cys 233 tetrahedral intermediate must be formed to have the shortest distance to get to the next basin (see figure 16). When combining the FES this with the single point energy calculations on representative frames (see table 2), it can be seen that the intermediate (Thiol bound enzyme intermediate) has the lowest energy of the whole system and is hence given the baseline of zero kJ/mol, the reactant (starting position of the baSrtB trajectory) is the next lowest at 195.9 kJ/mol for DFT-BLYP and 183.7 kJ/mol DFT-PBE, and the meta stable state of the SADT had the third lowest energy of 232.0 kJ/mol for DFT-BLYP and 203.9 for DFT-PBE. The Gly_{N+} state was over 200 kJ/mol away from that state. Even though The PBE and BLYP differed by 72.9 kJ/mol the DFT-PBE calculation puts it at over 130kJ/mol higher than the SADT configuration (see table 2). The SADT configuration also alludes to the fact how the tetrahedral could never be seen due to the speed of the chemistry without the proton transfer happening first and forming the Gly_{N+} state. The stability of the Gly_{N+} state could be due to the relative simplicity of

the proton transfer FES when compared to the other FES graphs and the amount of space the other FES must sample.

DFT Basis Set	Reactant (kJ/mol)	Protonated Cys 233 (kJ/mol)	SADT Conformation (kJ/mol)	$\mathsf{Gly}_{\mathsf{N}+}$ (kJ/mol)	Tetrahedral (kJ/mol)	Intermediate (product) (kJ/mol)	Broken intermediate (kJ/mol)
BLYP	195.9	339.3	232.0	422.2	410.1	0	567.0
PBE	183.7	337.0	203.9	413.7	337.2	0	607.1

Table 2: Single Point Energy Calculations of Key Frames Along the Trajectory

Table 2) Note: the "Protonated Cys 208" column is shown to be higher in energy that the "Reactant" state. And this is possibly due to an upper wall restraint that is causing an incomplete covalent bond to the hydrogen to occur between the Gly nitrogen and Cys sulfur that exceeds distances of 1Å away from either atom in the frame of the trajectory but is shown for in the table for completeness.

3 Conclusion:

Having explored using QM/MM simulations to study the catalytic mechanisms of sortase enzymes. For Sortase A, simulations were unable to sufficient to study the system and equilibrate it with QM/MM methods. The prevailing issue was the SCF convergence error that was never resolved. A new system is needed for saSrtA to study the active site before any definitive conclusions can be made about the chemistry of saSrtA's catalysis. For Sortase B, the system was able to overcome this problem by relaxing the constraint on the carbonyl and sulfur distance. This approach of relaxing the restraint will likely work for saSrtA as well, and future work should be devoted to getting a working model of saSrtA.

For the Sortase B system, the current results validate the AlphaFold predicted binding motif, as the system was able to form the thiol tetrahedral intermediate and cleave the peptide bond using MD simulations. Unfortunately, the baSrtB system was unable to drive the reaction using a single low-dimensional reaction coordinate from reactant to the intermediate (product) state. Instead, we were able to observe the product formation using a combination of distance CVs similar to the approach used by Shrestha and Wereszczynski^[35]. The QM/MM simulations support the hypothesis that the baSrtB catalysis proceeds via a protonation of the Gly peptide nitrogen first or alongside of the nucleophilic attack from the Cys 233 sulfur, exactly the same

method of activation on saSrtA discussed by Shrestha and Wereszcynski^[35]. This is supported by the single point energy calculations and trajectory showing that the proton transfer finds a metastable state within the FES in the Gly_{N+} state and SADT state. It would be interesting in future work to try using machine learning based CVs to find an optimal reaction coordinate for biased simulations.

This finding is against the conventional wisdom that the protonation of the amine would be unfavorable because of the overall stability of the peptide bond. Going forward with exploring the baSrtB enzyme and other classes of sortases; we must be mindful of how enzymes subvert the common line on logic through the lens of organic chemistry. Though the research on baSrtB is fledgling at best, due to the poor enzymatic activity of the enzyme, the results show an interesting metastable state appearing where conventional organic chemistry logic would dictate the tetrahedral state would be the most stable intermediate state. More rigorous testing must be done on the baSrtB system rerunning the system with lower bias overall to give the system a better chance of sampling the SADT conformation before the enzyme catalysis. In future simulations, the bias could be lowered by reducing the Gaussian hill deposition stride on the proton transfer CV to slow down the rate of transfer in relation to the other CVs. This would be a step in the right direction to hopefully create a more realistic and stable baSrtB system in the future. Taking the lessons from the baSrtB system we should be able to quickly and accurately make a new saSrtA system. The theory to why the saSrtA failed every time the simulation was put it into a QM/MM system is thought to be because the distance between the ligand Thr carbonyl carbon and Cys 208's sulfur was too close and lead to the failure of the SCF being unable to converge and crashing the simulation. The fix for the saSrtA system would simply be allowing the Thr carbonyl carbon to drift father away during the NPT and NVT calibration runs. The same problem that was occurring with the baSrtB system and allowing the Thr carbonyl carbon to relax fixed the problem. Hopefully this work on enzyme catalysis using QM/MM computational analysis can give us greater detail about enzymatic processes and that experiences and lessons learned here may translate to other enzymes for future simulations.

