

# Study on the enantioselectivity inhibition mechanism of acetyl-coenzyme A carboxylase toward haloxyfop by homology modeling and MM-PBSA analysis

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**Abstract** Acetyl-coenzyme A carboxylase (ACCase) has been identified as one of the most important targets of herbicide Aryloxyphenoxypropionates (APPs). ACCase shows different enantioselectivity toward APPs, and only (*R*)-enantiomers of APPs have the herbicidal activity. In order to deeply understand the enantioselective recognition mechanism of ACCase, (*R*)-haloxyfop, which is a typical commercial herbicide from APPs, is selected and the relative binding free energy between ACCase and (*R*)-haloxyfop is investigated and compared with that between ACCase and (*S*)-haloxyfop by homology modeling and molecular mechanics-Poisson-Boltzmann surface area (MM-PBSA) method. Further free energy analysis reveals that the preference of ACCase toward (*R*)-haloxyfop is mainly driven by Van der Waals interaction. The analysis of the interaction between the active site residues of ACCase CT domain and (*R*)-haloxyfop shows the van der Waals interactions have a close relationship with the addition effect of each residue. An understanding of the enantioselective recognition mechanism between ACCase and haloxyfop is desirable to discover novel chiral herbicides.

**Keywords** Acetyl-coenzyme A carboxylase · Enantioselective recognition mechanism · Haloxyfop, Homology modeling · MM-PBSA analysis

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## Introduction

Acetyl-coenzyme A carboxylase (ACCase; EC 6.4.1.2) is a key enzyme in fatty acid metabolism. It regulates fatty acid biosynthesis and oxidation, and catalyzes the ATP-dependent carboxylation of acetyl-CoA to produce malonyl-CoA [1–3]. The reaction is carried out in two steps, in which the first step is the ATP-dependent carboxylation of biotin catalyzed by biotin carboxylase, and the second step consists of the transfer of the carboxyl group from biotin to acetyl-CoA catalyzed by carboxyltransferase (CT) [4].

Two isoforms of ACCase have been identified in plant cells [5, 6]. Heteromeric ACCase, locating at chloroplast in most plants, is composed of four subunits, biotin carboxyl carrier protein (BCCP), biotin carboxylase (BC), carboxyltransferases  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (CT- $\alpha$  and CT- $\beta$ ). Homomeric ACCase, locating at cytosol, is composed of a single strand peptide including four function domains, BC, BCCP, CT- $\alpha$  and CT- $\beta$ . However, there is an exceptional case in *Poaceae* grasses, the ACCase in plastid is homomeric which is encoded by a nuclear gene distinct from that coding for the cytosolic ACCase isoform [7].

The chloroplastic, multidomain form of ACCase has been identified as the target of two classes of herbicides: aryloxyphenoxypropionates (APPs) and cyclohexanediones (CHDs) [8–10]. Both kinds of herbicides selectively inhibit the carboxyltransferase (CT) activity of ACCase and block the growth of *Poaceae* grasses [11, 12]. Research works have shown ACCase is significantly more sensitive to (*R*)-APPs [13, 14]. However, the enantioselective recognition mechanism surrounding the binding of (*R*, *S*)-APPs to ACCase is not clear. The major obstacle is lack of the corresponding three-dimension structures of the CT domain of ACCase from *Poaceae* and the complex binding modes between CT and (*R*)- or (*S*)-APPs.

Recently, the crystal structures of the ACCase CT domain (PDB entry: 1OD2 and 1OD4) of *Sacharomyces cerevisiae* and its complex with APPs (PDB entry: 1UYR and 1UYS) were successfully determined at 2.7 and 2.5 Å resolution, respectively [8, 15]. It gave a direct guiding on how (*R*)-APPs interacted with the CT domain of ACCase on atom level. Although the CT domain of ACCase from the yeast was so different from that of *Poaceae*, for instance the CT domain from yeast was insensitive to APPs, the CT domains from yeast and *Poaceae* were both multidomain proteins and had a high sequence similarity. Using ACCase CT three-dimensional structure from *S. cerevisiae* as template, the ACCase CT domain from *Poaceae* was constructed successfully by homology modeling, and the interactions between the CT domain and APPs were analyzed by molecular dynamic simulations and molecular mechanics-Poisson-Boltzmann surface area (MM-PBSA) calculations [16–19]. However, the above interaction studies were mainly focused on the resistant mechanism of ACCase, and little attention was paid to the enantioselective recognition mechanism of ACCase toward APPs.

In this article, we use homology modeling to establish the theoretical models of the three-dimensional dimer structure of CT from *Alopecurus myosuroides*, and its complexes with (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop from APPs (Scheme 1). The interactions between CT and haloxyfop are investigated. Moreover, the relative binding free energy difference between CT domain and (*R*)- or (*S*)-haloxyfop is reproduced and analyzed by MM-PBSA method.

