A novel fold for acyltransferase-3 (AT3) proteins provides a framework for transmembrane acyl-group transfer

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Abstract

Acylation of diverse carbohydrates occurs across all domains of life and can be catalysed by proteins with a membrane bound acyltransferase-3 (AT3) domain (PF01757). In bacteria, these proteins are essential in processes including symbiosis, resistance to viruses and antimicrobials, and biosynthesis of antibiotics, yet their structure and mechanism is largely unknown. In this study, evolutionary co-variance analysis was used to build a computational model of the structure of a bacterial O-antigen modifying acetyltransferase, OafB. The resulting structure exhibited a novel fold for the AT3 domain, which molecular dynamics simulations demonstrated is stable in the membrane. The AT3 domain contains 10 transmembrane helices arranged to form a large cytoplasmic cavity lined by residues known to be essential for function. Further molecular dynamics simulations support a model where the acyl-coA donor spans the membrane through accessing a pore created by movement of an important loop capping the inner cavity, enabling OafB to present the acetyl group close to the likely catalytic resides on the extracytoplasmic surface. Limited but important interactions with the fused SGNH domain in OafB are identified and modelling suggests this domain is mobile and can both accept acyl-groups from the AT3 and then reach beyond the membrane to reach acceptor substrates. Together this new general model of AT3 function provides a

34 framework for the development of inhibitors that could abrogate critical functions of bacterial
35 pathogens.
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Introduction

Acyltransferase family 3 (*Acyl_transf_3,* AT3) domain (Interpro: IPR002656, PFAM:
PF01757) containing proteins are found in all domains of life. These membrane-bound AT3
proteins are involved in acylation of a wide range of extracytoplasmic and surface bacterial
polysaccharides (1), but are also important in Eukarya, for example in the regulation of
lifespan in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (2) and in *Drosophila* development (3). In bacteria, where
these proteins have been primarily studied, the resulting acylations have been shown to be
involved in root nodulation (4), increase the efficacy of macrolide antibiotics (5), conferring
resistance to lysozyme (6), influencing bacteriophage sensitivity (7), and altering antibody
recognition (8–10). While AT3 domains most commonly exist as standalone proteins, there
are many examples of AT3 domains fused with SGNH or alanine racemase domains, and
fusions to other domains also exist in Eukarya (see Pfam architectures for PF10757). AT3
domains are predicted to have ten transmembrane helices (11–29); however, despite the
wide-ranging functions of this family of proteins, there are currently no models for their
overall structure and only limited information on mechanism.
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The overall understanding of AT3 proteins is mainly derived from studies of these proteins in
the context of bacterial virulence through changes in the cell surface (2,3). One example of
this is the acetylation of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and lipooligosaccharide (LOS) by AT3
domain containing proteins present in the inner (cytoplasmic) membrane of Gram-negative
bacteria, including species of *Neisseria* (30), *Salmonella* (31,32), *Shigella* (33–38)*,*
Haemophilus (39,40), *Burkholderia* (41–44) and *Legionella* (27,45,46), that modify the O-
antigen of the LPS during its synthesis and before LPS export to the outer membrane.
Acetylation performed by these AT3 family proteins increases heterogeneity of the O-
antigen, which can lead to an altered bacterial serotype and resistance to bacteriophage
attack (31–36). Some of these reactions are carried out by AT3 only proteins, others by
proteins with fused AT3 and SGNH domains. SGNH proteins are a family of proteins with
hydrolase/transferase activity (47).
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A second important process in bacteria that involves an AT3 protein is the modification of
peptidoglycan that leads to resistance to both lysozyme and β-lactam antibiotics (29,48).
One such protein, OatA, is an AT3 protein with attached SGNH domain (AT3-SGNH), that
acetylates the MurNAc residue in peptidoglycan (29,48). Initially discovered in

Staphylococcus aureus (29), OatA homologues have since been identified in many Gram-

positive bacteria including *Listeria monocytogenes* (48), *Lactococcus lactis* (49,50) and

Streptococcus pneumoniae (14,51,52). Furthermore, standalone AT3 proteins contribute an

acyl group in the biosynthesis of macrolide antibiotics in *Streptomyces* species which

increases antibiotic efficacy (5,53–55). These selected examples (see (1) for a recent

review) illustrate that AT3 domain-containing proteins are involved in a range of highly

relevant processes for bacterial pathogens and may be relevant for biotechnological

applications.

Found in the cytoplasmic membrane, AT3 domains are highly hydrophobic integral

membrane proteins predicted to contain 10 transmembrane helices (11–29). While the

majority of AT3 domains consists of only an AT3 domain (standalone AT3), many are AT3

domains with an additional transmembrane helix (TMH) and C-terminal, periplasmic SGNH

domain attached via a periplasmic linking region (AT3-SGNH) (56). Thanweer *et al.* (26) and

Jones *et al*. (57) have performed PhoA-LacZα fusion analysis of the O-antigen

acetyltransferase Oac from *Shigella flexneri* (a standalone AT3) and OatA from

Staphylococcus aureus (an AT3-SGNH), respectively. Analysis by Thanweer *et al.*

suggested that Oac has 10 TMH, with the N- and C- termini in the cytoplasm (26). This is

consistent with fusion analysis of the O-antigen acetyltransferase OafB from *Salmonella* ser.

Typhimurium (20). The *Salmonella* O-antigen acetyltransferases OafB and OafA are both

AT3-SGNH fusion proteins and predicted to have an 11th TMH to allow the fused SGNH

domain to be located in the periplasm (20,58). In contrast, Jones *et al.* proposed that OatA

contain only 9 TMH with one large re-entrant loop (57); as an AT3-SGNH protein, OatA was

also previously predicted to contain 11 TMH, orientating the SGNH domain in the periplasm

(12,29). In addition, a large cytoplasmic loop was described between TMH 8-9 of OatA,

where Oac has only short cytoplasmic loops but a longer periplasmic loop between TMH3

and 4 (26,59). Currently, this is the extent of the knowledge of the architecture of AT3

domains and there are no published experimentally determined protein structures.

AT3 proteins are predicted to transport acyl groups, including acetyl groups, from the

cytoplasm across the cytoplasmic membrane to be transferred onto the receptor molecule

(6). However, the mechanism is currently largely unknown. The acetyl group has been

proposed to be donated by acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA)(24). Three arginine residues on

the cytoplasmic side of TMH1 and 3 have been identified as highly conserved in the PFAM

HMM logo, and in both standalone AT3 and AT3-SGNH proteins these residues are

essential for function (26,58). Arginine residues have been shown to be involved in binding

of the 3'-phosphate group of acetyl-CoA (60) suggesting that these conserved residues may

interact with the proposed acetyl group donor. Previous *in vitro* studies suggest that

standalone AT3 proteins CmmA, MdmB and Asm19 are able to utilise acetyl-CoA as an

acetyl donor (5,61,62). Importantly, Jones et al. (57) found OatA from *Staphylococcus*

aureus (an AT3-SGNH protein) is able to hydrolyse the acetyl group from acetyl-CoA and

transfer it to the a peptidoglycan-like acceptor substrate, effectively observing the entire

catalytic cycle *in vitro* (57). Thus, the available data indicate that acetyl-CoA is the most

likely acetyl group donor is acetyl-CoA, but how this interacts with the AT3 domain or how

the acetyl group can cross the membrane, is as yet unknown.

