spp. in 14 of 47 prefectures. Isolates obtained at the 771 medical facilities over the study period and those of 195 MDR isolates are shown in Fig. 2. The percentages for each year were similar to those 196 for the entire study period (data not shown). These results indicated that Acinetobacter 197 spp., including MDR isolates, mainly affected the respiratory tract. 198 Acinetobacter spp. isolates were identified to the spp. level at 558 medical facilities 199 in 2007, 571 in 2008, and 577 in 2009. A total of 86 834 Acinetobacter spp. isolates 200 were identified during the study period. As shown in the upper part of Table 3, 61 794 201 (71.2%) were A. baumannii, 8 983 (10.3%) were A. lwoffii, and 3 327 (3.8%) were A. 202 calcoaceticus. The percentages for each year were similar to those for the entire study 203 204 period. MDR isolates were identified to the spp. level at 34 medical facilities in 2007, 33 in 205 2008, and 45 in 2009. A total of 515 MDR isolates included A. baumannii (n = 423, 206 82.1%), A. lwoffii (n = 39, 7.6%), and A. calcoaceticus (n = 4, 0.8%). As shown in the 207 lower part of Table 3, isolation rates of A. baumannii increased significantly during the 208 study period (P < 0.0001), and those of A. lwoffii and A. calcoaceticus decreased each 209 year during the study period. 210 211 212213 214 215 216 217

#### DISCUSSION

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The results of the present survey showed that the percentages of MDR *P. aeruginosa* decreased significantly during the study period (April 2007 through March 2010). In addition, the number of patients with MDR isolates, as well as the number of patients per bed, decreased markedly. Our previous survey performed during the period January 2003 through 2006 showed that the percentages of MDR isolates increased significantly and the number of patients increased gradually [11]. The number of patients with MDR isolates seemed to decrease since 2007 in medical facilities in Japan, although these two surveys cannot be directly compared to each other because the hospitals surveyed were different between them. The hospitals surveyed in the present survey were institutions with over 200 beds, whereas medical facilities with 500 or more, and regional core hospitals with less than 500 beds were included in the previous study. During the first survey, outbreaks of MDR *P. aeruginosa* had became a serious problem in medical facilities in Japan [19]. The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, scientific societies on nosocomial infection controls and infectious diseases provided information about the current situation and infection control measures regarding MDR P. aeruginosa in medical settings in Japan. Most outbreaks were controlled by early involvement of management, including staff education, strict isolation of infected patients or carriers of MDR P. aeruginosa, active surveillance for drug-resistant P. aeruginosa and rigorous contact precautions [13]. Infection control measures especially focused on the handling of urine and urinary catheters, because the

It is essential to monitor MDR A. baumannii in medical facilities and to prepare

first survey suggested the importance of management of patients' urine in the prevention

and control of nosocomial MDR *P. aeruginosa* infection in Japan [13].

242	infection control measurements for patients with MDR A. baumannii in Japan. The
243	present study revealed that the majority of MDR Acinetobacter spp. isolated from
244	patients in Japan were A. baumannii. Although the number of the MDR isolates was
245	still small, these findings agreed with those in other countries [5].
246	
247	CONCLUSIONS
248	A large-scale investigation of multidrug-resistant Pseudomonas aeruginosa and
249	Acinetobacter spp. was performed at medical facilities in Japan. MDR P. aeruginosa
250	was prevalent nationwide in Japan, but its incidence decreased significantly after 2007
251	MDR Acinetobacter spp. is an emerging problem in medical facilities in Japan.
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272	Sciences Research Grant (H21-SHINKO-001) from the Ministry of Health, Labour an			
273	Welfare of Japan.			
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275	ABBREVIATION			
276	JANIS: Japanese Nosocomial Infection Surveillance System; DGIZ: Diameter of the			
277	Growth Inhibition Zone; MDR: MultiDrug-Resistant; MIC: Minimum Inhibitory			
278	Concentration; TDR: Two-Drug-Resistant			
279				
280	COMPETING INTERESTS			
281	All authors declare that they have no competing interests.			
282				
283	AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS			
284	TK and NMY carried out this study. All authors participated in the design of the study			
285	and they read and approved the final manuscript.			
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384	Figure legends			
385	Figure 1. Numbers of patients with MDR P. aeruginosa per 1,000 beds/year during the			
386	study period in each group of medical facilities categorized according to the number of			
387	beds.			
388	Four sets of three box plots represent the numbers of patients in all facilities, large-scale			
389	facilities with $\geq 600$ beds, medium-scale facilities with $300-599$ beds, and small-scale			
390	facilities with < 300 beds during the study period. The top and bottom of the boxes			
391	indicate the 75 <sup>th</sup> and 50 <sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively. The ends of the whiskers indicate 90 <sup>th</sup>			
392	and 25 <sup>th</sup> percentiles.			
393	§§§: $p \le 0.01$ , §§: $p \le 0.05$ for Freedman's test; ***: $p \le 0.01$ , **: $p \le 0.05$ for			
394	Wilcoxon's test.			
395				
396	Figure 2. Tissue sources of total <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> isolates, TDR isolates, and			
397	MDR isolates obtained during the study period at medical facilities.			
398				
399	Figure 3. Tissue sources of total Acinetobacter spp isolates and MDR isolates obtained			
400	during the study period at medical facilities.			
401				

