

Enumerating Pathways of Proton Abstraction Based on a Spatial and Electrostatic Analysis of Residues in the Catalytic Site

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Abstract

The pathways of proton abstraction (PA), a key aspect of most catalytic reactions, is often controversial and highly debated. Ultrahigh-resolution diffraction studies, molecular dynamics, quantum mechanics and molecular mechanic simulations are often adopted to gain insights in the PA mechanisms in enzymes. These methods require expertise and effort to setup and can be computationally intensive. We present a push button methodology – *Proton abstraction Simulation* (PRISM) – to enumerate the possible pathways of PA in a protein with known 3D structure based on the spatial and electrostatic properties of residues in the proximity of a given nucleophilic residue. Proton movements are evaluated in the vicinity of this nucleophilic residue based on distances, potential differences, spatial channels and characteristics of the individual residues (polarity, acidic, basic, etc). Modulating these parameters eliminates their empirical nature and also might reveal pathways that originate from conformational changes. We have validated our method using serine proteases and concurred with the dichotomy in PA in Class A β -lactamases, both of which are hydrolases. The PA mechanism in a transferase has also been corroborated. The source code is made available at www.sanchak.com/prism.

Citation: Chakraborty S (2012) Enumerating Pathways of Proton Abstraction Based on a Spatial and Electrostatic Analysis of Residues in the Catalytic Site. PLoS ONE 7(6): e39577. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577

Editor: Annalisa Pastore, National Institute for Medical Research, Medical Research Council, United Kingdom

Received: February 15, 2012; **Accepted:** May 28, 2012; **Published:** June 20, 2012

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Funding: This work was funded by the Tata Institute of Fundamental Research (Department of Atomic Energy). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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Introduction

Evolution has honed enzymes to efficiently and selectively catalyze biochemical reactions. Catalysis entails specific functional groups of the enzyme to be positioned appropriately with respect to the substrate [1]. Of later, the induced fit postulation has gained more acceptance over the lock and key model for catalysis [2]. The formation and rupturing of bonds after substrate binding is achieved by different modes of catalysis (metal-ion, acid-base, covalent, etc). Proton abstraction (PA) in the active site of the enzyme is a common feature in the various modes of catalysis.

The mechanism of PA often remains enigmatic despite of intense research. A classic example is the debate surrounding the base (Lys73 or Glu166) responsible for deprotonating the active site serine (Ser70) in Class A β -lactamases [3–9]. In contrast, His57 is unanimously accepted to be the base that abstracts the proton from Ser195 in serine proteases [10–12]. Ultrahigh-resolution diffraction studies [3,4,13,14], molecular dynamics, quantum mechanics and molecular mechanic simulations [15–17] are methods usually applied to gain insights in the PA mechanisms in enzymes. These methods require considerable expertise for setting up the simulations and can be computationally intensive. A fast, simple and accurate method to probe the active site for possible ways of achieving the deprotonation of a known nucleophile would be quite useful for such studies.

We have previously established a computational method (CLASP) based on the spatial and electrostatic properties of

residues for the detection of active sites and predicting unknown functions in proteins [18]. CLASP has been extended to define a generic methodology to quantify promiscuity (the catalysis of reactions distinct from the one the protein has evolved to perform, but using the same domain) in a wide range of proteins [19]. Analysis based on the potential difference between the catalytic residues in Class A β -lactamases identified the dichotomy in the PA mechanism and germinated the idea of a method that would enumerate the possible pathways for PA. We present an automated computational methodology – *Proton abstraction Simulation* (PRISM) – to enumerate the various pathways of PA based on the spatial and electrostatic properties of residues in the proximity of a known nucleophilic residue (Fig. 1).

The goal of achieving deprotonation of a nucleophilic residue can be theoretically achieved through multiple pathways. PRISM enumerates all these possibilities. Proton movements based on distances, spatial channels, potential differences and characteristics of the individual residues (polarity, acidic, basic, etc.) are iterated with simultaneous recalibration of potentials of the residues concerned. The paths that result in the desired goal of deprotonating the nucleophile are saved during these simulations, and are the final output at the end of the simulation.

PRISM has been validated using serine proteases, Class A β -lactamases (both hydrolases) and a serine transferase [20]. Such results demonstrate that the simplistic model of PRISM enables it to be fast and simple without compromising on its ability to extract the correct proton abstraction pathways.