In addition, site-directed mutagenesis identified three conserved tyrosine residues which are

required for function (57). One of these Tyr residues is predicted to be located in the

periplasm and is proposed to be involved in transfer of the acyl group from the AT3 domain

to the SGNH domain in AT3-SGNH proteins (57). The catalytic triad of the SGNH domain of

OafB from *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium is known to be required

for acetylation of the rhamnose moiety of the O-antigen of LPS (58), suggesting that in

standalone AT3 proteins an equivalent, as yet unknown, partner protein may exist. If this

were the case, it would suggest that the system may be similar to that of the PatA and PatB

peptidoglycan acetyltransferase system. In this system it is hypothesised that the MBOAT

(membrane-bound O-acyltransferase) protein PatA transports the acetyl group across the

membrane where it is transferred to the peptidoglycan substrate by PatB (an SGNH domain

containing protein) (63).

To further study the AT3-SGNH family of proteins, OafB from *Salmonella enterica* subsp.

enterica was used as a model system. OafB acetylates the rhamnose moiety of the O-

antigen repeating unit of LPS. Modification of the O-antigen has repeatedly been identified

as important for virulence and persistence of bacteria (27,30,39,45). Similarly, O-acetylation

by OafB has been acknowledged in the development of vaccines against *Salmonella* ser.

Paratyphi A, where acetyl groups were shown to be required to elicit bactericidal antibodies

(64,65). Furthermore, OafB-mediated acetylation in invasive non-typhoidal Salmonella

(iNTS) alters susceptibility to bacteriophage (20). OafB consists of an AT3 domain linked to

an SGNH domain via an 11th TMH and periplasmic linking region (AT3-SGNH) (58) (**Fig.**

1A). The structure of the SGNH domain and periplasmic linking region was previously solved

using x-ray crystallography (58). The structure was found to be similar to that of other SGNH

domains, but the periplasmic linking region formed a structured extension suggesting the

AT3 and SGNH domains are likely to exist in close proximity and may even interact (58).

Herein we use RaptorX to determine a computationally derived structure for the

transmembrane region, including the 10-TMH AT3 domain, of OafB. We show this novel

structure to be stable under physiological conditions *via* molecular dynamics simulations.

This model is integrated with the existing x-ray structure of the SGNH domain and published

mutational data to allow additional structure-function analysis. Utilising both classical

molecular dynamics simulations and quantum mechanical calculations, we consider the

acetyl donor and acceptor substrates to generate a refined functional model for this

important family of membrane proteins.

Figure 1: Topology and predicted structure of OafB. **(A)** TOPCONS topology prediction of OafB with N- and C-

termini of each TMH indicated. Consistent with the RaptorX structure, TOPCONS predicts short cytoplasmic

loops and a long periplasmic loop between TMH 3 and 4. **(B)** RaptorX predicted structure of OafB with AT3

domain and TMH 11 coloured light blue, periplasmic loop 3-4 coloured blue, SGNH domain coloured grey with

the periplasmic linking region in orange and additional helix in teal. **(C)** Topology schematic of OafB based on the

RaptorX predicted structure. The RaptorX structure has 11 TMH, with a long periplasmic loop between TMH 3

and 4 consisting of a short helix followed by an unstructured region. TMH1-10 form the AT3 domain and are

coloured blue, TMH11 forms the linking region between the AT3 and SGNH domains and is coloured orange.

Results & Discussion

RaptorX model of OafB supports specific topology predictions and identifies

new features

The structure of OafB was predicted by RaptorX (66–68) using the protein sequence of a

Salmonella rhamose O-acetyltransferase (OafB). This method has been successfully

validated with numerous proteins (69–73). The structure of OafB consists of two key

domains: the AT3 domain and SGNH domain (**Fig. 1B**). The transmembrane region has 13

helices, of which 11 completely span the membrane (**Fig. 1B, C**). The AT3 domain (residues

1-338) has 10 TMH and an additional 11th TMH (residues 339-376) fused to the periplasmic

linking region (containing SGNH-ext, residues 377-421), which facilitates a periplasmic

location of the fused SGNH domain (residues 422-640) (58), as predicted from simple

TOPCONS topological analysis (74,75). The topological analysis also predicted a loop

region between helices 3 and 4 (**Fig. 1A**); in the RaptorX model this region is clearly

suggested to be a short re-entrant loop consisting of a short, well-structured helix (residue

99-111) followed by a ~24 residue-long unstructured region **(Fig. 1B,C)**. This means that

there are no long hydrophilic loops in the structure on either side of the membrane (58).

The structure of the SGNH domain and periplasmic linking region of OafB was previously

solved using x-ray crystallography (58). The RaptorX structure of the same region showed

remarkable similarity, with a root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) of 2.8 Å. As seen in the

crystal structure, the SGNH domain from OafB resembles a typical SGNH domain but with

an additional helix and structured extension. Neither of these regions are seen in the

structures of other SGNH domains in the RCSB PDB; despite this, RaptorX predicts these

regions with high accuracy. There are very few residues between the C-terminus of TMH11

(residue 367) and the N-terminus of the structured extension (residue 377), suggesting that

the AT3 and SGNH domains are likely in close proximity and may interact (58). However, in

the RaptorX structure of OafB, the two domains show limited interaction and are not in close

proximity (**Fig. 1B**).

Similar to RaptorX, AlphaFold (76) predicted 11 transmembrane helices, with the SGNH

domain in the periplasm. The structures predicted for residues 1-338 (TMH1-10 of the

transmembrane domain, the AT3 domain) showed 97% coverage (RMSD of 3.04 Å) and a

template matching score of 0.85, indicating the same structure across the two models

(**Supp. Fig. S1**).

Diverse bacterial AT3 domain-containing proteins share a common 10 TMH

structure

Having built a model for our primary experimentally characterised protein, we expanded the

analysis to include other important AT3 domain-containing proteins, including both additional

AT3-SGNH fusion proteins and standalone AT3 proteins. The RaptorX generated structures

of the AT3-SGNH proteins OatA from *Staphylococcus aureus* (OatA-SA), OatA from *Listeria*

monocytogenes (OatA-LM) and PglI from *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (PglI-NG) all closely

resembled the OafB (**Fig. 2A**), with an RMSD of less than 3 Å for the AT3-domain over the

10 TMHs. Importantly, as they all contain a C-terminal SGNH domain that functions extra-

cytoplasmically, they all contain an 11th TMH to enable correct localisation of the fused

domain (**Fig 2A**) (23,58,77,78). In addition, the core of the SGNH domains are also similar

(79) with variation occurring in the length of the linking regions that connect the AT3 to the

SGNH. While the PglI-NG protein closely resembles OafB with a short, structured linker (1),

OatA proteins show a more extended, and potentially more mobile and flexible, structure,

locating the SGNH domain further from the AT3 domain (**Fig. 2A**).

Expanding the analysis to standalone AT3 proteins, the RaptorX outputs from Oac from

Shigella flexneri (Oac-SF), WecH from *Escherichia coli* (WecH-EC) and IcaC from

Staphylococcus aureus (IcaC-SA) were analysed (**Fig. 2B**). While the RMSD of these

compared to the AT3-domain of OafB was more variable (RMSD of 4.5 - 6.7 Å when

compared to residues 1-376 of OafB) the overall 10 TMH features were conserved and are

consistent with the experimentally-determined topology of Oac-SF (10,26). However, a

recent analysis of *Staphylococcus aureus* OatA combining LacZ-PhoA fusion data with *in*

silico predictions (56), led to an alternative model for the topology of the AT3 domain with 9

TMH, a further re-entrant helix and a long cytoplasmic loop preceding the final TMH that

leads to the SGNH domain in the periplasm. This topology is not seen in any of our models,

including similar models generated in AlphaFold (data not shown) and these conflicts will be

discussed later.