4 Materials and Methods:

4.1 Ligand-Receptor Docking:

The preparation of ligand receptor structures for AutoDock consists in preparing a PDBQT file that is an extension of the PDB format with an additional field for partial charges and atom type. The PDB files of the ligand and protein were converted into PDBQT format using scripts provided with the AutoDockTools suite. In scoring and docking with AutoDock Vina and FlexPep Dock a grid was prepared for the receptor with the grid cent chosen as the center of the binding site. The grid dimensions were extend by 10 Å in the x, y, and z directions with the default grid spacing of 0.375 Å, In the case of AutoDock Vina version 1.1.2 an exhaustiveness of 100 was used in the single point mode. FlexPepDock docking was performed using the online Server at flexpepdock.furmanlab.cs.huji.ac.il/index.php. Default parameters were used in the docking procedure.

4.1 Docking Refinement for DNPKTGDE Ligand:

The docking refinement for the recognition motif of baSrtB was done by using PYMOL's builder. The Thr and Gly residues of the ligand were inserted into the active site of baSrtB such that the carbonyl carbon on the Thr was 2\AA away from the catalytic Cys. PLUMED was then used to create an upper wall boundary at 2.5Å with a kappa of 600. The system was then treated with the ff99SB-ILDN^[37] and TIP3P water molecules. A Short Energy Minimization (EM) simulation was run for 1000 steps and using the path of steepest decent patched with PLUMED. The lowest energy structure was extracted, and the procedure was repeated except adding a single amino acid of the recognition motif. This was done iteratively alternating C-terminal and Nterminal amino acids of the ligand PyMol^[38] until the baSrtB ligand was complete.

4.2 Creating the Product and Reactant States via Moving Restaint:

All QM/MM simulations on baSrtB used CP2K version $8.1^{[19]}$ using the semiempirical PM6 method and Coulomb embedding with the MM region described by the Amber force field ff99SB-ILDN^[37] and patched with PLUMED 2.8^[36-38]. We used a timestep of 0.5 fs to update the atomic positions. Utilizing the moving restraint function^[37] of PLUMED^[35-37] and QMMM linking atom^[44-48], we ran the reactant state unbiased for 50,000 steps. Over the next period of 50,000 steps, we utilized a 3-stage moving restraint that covered the entire catalytic process of the baSrtB enzyme. The moving restraint is a harmonic restraint given by

$$
V(s,t) = \frac{1}{2}\kappa(t)(s - s_0(t))^2
$$

where κ is a time-dependent force constant and s_0 is a moving target value of the CV. Our moving restraint had three phases; the first 20,000 steps applied 3 moving restraints to the distances between the peptide bond of the Thr and Gly of the ligand, the catalytic Cys and the Thr of the ligand, and the proton and the Gly nitrogen. The peptide bond was set at zero kappa and increased to 300 kappa at 5.0Å. The catalytic Cys and Thr bond was set at zero kappa and increased to 600 kappa and 1.5Å. The final distance of the Hydrogen transfer to the Nitrogen on the Gly was set at zero kappa and increased to 600 kappa and 1.5Å. All the starting distances were chosen to be slightly longer than the starting bond distance of the starting structure. These bonds were then held for 10,000 steps before being slowly released over 20,000 steps where the kappa was reduced to zero. The system was then allowed to equilibrate with no bias for 50,000 steps.

4.3 HLDA Calculations:

Harmonic Linear Discriminant Analysis (HLDA) is a new method to construct CVs for studying complex reactions in *ab initio* MD with metadynamics^[43]. Briefly, we used 25 ps of an unbiased QM/MM trajectory in both the reactant state and product state. The product state was created from the moving-restrain simulations described immediately above. We then define a vector as a set of descriptors, *d = {di},* that are able to distinguish between the reactant and product states. From the unbiased trajectory data we also compute both the mean, $\mu^* = \{\overline{d_i}\}$, and the

covariance matrix, Σ, of the set of descriptors for each state. Equation 2 (shown below) is the HLDA equation that gives a low-dimensional CV that can be biased via metadynamics:

$$
\tilde{s}_H(\boldsymbol{R}) = (\mu_R - \mu_P)^T \left(\frac{1}{\tilde{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{R}}} + \frac{1}{\tilde{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{P}}}\right) \widehat{\boldsymbol{d}}(\boldsymbol{R})
$$
 (2)

Where \tilde{s}_H is our HLDA CV which is a linear combination of the descriptors and is capable of describing the transition from one local minima to our desired product. $(\mu_R - \mu_P)^T$ are the mean of the reactants and products respectively and $\left(\frac{1}{\gamma}\right)$ $\frac{1}{\tilde{\Sigma}_R}+\frac{1}{\tilde{\Sigma}_P}$ $\left(\frac{1}{\tilde{\Sigma}_{P}}\right)$ are the inverse covariance matrices, and \widehat{d} is the descriptors in any configuration (R) that you are using for the simulation. In our simulation, our descriptors are three distance CVs to monitor the reaction. The distances used were the distance from the carbonyl carbon to the catalytic cysteine, the peptide bond between the ligand threonine and glycine, and the final distance monitored was the distance from the proton and the nitrogen on the glycine. The final HLDA CV is a linear combination of the three distances with coefficients of -0.018, 0.989, and 0.144 respectively.