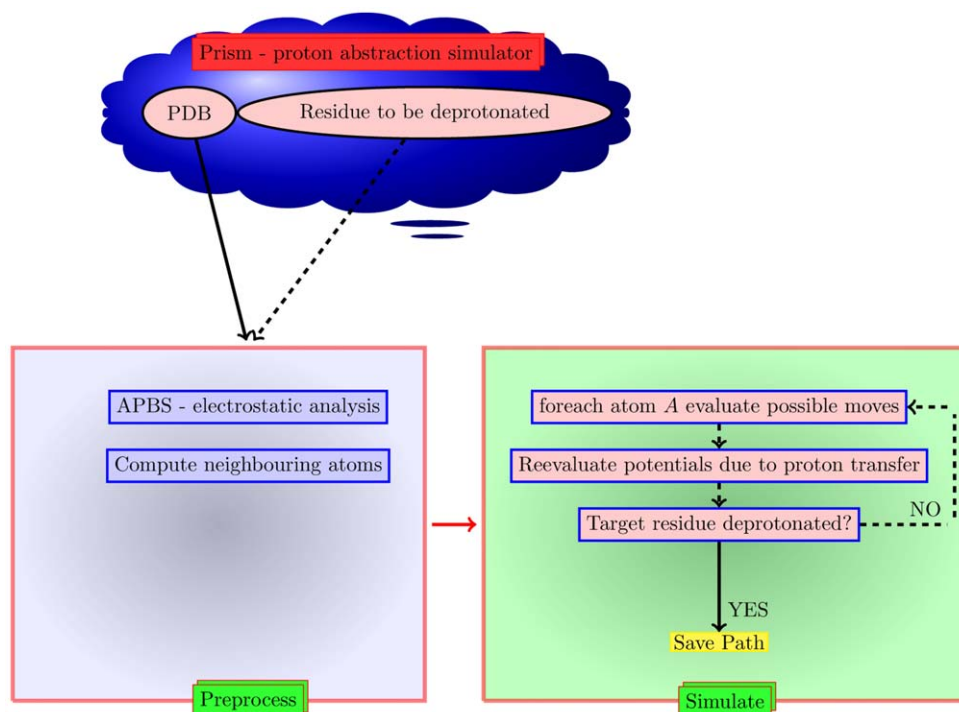


Figure 1. Flow for PRISM. A push button methodology for enumerating the possible pathways of proton abstraction in a protein with known 3D structure based on the spatial and electrostatic properties of residues in the proximity of a given nucleophilic residue. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g001

Results

We present the results of running PRISM on three well known catalytic reactions involving the deprotonation of a nucleophile – Class A β -lactamases, serine proteases and serine hydroxymethyltransferase.

1. Class A β -lactamases

β -lactamases are the chief cause of bacterial resistance to penicillins, cephalosporins and related β -lactam compounds [21,22]. They inactivate antibiotics by hydrolyzing the amide bond of the β -lactam ring yielding biologically inactive products. The Ambler classification [23,24] has four classes – Classes A, C and D [25,26] have a nucleophilic serine at the active site, while Class B β -lactamases are metallo-enzymes [27,28].

The Class A enzymes (TEM, SHV, etc. and the newly emerging extended-spectrum β -lactamases) have a diverse substrate profile and are the common β -lactamases observed in clinical isolates. The roles of Lys73 and Glu166 in the acylation step as the catalytic base required to deprotonate the Ser70 is highly debated. The ambiguity on the role of Lys73 in deprotonating Ser70 as the sole base is evident from the reversed sign of the potential difference (PD), which suggests that Lys73 by itself cannot act as the base required to abstract the proton from Ser70 (Fig. 2).

We chose 4 structures of Class A β -lactamases – one apo crystal structure PER-1 (PDBid:1E25 [29]), a TEM-1 with a boronic acid transition-state analog bound (PDBid:1M40 [4]), a TEM N170G mutant with increased efficiency on ampicillin (PDBid:3JYI [30]) and a SHV-1 β -lactamase complexed with an inhibitor (2G2U [31]). Table 1 and Table 2 shows the pairwise distance and PD between the catalytic residues in these Class A β -lactamases. It is evident from these tables that these distances and PD are correlated, a result that we have previously used to predict

functions in proteins [18]. The paths for PA for these proteins are shown in Table 3. Fig. 3 shows the simulation steps that identifies [Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ] as a possible path for abstracting the proton from Ser70 in a Class A β -lactamases (PDBid:1E25). The other path for PA (Ser70OG->Glu166OE1) acts through an intermediate water.