Figure 2: RaptorX predicted structures of AT3 domain containing proteins. **(A)** Fused AT3-SGNH proteins with

OafB for comparison. Left to right: OafB from *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* ser. Paratyphi A (OafB); PglI

from *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (PglI-NG); OatA from *Staphylococcus aureus* (OatA-SA); OatA from *Listeria*

monocytogenes (OatA-LM). **(B)** Standalone AT3 proteins with OafB for comparison. Left to right: OafB-SPA; Oac

from *Shigella flexneri* (Oac-SF); WecH from *Escherichia coli* (WecH-EC); IcaC from *Staphylococcus aureus*

(IcaC-SA). The structure of the AT3 domain is largely conserved between these proteins.

The AT3 domain defines a novel and stable membrane protein fold

Using our new structural models for AT3 proteins, we assessed their similarity to known

structures using the DALI server (80). The closest structural homologues consisted of small

helical bundles that were fragments of larger proteins and no significant matches to full

length proteins were identified. Looking specifically at other membrane proteins with 10-11

TMH (3M73, 4J72, 4KJR, 1RH5) we could not see similarities with the AT3 structure

(RMSDs between 12-24 Å) and the arrangement of TMH is very different. Finally, we

compared our AT3 structure to that of the other known family of membrane-bound

acyltransferases, the MBOAT proteins. These also function in the acylation of complex

extracytoplasmic carbohydrates (81) and previous analysis has shown an MBOAT protein to

be functionally interchangeable with a standalone AT3 protein (19,82) (**Fig. 3B**), again

suggesting that these proteins have closely related functions. The structure of DltB (an

MBOAT protein from *Streptococcus thermophilus*) (81) similarly contains 11 TMH, however,

the helical arrangement is entirely different (**Fig. 3C,D**). Consistent with a core 10 TMH fold

in the AT3-SGNH protein, the 11th TMH present sits on the outside of the bundle as would

be expected for a non-essential feature of the AT3 domain, in contrast to the 11th TMH in

DltB (**Fig. 3C**).

To investigate the biological plausibility of the proposed AT3 fold, we applied Molecular

Dynamics (MD) techniques to emulate the behaviour of the protein in a physiological

environment, and to extract meaningful data on the dynamics and structure-function

relationships of the system. The RaptorX model of the transmembrane domain (TMH1-11 of

OafB, residues 1-376) was embedded in a model *Escherichia coli* inner membrane in 150

mM KCl solution. When subjected to MD simulations of 50 and 100 ns at 320 and 303 K,

respectively, the protein model remained stable within the membrane. There was no

significant unfolding observed; secondary structure analysis indicates that the alpha-helical

segments of the transmembrane domain are maintained throughout and the RMSD of the

protein backbone remained below 0.5 nm at both temperatures (**Supp. Fig. S2A**). The root-

mean-square fluctuation (RMSF) by residue, as expected, is highest for the termini and for

residues in unstructured loops, and lower for the transmembrane helices (**Supp. Fig. S2B).**

Together these data suggest that the computational approach described a novel, stable

membrane protein fold for AT3 proteins.

Figure 3: Structure of OafB, an AT3-SGNH protein (left, panels **A** and **C**), compared to DltB from *Streptococcus*

thermophilus, an MBOAT (Membrane Bound O-Acyltransferase) protein (right, panels **B** and **D**). Both OafB and

DltB have 11 TMH **(C, D)** however the arrangements differ considerably. **(C)** OafB and **(D)** DltB viewed from

periplasm, coloured blue to red, N- to C- termini with transmembrane helices numbered.

The AT3 domain from OafB has a cavity lined with essential residues forming a putative acetyl-CoA binding site

Having established that the AT3 domain constitutes a novel stable fold in the membrane we

then wished to use this structural model to try and understand the mechanism of this

membrane-bound enzyme. A large cavity with a volume of ~3,620 $Å^3$ can be observed in

the AT3 protein on the cytoplasmic side, which is enclosed by enclosed by TMH 1, 2, 9, and

the unstructured loop between TMH 5 and 6 (**Fig. 4A**). The top end of this cavity is blocked

by the novel re-entrant loop between THM 3-4, which in contrast to TOPCONS predictions

(**Fig. 1A**) is not in the periplasm but resides within the transmembrane domain (**Fig. 4A**).

Examination of the positioning of core amino acids known to be important and/or essential

for function of different AT3 proteins onto the predicted structure reveals that many of these

in fact line this cytoplasmic cavity in the protein (**Fig. 4C**).

Two conserved motifs have been identified in AT3 domains: an R-X_{10}-H motif located in

TMH1 (Arg14 and His25 in OafB, **Fig. 4C**) [58]; and an RXXR motif located on the

cytoplasmic face of TMH3 (Arg71 and Arg74) [17,20,24,83]. The four residues found in

these motifs have all been identified in experimental studies as being essential for function

(20,25,57,58,84). Both arginine and histidine residues have previously been implicated in

other acetyltransferase proteins as important for binding of acetyl-CoA (60,81,85). Perhaps

significantly, all three Arg residues are in close proximity in positions approximately in the

middle of the membrane, a usually unfavourable location, suggesting a key function in the

mechanism of the enzyme.

Figure 4: The loop between TMH3 and 4 controls the formation of a transmembrane channel lined with essential

residues. **(A)** Initial equilibrated structure of the transmembrane domain (residues 1-376) of OafB. Residues 1-94

and 136-376 in pale blue, residues 95-135 in blue. The two largest cavities identified by the ProPores2 server are

shown as red surfaces. Initially, the loop between TMH3 and 4 occludes the central pore in the AT3 domain. **(B)**

Structure of the transmembrane domain after 50 ns equilibrium MD at 320 K. The loop between TMH3 and 4 is

dynamic – this snapshot from the end of the simulation shows the loop to have moved away from the center of

the cavity to allow a channel to form. This channel could be occupied by the acetyl group donor. **(C)** Same

snapshot as (B), but pore shown as a transparent red surface. Important conserved residues shown as red

spheres: these residues line the pore in the center of the AT3 domain.

In addition, Jones et al. performed site-directed mutagenesis on a number of residues in

OatA from *Staphylococcus aureus* (57). These identified, amongst others, three conserved

tyrosine residues which are required for function (57). It is thought that Tyr206, located in the

periplasm (equivalent residue in OafB Tyr194, **Fig. 4A**), is involved in transfer of the acetyl

group from the AT3 domain to the SGNH domain (57). Similarly, a catalytic triad consisting

of this aforesaid tyrosine, plus a glutamic acid and a histidine in the AT3 domain was

proposed to remove the acetyl group from acetyl-CoA (57), allowing transport across the

membrane (the three equivalent residues are highlighted in **Figure 4A** – Tyr194, His25 and

Glu334). In the RaptorX structure of OafB, Tyr194 and His25 are in close proximity (C_α

separated by 8 Å) and both sit on the periplasmic face of the membrane. However, Glu334 is

located on the cytoplasmic side very distant from His25 and Tyr194, suggesting that it is not

part of a catalytic triad.