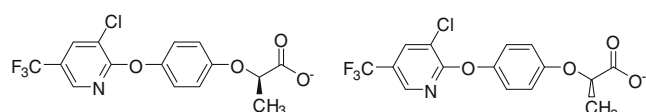
## Materials and methods

### Materials

The *A. myosuroides* ACCase CT domain sequence (entry: Q8LRK2) was obtained from TrEMBL database. The crystal structures of the free CT from *S. cerevisiae* (entry: 1OD2) and (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complexes (entry: 1UYS) were obtained from PDB database.

### Homology modeling

The CT dimer from *S. cerevisiae* was formed by the side-to-side arrangement of the two monomers including N-subdomain



**Scheme 1** Chemical structures of (*R*)-haloxyfop (left) and (*S*)-haloxyfop (right)

and C-subdomain, namely, the N-subdomain of one monomer was placed next to the C-subdomain of the other. Two identical active sites were located in the interface between N-subdomain of one monomer and C-subdomain of the other [8, 10, 15]. As the molecular dynamics simulation for this large size scale on nanosecond timescale was too time-consuming, herein only one of the active sites was considered and a truncated form of CT dimer was made as the template. The truncated dimer consisted of N-subdomain of one monomer from residue 1575–1767 and a C-subdomain of another monomer from 1886–2097, each of which contained the critical  $\beta$ - $\beta$ - $\alpha$  core region. The two monomeric chains were superimposed onto the crystal structure of the CT domain from yeast (1OD2), keeping the same relative orientation of the two subunits.

Based on the template, the truncated dimer of the free CT from *A. myosuroides* was modeled with MODELLER 9v1 program [20–22]. The sequence alignments of N-subdomain and C-subdomain between *S. cerevisiae* and *A. myosuroides* were extracted from the Pfam database (entry: PF01039). To ensure accurate alignments for homology modeling, the alignments were also redone and manually inspected using CLUSTALX 1.83 program.

However, for the modeling of the complex structure of CT domain from *A. myosuroides* with (*R*)-haloxyfop, the double templates were needed, just because the complex structure of CT dimer of yeast with (*R*)-haloxyfop (PDB code: 1UYS) missed the residues in 2048–2080 and 1959–1964, and the free CT structure (PDB code: 1OD2) was used as a complementary template for these missing residues.

For both free CT from *A. myosuroides* and the complex of CT and (*R*)-haloxyfop, the number of homology modeling structures was set to 100, and the other parameters were default. The modeled truncated CT dimer contained a total of 400 residues, which were renumbered as following: the C-subdomain of one monomer was renumbered from 1 to 211, and the N-subdomain of the other monomer was renumbered from 212 to 400. The quality of modeling was evaluated by the energy function score in Modeller and a series of other tools, such as PROCHECK [23], WHAT-IF [24] and VERIFY3D [25]. The best model was picked for the following MD calculations.

Based on the best modeled complex of CT dimer from *A. myosuroides* with (*R*)-haloxyfop, the complex structure of CT-(*S*)-haloxyfop was easily constructed by inverting the methyl group and the hydrogen on the chiral carbon atom of (*R*)-haloxyfop with Insight II package (Accelrys) on SGI fuel station (Silicon Graphics, Inc.), and then subjected to energy minimization until the energy was converged to 0.1 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> Å<sup>-1</sup> with CVFF force field [26].

### Molecular dynamics

Five systems, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complexes, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop extracted from the complexes and free CT, were

subjected to molecular dynamic simulation with Amber 9 [27] on a cluster with 24 intel Xeron 2 CPU (2.0 GHz). The Duan force field [28, 29] and GAFF force field [30] were adopted for CT and haloxyfop, respectively. Charges of haloxyfop were derived by AM1-BCC method [31, 32].

Before the formal molecular dynamic simulations were carried out, the following elaborated preparing protocols were adopted. For (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complexes, the systems were firstly automatically added hydrogen and then subjected to energy minimization with generalized Born implicit water model [33–35] with decreasing force constrained on non-hydrogen atom until the system converged. Secondly, both systems were neutralized by adding Na<sup>+</sup> and then solvated in an octahedral box of TIP3P water molecules [36], which extended at 15 Å from any given atom in the systems. The water enclosed systems were repeatedly minimized for 2000 steps SD and 2000 steps CG with decreasing force on protein, and followed by a minimization with system free. Thirdly, the systems were slowly heated from 0 to 300 K with decreasing force on protein over the 200 ps. The (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop system followed a similar preparing procedure without minimization in GB implicit solvent model for simplicity.