We now consider 2 CTX-M type enzymes – PDBid:2P74 [7] and PDBid:1IYS [32] – in which the Lys73 has more flexibility than other classes of Class A β -lactamases. Table 1 shows that these proteins differ with respect to the positioning of the OE1

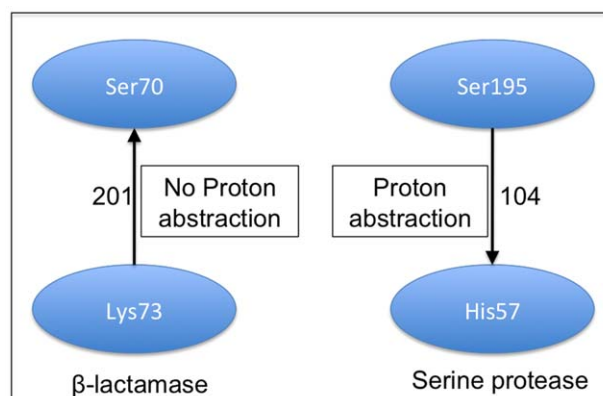


Figure 2. The differences in the way the nucleophilic serine is deprotonated in β -lactamases and serine proteases. The potential differences are annotated on the edges, the direction of the edge indicating the direction of the potential difference. Ser70 cannot donate proton to Lys73 because of reverse potential gradient in β -lactamase. In serine proteases, the Ser195 however has the correct potential to donate the proton to His57. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g002

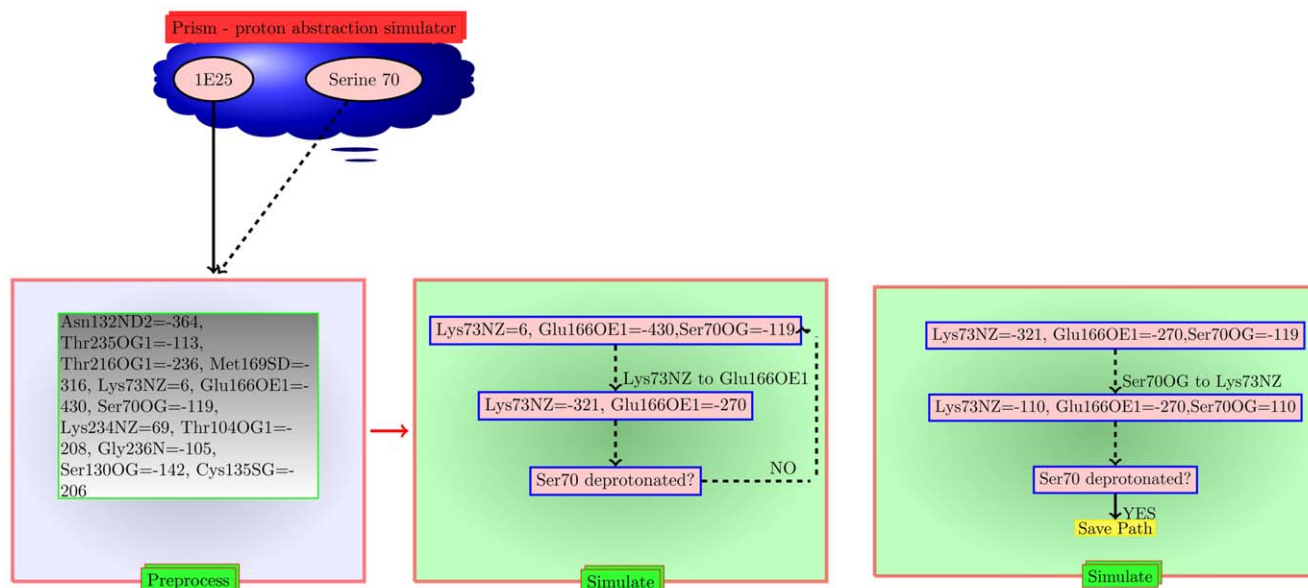


Figure 3. PRISM Simulation steps in PDBid:1E25. We show the simulation steps that identifies [Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ] as a possible path for abstracting the proton from Ser70 in a Class A β -lactamases (PDB id: 1E25). The values associated with each atom is the potential at that atom computed using APBS.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g003

