

23 and there are no clinically-available inhibitors. We present crystal structures of IMP-13, a
24 structurally-uncharacterized MBL from Gram-negative *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* found in clinical
25 outbreaks globally, and characterize the binding using solution NMR-spectroscopy and molecular-
26 dynamics simulations. Crystal structures of apo IMP-13 and bound to four clinically-relevant
27 carbapenem antibiotics (doripenem, ertapenem, imipenem and meropenem) are presented. Active
28 site plasticity and the active-site loop, where a tryptophan residue stabilizes the antibiotic core
29 scaffold, are essential to the substrate-binding mechanism. The conserved carbapenem scaffold
30 plays the most significant role in IMP-13 binding, explaining the broad substrate specificity. The
31 observed plasticity and substrate-locking mechanism provide opportunities for rational drug design
32 of novel metallo- β -lactamase inhibitors, essential in the fight against antibiotic resistance.

33

34 Keywords

35 IMP-13; metallo- β -lactamase; imipenemase; antibiotic resistance; solution NMR; X-ray
36 crystallography; molecular dynamics; metalloenzyme; protein dynamics; β -lactam antibiotic

37

38 Introduction

39 Multidrug-resistant bacteria pose a major challenge to human health, with resistance mechanisms to
40 all known classes of antibiotics now identified. While much pharmaceutical research has focused on
41 drugs to treat Gram-positive infections, multidrug resistance amongst Gram-negative pathogens
42 remains a significant clinical challenge (1-3). β -lactam antibiotics are used in treatment of both
43 Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacterial infections and are the most commonly prescribed
44 antibiotics (4, 5). β -lactam antibiotics act as inhibitors of cell wall biosynthesis, causing subsequent
45 bacterial cell death (6). The success of the first β -lactam antibiotic, penicillin, discovered in 1928 by

46 Alexander Fleming (7) and used clinically since 1943 (8), led to multiple developments of the β -
47 lactam scaffold providing new and more effective antibacterial compounds.

48 As a result of the widespread use of β -lactam antibiotics, resistance mechanisms against them have
49 emerged (3). Resistance mechanisms can be divided into mutated penicillin binding proteins (PBPs),
50 which prevent binding of β -lactams to their target protein; reduction of antibiotic concentration in
51 the cell due to increased efflux (expression of efflux pumps) or decreased uptake (altered expression
52 of outer membrane proteins) and, most commonly and significantly, production of β -lactamase
53 enzymes (9). β -lactamases hydrolyze the β -lactam ring, which distinguishes this class of antibiotics
54 and is key to its binding mechanism, thus preventing interaction of the antibiotic with its target (10).

55 As a response to the emergence of enzyme-mediated resistances as early as the 1940s (11),
56 cephalosporin and carbapenem-type β -lactam antibiotics were discovered, isolated and developed
57 (12-14). Carbapenems are formed of a core scaffold, consisting of a β -lactam ring fused to a
58 pyrroline ring that is decorated with an exocyclic sulfur that links to the tail region of the molecule
59 (Fig. SI1).

60 However, β -lactamases that are capable of inactivating the most recent generation carbapenems,
61 often used as a last-resort for effective treatment against multidrug-resistant bacteria, have now
62 evolved (15) and spread rapidly (16). As such, carbapenem resistance is a hallmark of all three of the
63 World Health Organisation's highest priority pathogens (17).

64 On a structural basis, four main classes of β -lactamases can be defined - three classes of serine β -
65 lactamases, distinguishable by their amino acid sequence and inhibitor susceptibility (Ambler class A,
66 C and D) and one class of metallo- β -lactamases (B), requiring divalent zinc ions for their β -lactamase
67 activity (18). MBLs have been shown to hydrolyze all bicyclic β -lactams including the carbapenems
68 (19). The existence of MBL genes on integron structures and plasmids, often co-expressed with other
69 antibiotic resistance genes, renders MBLs a serious clinical challenge, due to the possibility of
70 horizontal gene transfer (20, 21). Inhibitors of serine β -lactamases, e.g. clavulanic acid (22) and

71 avibactam (23), are available and used clinically in combination with antibiotics (24). However,
72 resistance to this treatment is already being seen in the clinic (25) and to date there are no clinically
73 available inhibitors of the class B MBLs, making MBLs a significant threat.