After the preparing procedures finished, the formal molecular dynamics were run for 10.2 ns for free CT dimer, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complex, and 2 ns for the (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop, respectively. During the simulation, the particle mesh Ewald method [37] was selected for periodic long range electrostatic force and a 10 Å cutoff for nonbonding Van der Waals interactions. All bonds involving hydrogen atoms were constrained using the SHAKE algorithm [38]. Constant temperature 300 K was maintained using Langevin thermostats with the collision frequency of 1.0 [39, 40] and constant pressure 1 atm was controlled by isotropic position scaling with the pressure relaxation time of 2.0 ps [41]. A time step of 2 fs was used to integrate the equations of motion. The coordinates were saved every 20 ps during the entire of simulation process.

### Binding free-energy calculation

The binding free energies were calculated by using the molecular mechanics-Poisson-Boltzmann surface area (MM-PBSA) method [42] with mm pbsa procedure in Amber 9. In this method, the binding free energy, ΔG<sub>bind</sub> could be evaluated as a sum of the changes in the MM gas-phase energy (ΔE<sub>MM</sub>), solvation free energy (ΔG<sub>solv</sub>) and entropy contribution (-TΔS) as follows.

$$\Delta G_{\text{bind}} = \Delta E_{\text{MM}} + \Delta G_{\text{solv}} - T\Delta S \tag{1}$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{MM}} = \Delta E_{\text{cou}} + \Delta E_{\text{vdw}} \tag{2}$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{solv}} = \Delta G_{\text{pb}} + \Delta G_{\text{np}} \tag{3}$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{np}} = \gamma\text{SASA} + \beta \tag{4}$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{ele}} = \Delta E_{\text{cou}} + \Delta G_{\text{pb}} \tag{5}$$

Herein, the entropy contribution to the structure-similar inhibitors was almost same and was neglected since our aim was to calculate the relative binding free energy difference [43]. The MM gas-phase energy, including Coulomb interaction (ΔE<sub>cou</sub>) and Van der Waals interaction (ΔE<sub>vdw</sub>) was directly calculated with force field. Electrostatic solvation free energy (ΔG<sub>pb</sub>) was calculated by the numerical finite-difference solution to the PB equation. The dielectric constants used are 1 for the solute and 80 for the solvent water. Both electrostatic solvation free energy (ΔG<sub>pb</sub>) and Coulomb interaction (ΔE<sub>cou</sub>) belong to the electrostatic contribution (ΔG<sub>ele</sub>). The solvent-accessible-surface area (SASA) was estimated using standard procedure by setting option NPOPT and RADIOPT to 1 and 0. The nonpolar solvation energy (ΔG<sub>np</sub>) was successively calculated using Eq. 4 with parameters γ=0.00542 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> and β=0.92 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, which were widely used in many MM-PBSA free energy calculations [16–19].

To further anatomize the binding free energy between the ligand and protein, the binding free energy was dissected into two sections [44], including the intramolecular interactions caused by the transformation from the unbound to bound conformation and the intermolecular interactions of the ligand and protein in their bound conformation.

There are two protocols to calculate the MM/PBSA binding free energy: (1) by one trajectory (complex) and (2) by three trajectories (free ligand, free protein and complex). The protocol using one trajectory assumed that the protein didn't have conformation changes during the binding with ligand. However, the protocol using three trajectories needed to consider the conformation change of the protein during the binding, and the calculated energy was thus much closer to the real binding free energy. Herein, the protocol based on one trajectory was used to calculate the intermolecular binding free energy, to which each contribution was indicated with a superscript “int”, such as ΔE<sub>cou</sub><sup>int</sup>, ΔE<sub>vdw</sub><sup>int</sup>, ΔG<sub>np</sub><sup>int</sup>, ΔG<sub>pb</sub><sup>int</sup>, ΔG<sub>ele</sub><sup>int</sup> and ΔG<sub>bind</sub><sup>int</sup>. The protocol based on three trajectories were used to calculate the binding free energy (ΔG<sub>bind</sub>) and the binding free energy difference between (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop. Regarding the intramolecular binding free energy contributed by both of the haloxyfop and CT protein, it would be calculated using the bound conformations (complex trajectory) and the unbound conformations (free protein and ligand trajectory). Similarly, these contributions were indicated with superscript “tra”, such as ΔG<sub>lig</sub><sup>tra</sup> (ligand intramolecular

binding free energy),  $\Delta G_{\text{pro}}^{\text{tra}}$  (protein intramolecular binding free energy),  $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{tra}}$  (intramolecular binding free energy). Three hundred structures were sampled from the MD trajectory from 4.2 ns to 10.2 ns for free CT dimer, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complex with 20 ps interval. The final averages of the binding free energy over these samples were taken to compute the association difference between (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complex. In the same way, 100 structures were sampled from the MD trajectory of (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop with 20 ps interval in order to calculate the transformation energy difference of the ligand from water to enzyme.