Table 1. Isolation of *P. aeruginosa* with or without multidrug resistance in medical facilities

Isolates		2007	2008	2009
P. aeruginosa				
	Total numbers (No.) a)	228 449	233 301	223 232
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	723.0	738.4	706.5
TDR isolates	Total No.	14 340	14 043	13 009
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	45.4	44.4	41.2
	Ratio (%) b)	6.3	6.0	5.8
	Patient No. c)	6 789	6 474	6 231
	No. of patients per 1 000 beds/year	21.5	20.5	19.7
MDR isolates	Total No.	7 688	6 540	5 683
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	24.4	20.7	18.0
	Ratio (%)	3.4	2.8	2.5
	Patient No.	2 779	2 481	2 246
	No. of patients per 1 000 beds/year	8.8	7.9	7.1

a): Numbers of P. aeruginosa isolated from the 771 medical facilities that responded to the questionnaire survey.

b): Ratios of the numbers of TDR or MDR P. aeruginosa to the total numbers of P. aeruginosa isolates (%).

c): Numbers of patients from whom TDR or MDR P. aeruginosa were isolated.

Table 2. Isolation of Acinetobacter spp.. with or without multidrug resistance in medical facilities

Isolates		2007	2008	2009
Acinetobacter :	spp			
	Total numbers (No.) a)	32 073	31 330	30 609
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	101.5	99.2	96.9
	Patient No. b)	20 782	20 394	19 625
	No. of patients per 1 000 beds/year	65.8	64.5	62.1
MDR isolates				
	Total No.	84	143	331
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	0.3	0.5	1.1
	Rate (%) <sup>c)</sup>	0.3	0.5	1.1
	Patient No.	51	81	97
	No. of patients per 1 000 beds/year	0.2	0.3	0.3

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a): Numbers of Acinetobacter spp.. isolated from the 771 medical facilities that responded to the questionnaire survey.

b): Numbers of patients from whom MDR Acinetobacter spp.. were isolated.

c): Ratio of numbers of MDR Acinetobacter spp.. to the total numbers of Acinetobacter spp.. isolated (%)

Table 3 Isolation of *Acinetobacter* spp.. With or without multidrug resistance in medical facilities by spp.

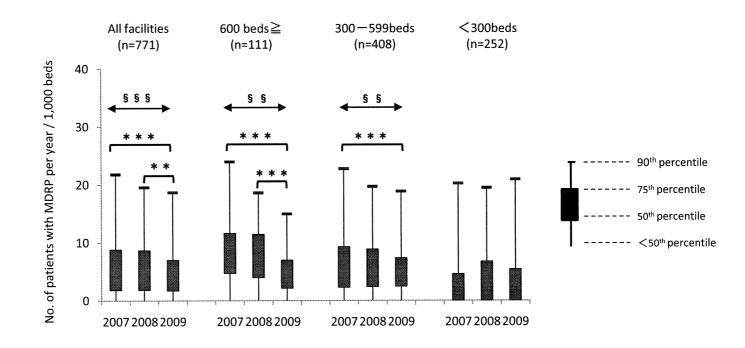
Isolates		2007	2008	2009
(No. of medical facilities where spec	(558)	(571)	(577)	
A. baumannii	Total numbers (No.) a)	21 116	20 371	20 307
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	87.1	82.1	81.2
A. lwoffii	Total No.	3 011	3 134	2 838
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	12.4	12.6	11.4
A. calcoaceticus	Total No.	1 124	1 059	1 144
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	4.6	4.3	4.6
Other Acinetobacter spp	Total No.	4 125	4 469	4 136
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	17.0	18.0	16.5
(No. of medical facilities where MD	PR strains were isolated)	(34)	(33)	(45)
MDR A. baumannii	Total No.	35	96	292
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	0.1	0.4	1.2
	Ratio (%) b)	0.2	0.5	1.4
MDR A. lwoffii	Total No.	21	12	6
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	0.1	0.05	0.02
	Ratio (%)	0.7	0.4	0.2
MDR A. calcoaceticus	Total No.	3	1	0
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	0.01	0.004	0
	Ratio (%)	0.3	0.1	0
Other MDR spp	Total No.	11	18	20
	No. of isolates per 1 000 beds/year	0.05	0.07	0.08
	Ratio (%)	0.3	0.4	0.5