Together this mapping suggests two important sites in the protein, a mid-membrane region

of positive charge created by 3 conserved Arg residues and a potential catalytic site on the

periplasmic surface comprising at least His25 and Tyr194. In the RaptorX model these two

features of the protein are physically separated by the loop 3-4 region (**Fig. 4A**). During

equilibrium MD simulations this loop is in fact dynamic (**Fig. 4B**). Structures taken from later

in the simulations indicate that the loop can move outwards (displacement of residues on the

order of 3-4 Å) from the centre of the cavity towards TMH2, allowing the potential formation

of a pore between the cytoplasmic and periplasmic surfaces of the transmembrane domain,

which could be a critical stage in the mechanism of the acyltransferase in the trans-

membrane movement of acyl-groups (**Fig. 4B**).

The AT3 domain facilitates presentation of acyl-CoA molecules to the

periplasm

Any model for an acyl-coa dependent acylation of an extracytoplasmic acceptor sugar

requires the transfer of the cytoplasmically-located acyl group across the membrane. The

inner cavity and dynamic conversion of this to a pore, could provide the route for acyl-CoA

molecules to enter the protein in a way to present the acyl group for use in the catalytic

process (**Fig. 5A, left**). OafB would use acetyl-CoA as the substrate, which is an extended

molecule with a volume of ~630 $Å^3$. To test this hypothesis, one molecule of acetyl-CoA was

pulled into this channel (entrance delimited by the N-terminus and TMH9 and 10) from the

cytoplasmic entrance of the AT3 domain of a hybrid full-length OafB model (assembly

discussed in the following section) using steered MD (SMD). It was found that this channel

could indeed accommodate acetyl-CoA (**Fig. 5A, right**) and, significantly, the thioester bond

was positioned close to the essential His25 residue within the membrane. The conserved

Arg14 was also positioned to help coordinate the 3'-phosphate of acetyl-CoA, as previously

predicted (58) (**Fig. 5A**).

The acetyl-CoA molecule was then allowed to equilibrate within the transmembrane domain

using equilibrium MD. Three replicates of this system were generated and simulated with

altered starting conformations for the acetyl-CoA within the protein. In the unrestrained final

20 ns of these simulations, acetyl-CoA was observed to hydrogen bond to several basic

residues within the pore (**Fig. 5B**). In addition to the Arg14 coordinating the phosphate of 3'-

phosphate acetyl-CoA, we noted that the conserved Arg74 (of the RXXR motif of TMH3)

along with Lys279 and Arg338 formed a small pocket capable of orienting such that they can

all simultaneously hydrogen bond to the 3'-phosphate group (**Fig. 5B**).

Further to this, energy decomposition analysis using ONETEP (86,87), indicates strong,

attractive interactions between the AT3 domain and acetyl-CoA. The transmembrane

domain-acetyl-CoA complex was optimised, and a single point energy calculated. This

energy decomposition analysis approach was employed to calculate the quantum

mechanical interaction energy and decompose it into its contributing electronic components

accounting for electrostatic, exchange, correlation, Pauli repulsion, polarisation, and charge

transfer contributions. Adding the dispersion component, the overall interaction energy was

calculated to be -1,035.943 kcal mol-1. Strong charge transfer interactions were identified

between the protein and small molecule. The most prominent of these were between the 3'-

phosphate of acetyl-CoA and nearby basic residues in the AT3 domain (Arg14, Arg74,

Arg338, Lys279); these interactions are shown in **Figure 5C** and are in strong agreement

with the above MD simulations.

We calculated the electrostatic potential of the transmembrane domain and acetyl-CoA, and

found them to be complementary: the transmembrane domain displayed positive potentials,

while the acetyl-CoA displayed negative potentials, of similar magnitudes (**Fig. 5D,E**). The

greatest positive potentials are found towards the cytoplasmic side of the transmembrane

domain (in agreement with the positive inside rule (88)), and the greatest negative potentials

are found at the phosphate groups of acetyl-CoA (which are positioned towards the

cytoplasmic side of the AT3 domain). Together these data are strongly supportive of a model

whereby acetyl-CoA from the cytoplasmic side is able to penetrate the enzyme to bring the

acetyl group into range for use in catalytic transfer to the receptor sugar on the periplasmic

face of the membrane.

Figure 5: Interactions between the Transmembrane domain of OafB and the putative acetyl donor molecule,

acetyl coezyme-A. Note these structures are taken from simulations in which we use the full OafB protein, but

only the transmembrane domain (residues 1-377) is shown here for clarity. **(A)** Left: Initial structure of the OafB

transmembrane domain. Essential residues H25 and R14 shown as spheres, the loop between helices 3 and 4 is

shown in dark blue. Phosphate headgroups of the phospholipids shown as tan spheres. The loop initially
occludes the pore in the AT3 domain. Right: Structure from the end of the steered MD simulation in which acetyl
Coenzyme-A was pulled into the central channel within the AT3 domain. The loop between helices 3 and 4 has
moved away from the center of the pore towards TMH2 (to the left) sufficiently to allow passage of acetyl-coa into
the transmembrane domain. **(B)** A pocket of basic residues is observed in the AT3 domain, complementary to the
3'-phosphate of acetyl coenzyme-A. Several high occupancy hydrogen bonds are observed between the 3'-
phosphate and transmembrane domain residues R14, R74, R338, and K279. **(C)** Charge transfer interactions
between acetyl coenzyme-A and the transmembrane domain of OafB, identified via ONETEP Energy
Decomposition Analysis. Loss of electron density is depicted as a purple surface and gain of electron density in a
green surface. Significant charge transfer interactions were identified between the 3'-phosphate of acetyl
Coenzyme-A (losing electron density) and surrounding basic residues R14, R74, R338, and K279 (gaining
electron density) **(D)** Electrostatic potential of the OafB transmembrane domain. Protein in black New Cartoon
representation; calculated electrostatic potential overlayed in Surface representation. Scale from -10 V (blue) to
+10 V (red). **(E)** Electrostatic potential of acetyl Coenzyme-A. Molecule in Licorice representation; calculated
electrostatic potential overlayed in Surface representation. Using the same scale as the AT3 domain, it is clear
that acetyl coenzyme-A and the AT3 domain are complementary.

Modelling suggests the two domains in OafB could function in a pedal bin
mechanism

To learn more about the function of the model OafB proteins, which requires both the AT3
domain and its linked SGNH domain to function, we first constructed a hybrid structure that
combined the RaptorX predicted structure of the transmembrane domain (residues 1-376)
with the x-ray crystal structure (380-640) of the SGNH-ext (380-421) and the SGNH domain
(422-640). Residues 377-379 were added to the N-terminus of the SGNH domain using
MODELLER 10.0 (89), and a peptide bond was generated between residues 376 and 377 in
ChimeraX (90) with varying C-N-C$_\alpha$-C dihedral angles (80, 100, 120, 140°) to generate
proteins with differing relative conformations of the AT3 and SGNH domains (henceforth
referred to as OafB$_{80}$, OafB$_{100}$, OafB$_{120}$, and OafB$_{140}$). To investigate the flexibility of the
hybrid structure we used equilibrium MD simulations (see Methods).

The x-ray crystal structure of the SGNH-ext region of OafB (PDB ID 6SE; residues 380-421)
(58) shows it to be structured and interact substantially with the SGNH domain. The
biological relevance of this close interaction is supported by the equilibrium MD simulations
of OafB: the SGNH-ext remains structured and packed close to the SGNH domain
throughout the 4 x 250 ns simulations, indicating this fold is stable under physiological
conditions. Unfolding of the SGNH-ext to generate a longer flexible linker - such as that seen
in the RaptorX predicted structures of OatA-LM and OatA-SA - is not observed.