In addition, Insight II package (Accelrys) was used to analyze the Van der Waals interactions between haloxyfop and each residue in the active site of CT with CVFF force field.

## Results and discussion

### Homology modeling

Different from the previous report that only one active site of the complete CT dimer was subjected to do the molecular dynamic simulations [18, 19], herein we took a different way that a truncated but structurally independent dimer was constructed and used in molecular dynamic simulation. Our conception was originated from the bacterial CT active form, which was constituted of CT- $\alpha$  and CT- $\beta$  subunits corresponding to C-subdomain and N-subdomain from eukaryotic CT. Furthermore, the structural analysis of *S. cerevisiae* also showed the C-subdomain and N-subdomain of one monomer were structurally independent and had little interaction with N-subdomain or C-subdomain from the same monomer [8], implicating that the truncated dimer protocol practicable. Our truncated CT dimer consisted of N-subdomain of one monomer (residues 212 to 400, corresponding to residues 1575–1767 of *S. cerevisiae*) and a C-subdomain of the other monomer (residues 1 to 211, corresponding to residues 1886–2097 of *S. cerevisiae*). Each contained the complete critical  $\beta$ - $\beta$ - $\alpha$  core and insertion region, which kept the proper topology and dimerization. The molecular dynamic simulations also showed that the core structure and the active site of CT were not significantly changed compared with that in previous reports [18, 19]. Obviously, our truncated CT dimer molecular simulation was much more time-efficient, and it provided an alternative protocol to analyze the molecular interactions between CT and its ligand using molecular dynamic simulation.

High homology identity was critical for accurate homology modeling. The total sequence identity of the truncated CT dimer between *S. cerevisiae* and *A. myosuroides* was 52.3%, where the N-subdomain identity was 53.4% and C-subdomain

identity was 51.4% (Fig. 1). It enabled us to accurately construct the *A. myosuroides* CT dimer.

The free CT dimer and (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complex model, which had the lowest energy score, were selected from the 100 models based on the energy function in Modeller and a series of structure-examination software for evaluation. In Ramachandran plot (Fig. 2 a and b), the 90.1% and 90.4% of residues without glycine and proline of the CT dimer, were located respectively in the most favored regions for free CT dimer and (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complex, consistent with the expectation of over 90% in the most favored regions. Only one residue (0.3%), Ile 377, was in the disallowed regions. Notably, the corresponding residue, Gln 1744, in *S. cerevisiae* CT domain was also in the disallowed regions (Fig. 2 c). The WHAT-IF packing scores between the truncated template and the built models were similar and the scores for most residues were above  $-5.0$  (Fig. 3), indicating our structure were reasonable. A similar trend was observed by VERIFY-3D evaluation (Fig. 4), and the score profiles were similar for the templates and the built models. All these suggested that the modeled structures of the free CT and (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complex were reasonable.