4.4 QM/MM Simulations:

All QM/MM simulations were done using CP2K version $8.1^{[19]}$ patched with PLUMED 2.8.^[36-38] with the linker atom function built into CP2K. A timestep of 0.5 fs was used and a constant temperature of 300 K was maintained using the velocity rescaling thermostat. The system was built using the Ambertools Software package. The protein was described by the Amber99SB-ILDN force fields with the TIP3P water model. Long range electrostatics are computed using the Smoothed Particle Mesh Ewald (SPME) method. The MM step in CP2K uses the FIST molecular mechanics module. The QM force evaluation uses the Quickstep algorithm based on the Gaussian and plane waves method (GPW) and its augmented extension (GAPW). The QM system is described at the PM6 semiempirical level. . Metadynamics simulations were run with a bias factor of 80, a hill deposition stride of 100, and initial hill height of W=5.00 . We used an

adaptive Gaussian scheme for the hill widths. All simulations were performed on an 8-core Linux workstation with Intel i7-9700 CPUs.

4.4 DFT Energy Calculations:

Single point energy calculations were performed using CP2K version 8.1 using the DZVP-MOLOPT-GTH basis set^[19] and GTH-PBE or GTH-BLYP pseudopotential. We tested two different exchange correlation functionals, the PBE (Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof GGA functional)^[20] and the BLYP (Becke-Lee-Yang-Parr hybrid functional)^[21,22]. For electrostatic embedding, we used the efficient Gaussian Expansion of the Electrostatic Potential (GEEP) method as implemented in $\mathsf{CP2K}^{[19]}.$

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5 Appendix:

SrtB B. Anthracis

Full length precursors (from NCBI) :

>APT28041.1 sortase B [Bacillus anthracis] M
K LYGHRMKDGSMFGSLKKMLDEEFFMSHRKLYYDTLFEGYDLEVFSVYTTTDFYYIETDFSSDTEYTS FLEKIQEKSLYKTDTTVTAGDQIVTLSTCDYALDPEAGRLVVHAKLVKRQ

>WP 154136074.1 heme uptake protein IsdC (Bacillus anthracis) ${\tt MK}\bar{{\tt V}}{\tt S}{\tt VL} {\tt PAFI} {\tt ITFV} {\tt CML} {\tt AFLVMPYGNAS} {\tt A}{\tt ELA} {\tt DGTYD} {\tt INYV} {\tt IQK AENDS} {\tt A}{\tt SMMD} {\tt YF EKPAKL} {\tt IVKN}$ G
H ${\tt DNPKTGDEARIGLFAALILISGVFLI\ RKVKLSK}$

Sequence of chimera modeled withAlphaFold:

MKLADGTYDINYVIQKAENDSASMANDYFEKPAKLIVKNGEMRVQVPMNHSAWITEFKAPENGNFVDA K
D GSGGGGSIFFQRILTVVFLGTFFYSVYELGDIFMDYYENRKVMAEAQNIYEKSPMEEQSQDGEVRKQF KALQQINQEIVGWITMDDTQINYPIVQAKDNDYYLFRNYKGEDMRAGSIFMDYRNDVKSONRNTILYG HRMKDGSMFGSLKKMLDEEFFMSHRKLYYDTLFEGYDLEVFSVYTTTTDFYYIETDFSSDTEYTSFLE KIQEKSLYKTDTTVTAGDQIVTLSTCDYALDPEAGRLVVHAKLVKRQ

Galaxy36[Alphafold_2_on__Model_5]_baSrtB.pbd

baSrtB Alphafold sequence courtesy of Dr. John Antos of Western Washington University.

Starting coordinates to the Stripped baSrtB PDB file:

ATOM 141 HD2 LYS 14 -21.359 5.121 -0.388 1.00 0.00 ATOM 142 HD3 LYS 14 -22.286 4.069 -1.484 1.00 0.00 ATOM 143 CE LYS 14 -21.609 3.101 0.318 1.00 0.00 ATOM 144 HE2 LYS 14 -21.914 2.160 -0.139 1.00 0.00 ATOM 145 HE3 LYS 14 -20.639 2.974 0.798 1.00 0.00 ATOM 146 NZ LYS 14 -22.603 3.502 1.323 1.00 0.00 ATOM 147 HZ1 LYS 14 -23.502 3.619 0.879 1.00 0.00 ATOM 148 HZ2 LYS 14 -22.669 2.788 2.034 1.00 0.00 ATOM 149 HZ3 LYS 14 -22.320 4.374 1.747 1.00 0.00 ATOM 150 C LYS 14 -17.960 4.941 -4.397 1.00 0.00 ATOM 151 O LYS 14 -17.634 6.126 -4.426 1.00 0.00 ATOM 152 N NME 15 -18.059 4.168 -5.644 1.00 0.00 ATOM 153 H NME 15 -18.297 3.214 -5.873 1.00 0.00 ATOM 154 CH3 NME 15 -17.718 5.072 -6.728 1.00 0.00 ATOM 155 HH31 NME 15 -17.487 6.057 -6.322 1.00 0.00 ATOM 156 HH32 NME 15 -16.850 4.688 -7.263 1.00 0.00 ATOM 157 HH33 NME 15 -18.561 5.151 -7.414 1.00 0.00 TER ATOM 158 H1 ACE 16 -6.532 -14.271 11.346 1.00 0.00 ATOM 159 CH3 ACE 16 -6.424 -13.222 11.072 1.00 0.00 ATOM 160 H2 ACE 16 -6.062 -12.657 11.931 1.00 0.00 ATOM 161 H3 ACE 16 -7.390 -12.826 10.759 1.00 0.00 ATOM 162 C ACE 16 -5.441 -13.055 9.934 1.00 0.00 ATOM 163 O ACE 16 -4.873 -14.034 9.432 1.00 0.00 ATOM 164 N TYR 17 -5.191 -11.873 9.480 1.00 0.00 ATOM 165 H TYR 17 -5.704 -11.072 9.820 1.00 0.00 ATOM 166 CA TYR 17 -4.240 -11.675 8.373 1.00 0.00 ATOM 167 HA TYR 17 -3.537 -12.506 8.322 1.00 0.00 ATOM 168 CB TYR 17 -5.012 -11.606 7.053 1.00 0.00 ATOM 169 HB2 TYR 17 -4.280 -11.533 6.249 1.00 0.00 ATOM 170 HB3 TYR 17 -5.560 -12.544 6.960 1.00 0.00 ATOM 171 CG TYR 17 -5.979 -10.446 6.962 1.00 0.00 ATOM 172 CD1 TYR 17 -7.343 -10.627 7.249 1.00 0.00 ATOM 173 HD1 TYR 17 -7.709 -11.614 7.532 1.00 0.00 ATOM 174 CE1 TYR 17 -8.234 -9.543 7.172 1.00 0.00 ATOM 175 HE1 TYR 17 -9.276 -9.662 7.468 1.00 0.00 ATOM 176 CZ TYR 17 -7.758 -8.280 6.755 1.00 0.00 ATOM 177 OH TYR 17 -8.621 -7.255 6.566 1.00 0.00 ATOM 178 HH TYR 17 -9.533 -7.495 6.744 1.00 0.00 ATOM 179 CE2 TYR 17 -6.393 -8.095 6.486 1.00 0.00 ATOM 180 HE2 TYR 17 -6.023 -7.113 6.191 1.00 0.00 ATOM 181 CD2 TYR 17 -5.504 -9.176 6.597 1.00 0.00 ATOM 182 HD2 TYR 17 -4.442 -9.031 6.400 1.00 0.00 ATOM 183 C TYR 17 -3.314 -10.458 8.542 1.00 0.00