<sup>445446</sup> 

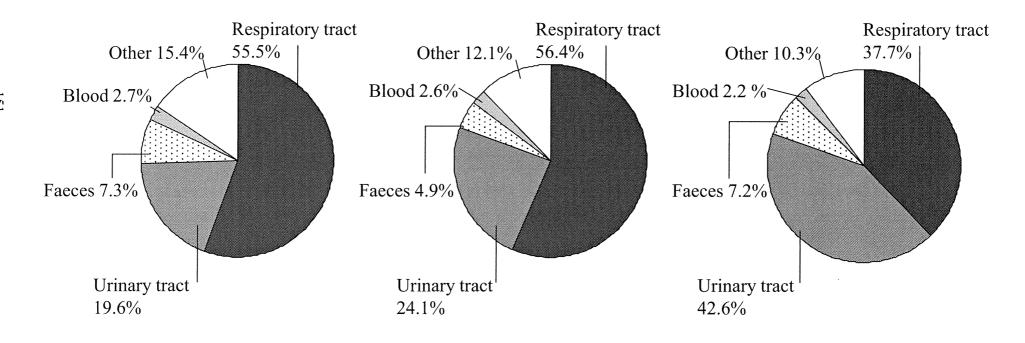
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a): Numbers of Acinetobacter spp.. isolated from the 771 medical facilities that responded to the questionnaire survey.

b): Ratio of the numbers of MDR Acinetobacter spp.. to the total numbers of Acinetobacter spp.. isolated (%).

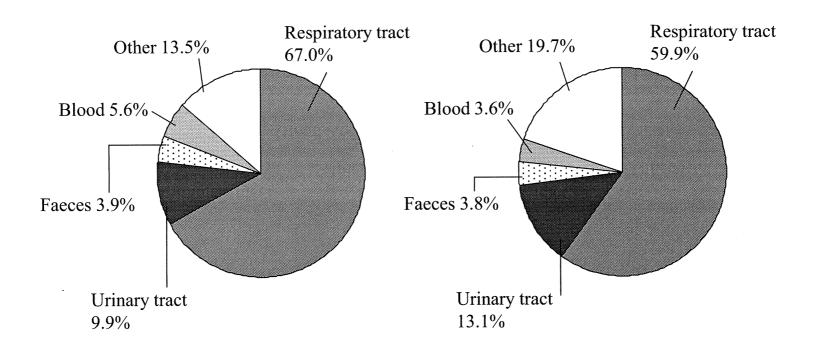






## **Total strains**

### **MDR** strains



#### Structural Biology and Crystallization Communications

188 V : "41 (09)

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# Structure of AmpC $\beta$ -lactamase (AmpC<sup>D</sup>) from an *Escherichia coli* clinical isolate with a tripeptide deletion (Gly286-Ser287-Asp288) in the H10 helix

The X-ray crystal structure of AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase (AmpC<sup>D</sup>) with a tripeptide deletion (Gly286-Ser287-Asp288) produced by *Escherichia coli* HKY28, a ceftazidime-resistant strain, was determined at a resolution of 1.7 Å. The structure of AmpC<sup>D</sup> suggests that the tripeptide deletion at positions 286–288 located in the H10 helix causes a structural change of the Asn289-Asn294 region from the  $\alpha$ -helix present in the native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase of E. coli to a loop structure, which results in a widening of the substrate-binding site.