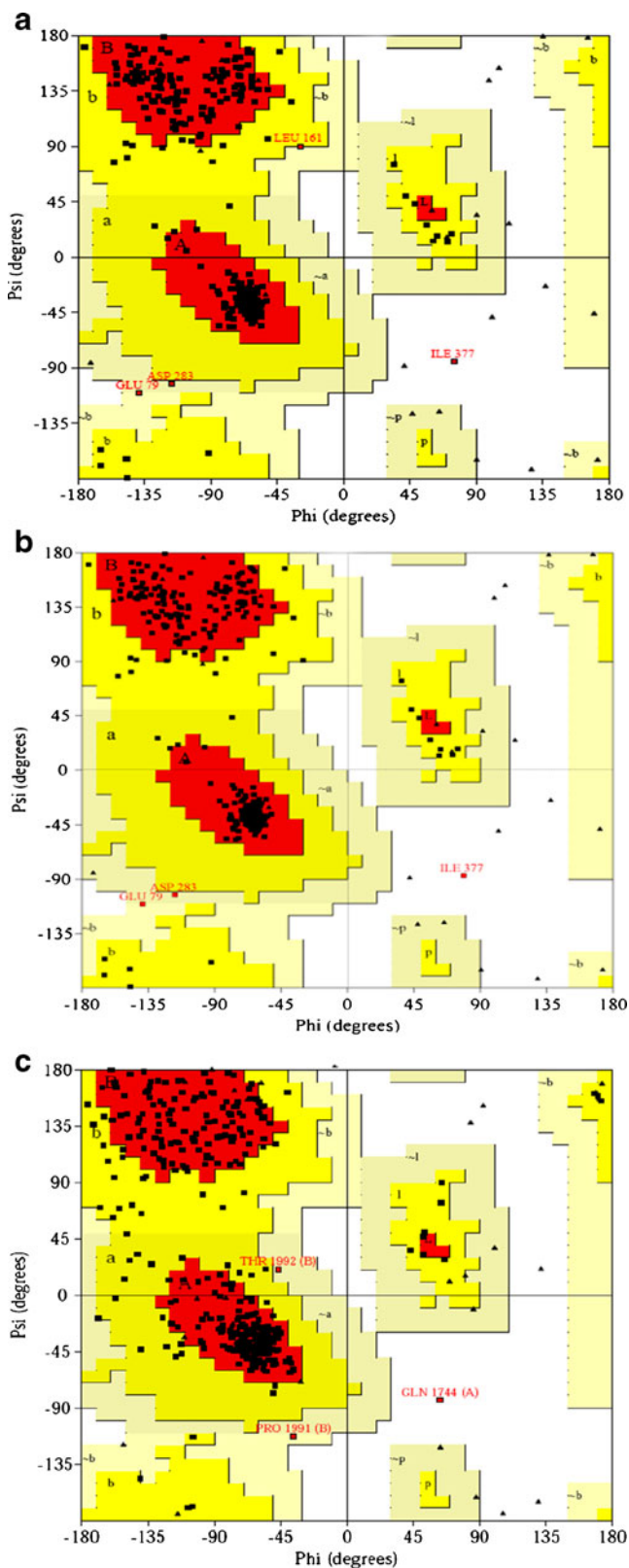
### Molecular dynamics

Five systems, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complexes, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop extracted from the complexes and free CT were subjected to molecular dynamic simulations. For all three system, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complexes and free CT, the plot of root mean square deviation (RMSD) values from the starting structure of all the alpha carbon of CT dimer increased and fluctuated greatly but different each other (Fig. 5 black lines).

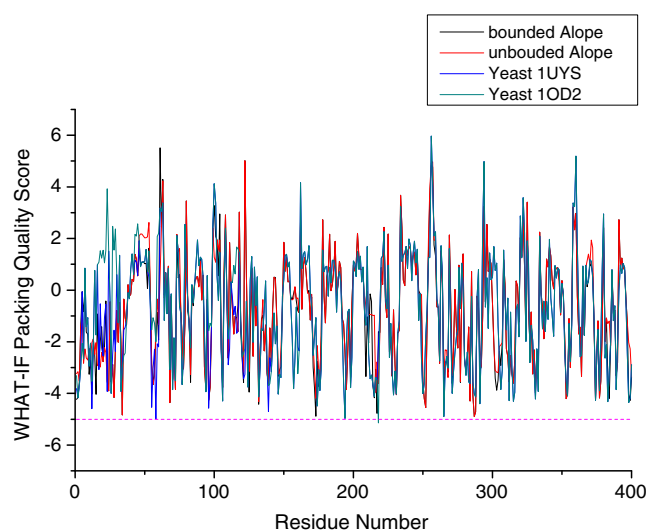
However, after removing the residues 162–194 (corresponding to  $\alpha 6\text{B}$ - $\alpha 6\text{C}$ - $\alpha 6\text{D}$  of *S. cerevisiae* CT domain), part of the insertion region of C-subdomain, the plots of RMSD values were quickly equilibrated and harmonically fluctuated around a platform of 2 Å for all three systems (Fig. 5 red lines), which was similar to previous reports [18, 19]. The RMSD values also showed that the structure without  $\alpha 6\text{B}$ - $\alpha 6\text{C}$ - $\alpha 6\text{D}$  was not significantly changed from the starting structure during the molecular dynamic simulation, and confirmed that our truncated CT dimer was structure-independent. Obviously, the RMSD values for all alpha carbons were the results of rigid body motion of the residues 162–194. This fact was consistent with the phenomena that the corresponding residues 2048–2080 were always unresolved in the crystal structure of *S. cerevisiae* CT. This region was also observed to be far away from the active site and isolated by the surrounded water, implying this region had little effect on haloxyfop binding and the enantioselectivity of CT.

To analyze the interaction between (*R*)- or (*S*)-haloxyfop and CT, an average structure was extracted from 8.2 ns to 10.2 ns for both (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT





**Fig. 2** The Ramachandran plots for the free CT of *A. myosuroides* (a), (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complex (b) and the template CT of *S. cerevisiae* (c)