atom of Glu166. This has implications with respect to PD calculations, and the deviations in PD can be seen in Table 2. For example, the distance between the functional atoms of Lys73 and Glu166 in the PDBid:1E25 and PDBid:2P74 are 5.0Å and 2.9Å respectively, while the PD between the respective atoms are 436 units and 234 units. The paths for PA in protein PDBid:2P74 are shown in Table 3. One such path in PDBid:2P74 is [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ], the simulation steps for which are shown in Fig. 4. Note that only after Ser130 donated the proton to Lys73 it was able to have the high PD required to transfer a proton to Glu166.

2. Serine proteases

Serine proteases cut peptide bonds in proteins using a well-known catalytic triad – (Ser195, His57, Asp102) [10]. The precise synchronized action between these residues is played out within a cleft in which the substrate fits in and is subsequently cleaved off. PRISM extracts the correct path (Table 3) for PA in a trypsin-like protease (PDBid: 1A0J [33] – [Ser195OG->His57NE2]) and a

subtilisin-like protease (PDBid:1GCI [34] [Ser221OG->His64NE2]).

3. Serine hydroxymethyltransferase (SHMT)

Since both serine protease and β -lactamases are hydrolases, we validated PRISM on an enzyme with a different mode of catalysis – a transferase (PDBid:1CJ0 [20]). SHMT is a critical enzyme of the one-carbon units and catalyzes the interconversion of serine and glycine (folate-linked one-carbon units are needed for DNA synthesis and repair and provide methyl groups in methylation reactions). Ser226 is conserved as either a Thr or Ser across all known SHMTs [20]. PRISM extracts two paths for PA in this protein – [Lys229NZ->His126ND1, Thr226OG1->Lys229NZ] and [Thr226OG1->His228ND1] – given Thr226 as the nucleophilic residue that is to be deprotonated (Table 3).

Table 1. Pairwise distance in Å between catalytic residues in Class A β -lactamases – Ser70(a), Lys73(b), Ser130(c), [Arg/Lys]234(d), Glu166(e).

| | ab | ac | ad | ae | bc | bd | be | cd | ce | de |
|------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| PDB | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1E25 | 2.8 | 3.2 | 4.7 | 5.5 | 3.6 | 5.6 | 5 | 2.9 | 8 | 10 |
| 1M40 | 2.7 | 3 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 3.1 | 5.2 | 5 | 2.8 | 7.7 | 9.8 |
| 3JYI | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.6 | 5 | 3.9 | 5.8 | 4.4 | 2.8 | 7.2 | 9.4 |
| 2G2U | 2.8 | 3.5 | 4.4 | 5.4 | 4.3 | 5.3 | 5.1 | 2.6 | 8.4 | 9.6 |
| CTX BLases | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2P74 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 4.3 | 5.7 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 6.6 | 8.1 |
| 1IYS | 2.9 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 2.7 | 4.7 | 4.3 | 2.9 | 6.3 | 7.9 |

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.t001

Table 2. Pairwise potential difference between catalytic residues in Class A β -lactamases – Ser70(a), Lys73(b), Ser130(c), [Arg/Lys]234(d), Glu166(e).

| | ab | ac | ad | ae | bc | bd | be | cd | ce | de |
|------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|
| PDB | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1E25 | -125.6 | 22.4 | -189.1 | 310.7 | 148.1 | -63.5 | 436.3 | -211.5 | 288.2 | 499.7 |
| 1M40 | -215.3 | -30.9 | -241.8 | 230.6 | 184.4 | -26.6 | 445.9 | -211 | 261.5 | 472.5 |
| 3JYI | -150.5 | 19.2 | -209 | 322.2 | 169.7 | -58.5 | 472.7 | -228.1 | 303.1 | 531.2 |
| 2G2U | -201.7 | 22.3 | -250.3 | 233.7 | 224 | -48.6 | 435.4 | -272.7 | 211.4 | 484 |
| CTX BLases | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2P74 | 191.4 | -48.8 | 198.4 | 456 | -240.2 | 7.1 | 264.6 | 247.2 | 504.8 | 257.6 |
| 1IYS | -215 | -27.7 | -178.1 | 77.7 | 187.3 | 36.9 | 292.6 | -150.4 | 105.3 | 255.7 |

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.t002

Discussion

In the sheltered confines of the active site, evolution has shaped the residues to be like a spring coiled for action, albeit at the cost of the thermal stability of the whole protein [35,36]. It is this precise recognition of the substrate that sets the whole catalytic machinery rolling [37]. A static analysis of the active site should reveal, with some degree of certainty, the course of events that follows this nudge. In the current work we enumerate the possible ways of proton abstraction (PA) from a static analysis of the spatial and electrostatic properties of residues in the neighborhood of a known nucleophile.