#### 1. Introduction

AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase belongs to the molecular class C  $\beta$ -lactamases (Ambler, 1980; Babic et al., 2006) and is clinically as important as class A  $\beta$ -lactamases (Rice & Bonomo, 2000) as it hydrolyzes a broad range of  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics, including the extended-spectrum cephalosporins such as ceftazidime, cefotaxime, cefepime and cefpirome. In addition, AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase is generally not susceptible to inhibition by clavulanic acid, although tazobactam sometimes inhibits this enzyme. Therefore, the spread of AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase is a serious threat to antibiotic chemotherapy for infectious diseases. Recently, many AmpC variants with extended-spectrum activity have been clinically isolated from various bacterial pathogens such as Escherichia coli, Enterobacter cloacae, Enterobacter aerogenes and Serratia marcescens. One of the main reasons for the alteration of substrate specificity in these variants is thought to be structural modification of the protein (Nordmann & Mammeri, 2007; Nukaga et al., 2004; Vakulenko et al., 2002; Trépanier et al., 1999) such as amino-acid replacement (Raimondi et al., 2001; Trépanier et al., 1999; Vakulenko et al., 2002), insertion (Mammeri et al., 2007; Nukaga et al., 1998; Crichlow et al., 1999) and deletion (Mammeri et al., 2004; Doi et al., 2004; Barnaud et al., 2001).

In 1994, Arakawa and coworkers reported a chromosomal AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase produced by an E.~coli clinical isolate from a urine specimen in Japan, HKY28 (Doi et~al., 2004). From a comparison of the amino-acid sequence of AmpC of E.~coli HKY28 (denoted AmpC<sup>D</sup>) with that of E.~coli K-12 (Jaurin & Grundstrom, 1981), AmpC<sup>D</sup> contained three amino-acid deletions at positions 286, 287 and 288, corresponding to Gly, Ser and Asp residues, respectively, located on the H10 helix. With respect to substrate specificity, AmpC<sup>D</sup> conferred resistance to ceftazidime with a minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 32  $\mu$ g ml<sup>-1</sup>, although E.~coli rarely acquires resistance to this drug. Moreover, the hydrolytic activity of  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotics by AmpC<sup>D</sup> was suppressed by the clinically available  $\beta$ -lactamase inhibitors sulbactam and tazobactam and to some extent by clavulanic acid.

To elucidate the structural changes in the vicinity of the substratebinding site resulting from the tripeptide deletion, we carried out a crystallographic analysis of  $AmpC^D$   $\beta$ -lactamase. In this paper, we report the crystal structure of  $AmpC^D$   $\beta$ -lactamase at a resolution of 1.7 Å and a comparison with the structure of AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase of E. coli (denoted native AmpC; PDB code 1ke4) at a resolution of 1.72 Å.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Expression and purification

E. coli HKY28 was isolated from a culture of urine from an inpatient in Japan in 1994. The ampC gene of E. coli HKY28 was cloned between the EcoRI and BamHI sites of the expression vector pBCKS+ (Stratagene) to yield pBE28W, which was transformed into E. coli CS14-2 (Doi et al., 2004). For protein purification, the plasmid was re-extracted using a Wizard Plus SV Minipreps DNA-purification system (Promega) from the strain E. coli CS14-2 pBCKS+/AmpC<sup>D</sup>, which was retransformed into competent E. coli JM109 cells.

E. coli JM109 harbouring pBE28W was cultured at 310 K for 24 h in 10 l LB broth supplemented with 30 µg ml<sup>-1</sup> chloramphenicol. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 5000g for 15 min at 277 K. The pellets (about 50 g wet weight) were washed by resuspension in 50 ml 20 mM bis-tris-HCl buffer pH 6.5 with repeat centrifugation. The supernatant was discarded. The pellets were resuspended in 50 ml of the same buffer, disrupted by sonication for 5 min and centrifuged at 100 000g for 75 min at 275 K. The supernatant was loaded onto an SP Sepharose Fast Flow column (GE Healthcare) and the proteins were eluted with a linear gradient of 0-0.5 M NaCl. The fractions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and by their ability to turn over nitrocefin. The fractions containing the desired activity were pooled and concentrated to a volume of 10 ml using Ultracel YM-10 (Millipore). The buffer was exchanged from 20 mM bis-tris-HCl pH 6.5 to 20 mM bis-tris-HCl pH 6.5, 1 M ammonium sulfate. The bufferexchanged protein was loaded onto a Sephacryl SR-100 HR column (GE Healthcare) and was eluted with 20 mM bis-tris-HCl pH 6.5, 1 M ammonium sulfate, 0.3 M NaCl. Fractions containing AmpCD  $\beta$ -lactamase were pooled and concentrated to a volume of 10 ml. The protein was then again reloaded onto a Phenyl Sepharose 6 Fast Flow column (low sub; GE Healthcare) and eluted with a linear gradient of 1.0-0.5 M ammonium sulfate. The enzyme was further concentrated to a volume of 2 ml using both Ultracel YM-10 (Millipore) and Amicon Ultra-15 (Millipore). The enzyme was more than 95% pure as judged by SDS-PAGE. For crystallization of purified AmpCD, the buffer was exchanged to 20 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.5 using Amicon Ultra (Millipore).