74 MBLs can be divided into three subclasses (B1, B2 and B3), based on sequence and structural
75 similarities and the number of coordinated zinc ions, with the B1 class representing the most
76 significant clinically (26). Among the major B1 class enzymes are the imipenemases (IMP), Verona
77 integron-encoded MBLs (VIM) and the New Delhi MBLs (NDMs), which can hydrolyze the most
78 recent cephalosporins and carbapenems (20, 27, 28).

79 IMP-type MBLs were first identified in Japan, and the class now consists of at least 53 members (29,
80 30) identified in more than 26 species of Gram-negative bacteria from around the world (31). IMP-
81 encoding genes have been shown to occur as resistance cassettes along with other resistance genes,
82 including those of serine β -lactamases (32), and aminoglycoside (33) and streptomycin (34)
83 resistances. IMPs can be divided into six subgroups based on phylogeny and sequence similarity.
84 IMP-13, a member of subgroup 2 sharing 92.3% amino acid sequence similarity with IMP-2 and 82.5%
85 with IMP-1 (Fig. S12 (35)), was first identified in the Gram-negative pathogen *Pseudomonas*
86 *aeruginosa* from clinical samples in Italy (21) and is a common cause of carbapenem resistance,
87 often involved in large outbreaks (36). IMP-13 has been detected in a number of other countries in
88 Europe as well as South America (21, 36-38). While IMP-13 is most commonly associated with
89 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections, it has also been identified in other human pathogens including
90 *Salmonella enterica*, members of the *Enterobacteriaceae*, including *Klebsiella* and *Enterobacter* spp.
91 (38, 39), as well as non-human pathogens in the environment e.g. *Pseudomonas monteilii*, related to
92 the soil microbe *P. putida* (40). These studies indicate that IMP-13 is present in a variety of
93 significant human pathogens, as well as in other non-human pathogens which can act as
94 environmental reservoirs of antibiotic resistance.

95 Recombinant IMP-13 protein has been overexpressed, purified and characterized biochemically (41),
96 but no structural information concerning IMP-13 has yet been reported. Crystal structures of MBLs,
97 such as NDM-1 and IMP-1 show a conserved $\alpha\beta/\beta\alpha$ fold, with an active site at the interface of the
98 two $\alpha\beta$ units involving one or two zinc ions (42, 43). Although the overall folds are expected to be
99 very similar, divergence between the various structures makes these challenging targets for drug
100 development. Currently relatively few crystal structures are available for other members of the IMP
101 class, with no structural information on the antibiotic binding mode. Thus, high-resolution structural
102 information is essential to broaden overall knowledge of MBLs and their antibiotic binding modes
103 and enable the design of novel β -lactamase inhibitors to fight antibiotic resistance. Plasticity of the
104 active site is also seen to play a role in other MBL classes (44, 45) so analysing a wide range of
105 antibiotic binding modes will help to determine the key factors in this.

106 Herein, we report two distinct apo IMP-13 structures and the structures of four complexes with
107 clinically-relevant carbapenem antibiotics bound in their hydrolyzed form (doripenem, ertapenem,
108 imipenem and meropenem). We also present backbone NMR assignments and NMR relaxation
109 measurements for IMP-13 in the apo and ertapenem-bound forms, and molecular dynamics
110 simulations for the apo and carbapenem-bound states. The structural information and dynamics
111 presented here reveals important information about the mechanism of antibiotic binding, as well as
112 a significant role for the active site covering loop (L1), indicating that the plasticity of the active-site
113 region is important for the broad substrate-recognition spectrum of these enzymes. The structural
114 information presented here provides important information to further aid in the development of
115 novel MBL inhibitors, essential to combat this significant bacterial threat.