PA mechanisms in proteins are studied through ultrahigh-resolution diffraction studies [3,4,13,14], molecular dynamics, quantum mechanics and molecular mechanic simulations [15–17] using molecular dynamics programs [38,39]. We present a methodology – *Proton abstraction Simulation* (PRISM) – to enumerate the various pathways of PA based on the spatial and

electrostatic properties of residues in the proximity of a known nucleophilic residue (Fig. 1). Proton movements based on distances, spatial channels, potential differences and characteristics of the individual residues (polarity, acidic, basic, etc) are iterated with simultaneous recalibration of potentials of the residues concerned. We have validated our method using serine proteases, Class A β -lactamases and serine hydroxymethyltransferases.

There are quite a few limitations of our approach, the primary being the fact that we use a static image of the protein. The distances and potential differences over which PA is allowed are empirical, as is the method for recalibrating the potentials after a proton movement. Varying these parameters (made possible by small runtimes) in a sense simulates a dynamic movement of the protein. Hard limits can never paint a true picture of catalysis – if a PA is valid over 3Å, there is no reason why it should not be valid over 3.1Å. Conformational changes in the presence of substrate is accepted to play a key role in catalysis. Although proton transfer across multiple water molecules has been observed, currently PA

Table 3. Paths for proton abstraction as enumerated by PRISM.

| PDB ids | Paths for proton transfer |
|--|---|
| β-lactamases | |
| 1E25,1M40,3JYI,2G2U | 1) [Ser70OG->Glu166OE1] 2) [Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ] |
| 2P74 | 1) [Ser70OG->Asn170ND2] 2) [Ser70OG->Glu166OE1] 3) [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser72OG->Lys73NZ, Ser70OG->Ser72OG] 4) [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Ser237OG->Asn170ND2, Thr235OG1->Lys234NZ, Ser72OG->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Ser72OG] 5) [Ser70OG->Asn132ND2] 6) [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Ser237OG->Asn170ND2, Ser70OG->Ser237OG] 7) [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ] |
| 1IYS | 1) [LYS73NZ->ASN170ND2, SER70OG->LYS73NZ] |
| Serine proteases | |
| 1A0J | 1) [Ser195OG->His57NE2] |
| 1GCI | 1) [Ser221OG->His64NE2] |
| Serine hydroxymethyltransferase | |
| 1CJ0 | 1) [Lys229NZ->His126ND1, Thr226OG1->Lys229NZ] 2) [Thr226OG1->His228ND1] |