#### 2.2. Crystallization

Initial screening for AmpCD crystallization conditions was performed at 293 K by the hanging-drop method (Luft & DeTitta, 1992) using the screening kits Crystal Screen and Crystal Screen 2 (Hampton Research). In the initial crystallization procedure, drops were prepared by mixing 1 μl protein solution (15 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>) with 1 μl reservoir solution and were equilibrated against 350 μl reservoir solution. Crystals of AmpCD were first obtained in one month from condition No. 40 [20%(w/v) PEG 4000, 20%(v/v) 2-propanol and 0.1 M sodium citrate tribasic dihydrate pH 5.6] of Crystal Screen. Improved crystals were subsequently obtained by refining the successful conditions using the hanging-drop method in 24-well VDX plates (Hampton Research): 1 µl concentrated protein solution (10 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>) in 20 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.5 was combined with 1 ul reservoir solution containing 20%(w/v) PEG 4000, 10%(v/v) 2-propanol and 0.1 M sodium citrate pH 5.6. This protein drop was suspended over 350 μl reservoir solution containing 20%(w/v) PEG 4000, 10%(v/v) 2-propanol and 0.1 M sodium citrate pH 5.6 at 293 K. Crystals formed after 10 d. The crystals were flash-frozen in nitrogen gas at 100 K after cryoprotection by brief exposure to reservoir solution containing 40%(w/v) PEG 4000, 10%(v/v) 2-propanol and 0.1 M sodium citrate pH 5.6.

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Table 1
Crystallographic data-collection and refinement statistics for AmpC<sup>D</sup>.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

Data collection			
Resolution (Å)	50.0-1.70 (1.76-1.70)		
Wavelength (Å)	1.07		
Unit-cell parameters (Å, °)	a = 47.1, b = 47.4, c = 81.5,		
	$\alpha = 82.6, \beta = 80.9, \gamma = 65.4$		
Space group	<i>P</i> 1		
Redundancy	2.2 (1.7)		
Completeness (%)	94.3 (82.8)		
R <sub>merse</sub> †	0.062 (0.267)		
No. of observed reflections	141726 (9810)		
No. of unique reflections	65343 (5771)		
$\langle I/\sigma(I)\rangle$	18.1 (2.6)		
Refinement statistics			
$\sigma$ cutoff	0		
Resolution (Å)	39.2-1.70 (1.74-1.70)		
No. of reflections used	62030 (3855)		
B factors $(\mathring{A}^2)$			
Average	16.9		
Protein	15.6		
Water	28.6		
No. of non-H atoms‡			
Protein	5796		
Water	611		
R.m.s.d. from ideal§			
Bond lengths (Å)	0.012		
Angles (°)	1.4		
Rworking	0.163 (0.228)		
R <sub>free</sub> ††	0.206 (0.306)		

†  $R_{\text{merge}} = \sum_{hkl} \sum_i |I_i(hkl) - \langle I(hkl) \rangle|/\sum_{hkl} \sum_i I_i(hkl)$ , where  $I_i(hkl)$  is the observed intensity for reflection hkl and  $\langle I(hkl) \rangle$  is the average intensity calculated for reflection hkl from replicate data. ‡ Per asymmetric unit. § R.m.s.d.: root-mean-square-deviation. ¶  $R_{\text{working}} = \sum_{hkl} ||F_o| - |F_c||/\sum_{hkl} |F_o|$ , where  $F_o$  and  $F_c$  are the observed and calculated structure factors, respectively. ††  $R_{\text{free}} = \sum_{hkl} ||F_o| - |F_c||/\sum_{hkl} |F_o|$  for 5% of the data not used at any stage of structural refinement.