ATOM 184 O TYR 17 -3.775 -9.384 8.913 1.00 0.00 ATOM 185 N NME 18 -1.877 -10.584 8.261 1.00 0.00 ATOM 186 H NME 18 -1.273 -11.334 7.955 1.00 0.00 ATOM 187 CH3 NME 18 -1.285 -9.281 8.511 1.00 0.00 ATOM 188 HH31 NME 18 -2.060 -8.585 8.832 1.00 0.00 ATOM 189 HH32 NME 18 -0.530 -9.368 9.292 1.00 0.00 ATOM 190 HH33 NME 18 -0.821 -8.911 7.597 1.00 0.00 TER ATOM 191 H1 ACE 19 -3.244 -5.033 1.057 1.00 0.00 ATOM 192 CH3 ACE 19 -3.675 -4.193 1.601 1.00 0.00 ATOM 193 H2 ACE 19 -3.926 -3.396 0.901 1.00 0.00 ATOM 194 H3 ACE 19 -2.953 -3.823 2.329 1.00 0.00 ATOM 195 C ACE 19 -4.933 -4.606 2.334 1.00 0.00 ATOM 196 O ACE 19 -5.354 -5.770 2.273 1.00 0.00 ATOM 197 N SER 20 -5.578 -3.735 3.033 1.00 0.00 ATOM 198 H SER 20 -5.228 -2.793 3.132 1.00 0.00 ATOM 199 CA SER 20 -6.795 -4.101 3.752 1.00 0.00 ATOM 200 HA SER 20 -7.237 -5.001 3.324 1.00 0.00 ATOM 201 CB SER 20 -6.443 -4.378 5.214 1.00 0.00 ATOM 202 HB2 SER 20 -5.680 -5.156 5.248 1.00 0.00 ATOM 203 HB3 SER 20 -6.048 -3.464 5.657 1.00 0.00 ATOM 204 OG SER 20 -7.585 -4.803 5.944 1.00 0.00 ATOM 205 HG SER 20 -7.338 -4.970 6.856 1.00 0.00 ATOM 206 C SER 20 -7.851 -3.010 3.636 1.00 0.00 ATOM 207 O SER 20 -7.602 -1.846 3.949 1.00 0.00 ATOM 208 N THR 21 -9.058 -3.396 3.224 1.00 0.00 ATOM 209 H THR 21 -9.150 -4.317 2.820 1.00 0.00 ATOM 210 CA THR 21 -10.224 -2.507 3.200 1.00 0.00 ATOM 211 HA THR 21 -10.171 -1.744 3.977 1.00 0.00 ATOM 212 CB THR 21 -10.327 -1.813 1.838 1.00 0.00 ATOM 213 HB THR 21 -9.326 -1.459 1.593 1.00 0.00 ATOM 214 CG2 THR 21 -10.850 -2.687 0.701 1.00 0.00 ATOM 215 HG21 THR 21 -11.852 -3.041 0.945 1.00 0.00 ATOM 216 HG22 THR 21 -10.885 -2.104 -0.219 1.00 0.00 ATOM 217 HG23 THR 21 -10.187 -3.541 0.564 1.00 0.00 ATOM 218 OG1 THR 21 -11.156 -0.694 1.961 1.00 0.00 ATOM 219 HG1 THR 21 -11.226 -0.253 1.111 1.00 0.00 ATOM 220 C THR 21 -11.498 -3.255 3.600 1.00 0.00 ATOM 221 O THR 21 -11.543 -4.484 3.528 1.00 0.00 ATOM 222 N CYM 22 -12.547 -2.554 4.037 1.00 0.00 ATOM 223 H CYM 22 -12.442 -1.569 4.236 1.00 0.00 ATOM 224 CA CYM 22 -13.840 -3.185 4.314 1.00 0.00 ATOM 225 HA CYM 22 -13.701 -4.025 4.994 1.00 0.00 ATOM 226 CB CYM 22 -14.802 -2.184 4.962 1.00 0.00

ATOM 227 HB3 CYM 22 -15.826 -2.541 4.853 1.00 0.00 ATOM 228 HB2 CYM 22 -14.702 -1.215 4.474 1.00 0.00 ATOM 229 SG CYM 22 -14.441 -2.066 6.733 1.00 0.00 ATOM 230 C CYM 22 -14.455 -3.780 3.046 1.00 0.00 ATOM 231 O CYM 22 -14.464 -3.154 1.993 1.00 0.00 TER ATOM 232 H1 ACE 23 -16.783 -6.081 4.776 1.00 0.00 ATOM 233 CH3 ACE 23 -17.357 -6.407 3.908 1.00 0.00 ATOM 234 H2 ACE 23 -18.366 -6.676 4.219 1.00 0.00 ATOM 235 H3 ACE 23 -16.874 -7.274 3.457 1.00 0.00 ATOM 236 C ACE 23 -17.447 -5.309 2.870 1.00 0.00 ATOM 237 O ACE 23 -17.029 -4.147 2.777 1.00 0.00 ATOM 238 N NME 24 -15.042 -5.126 3.091 1.00 0.00 ATOM 239 H NME 24 -14.044 -5.042 3.225 1.00 0.00 ATOM 240 CH3 NME 24 -15.536 -5.415 1.755 1.00 0.00 ATOM 241 HH31 NME 24 -16.624 -5.475 1.774 1.00 0.00 ATOM 242 HH32 NME 24 -15.228 -4.622 1.074 1.00 0.00 ATOM 243 HH33 NME 24 -15.127 -6.366 1.413 1.00 0.00 TER ATOM 244 N TYR 25 -18.436 -5.723 2.152 1.00 0.00 ATOM 245 H TYR 25 -18.129 -6.384 1.453 1.00 0.00 ATOM 246 CA TYR 25 -19.767 -5.900 2.738 1.00 0.00 ATOM 247 HA TYR 25 -19.693 -6.032 3.817 1.00 0.00 ATOM 248 CB TYR 25 -20.615 -4.652 2.454 1.00 0.00 ATOM 249 HB2 TYR 25 -20.830 -4.688 1.386 1.00 0.00 ATOM 250 HB3 TYR 25 -21.545 -4.749 3.015 1.00 0.00 ATOM 251 CG TYR 25 -19.957 -3.328 2.792 1.00 0.00 ATOM 252 CD1 TYR 25 -19.581 -3.050 4.120 1.00 0.00 ATOM 253 HD1 TYR 25 -19.715 -3.807 4.893 1.00 0.00 ATOM 254 CE1 TYR 25 -19.034 -1.798 4.450 1.00 0.00 ATOM 255 HE1 TYR 25 -18.683 -1.604 5.464 1.00 0.00 ATOM 256 CZ TYR 25 -18.871 -0.822 3.450 1.00 0.00 ATOM 257 OH TYR 25 -18.462 0.418 3.788 1.00 0.00 ATOM 258 HH TYR 25 -18.313 0.520 4.731 1.00 0.00 ATOM 259 CE2 TYR 25 -19.203 -1.108 2.110 1.00 0.00 ATOM 260 HE2 TYR 25 -19.037 -0.365 1.329 1.00 0.00 ATOM 261 CD2 TYR 25 -19.752 -2.363 1.783 1.00 0.00 ATOM 262 HD2 TYR 25 -20.019 -2.589 0.751 1.00 0.00 ATOM 263 C TYR 25 -20.462 -7.171 2.242 1.00 0.00 ATOM 264 O TYR 25 -20.435 -7.441 1.043 1.00 0.00 ATOM 265 N NME 26 -21.154 -8.058 3.189 1.00 0.00 ATOM 266 H NME 26 -21.311 -8.053 4.187 1.00 0.00 ATOM 267 CH3 NME 26 -21.699 -9.158 2.412 1.00 0.00 ATOM 268 HH31 NME 26 -21.447 -9.021 1.361 1.00 0.00