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.t003

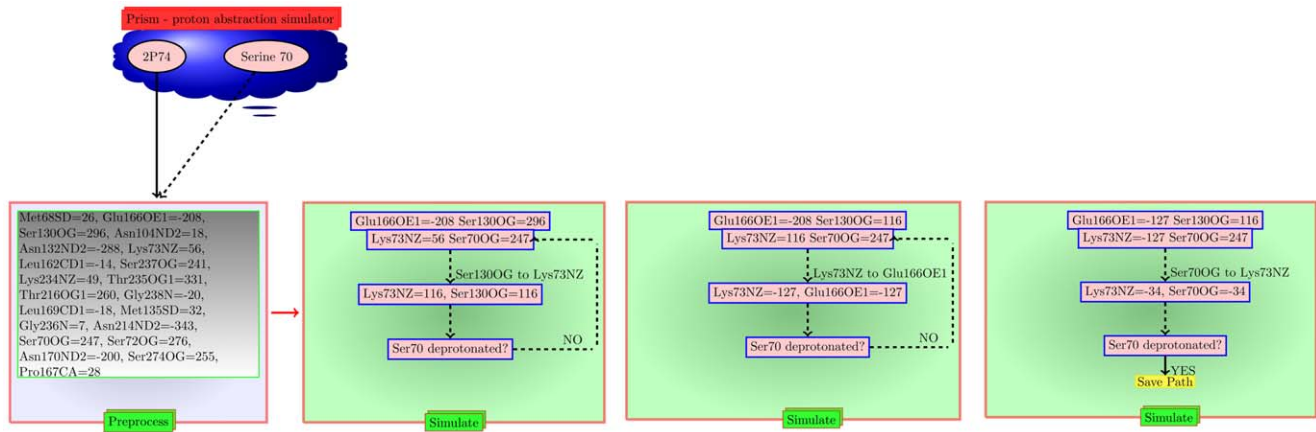


Figure 4. PRISM Simulation steps in PDBid:2P74. We show the simulation steps that identifies [Ser130OG->Lys73NZ, Lys73NZ->Glu166OE1, Ser70OG->Lys73NZ] as a possible path for abstracting the proton from Ser70 in a Class A β -lactamases (PDB id: 2P74). The values associated with each atom is the potential at that atom computed using APBS. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g004

in PRISM is limited over a single water molecule [40]. Also, proton abstraction through metal ions is not currently handled [41]. Finally, the method is highly dependent on the tool used for potential computation [42], and thus shares the limitation of similar approaches using Finite Difference Poisson-Boltzmann (FDPB) [43–45].

Intuitively, the potential environment of the active site encodes more than just the catalytic residues. Keeping this in mind, the simulations are confined to the active site only. To summarize, we present a fast, simple and accurate method for enumerating potential pathways for proton abstraction of a known nucleophilic residue in a protein with known structure (PRISM).

Materials and Methods

We now detail the PRISM methodology shown pictorially in (Fig. 1). We describe the functions and also present the pseudocode.

1. PRISM(): Top level function

The input to **PRISM()** (Fig. 5a) is a protein with known 3D structure, and the reactive atom of a known nucleophilic residue that has to be deprotonated (X). The set of atoms (CR) that

comprises the active site (**GetActiveSiteAtoms**) is first computed and then a state of the active site is defined by the potentials of the constituent atoms. The initial state of the active site is obtained by computing the potentials of atoms in CR using APBS [42]. From this initial state, all possible next states based on proton transfers are iteratively computed (**EvaluateNextPossibleStates**). Proton transfers between two atoms are allowed if they are feasible from both spatial (**IsMoveSpatiallyFeasible**) and electrostatic (**IsMoveElectrostaticallyFeasible**) considerations. Visited states are cached to avoid infinite looping. For each new state reached, we verify whether the target atom has been deprotonated (**IsTargetResidueDeprotonated**). If the deprotonation (goal) state is emitted as a series of proton transfers between pairs of atoms.

2. GetActiveSiteAtoms() Compute the set of atoms that comprise the active site

The set of atoms (CR) that are less than a specified distance ($MAXRADIUS$) from X is considered as the active site atoms (Fig 5b). Note that each residue is represented by its reactive atoms

Algorithm 1: Function PRISM() - Proton abstraction Simulation, the top level function

Input: $PDB \leftarrow$ The 3D structure of the protein
Input: $X \leftarrow$ The atom of the nucleophilic residue that has to be deprotonated
Output: $Paths \leftarrow$ List of paths: such that for each path, proton transfers between successive pair of atoms deprotonates the atom X

begin
 $CR \leftarrow$ GetCatalyticResidueAtoms(); // Set of atoms that comprises the active site
 $NewStatesAdded \leftarrow$ RunAPBS(); // Initial state
 $CacheStates \leftarrow NewStatesAdded$; // Set of states already visited
while $NewStatesAdded$ **do**
 $SetOfNewStatesReached \leftarrow \emptyset$;
 foreach state CS in $NewStatesAdded$ **do**
 $NewStates = EvaluateNextPossibleStates(CR, CS, CacheStates, X)$;
 if $NewStates \neq \emptyset$ **then**
 Add $NewStates$ to $SetOfNewStatesReached$;
 end
 Add CS to $CacheStates$;
 RemoveState CS from $NewStatesAdded$;
 end
 $NewStatesAdded \leftarrow SetOfNewStatesReached$;
end
end

(a)

Algorithm 2: Function GetCatalyticResidueAtoms() - Get set of atoms that comprise the catalytic site

Input: $PDB \leftarrow$ The 3D structure of the protein
Input: $X \leftarrow$ The atom of the nucleophilic residue that has to be deprotonated
Output: $CR \leftarrow$ Set of atoms

begin
 $CR \leftarrow \emptyset$;
 Add A to CR ; // Add the atom of the nucleophile first