#### 2.3. Data collection and refinement

The data set used for structure determination was collected at SPring-8 to a resolution of 1.7 Å at a wavelength of  $\lambda = 1.07$  Å. The data were integrated, merged and scaled using HKL-2000 (Otwinowski & Minor, 1997). The refined structure of native AmpC of E. coli at a resolution of 2.0 Å (PDB code 2bls; Usher et al., 1998) was used as the search model for molecular replacement using AMoRe (Navaza, 1994), a component of the CCP4 program suite v.6.0.0 (Collaborative Computational Project, Number 4, 1994). Refinement was interspersed with model building using REFMAC v.5.2.0019 (Murshudov et al., 1997), a component of the CCP4 program suite v.6.0.0 (Collaborative Computational Project, Number 4, 1994), and Coot v.0.1.2 (Emsley & Cowtan, 2004). The quality of the model was inspected using the program PROCHECK (Laskowski et al., 1993). Figures were generated using PyMOL (http://pymol.sourceforge.net/) and MolFeat v.3.5. The atomic coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank (PDB code 2zi9). The structure of AmpC<sup>D</sup> was refined to a final R factor of 16.3% and a free R factor of 20.6% and the root-mean-square-deviation (r.m.s.d.) values from the ideal bond distances and angles are 0.012 Å and 1.4°, respectively. Data-collection and refinement statistics are listed in Table 1.

#### 3. Results and discussion

The final refined structural model contains two AmpC<sup>D</sup> molecules per asymmetric unit, consisting of residues Ala4-Gln361 for molecules A and B, with the exception of the deleted residues 286-288. A Ramachandran plot shows that 92.2% of the residues are in the most favoured regions, with a further 7.8% in additionally allowed regions. The r.m.s.d. value between the  $C^{\alpha}$  atoms of the two monomers is

0.23 Å. As expected, each AmpC<sup>D</sup> monomer adopts a mixed  $\alpha/\beta$  structure of nine antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheets with a helical domain on one side and a mixed  $\alpha/\beta$  domain on the other (Fig. 1a), as found in native AmpC of E. coli (Usher et al., 1998; Powers & Shoichet, 2002; Fig. 1b) and other AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamases from Citrobacter freundii (Oefner et al., 1990) and Enterobacter cloacae (Lobkovsky et al., 1993).

For simplicity, only one molecule (molecule B) will be considered in the present discussion. The structures of AmpC<sup>D</sup> and native AmpC of  $E.\ coli$ , which has 98% sequence homology (PDB code 1ke4; 1.72 Å resolution; Powers & Shoichet, 2002), were superimposed. The r.m.s.d. for the C<sup> $\alpha$ </sup> atoms between Ala4 and Gln361, excluding the

residues Gly286, Ser287 and Asp288 located on the H10 helix, is 0.72 Å. Upon comparison of the two overall structures, a significant difference was observed in the vicinity of the deleted resides Gly286-Ser287-Asp288. In the AmpC<sup>D</sup> structure (Fig. 2b), the deletion causes a structural change in the 289–293 segment, corresponding to Asn289-Leu293, following the tripeptide deletion, which changes from the  $\alpha$ -helix structure present in native AmpC (Fig. 2a) to a more extended loop. As a result, relative to the structure of native AmpC, the C $\alpha$  atoms of residues Asn285 and Asn289, which are before and after the tripeptide deletion, move by approximately 3 Å away from the catalytically important O $\alpha$  atom of Ser64, indicating that the

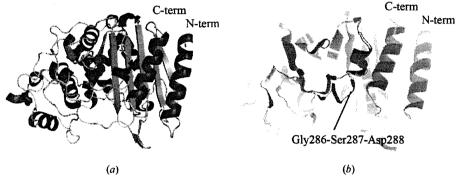
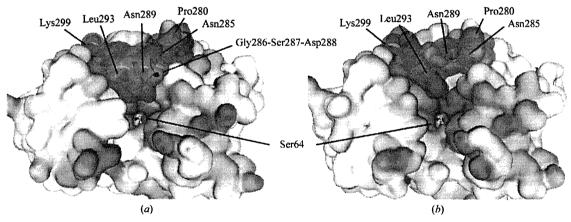
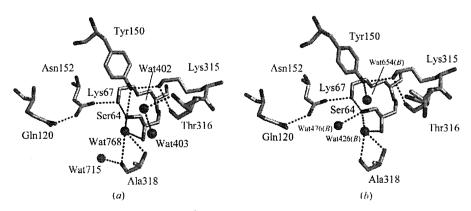