ATOM 442 CG GLU 41 -22.258 4.413 7.763 1.00 0.00 ATOM 443 HG2 GLU 41 -22.661 3.519 7.288 1.00 0.00 ATOM 444 HG3 GLU 41 -21.881 4.159 8.754 1.00 0.00 ATOM 445 CD GLU 41 -23.353 5.455 7.890 1.00 0.00 ATOM 446 OE1 GLU 41 -23.141 6.647 7.597 1.00 0.00 ATOM 447 OE2 GLU 41 -24.467 5.049 8.287 1.00 0.00 ATOM 448 C GLU 41 -22.040 5.481 4.771 1.00 0.00 ATOM 449 O GLU 41 -21.712 6.692 4.559 1.00 0.00 ATOM 450 N NME 42 -23.216 5.069 4.436 1.00 0.00 ATOM 451 H NME 42 -23.507 4.114 4.590 1.00 0.00 ATOM 452 CH3 NME 42 -24.160 5.987 3.820 1.00 0.00 ATOM 453 HH31 NME 42 -23.700 6.970 3.722 1.00 0.00 ATOM 454 HH32 NME 42 -24.437 5.616 2.833 1.00 0.00 ATOM 455 HH33 NME 42 -25.052 6.064 4.442 1.00 0.00 TER END

Below is the input for CP2K that we used:

&GLOBAL


```
&FORCE_EVAL ! parameters needed to calculate energy and forces
  METHOD QMMM ! Hybrid quantum classical
 STRESS TENSOR ANALYTICAL ! Compute the stress tensor analytically (if available).
  &DFT
  CHARGE 1 #Net charge
 MULTIPLICITY 1 #Spin multiplicity
   &QS
   METHOD PM6
   &SE
    &COULOMB
     CUTOFF [angstrom] 10.0
    &END
    &EXCHANGE
     CUTOFF [angstrom] 10.0
    &END
   &END
   &END QS
   &POISSON
```
 &EWALD EWALD_TYPE SPME GMAX 80 O_SPLINE 6 &END EWALD &END POISSON &SCF SCF_GUESS ATOMIC EPS_SCF 1.0E-5 MAX_SCF 50 &OUTER_SCF EPS_SCF 1.0E-7 MAX_SCF 500 &END &END SCF &END DFT &MM ! Parameters to run a MM calculation &FORCEFIELD ! Set up a force_field for the classical calculations PARMTYPE AMBER ! Kind of torsion potential ! Filename that contains the parameters of the FF PARM_FILE_NAME system_qm-charge.parm7 &SPLINE ! Parameters to set up the splines used in the nonboned interactions EMAX SPLINE 1.0E8 ! Maximum value of the potential up to which splines will be constructed RCUT_NB [angstrom] 10 | Cutoff radius for nonbonded interactions &END SPLINE &END FORCEFIELD &POISSON &EWALD ! Ewald parameters controlling electrostatic EWALD_TYPE SPME ! Type of ewald ALPHA .40 ! Alpha parameter associated with Ewald (EWALD|PME|SPME) GMAX 80 ! Number of grid points (SPME and EWALD) &END EWALD &END POISSON &END MM &SUBSYS ! a subsystem: coordinates, topology, molecules and cell &CELL !Set box dimensions here ABC [angstrom] 300.0000000 300.0000000 300.0000000 ALPHA_BETA_GAMMA 90.0 90.0 90.0 &END CELL