A short stretch of only around 10 residues (~370-380) remains that could form a flexible

linker between the transmembrane and periplasmic domains. Indeed, in the MD simulations,

the periplasmic domain exhibits a wide range of orientations relative to the transmembrane

domain. Principal component analysis (PCA) of the backbone atoms was used to extract the

first 2 major motions (accounting for 77% or more of the variance) of the protein in the four

equilibrium replicates. The first of these motions was a pedal bin-like action, where the

periplasmic domain 'lid' opens and closes relative to the transmembrane domain, hinged at

the flexible linker. The second motion was the rotation of the SGNH domain within the

periplasmic space about the linker. These two motions can be seen in **Videos 1 and 2**.

Despite these motions and the range of relative orientations, the SGNH and AT3 domains

were not observed to spontaneously interact in the equilibrium simulations. This does not

necessarily mean that the domains do not interact *in vivo*; given the short timescales of MD

simulations and the vast conformational space available to the protein, sampling all possible

conformations is an intractable problem. To direct computational efforts to the

conformational space of interest, elastic network bonds were applied to pull the

transmembrane and periplasmic domains together.

Elastic networks are a set of artificial harmonic 'bonds' added to a molecular model. These

are commonly used in coarse-grained models to maintain the secondary structure of

molecules (91); here, we use them to induce and then maintain a change in the tertiary

structure of $OafB_x$ by pulling the periplasmic and transmembrane domains towards each

other. The 'bonds' were added between residues likely to be proximal to one another as

identified through coevolution analysis (see Methods). Around 75% of co-evolving residues

have heavy atoms (carbon, oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur) within 5 Å of one another (92). The

side chains of these residues were generally 3-5 Å in length; to avoid artificial re-orientation

of the side chains but still bring the residues close enough to interact, elastic bonds of length

10 Å were added between the alpha carbons of the residue pairs. Applying elastic network

bonds between the transmembrane and periplasmic domains of the $OafB_x$ proteins resulted

in the rapid and irreversible 'closing' of the protein (the closed state), for the duration of the

simulation time that the elastic network bonds were applied.

The elastic network bonds were then removed from these closed state structures, and over

the subsequent 100 ns equilibrium MD simulations, all four replicates remained closed

throughout. In this configuration, inter-domain interactions, sufficiently stable to maintain the

closed state without the elastic network, are identified. Hydrogen bond analysis (distance

and angle cutoffs of 3 Å and 20°, respectively) of the subsequent equilibrium simulations

revealed a minimum of 35 unique hydrogen bonds between the periplasmic and

transmembrane domains across each simulation. When averaged across all four

simulations, the number of hydrogen bonds between the two domains at any given time was

3.16 ± 1.67 (**Fig. 6A**). Three of the higher occupancy hydrogen bonds found in all four

replicates reside close to the linker region, as shown in **Figure 6B**. Specifically, these are

Lys132-Asp387 (all >51% occupancy), Thr386-Asp98 (>25% occupancy), and Ser129-

Asp387 (>70% occupancy in 3 of the 4 simulations, 23% in the fourth). Additional hydrogen

bonds were observed further from the linker in each system, on the other side of the catalytic

triad: for example, Leu408-Glu189 (34% occupancy) and Ser474-Glu189 (21%) are

observed in the OafB$_{100}$ system (**Fig. 6C**), but do not form simultaneously (**Supp. Fig. S4**).

Taken together, these findings from equilibrium MD simulations identify interactions between

the residues in the AT3 membrane domain and the periplasmic domains, supporting the

hypothesis that the two domains may cooperate.

Figure 6: Interactions between the transmembrane and periplasmic domains in the closed state of OafB. **(A)**

Closed OafB structure in New Cartoon representation (TM domain in lilac, SGNH-ext in orange, α8 in teal, SGNH

domain in grey). Catalytic triad (D618, H621, S430) as red spheres. Residues identified in high-occupancy or

important hydrogen bonding interactions between the SGNH and AT3 domains in Licorice representation. **(B)**

Hydrogen bonding observed between SGNH-ext and AT3 domains in all equilibrium simulations of the closed

OafB structure. High-occupancy hydrogen bonding between side chain: carboxylate of E387 and hydroxyl of

S129, amine of K132; carboxylate of E98 and hydroxyl of T386. **(C)** Hydrogen bonding between the SGNH and

AT3 domains observed in the OafB$_{100}$ simulations. E189 can hydrogen bond to S474 via its backbone carbonyl

(green dashed line), or to L408 via its carboxylate side chain (blue dashed line) but cannot form these

interactions simultaneously. Timeseries of the separation of these residues shown in Supplementary Figure S4.

These fully closed structures were submitted to the ProPores2 webserver (93) to identify and

parameterise cavities within the protein. The closing of the pedal bin converts the outer

cavity from the transmembrane domain into a larger enclosed cavity at the interface of the

AT3 and SNGH domains (**Figure 7A**) This pore has a volume of ~4,780 Å^3 and includes

both the SGNH catalytic triad comprising residues Asp618, His621 and Ser430, and at the

membrane surface the proposed catalytic residues of the AT3 domain, namely, His25 and

Tyr194. This raises the possibility that the transfer of the acyl-group to the acceptor molecule

could occur in this region of the protein.

Figure 7: Largest cavity in the closed state of OafB. **(A)** Largest cavity identified by the ProPores2 webserver in

the closed OafB structure shown as a red surface. The cavity extends down into the transmembrane domain. **(B).**

Closed OafB in Cartoon representation: transmembrane domain coloured light blue, periplasmic loop between

TMH 3-4 coloured dark blue, SGNH domain coloured grey with the periplasmic linking region in orange, and

additional helix in the SGNH domain in teal. The SGNH catalytic triad (Ser430, Asp618, His621) is shown as

yellow spheres. Largest pore identified by the ProPores2 Webserver shown as a transparent pink surface. A

single O-antigen unit is shown inside the pore in van der Waals representation, coloured by atom name (cyan for

carbon; red for oxygen; white for hydrogen). The single O-antigen unit can be comfortably accommodated in this

space in several orientations.

Fully closed structure exhibits cavity able to accommodate the LPS O-antigen

Finally, we considered the potential mechanisms by which the acceptor molecule(s) would

interact with open and closed 'pedal bin' model of OafB, working with two alternative

hypotheses that the acceptor is presented either as a single or multiple O-antigen repeat

unit(s) anchored to a lipid carrier or later after transfer to the lipidA core molecule.

The closed form of the pedal bin model presents a possible enclosed catalytic site for OafB,

which is known to acetylate the rhamnose residue in the O-antigen repeating unit of the LPS

(10). This cavity resides directly below the catalytic triad (Ser430, His621, Asp618), and

extends down into the AT3 domain (**Fig. 7A**). The measured volume of ~4,780 $Å^3$ is an order

of magnitude greater than the volume of the LPS O-antigen unit (volume of ~502 $Å^3$), hence

one or more units could be manually placed within the cavity (**Fig. 7B**). Importantly the

enclosed cavity on the periplasmic surface of the membrane does extend into the

membrane, the lower portion residing below the plane of the upper leaflet headgroups and

hence is exposed to the membrane core (**Fig. 7A**), consistent with a ligand delivered on a

lipid anchor.