Figure 1
(a) Overall structure of AmpC<sup>D</sup>  $\beta$ -lactamase. Only molecule B is depicted.  $\alpha$ -Helices,  $\beta$ -strands and loops are shown in red, green and cyan, respectively. (b) Slabbed view of overall structure superposition of native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase (red; PDB code 1ke4) and AmpC<sup>D</sup>  $\beta$ -lactamase (blue). In each structure, only molecule B is depicted.



Electrostatic potential representations of (a) native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase and (b) AmpC<sup>D</sup>  $\beta$ -lactamase. The catalytic residue Ser64 is represented as a ball-and-stick model (the O' atom of Ser64 is coloured red). The Pro280-Lys299 region in native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase and AmpC<sup>D</sup>  $\beta$ -lactamase is represented by a ribbon model coloured green on a transparent surface. In native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase, residues Gly286-Asp288 in the Pro280-Lys299 region are coloured violet.



Substrate-binding site of (a) native AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase determined to 1.72 Å resolution and (b) AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamase. In each structure, only molecule B is depicted. C, O and N atoms of the enzyme are shown in grey, red and blue, respectively. Water molecules cited in the text are labelled and are represented by red spheres. Dashed lines indicate hydrogen bonds with distances between 2.5 and 3.2 Å.

substrate-binding site of AmpC<sup>D</sup> is wider than that of native AmpC. The crystal structure of AmpC<sup>D</sup> also supports the previous results of molecular-modelling studies on AmpC<sup>D</sup> with ceftazidime (Doi *et al.*, 2004); the tripeptide deletion in AmpC<sup>D</sup> provides a more open site that can accommodate the R2 side chain of ceftazidime.

In the substrate-binding site of AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamases, residues Ser64, Lys67, Tyr150, Asn152, Lys315, Thr316 and the main chain of Ala318 are thought to be important in the hydrolysis reaction of β-lactam antibiotics (Lobkovsky et al., 1993; Oefner et al., 1990; Monnaie, Dubus & Frère, 1994; Monnaie, Dubus, Cooke et al., 1994; Dubus et al., 1994, 1995, 1996; Lobkovsky et al., 1994). An overlay of these seven residues between AmpCD and native AmpC shows a close fit, with the exceptions of the side chain of Tyr150 (the phenyl ring is rotated 19° around the  $C^{\beta}-C^{\gamma}$  bond relative to that in molecule B of native AmpC). Thus, the structures of the key catalytic residues in the substrate-binding site are not dramatically affected, but, as mentioned above, the collapse of the  $\alpha$ -helix on the tripeptide deletion in the H10 helix appears to give rise to an expansion of the substrate-binding site and is therefore believed to be the primary reason for the altered selectivity profile exhibited by AmpCD relative to that of native AmpC (Doi et al., 2004).

In the structure of native AmpC (Fig. 3a), four water molecules (Wat402, Wat403, Wat715 and Wat768) were observed in the substrate-binding site, where Wat402 was presumed to be the deacylating water (Powers & Shoichet, 2002) which hydrogen bonds to Thr316  $O^{V1}$  and Wat403. Wat715 is hydrogen bonded to the mainchain carbonyl O atom of Ala318 and Wat768 interacts with Ser64 and Ala318. In the substrate-binding site of AmpC<sup>D</sup>, three water molecules [Wat426(B), Wat476(B) and Wat654(B) in molecule B] were located in the active site (Fig. 3b). As in native AmpC, a water molecule [Wat426(B) in the AmpC<sup>D</sup> structure] is bound in the site which stabilizes the tetrahedral intermediate of the lactamase reaction (Usher et al., 1998; Murphy & Pratt, 1988) and is hydrogen bonded to the main-chain N atoms of Ser64 and Ala318, Ser64  $O^{V}$  and the main-chain carbonyl O atom of Ala318.