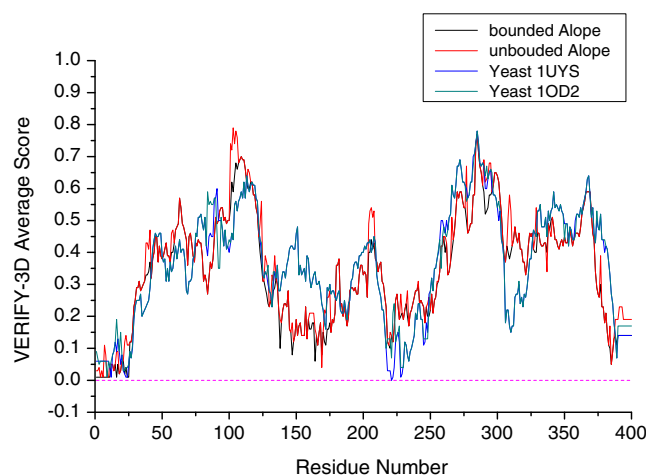


**Fig. 3** WHAT-IF packing quality score profiles calculated for the template and homology models. The dash line is the line with score of  $-5$ . The residues with score lower than this value may be unreasonable. “Alopecurus” is the abbreviation of “*Alopecurus myosuroides*”

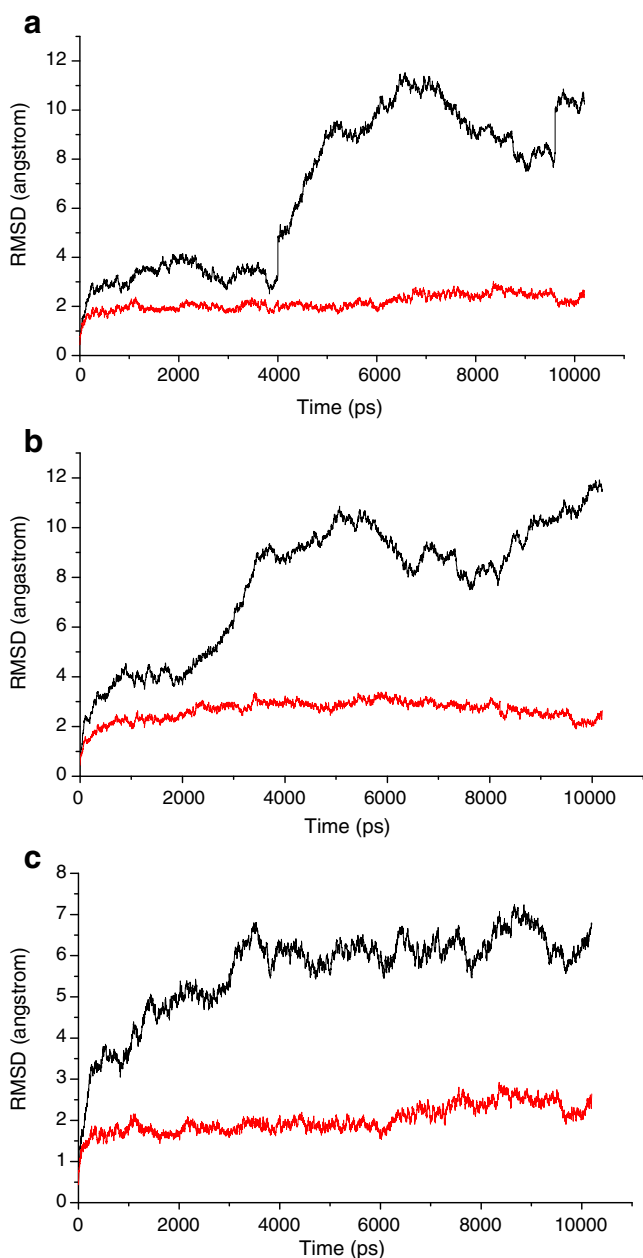
I1781L mutation of *poaceae* grass could produce the steric hindrance between the side chain of mutated residue leucine and the chiral methyl group of haloxyfop [16]. G2096A mutation was the substitution of the small group with large one and was argued to have effects on the conformation change of binding pocket [19].

#### Binding free energy calculation

Many contributions could affect the affinity or enantioselectivity between ligand and protein, such as electrostatic interaction, Van der Waals hydrophobic interaction, hydrogen bonding interaction and so on.



**Fig. 4** VERIFY-3D score profiles calculated for the template and homology models. The dash line is the line with score of 0. The residues with score lower than this value may be unreasonable. “Alopecurus” is the abbreviation of “*Alopecurus myosuroides*”



**Fig. 5** Root mean square derivation (RMSD) of the truncated CT domain dimer (alpha carbon) in free CT (**a**), (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT complex (**b**) and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complex (**c**) to the starting structure. The black line is calculated for the whole CT dimer. The red line is calculated for the CT dimer without  $\alpha 6B$ - $\alpha 6C$ - $\alpha 6D$