// Now choose atoms that are less than MAXRADIUS from the nucleophile
foreach atom A in PDB **do**
 if GetDistanceBetweenAtoms(A, X) < $MAXRADIUS$ **then**
 Add A to CR ;
 end
end
end

(b)

Figure 5. Pseudocode for PRISM. (a) Top level function. (b) Compute the set of atoms that comprise the active site. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g005

Algorithm 3: function EvaluateNextPossibleStates() - find the possible new states that can be reached by proton transfers from one state

```

Input: PDB  $\Leftarrow$  The 3D structure of the protein
Input: CR  $\Leftarrow$  Set of atoms of catalytic residues ;
Input: CS  $\Leftarrow$  Current state ;
Input: CacheStates  $\Leftarrow$  Set of states already visited
Input: X  $\Leftarrow$  The atom of the nucleophilic residue that has to be deprotonated
Output: NewStates  $\Leftarrow$  Set of states reached from the current state
begin
  NewStates  $\leftarrow$   $\emptyset$  ;
  foreach atom i in CR do
    foreach atom j in CR,  $i \neq j$  do
      if IsMoveSpatiallyFeasible(i,j) then
        if IsMoveElectrostaticallyFeasible(i,j) then
          newState = AdjustPotential(i,j);
          if IsTargetResidueDeprotonated(X) then
            PrintPath();
            return  $\emptyset$  ;
          end
          if IsStateReachedForTheFirstTime(CacheStates,newState) then
            Add newState to NewStates;
          end
        end
      end
    end
  end
end
return NewStates ;
end

```

(a)

Algorithm 4: function IsMoveSpatiallyFeasible() - Find whether atoms are spatially close - directly or through an intermediate water molecule.

```

Input: atomA  $\Leftarrow$  donor atom
Input: atomB  $\Leftarrow$  receiving atom
Output: bool  $\Leftarrow$  1 if proton transfer is valid, 0 is not
begin
  if SpatialChannelIsObstructed(atomA,atomB) then
    return 0 ; // proton transfer not allowed as the spatial channel is obstructed
  end
  distanceAtoB  $\leftarrow$  GetDistanceBetweenAtoms(atomA,atomB) ;
  if distanceAtoB < MAXDIST then
    return 1 ; // proton transfer allowed
  end
  else
    // There exists a water molecule, such that the distance of
    // this water is less than MAXDIST from both atoms
     $\forall$  Water molecules,  $\exists W_i$ 
    distanceAtoWi  $\leftarrow$  GetDistanceBetweenAtoms(atomA,Wi) ;
    distanceBtoWi  $\leftarrow$  GetDistanceBetweenAtoms(atomB,Wi) ;
    if (distanceAtoWi < MAXDIST)  $\wedge$  (distanceBtoWi < MAXDIST) then
      return true ;
    end
    return false ;
  end
end
...
...
end

```

(b)

Figure 6. Pseudocode for PRISM. (a) Find the possible new states that can be reached by proton transfers from one state. (b) Is proton movement between to atoms spatially feasible?
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g006

(one residue might have multiple atoms, as does histidine). *CR* includes *X* as well.

3. EvaluateNextPossibleStates() – Find the possible new states that can be reached by proton transfers from one initial state

This function computes the new states reachable from the current state, as defined by possible proton abstraction (PA) between each pair of atoms (Fig. 6a). The feasibility of PA is evaluated by **IsMoveSpatiallyFeasible** and **IsMoveElectrostaticallyFeasible**. If PA is possible, it is verified whether the last PA has achieved the goal of deprotonation of *X*. Otherwise, a new state is computed by adjusting the potentials of the two atoms involved in PA (**AdjustPotential**). The current state is tagged as visited to avoid infinite looping. Thus, each state branches into multiple new states based on the number of possible proton transfers from that state.

4. IsMoveSpatiallyFeasible() – Is proton movement between to atoms spatially feasible?

Proton transfer between two atoms (*atomA* and *atomB*) was regarded as possible if the distance between them is less than a specified value (*MAXDIST*), or there was a water molecule (*W*) such that the distance between *atomA* and *W*, and the distance between *atomB* and *W* are both less than *MAXDIST* (Fig. 6b).