S. enterica serovars Typhimurium and Paratyphi use the prevalent Wzx/Wzy-dependent

pathway for O-antigen assembly, in which a single O-antigen unit is assembled in the

cytoplasm on undecaprenyl phosphate (Und-PP) in the membrane, which is then flipped

placing the O-antigen unit in the periplasm. Lipid linked O-antigen units are assembled to

the final length in the periplasm before ligation to lipid A-core. Subsequently, the completed

LPS molecule is transported to the outer membrane (94). Thus, the question remains, does

OafB acetylate the rhamnose moiety of a single O-antigen unit bound to Und-PP or after O-

antigen polymerisation? If the latter, does acetylation occur with the polymerised OAg

unit(s) attached to the Und-PP or after transfer to the lipidA-core molecule?

To contextualise the OafB models with biologically relevant molecules, a system containing

one molecule of the lipid carrier undecaprenyl phosphate (Und-PP) attached to an O-antigen

unit was placed next to the OafB model (**Fig 8A**). A distance of ~9 Å separates O3 of the

rhamnose from the periplasmic surface of the membrane, which is similar to the distance of

the SGNH active site (Ser430) from the membrane (which was ~12 Å calculated with

OafB$_{100}$ after 100 ns with elastic network bonds applied), meaning it is possible that the

substrate diffuses laterally into the cavity, either with the pedal bin open or closed.

The analysis above suggests that acetylation could occur using single O-antigen units,

before O-antigen polymerisation. Alternatively, acetylation occurs during or after

polymerisation on the Und-PP carrier before transfer to the lipidA-core (not shown). The

distance of multimers of 9 Å (single O-antigen unit) stretching away from the membrane

could possibly be accommodated by the open state of the pedal bin with the SGNH domain

extending into the periplasm.

Figure 8: Two proposed models for the O-antigen rhamnose moiety acetylation by OafB. In both panels, OafB is

shown in a cartoon representation with the AT3 domain coloured light blue, periplasmic loop between TMH3-4

coloured blue, SGNH domain coloured grey, the periplasmic linking region in orange, and additional helix in the

SGNH domain in teal. Catalytic triad of the SGNH domain (Ser430, Asp618, His621) shown as red spheres.

POPE and POPG phosphate headgroups shown as transparent tan spheres. **(A)** Undecaprenyl phosphate

carrier lipid with a single O-antigen unit in Licorice representation. O3 of the rhamnose moiety (marked by a red

sphere) has a vertical separation from the periplasmic leaflet surface of ~9 Å. The OH of S430 has a vertical

separation from the bulk membrane of ~12 Å. **(B)** OafB-LPS system after equilibration steps - one LPS molecule

with a single O-antigen unit shown in Licorice representation, and its rhamnose moiety shown in van der Waals

representation. OafB remains in an open conformation. After relaxation, the oligosaccharide of LPS has kinked,

with the distance between the lipid headgroups of the periplasmic leaflet surface and the acetylation site reduced

to ~29 Å (from ~42 Å, as shown in Figure S5). This is comparable to the ~35 Å separation between the OH of

S430 and the periplasmic leaflet surface

To investigate the final model of acetylation after assembly onto the lipidA core, we built a

model with LPS (with one O-antigen unit) and OafB-SPA embedded in the inner membrane

to assess the distances defined between the periplasmic leaflet surface and various groups

within the system relevant to the acetylation (**Fig. 8B**). One molecule of *Salmonella* LPS was

generated in CHARMM-GUI's LPS Modeler and inserted into the periplasmic leaflet of the

OafB$_{100}$ system (replacing 2 POPE and 2 POPG molecules). Initially the modelled LPS

adopts a quasi-linear conformation; the z-separation between the rhamnose moiety and the

periplasmic membrane surface was found to be ~42 Å, as shown in **Supplementary Figure**

S5. During minimisation and equilibration, the oligosaccharide was allowed to relax; this

resulted in a kinked structure, where the distance between the acetylation site and the

periplasmic leaflet surface was reduced to around 29 Å (**Fig. 8B**). By comparison, after

equilibration, the z-separation of the hydroxyl of Ser430 in the catalytic triad of $OafB_{100}$ and

the periplasmic leaflet is ~35 Å, hence it is not inconceivable that the open pedal bin could

function to deliver acetyl groups at a distance from the membrane. However, we note that in

reality the full-length O-antigen will be attached to the lipidA core, which would require

significant, entropically unfavourable conformational rearrangement of the O-antigen for

OafB to catalyse significant overall levels of O-acetylation across the whole polymer.

Steered molecular dynamics (SMD) was used to pull the rhamnose moiety of LPS and Ser

430 of OafB towards one another, and subsequent restrained MD simulations held the

protein and LPS close to one another to assess possible interactions. Many hydrogen bonds

were observed between the O-antigen and the periplasmic domain of OafB over the two

replicates. Several of these were with residues from the SGNH-ext (galactose-Asp387;

galactose-Tyr389; rhamnose-Tyr394). Tyr389 and Tyr394 are both residues which were

previously identified by FTMap *in silico* docking analysis as involved in binding to rhamnose

sugars. Hydrogen bonding was also observed between the 3' and 2' hydroxy groups of the

rhamnose moiety and Ser430. Even when all position restraints were removed in the MD

simulations, this interaction persisted for a further 10 ns.

Together these analyses indicate that O-acetylation of the O-antigen may occur either when

a single O-antigen unit attached to a lipid carrier is presented in the periplasm, or when the

O-antigen is polymerized, either on the lipid carrier, or when attached to the lipid A-core.

Ideas and Speculation

The realisation that diverse bacteria use AT3 proteins in a plethora of different biological

processes for the modification of extracytoplasmically localised glycans, directed our efforts

into describing the fundamental mechanism of these proteins (1). While the role of AT3

proteins in these diverse processes is often implicated from genetics only, the OafB protein

has been studied in much more detail, along with other selected AT3 proteins including the

OatA protein from *S. aureus* (10,57,58). These systems are examples of AT3 proteins

working with SGNH domains to acylate LPS and peptidoglycan, respectively, which are key

components of bacterial envelopes.

Integration of experimental and computational data has provided detailed insight into the

structure and potential mechanism of action of AT3-SGNH proteins. Our structural model,

combined with molecular dynamics simulations, suggests first that the transmembrane

domain of OafB has a novel fold. Importantly this is distinct from the MBOAT family of

membrane-bound acyltransferases, suggesting that nature has evolved two independent

routes to solve this problem. The discovery of a large cytoplasmic cavity, which can open

dynamically to accommodate an acyl-CoA molecule that spans the membrane, provides a

key mechanistic breakthrough in our understanding of the protein function, which in OafB is

mediated by a loop region which would need to block the pore in the absence of

donor/acceptor to prevent leakage of protons.

The putative catalytic residues His25 and Tyr194 are close enough to the acetyl-group (~ 5

Å) to conceivably be involved in catalysis, although the MD simulations cannot capture bond

making or breaking (nor proton transfer). The loop between TMH 5 and 6, in which Tyr194

resides, shows significant mobility and the side chain of Tyr194 is observed to point inwards,

towards the centre of the pore (and therefore towards acetyl-CoA). Given the conformational

mobility of the 4'-phosphopantetheine segment of the coenzyme, and of the loop between

TMH 5 and 6, it is not unreasonable to suggest that the thioester bond is accessible to both

His25 and Tyr194 to aid the acetyl transfer in a mechanism such as that suggested by Jones

et al (57). Addressing the role of Glu334, which Jones et al (56) proposed was the third

residue in the catalytic site (Glu357 in OatA), our model places this distantly from the His25

and Tyr194, but yet in OafB we also know this residue is important for function (79). The

residue sits close to the cytoplasmic side and the internal cavity and perhaps has a role in

the initial recognition of the acyl-CoA. Other conserved residues, including Phe42, Tyr124,

Trp138 and Glu143 in OafB, which were identified by mutagenesis as being important for

both the OafB-related protein OafA and OatA, cluster on the extracytoplasmic surface and

could have related roles in acyl-CoA binding, catalysis or acceptor recognition.