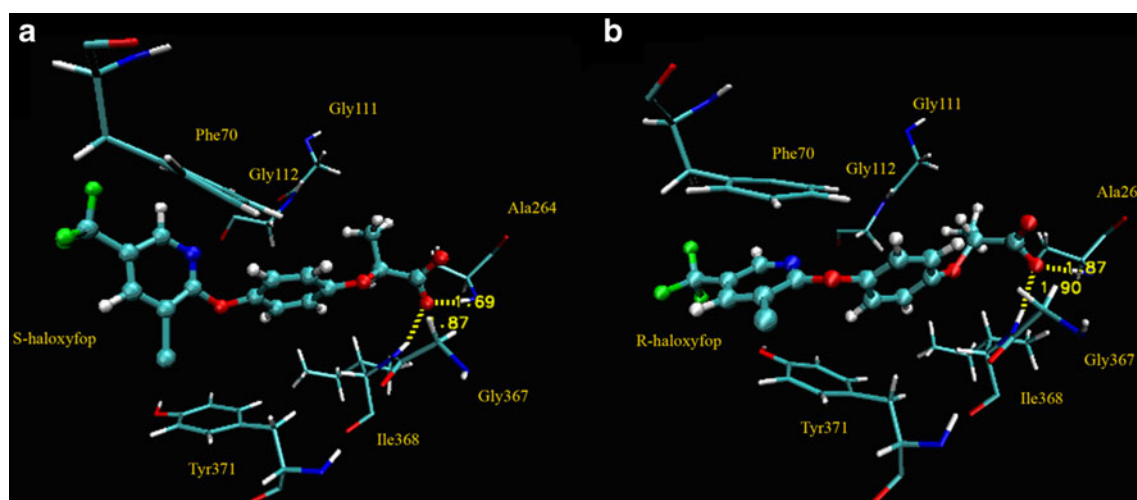
In order to find what were the major factors for the enantioselective recognition of CT domain, the binding free energies of (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop and various contributions to the binding were calculated using MM-PBSA method (Table 1). The calculated binding free energy difference ( $\Delta\Delta G_{\text{bind}}$ ) between the enantiomers was  $-2.80 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , which consistent with the experimental value in literature,  $-3.10 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  [45]. The free energy analysis showed that the Van der Waals interaction

( $\Delta E_{\text{vdw}}^{\text{int}}$ ) was the major drive to the association for both (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop,  $-48.07 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  and  $-45.86 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. Also, the Van der Waals interaction played a major role on the enantioselective recognition of CT toward haloxyfop, since the difference between (*R*)-haloxyfop and (*S*)-haloxyfop was  $-2.21 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , which was the largest contribution to the binding free energy difference. Nonpolar solvation free energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{np}}^{\text{int}}$ ) contributed less to the association and the values for (*R*)-haloxyfop and (*S*)-haloxyfop were similar,  $-5.18 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  and  $-5.15 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  respectively. Its contribution to the enantioselectivity of CT could be neglected. The electrostatic energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{ele}}^{\text{int}}$ ) which consisted of polar solvation free energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{pb}}^{\text{int}}$ ) and Coulomb interaction ( $\Delta E_{\text{cou}}^{\text{int}}$ ) was unfavorable for both (*R*)-haloxyfop and (*S*)-haloxyfop binding,  $12.46 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  and  $12.43 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  respectively. Although the polar solvent energy and the Coulomb interaction had a large effect on the energy difference between the enantiomers, their contributions were compensable to each other. So the electrostatic interaction had almost no effect on the enantioselectivity of CT.

Besides the above intermolecular interaction contribution, the CT dimer also went through a conformational transformation during the binding with haloxyfop [15]. Herein, the free energy change ( $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{tra}}$ ) of the system between the bound state and unbound state, which arose from the intramolecular interaction, was also calculated (Table 1). It consisted of ligand intramolecular binding free energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{lig}}^{\text{tra}}$ ) and protein intramolecular binding free energy ( $\Delta G_{\text{pro}}^{\text{tra}}$ ). All the intramolecular binding free energies were positive, which suggested that the conformation changes needed energy. It was also observed that these energies were not very large and the largest one was only  $3.66 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ , which implied that the CT conformation changes could readily happen. In addition, the absolute values of intramolecular binding free energy of CT ( $3.28 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  and  $3.66 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) were much higher than those of the ligand ( $0.51 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$  and  $0.72 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ), which was consistent with our common knowledge. The conformation change was more favorable for (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT system ( $3.79 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ) than (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT system ( $4.38 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ ).

All in all, MM-PBSA free energy analysis showed that the enantioselective recognition of CT to haloxyfop was mainly determined by the van der Waals interaction difference between (*R*)-haloxyfop and (*S*)-haloxyfop binding to the hydrophobic cavity of CT dimer.