 &TOPOLOGY ! Topology for classical runs CONN_FILE_FORMAT AMBER CONN_FILE_NAME system_qm-charge.parm7 &END TOPOLOGY !NA+ is not recognized by CP2K, so it is necessary to define it here using KIND &KIND NA+ ELEMENT Na &END KIND &KIND N ELEMENT N &END KIND &KIND CA2+ ELEMENT Ca &END KIND &KIND CL- ELEMENT Cl &END KIND &KIND NS4 ELEMENT N &END KIND &KIND NS1 ELEMENT N &END KIND &KIND NS2 ELEMENT N &END KIND &END SUBSYS &QMMM ! Input for QM/MM calculations ECOUPL COULOMB ! type of the QM - MM electrostatic coupling &CELL ! Set box dimensions here ABC 90 90 90 ALPHA_BETA_GAMMA 90 90 90 &END CELL @INCLUDE './QMresidue-index.inc' &END QMMM &END FORCE_EVAL &MOTION ! Parameter for the motion of the nuclei &MD ! set of parameters needed perform an MD run ENSEMBLE NVT ! Ensemble/integrator that you want to use for MD TIMESTEP [fs] 0.5

! Time step STEPS 5000000 ! Number of MD steps to perform TEMPERATURE 298 ! Temperature in K &THERMOSTAT ! Parameters of Thermostat.

REGION GLOBAL ! region each thermostat is attached to. TYPE CSVR ! canonical sampling through velocity rescaling &CSVR TIMECON [fs] 100. &END CSVR &END THERMOSTAT COMVEL TOL 1e-8 ! remove COM motion &END MD &CONSTRAINT &FIXED_ATOMS LIST 2 5 7 9 19 21 23 28 31 33 35 50 52 54 59 62 64 66 86 88 90 95 98 100 102 116 118 120 125 128 130 132 150 152 154 159 162 164 166 183 185 187 192 195 197 199 206 208 210 220 222 224 230 238 240 233 236 244 246 263 265 272 275 277 279 290 292 294 299 302 304 306 326 328 330 335 338 450 452 !Tells cp2k what atoms to fix COMPONENTS_TO_FIX XYZ !tells cp2k what cordinates to fix i.e. (X,Y,Z) &END FIXED_ATOMS &END CONSTRAINT &FREE_ENERGY &METADYN USE_PLUMED .TRUE. PLUMED_INPUT_FILE ./plumed.dat &END METADYN &END FREE_ENERGY &PRINT ! Printing properties during an MD run &RESTART ! Printing of restart files &EACH ! A restart file will be printed every 25000 md steps MD 10000 &END &END &TRAJECTORY ! Controls the output of the trajectory FORMAT XYZ ! Format of the output trajectory is DCD &EACH ! New trajectory frame will be printed each 5000 md steps MD 100 &END &END &RESTART_HISTORY ! Controls printing of unique restart files during the run keeping all of them. &EACH ! A new restart file will be printed every 5000 md steps MD 10000 &END &END &END PRINT &END MOTION

&EXT_RESTART RESTART_FILE_NAME NPT-1.restart RESTART_COUNTERS .FALSE. RESTART_THERMOSTAT .FALSE.

&END

Below is the PLUMED file for upper and lower bounds and metadynamic parameters:

#RESTART UNITS LENGTH=A TIME=0.1 #Amstroeng, hartree, fs

energy: ENERGY

(***)=numbers that have been changed to reflect the new structure.

```
d1: DISTANCE ATOMS=414,229 NOPBC #Thr C to Cys S ***
d2: DISTANCE ATOMS=414,416 NOPBC #Thr C to Gly N peptide bond ***
d3: DISTANCE ATOMS=421,418 NOPBC #Gly Alpha C and C restraint ***
d4: DISTANCE ATOMS=108,109 NOPBC #His nitrogen to His H ***
d5: DISTANCE ATOMS=104,105 NOPBC #His beta C to H1 ***
d6: DISTANCE ATOMS=104,106 NOPBC #His beta C to H2 ***
d7: DISTANCE ATOMS=108,229 NOPBC #His to Cys distance ***
d8: DISTANCE ATOMS=416,417 NOPBC #Gly N to Gly H distance ***
d9: DISTANCE ATOMS=112,113 NOPBC #His N2 to His H2 ***
d10: DISTANCE ATOMS=412,406 NOPBC #Thr sidechain Oxy to Beta C ***
d11: DISTANCE ATOMS=108,109 NOPBC #His to H+ distance ***
d12: DISTANCE ATOMS=229,109 NOPBC #Cys and H+ distance ***
d13: DISTANCE ATOMS=416,109 NOPBC #Gly peptide nitrogen to His H distance ***
d14: DISTANCE ATOMS=414,415 NOPBC #Thr C to Thr O bond (used for moving restraint)***
d15: DISTANCE ATOMS=414,404 NOPBC #Thr C to Thr CA bond (used for moving restraint)***
d16: DISTANCE ATOMS=415,229 NOPBC #Thr backbone Oxy to Cys distance ***
d17: DISTANCE ATOMS=108,414 NOPBC #His to Thr C distance ***
d18: DISTANCE ATOMS=109,415 NOPBC #His H (catalysis) to Thr O bond (used for moving 
restraint)***
d19: DISTANCE ATOMS=418,420 NOPBC #Gly alpha carbon to H1 ***
d20: DISTANCE ATOMS=418,419 NOPBC #Gly alpha carbon to H1 ***
d21: DISTANCE ATOMS=222,223 NOPBC #Ser 232 backbone nitrogen and H1 restraint ***
#comb1: COMBINE ARG=d1,d2,d13,d4 PERIODIC=NO COEFFICIENTS=-1,1,-1,1 ###
HDLA COEFFICIENTS are d1=-0.018, d2=0.989, d13=-0.144
comb1: COMBINE ARG=d4,d13 PERIODIC=NO COEFFICIENTS=1,-1
comb2: COMBINE ARG=d1,d2 PERIODIC=NO COEFFICIENTS=1,-1
```
c1: COORDINATION GROUPA=414 GROUPB=415,229,416,404 R_0=2.0

```
#MOVINGRESTRAINT ...
# ARG=d13
# STEP0=0 AT0=2.5 KAPPA0=0
# STEP1=20000 AT1=1.5 KAPPA1=600.0
# STEP2=30000 AT2=1.5 KAPPA2=600.0
# STEP3=50000 AT3=1.5 KAPPA3=0.0
# LABEL=restraint
#...#MOVINGRESTRAINT ...
# ARG=d1
# STEP0=0 AT0=4.3 KAPPA0=0.0
# STEP1=20000 AT1=1.5 KAPPA1=600.0
# STEP2=30000 AT2=1.5 KAPPA2=600.0
# STEP3=50000 AT3=1.5 KAPPA3=0.0
# LABEL=restraint2
#...
#MOVINGRESTRAINT ...
# ARG=d2
# STEP0=0 AT0=2.0 KAPPA0=300.0
# STEP1=20000 AT1=5.0 KAPPA1=300.0
# STEP2=30000 AT2=10.0 KAPPA2=300.0
# STEP3=50000 AT3=10.0 KAPPA3=0.0
# LABEL=restraint3
#...
```

```
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d1 AT=3.0 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_5
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d14 AT=2.5 KAPPA=300.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_6
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d11 AT=5.0 KAPPA=300.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_7
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d2 AT=5.0 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_8
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d15 AT=2.5 KAPPA=300.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_9
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d13 AT=5.0 KAPPA=50.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_13
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d3 AT=1.8 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_11
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d8 AT=1.7 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_12
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d9 AT=1.7 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_14
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d5 AT=1.7 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_15
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d6 AT=1.7 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_16
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d10 AT=2.0 KAPPA=150.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_17
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d19 AT=1.5 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_19
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d20 AT=1.5 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_20
UPPER_WALLS ARG=d21 AT=1.5 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_21
```

```
LOWER_WALLS ARG=d16 AT=3.00 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=lwall_1
LOWER_WALLS ARG=d17 AT=2.5 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=lwall_2
LOWER_WALLS ARG=d18 AT=1.75 KAPPA=600.0 EXP=2 LABEL=lwall_3
```

```
#UPPER_WALLS ARG=d1 AT=+5.0 KAPPA=150.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_1
#UPPER_WALLS ARG=d2 AT=+5.0 KAPPA=150.0 EXP=2 LABEL=uwall_2
```

```
#metad: METAD ARG=d1 PACE=100 HEIGHT=5.0 SIGMA=0.5 GRID_MIN=-100 GRID_MAX=100 
GRID_BIN=200 FILE=HILLS BIASFACTOR=80 TEMP=300.0 ADAPTIVE=GEOM SIGMA_MIN=0.02 
SIGMA_MAX=2.0
#metad: METAD ARG=comb1,d1 PACE=100 HEIGHT=5.0 SIGMA=0.5 GRID_MIN=-100,-100 
GRID_MAX=100,100 GRID_BIN=200,200 FILE=HILLS BIASFACTOR=80 TEMP=300.0 
ADAPTIVE=GEOM SIGMA_MIN=0.02,0.02 SIGMA_MAX=2.0,2.0
metad: METAD ARG=comb1,d1,d2 PACE=100 HEIGHT=5.0 SIGMA=0.5 GRID_MIN=-100,-100,-
100 GRID_MAX=100,100,100 GRID_BIN=200,200,200 FILE=HILLS_3CV BIASFACTOR=80 
TEMP=300.0 ADAPTIVE=GEOM SIGMA_MIN=0.02,0.02,0.02 SIGMA_MAX=2.0,2.0,2.0
```
FLUSH STRIDE=1 PRINT ...

```
ARG=d1,d2,d3,d4,d5,d6,d7,d8,d9,d10,d11,d12,d13,d14,d15,d16,d17,c1,comb1,comb2,metad.*,
uwall 5.*,lwall 1.*,uwall 13.*,lwall 2.*#restraint.bias,#restraint2.bias,#restraint3.bias,#metad
.*
STRIDE=1
FILE=COLVAR_3CV
... PRINT
```