While the function of the AT3 to bind and deliver acyl-groups to a periplasmic catalytic site is

well supported by our model, and must be a conserved feature of all AT3 proteins, the

further discrete role of the SGNH domain is still not fully understood, although is essential for

transferase function in both OafB and OatA (57,58). The linker region, while short and

structured in OafB suggests that the domain can function in a 'pedal bin' like model, opening

and closing to define a large cavity on the extracytoplasmic surface, which we demonstrate

could then capture a lipid-anchored O-antigen repeat structure. For OatA and other related

proteins, this linker can be much longer (**Fig. 2**) and whether this then allows the pedal bin

lid to close and accept the acyl-group and then open and extend away from the membrane

to reach the acceptor substrate needs further investigation, but the MD simulations suggest

it is possible. However, for the OafB system we favour the model of lid opening and closing

to help trap the substrate in a membrane-surface-located activity site, similar to the function

of the Sus protein in capturing ligand in the outer membrane of *Bacteroidetes* bacteria (95).

For LPS O-acetylation by OafB and similar proteins we favour the model where the substrate

is the single O-antigen repeat bound by the Und-PP lipid anchor before later polymerisation.

Given that overall levels of OafB-dependent O-acetylation vary between 40-70% (10,96), the

stochastic interaction of OafB with the Und-PP anchored O-antigen repeat appears a more

parsimonious mechanism than relying on the enzyme trying to reach rhamnose sugars in a

fully assembled O-antigen.

Beyond LPS and peptidoglycan, AT3 domain-containing proteins acylate a diverse range of

complex carbohydrates in bacteria (1). Each receptor substrate may present its own unique

challenges for the AT3 domain. In both the LPS and peptidoglycan examples, additional

SGNH domains are required for function, however, AT3 domains can function as standalone

proteins. One example of this is IcaC, which is involved in the O-succinylation of poly N-

acetylglucosamine (PNAG) biofilm component of *Staphylococci.* Here, the acceptor is not

delivered on a lipid anchor, but rather through a continuous synthesis and extrusion

mechanism catalysed by IcaAD, a 'synthase' mechanism (94). Perhaps a close physical

association of IcaC with IcaAD removes the need for the additional SGNH domain and

allows direct transfer of the acyl group onto the emerging PNAG polymer giving stochastic

levels of O-succinylation of about 40% (97,98). Hence, the differences between AT3 and

AT3 with additional domains such as SGNH, perhaps could relate to the route of

presentation of the acceptor molecule within the context of different biosynthetic pathways

for extracytoplasmic glycans.

Conclusions

Here we provide strong evidence that the integral membrane AT3 domain (PF01757),

mediating acylation of a diverse range of complex carbohydrates, has a novel fold. The

stability of this structure was confirmed using molecular dynamics simulations, which also

enabled insights into the mechanism of action of AT3 domains. Importantly, for the first time

our model provides a solution to the problem of acetylation occurring in the periplasm using

the cytoplasmic acetyl donor acetyl-CoA. We show a membrane-spanning pore occurs

transiently in the AT3 domain which can accommodate acetyl-CoA, presenting the acyl

group to the periplasmic side. This part of our model is supported by quantum-level

calculations to probe the hypothesised protein-acetyl-CoA interactions, and the presence of

key, conserved and essential residues that line the pore. The second cavity at the

periplasmic side in OafB is able to accommodate the receptor substrate O-antigen.

Together, our data give important new insights into the family of AT3 domain containing

proteins. Our well-supported model can support and drive targeted research to gain a full

understanding of the mechanism of action of this family or membrane bound acyltransferase

proteins that mediate acylation of complex carbohydrates across the domains of life.

Methods

Co-evolution and protein structure predictions

683   OafB Protein sequence (Uniprot accession A0A0H2WM30) was submitted to either the

684   RaptorX contact prediction server (66–68) or AlphaFold server (76) and analysis was run

685   with default parameters. Predicted structures using RCSB PDB Pairwise Structure Alignment

686   webserver, employing the flexible jFATCAT alignment algorithm (99).

Molecular dynamics simulations

689   All simulations used the GROMACS simulation package (version 2020.3) (100). Results

690   were analysed using GROMACS tools and in-house python scripts utilising MDAnalysis

691   (101–104). Molecular graphics were generated using VMD 1.9.4 (105).

Atomistic simulations

Atomistic simulations used the CHARMM36m forcefield (106) with the TIP3P water model

(107). A cut-off of 1.2 nm was applied to Lennard-Jones interactions and short-range

electrostatics using the potential shift Verlet scheme. Long-range electrostatics were treated

using the particle mesh-Ewald (PME) method (108). Atoms were constrained using the

LINCS algorithm to allow the use of a 2 fs timestep (109). For production simulations,

temperatures were maintained using the Nosé-Hoover thermostat (110,111) (1.0 ps coupling

constant), and pressure was maintained at 1 bar using the Parrinello-Rahman semi-isotropic

barostat (112) (5.0 ps coupling constant).

Transmembrane Domain Model

A model of the transmembrane domain (residues 1-376, i.e. the 10 TMH of the AT3 domain

and the 11th TMH) was generated using the RaptorX webserver (66,67). Using the

CHARMM-GUI membrane builder module (113), this structure was embedded within a

model *Escherichia coli* inner membrane: a symmetric bilayer of 18:1:1 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-

sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (POPE), 1-Palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-

phosphoglycerol (POPG), and 1',3'-bis[1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho]glycerol

(cardiolipin). The bilayer system was subsequently solvated in 0.15 M KCl. The system was

energy minimised in 5000 steps using the steepest descent method (114). The subsequent

structure was equilibrated in six phases in which the protein and lipid head groups were

subjected to position restraints with varying force constants. The full equilibration protocol is

detailed below. Two short, independent equilibrium molecular dynamics simulations were

carried out on the equilibrated system: one simulation of 100 ns at 303.15 K, and one of 50

ns at 320 K.

Equilibration Protocol

Each system was equilibrated using two NVT phases followed by four NPT phases. NVT

phases used a timestep of 1 fs and each lasted 0.125 ns, and the NPT stages used a

timestep of 2 fs and each lasted 0.5 ns. The velocity-rescaling thermostat (115) was applied

at all stages to bring the system to 303.15 K with a coupling constant of 1.0 ps. Semi-

isotropic Berendsen pressure coupling (116) was applied to the NPT phases to equilibrate

with a pressure bath of 1 bar (τ_P = 5.0 ps, compressibility of 4.5×10^{-5} bar^{-1}).