Since the Van der Waals interactions difference was the major reason for the enantioselectivity of CT, further Van der Waals interactions between the active site residues of CT and (*R*)- or (*S*)-haloxyfop were investigated (Fig. 7). It was clearly shown that the total Van der Waals interaction difference was well-proportioned distributed around residues in CT which directly interacted with haloxyfop. No single residue majorly contributed



**Fig. 6** The binding mode of (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT (A) and (*R*)-haloxyfop-CT (B). Haloxyfop is presented with ball and stick model and the residues of CT are presented with sticks coloring

according to their atom type. The hydrogen bonds are labeled with yellow dot line

to the total energy difference as a hot spot. The total Van der Waals interactions difference was the results of a sum of each residue. It also suggested that the active site was tightly fit with (*R*)-haloxyfop, which was consistent with the previous report [46].

**Table 1** The various binding free energies for (*R*) and (*S*)-haloxyfop<sup>a</sup>

		( <i>R</i> )-	( <i>S</i> )-	Delta <sup>b</sup>	
		calc	calc	calc	exp <sup>c</sup>
Inter	$\Delta E_{\text{cou}}^{\text{int}}$	11.31±6.23	5.33±7.85	5.98	
	$\Delta E_{\text{vdw}}^{\text{int}}$	-48.07±3.74	-45.86±3.16	-2.21	
	$\Delta G_{\text{np}}^{\text{int}}$	-5.18±0.65	-5.15±0.43	-0.03	
	$\Delta G_{\text{pb}}^{\text{int}}$	1.15±7.12	7.10±7.23	-5.95	
	$\Delta G_{\text{ele}}^{\text{int}}$	12.46±6.91	12.43±7.72	0.03	
	$\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{int}}$	-40.79±7.39	-38.58±8.07	-2.21	
Intra	$\Delta G_{\text{lig}}^{\text{tra}}$	0.51	0.72	-0.21	
	$\Delta G_{\text{pro}}^{\text{tra}}$	3.28±4.51	3.66±4.19	-0.38	
	$\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{tra}}$	3.79	4.38	-0.59	
Total	$\Delta G_{\text{bind}}$	-37.00	-34.20	-2.80	-3.10

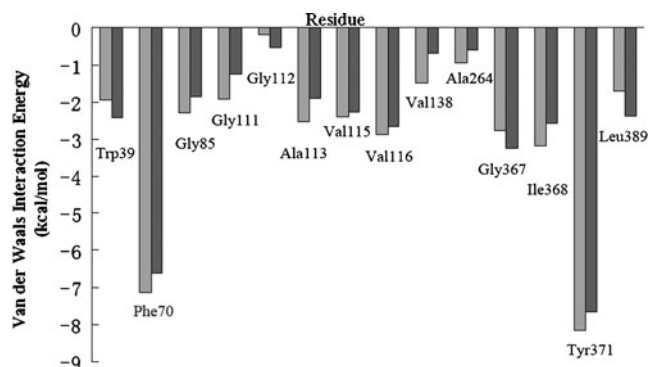
<sup>a</sup> All values in the table are given in kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>. The intermolecular free energy components ( $\Delta E_{\text{cou}}^{\text{int}}$ ,  $\Delta E_{\text{vdw}}^{\text{int}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{np}}^{\text{int}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{pb}}^{\text{int}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{ele}}^{\text{int}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{int}}$ ) in Table 1 have standard derivation since the protein-ligand complex, protein and ligand have the same number of frames (300). It is the same for  $\Delta G_{\text{pro}}^{\text{tra}}$  since the bounded protein and unbounded protein both have the same number of frames (300). For  $\Delta G_{\text{lig}}^{\text{tra}}$ ,  $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}^{\text{tra}}$  and  $\Delta G_{\text{bind}}$ , only the average value is obtained since the ligand of unbounded state has a different number of frames (100)

<sup>b</sup> Component(*R*)-Component(*S*)

<sup>c</sup> Value is deduced from equation  $\Delta \Delta G_{\text{tot}} = -RT \ln(K_i^R/K_i^S)$ , in which  $K_i^R/K_i^S < 1/200$

## Conclusions

The three-dimensional structures of the free CT from *A. myosuroides*, (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop-CT complex were constructed by homology modeling, whose reliability were confirmed using PROCHECK, WHAT-IF and VERIFY3D. Homology modeling and MM-PBSA analysis revealed that the herbicide (*R*)-haloxyfop had more inhibiting activity than that of (*S*)-haloxyfop, which was mainly determined by the difference of Van der Waals interactions between (*R*)- and (*S*)-haloxyfop binding to CT dimer. These findings would help to clarify the molecular mechanism of stereochemistry-activity relationships between the inhibitors and CT domain of ACCase from *Poaceae*, and establish a basis for the discovery of more potent chiral inhibitors of ACCase.



**Fig. 7** Van der Waals interactions between the active site residues of CT and (*R*)- or (*S*)-haloxyfop. The interaction for (*R*)-haloxyfop is in black and the grey for (*S*)-haloxyfop



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