In conclusion, we have determined the crystal structure of AmpC<sup>D</sup> of *E. coli* with a tripeptide deletion (Gly286-Ser287-Asp288) in the H10 helix and revealed the structural changes associated with the tripeptide deletion. However, further crystallographic studies on AmpC<sup>D</sup> in complexes with the hydrolyzed products of substrates and with inhibitors are required to further understand the structural correlations with enzyme activity and the altered selectivity profile.

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# Structure of metallo-β-lactamase IND-7 from a *Chryseobacterium* indologenes clinical isolate at 1.65-Å resolution

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The X-ray crystal structure of metallo-\beta-lactamase from Chryseobacterium indologenes IND-7 was determined at a resolution of 1.65 Å. The overall structure adopted a four-layered  $\alpha\beta/\beta\alpha$  sandwich structure with a dinuclear zinc(II) active site, in which the zinc(II) ions were denoted as Zn1 and Zn2. The overall structure of IND-7 is analogous to those of subclass B1 metallo-β-lactamases, as determined by X-ray crystallography. A significant structural difference, however, was observed in the dinuclear zinc(II) active site: the coordination geometry around Zn1 changed from tetrahedral, found in other subclass B1 metallo-β-lactamases, to distorted trigonal bipyramidal, whereas that of Zn2 changed from trigonal bipyramidal to tetrahedral. Arg121(101), which is located in the vicinity of the dinuclear zinc(II) active site, may affect the binding affinity of Zn2 due to an electronic repulsion between the zinc(II) ion(s) and a positively charged guanidyl group of Arg121(101). Moreover, the hydrogen-bonding interaction of Arg121 with Ser71(53), which is conserved in IND-1, IND-3 and IND-5-IND-7, appeared to have important consequences for the binding affinity of Zn2 in conjunction with the above electrostatic

*Keywords*: β-lactams/metallo-β-lactamase/crystal structure/X-ray crystallography/zinc(II).

Abbreviations: BBL, class B β-lactamase; BcII, metallo-β-lactamase from Bacillus cereus; BlaB, metallo-β-lactamase from Cryseobacterium meningosepticum; CcrA, metallo-β-lactamase from Bacteroides fragilis; GIM-1, metallo-β-lactamase from Pseudomonas aeruginosa; IMP-1, metallo-β-lactamase from Serratia marcescens; IND-1, IND-2, IND-2a, IND-3, IND-4, IND-5, IND-6 and IND-7; metallo-β-lactamases from Chryseobacterium indologenes; PDB, Protein Data Bank; SIM-1, metallo-β-lactamase from Acinetobacter baumannii; SPM-1, metallo-β-lactamase from Pseudomonas aeruginosa; VIM-2, metallo-β-lactamase from Pseudomonas aeruginosa.

Metallo-β-lactamases are zinc(II)-dependent enzymes that catalyze the hydrolysis of the amide bond in most β-lactams, including carbapenems, and are associated with one of the prevalent mechanisms of bacterial resistance against  $\beta$ -lactams (1-3). Metallo-β-lactamases (referred to as class B  $\beta$ -lactamases) are grouped into the molecular subclasses B1 - B3 based on their primary amino acid sequence (4-6). Subclasses B1 and B2 metallo-B-lactamases have the amino acid sequences. HXHXD and NXHXD, respectively. Subclass B3 metallo-β-lactamases have the amino acid sequence H(Q)XHXDH. Subclasses B1 and B3 metalloβ-lactamases are able to bind up to two zinc(II) ions (7-10) and can hydrolyze a wide range of  $\beta$ -lactams including penicillins, cefalosporins and carbapenems (11). On the other hand, subclass B2 metalloβ-lactamases are mononuclear zinc(II) enzymes, which exhibit specificity toward carbapenems (11-17).

Among them, subclass B1 metallo-β-lactamases are gaining popularity worldwide, and their genes are encoded either on the bacterial chromosome or on mobile genetic elements such as plasmids and transposons (6, 18–20). For instance, chromosomally encoded metallo-β-lactamases include BcII from Bacillus cereus (21), BlaB from Chryseobacterium meningosepticum (22), CcrA from Bacteroides fragilis (23) and IND-1 from Chryseobacterium indologenes (24), whereas IMP-1 from Serratia marcescens (25), VIM-2 from Pseudomonas aeruginosa (18), SPM-1 from P. aeruginosa (26), SIM-1 from Acinetobacter

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