Table 1: Position restraints used in the equilibration steps for all atomistic systems

Equilibration Phase	Position restraint / kJ mol^{-1} nm^{-2}			
	Protein backbone	Protein Sidechains	Lipid head groups	Dihedrals
NVT1	4000	2000	1000	1000
NVT2	2000	1000	400	400
NPT1	1000	500	400	200
NPT2	500	200	200	200
NPT3	200	50	40	100
NPT4	50	-	-	-

Full OafB model

The RaptorX transmembrane domain model and periplasmic domain crystal structure (PDB

ID: 6SE1) were used to build a full OafB model. Missing linker residues (residues 377-379)

were modelled into the N-terminus of the SGNH domain using MODELLER 10.0 (89). A

peptide bond was generated between the N-terminus of the resulting periplasmic domain

(K377) and the C-terminus of the transmembrane domain (N376) using UCSF ChimeraX

(90). Four structures were generated, varying the C-N-C_α-C dihedral angle; values of 80,

100, 120, and 140° were used to give structures with different relative orientations of the two

domains. The C_α-C-N-C_α dihedral was maintained at 170°. These proteins will henceforth be

referred to as OafB$_x$, where x is the C-N-C_α-C dihedral angle (80, 100, 120, or 140°).

The transmembrane domain of each model was embedded in an *Escherichia coli* inner

membrane model and solvated in the CHARMM-GUI membrane builder as described for the

RaptorX model. Systems were energy minimised in 5000 steps using steepest descent

algorithm, and subsequently equilibrated using the protocol described above.

Duplicates of each equilibrated system were generated. The first replicate of each system

was simulated for 250 ns at 303.15 K. The topologies of the second replicates were modified

to add elastic network bonds that would bring the periplasmic and transmembrane domains

together. Elastic bands (of length 1 nm and strength 100 kJ mol^{-1} nm^{-2}) were generated

between the alpha carbons of 10 residue pairs, identified through coevolution analysis, to be

more than 50% likely to be proximal to one another.

Table 2: Residues identified through co-evolution as likely to be proximal to one another

Residue 1 (TM domain)	Residue 2 (periplasmic domain)	% Probability
94	545	56.1
95	546	80.5
96	546	57.2
97	546	70.5
98	546	58.4
123	458	53.3
125	403	59.2
126	404	55.9
194	627	50.9
242	503	51.3

These four replicates were simulated for 100 ns with the elastic network bonds applied. A

subsequent 100 ns simulation was undertaken on each system with the network removed.

Full OafB Model: AlphaFold

For comparison to the hybrid models built above, the OafB amino acid sequence was

submitted to AlphaFold (76) to generate a structure prediction for the full protein. The RCSB

PDB Pairwise Structure Alignment web service (99) was used to compare our structures to

the AlphaFold prediction. Residues 1-327 of the RaptorX model, residues 328-406 of

OafB80, and residues 407-640 of the periplasmic domain crystal structure (PDB ID: 6SE1)

were aligned to the equivalent residues in the AlphaFold model using the flexible jFATCAT

algorithm.

Acetyl Coenzyme A

One molecule of acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-coA) was generated in CHARMM-GUI's Ligand

Reader & Modeler (117). Using VMD as a visual tool to guide positioning, the acetyl group of

acetyl-coA was placed beneath the gap between transmembrane helices 9 and 10, and the

N-terminus of the OafB$_{100}$ protein. The protein was embedded in the *Escherichia coli* inner

membrane model in CHARMM-GUI and solvated in 0.15 M KCl. The system was energy

minimised using the steepest descent algorithm, and subsequently equilibrated using the

protocol described above.

A short steered molecular dynamics (SMD) simulation was used to insert acetyl-coA into the

pore (delimited by transmembrane helices 1, 2, and 9, and the periplasmic loops between

helices 5 and 6, and 3 and 4). Pulling at a rate of 0.5 nm ns^{-1} and with a harmonic force of

1000 kJ mol^{-1} nm^{-2}, the sulphur of the acetyl-coA molecule was pulled upwards, towards the

centre of mass of the alpha carbons of residues E243, D126, E189 (all in loops at the

periplasmic surface of the transmembrane domain, surrounding the pore) until the z-

separation of the two groups was 0 (7.5 ns).

Three variations on the final frame of the SMD were generated in VMD by rotating and

translating acetyl-coA within this pore to use as starting conformations for equilibrium MD.

These systems were energy minimised using the steepest descent algorithm to resolve

steric clashes, and equilibrated as described above, with additional position restraints (**Table

3**) on the acetyl-coA molecule. Each system was subjected to three consecutive MD

simulations of 20 ns at 303.15 K, with decreasing position restraint strength on acetyl-coA to

allow the protein to relax around the substrate.

Table 3: Position restraints used in the equilibration and simulation of the OafB-acetyl CoA

systems.

Equilibration Phase	Position restraint / kJ mol^{-1} nm^{-2}				
	Protein backbone	Protein Sidechains	Lipid head groups	Dihedrals	Acetyl-coA
NVT1	4000	2000	1000	1000	4000
NVT2	2000	1000	400	400	4000
NPT1	1000	500	400	200	4000
NPT2	500	200	200	200	3000
NPT3	200	50	40	100	3000
NPT4	50	-	-	-	2000
MD1	-	-	-	-	1000
MD2	-	-	-	-	500
MD3	-	-	-	-	-

LPS in the Periplasmic Leaflet of the Inner Membrane

One molecule of *Salmonella spp.* LPS was generated using the CHARMM-GUI LPS

modeller (O9-4 core with one O-antigen unit). Using VMD as a tool to guide positioning, 2

POPE and 2 POPG molecules were removed from the periplasmic leaflet of the $OafB_{100}$

system and the LPS lipid A moiety inserted in their place. 8 water molecules were replaced

by potassium ions to neutralise the additional negative charge of the LPS. The system was

energy minimised in 5000 steps via the steepest descent algorithm to resolve steric clashes.

The system was equilibrated in 6 phases, as described for the other atomistic systems.

Steered MD was used to guide the rhamnose moiety of the LPS towards the Serine 430

residue (2 replicates, one with a pull rate of 0.5 nm ns^{-1}, the other with a pull rate of 1 nm ns^{-1}; both with a pull force of 500 kJ mol^{-1}). The final frame of each of these trajectories (13.1 ns

and 6.5 ns, respectively) was used as the starting conformation for 3 consecutive MD

simulations at 303 K of 20 ns each, with varying position restraints on the protein backbone

(250, 0, 0 kJ mol^{-1}) and LPS molecule (1000, 500, 0 kJ mol^{-1}). Hydrogen bond analysis was

undertaken in VMD (distance cutoff = 3 Å, angle cutoff = 20°) to assess the interactions

between the LPS and the SGNH domain.

DFT Calculations

The electrostatic potentials of the transmembrane domain of OafB (residues 1-370) and the

acetyl-CoA molecule were calculated in a vacuum using the linear-scaling density functional

theory package, ONETEP (86,87), using the PBE exchange-correlation functional (118),

augmented with Grimme's D2 dispersion correction (119). Open boundary conditions *via*

real-space solution of the electrostatics were used in a simulation cell with dimensions 9 nm

× 7 nm × 8 nm. Norm-conserving pseudopotentials were used for the core electrons, and the

psinc basis set, equivalent to a plane wave basis set with a kinetic energy cut-off of 800 eV,

was employed. 8.0 Bohr localisation radii were used for the nonorthogonal generalised

Wannier functions (NGWFs). The energy decomposition analysis (EDA) implemented in

ONETEP (120,121) was used to calculate the intermolecular interaction energy between

Acetyl-CoA and the AT3 domain and to extract its contributing components and to visualise

charge transfer interactions.

Data availability

827 The trajectories generated and the run input files necessary to repeat the simulations

828 presented here are openly available in Zenodo at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6834637.

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