Spatial hindrance from other neighboring atoms is taken into consideration. If a ball of radius 1 Å makes contact with any other atoms as it rolls from *atomA* to *atomB*, then the PA is considered as invalid between this pair of atoms.

5. IsMoveElectrostaticallyFeasible() – Is the potential difference between the two atoms favorable for a proton transfer?

The characteristics of the residues involved determine the potential difference required for a proton transfer (Table S1) (Fig. 7a). For example, PA is forbidden if either of the atoms belongs to a non-polar residue. Likewise PA from an acidic residue

Algorithm 5: function IsMoveElectrostaticallyFeasible() - find if the potential difference between the two atoms is favorable for a proton transfer

```

Input: atomA  $\Leftarrow$  donor atom
Input: atomB  $\Leftarrow$  receiving atom
Output: bool  $\Leftarrow$  1 if proton transfer is valid, 0 is not
begin
  if IsNonPolar(atomA) and IsNonPolar(atomB) then
    return 0 ; // proton transfer between atoms of non-polar residues are not allowed
  end
  potentialA  $\leftarrow$  GetPotential(atomA) ; potentialB  $\leftarrow$  GetPotential(atomB) ;
  potentialDifference  $\leftarrow$  (potentialA - potentialB) ;
  if IsAtomFromAcidicResidue(atomA) and IsAtomFromBasicResidue(atomB) then
    // See SI Table 2 - these parameters can be configured according to user needs
    if potentialDifference > 50 then
      return 1 ; // proton transfer allowed
    end
  end
end
...
...
end

```

(a)

Algorithm 6: function AdjustPotential() - adjust the potentials of the two atoms between which PA occurred

```

Input: atomA  $\Leftarrow$  donor atom
Input: atomB  $\Leftarrow$  receiving atom
Output: newState  $\Leftarrow$  new state with changed potentials of two atoms
begin
  potentialA  $\leftarrow$  GetPotential(atomA) ; potentialB  $\leftarrow$  GetPotential(atomB) ;
  potentialDifference  $\leftarrow$  (potentialA - potentialB) ;
  subtract  $\leftarrow$  potentialDifference x ADJUSTRATIO ;
  add  $\leftarrow$  potentialDifference x (1 - ADJUSTRATIO) ;
  SetPotential(atomA, potentialA - subtract) ;
  SetPotential(atomB, potentialB + add) ;
  return currentState ;
end

```

(b)

Figure 7. Pseudocode for PRISM. (a) Is the potential difference between the two atoms favorable for a proton transfer? (b) Adjust the potentials of the two atoms between which PA occurred.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0039577.g007

to a basic residue requires a smaller PD than a proton movement from a basic residue to an acidic residue.

6. AdjustPotential() – Adjust the potentials of the two atoms between which PA occurred

The potentials of the two atoms are adjusted after each move, and results in a new state (Fig. 7b). The potential of the donor atom is reduced and the potential of the recipient atom is increased – as happens on a proton transfer – and the potential difference between them is reduced.

Some of the functions are self-explanatory (**GetDistanceBetweenAtoms**, **IsNonPolar**, **IsAtomFromBasicResidue**, **IsAtomFromAcidicResidue**, **IsTargetResidueDeprotonated**, **RunAPBS**). Table S2 shows the description of the parameters used and their default values.

7. Tools

Adaptive Poisson-Boltzmann Solver (APBS) and PDB2PQR packages were used to calculate the potential difference between the reactive atoms of the corresponding proteins [42,46]. The APBS parameters are set as follows -solute dielectric: 2, solvent dielectric: 78, solvent probe radius: 1.4 Å, temperature: 298 K and 0 ionic strength. APBS writes out the electrostatic potential in dimensionless units of kT/e where k is Boltzmann's constant, T is

the temperature in K and e is the charge of an electron. We extensively integrated and used the freely available BioPerl [47] modules and Emboss [48] tools.

Supporting Information

Table S1 Parameters used in PRISM, and their default values.

(PDF)

Table S2 Potential difference threshold for proton transfer.

(PDF)

Acknowledgments

I gratefully acknowledge B.J.Rao for technical discussions and infrastructural support. I am also indebted to Bjarni Asgeirsson from the Science Institute, Department of Biochemistry, University of Iceland for technical help with the methodology.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SC. Performed the experiments: SC. Analyzed the data: SC. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: SC. Wrote the paper: SC.

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