116

117 Results

118 Structure of the apo-form of IMP-13

119 Two apo-form crystal structures of IMP-13, showing the L1 active-site loop (Fig. 1, SI3, SI4) in open
120 and closed conformations, were solved to 1.9 and 2.2 Å resolution respectively (PDB: 6R78 and
121 6R79). We define the “open” conformation as the loop pointing away from the protein towards the
122 solvent and the “closed” as the loop positioned over the active site and pointing towards its rim. The
123 distance between C α of the Trp28 for open and closed conformation is 8.8 Å. The overall protein
124 architecture of the IMP-13 apo structure is consistent with the previously-published metallo- β -
125 lactamase fold (43), consisting of a global $\alpha\beta/\beta\alpha$ topology, with a shallow active-site cleft at the
126 border of the two β -sheets. In the apo structure presenting a closed L1 loop conformation (apo_{closed}
127 conformation, PDB: 6R78), the two divalent zinc ions are found a distance of 3.5 Å apart: one (Zn1)
128 coordinates His77, His79 and His139 residues and a bridging water molecule in a tetrahedral
129 geometry, while the other (Zn2) coordinates Asp81, Cys158 and His197 and the bridging water (Fig.
130 1B). The bridging water was proposed by Page and colleagues to be in the form of a hydroxide ion
131 for activation of the β -lactam ring for hydrolysis (46, 47) and is seen to be around 3.3 Å from each of
132 the oxygens of the Asp81 sidechain, indicating that the hydroxide ion would be oriented by these
133 residues as seen in IMP-1 (48). In the apo_{open} structure (PDB: 6R79), the conformation is determined
134 by interlocking with another loop, while in the closed conformation these interactions are missing.
135 The B-factor values of the loop residues are in both cases approximately 20 Å³ higher than the rest of
136 the protein molecule, indicating high flexibility of this region.

137 Structure of carbapenem-bound IMP-13

138 Crystal structures of IMP-13 bound to hydrolyzed doripenem (2.8 Å, PDB: 6S0H), ertapenem (2.2 Å,
139 PDB: 6RZS), imipenem (1.9 Å, PDB: 6RZR) and meropenem (2.3 Å, PDB: 6R73) were solved by
140 molecular replacement, with IMP-13 antibiotic complex crystals prepared by co-crystallization. Both
141 the tautomers with sp² and sp³ carbons at the C4 position of the carbapenems (46) (all without a

142 hydrogen on N6) were modelled into the ligand electron density and refined separately. As the
143 resolution of the collected data is moderate and does not allow clear differentiation between the
144 two tautomers, and with an understanding that the crystal structure may be a weighted average of
145 the two forms, the tautomer with the lowest B factor, the sp² form, was deemed to be the most
146 representative in all cases (Fig. 2), as C4 attached to the S is not visibly tetrahedral. From this, with
147 respect to the mechanisms shown in Lisa et al. (49) and Feng et al. (46), we believe that the primary
148 state visible is that of the intermediate EI₂. According to Lisa et al., this would then become the Δ1
149 form after addition of the hydrogen via the sulphur-bound carbon atom and so could be a weighted
150 average of these two states. In all the structures, the tail moiety of the carbapenem adopts different
151 positions when bound to chain A or B of the crystal structure. Such an arrangement can be explained
152 by the location of the tail, which experiences crystal packing contacts in one chain and solvent-
153 exposure in the other chain, resulting for the latter in high flexibility and rotational freedom,
154 demonstrated by increased B-factor values compared to the core atoms of the carbapenem scaffold.
155 Further description focuses on chain B of the doripenem, ertapenem and imipenem-bound
156 structures and chain A of meropenem, where crystal packing is not seen to affect ligand placement.
157 A comparison of the carbapenem-bound complex structures with apo_{closed} elicits very few distinct
158 differences with the L1 loop seen packed over the antibiotic binding pocket (Fig. 1A, C, D). The RMSD
159 of the backbone Cα atoms (for 216 out of 217 residues), including the L1 loop, varies from 0.27 to
160 0.47 Å, showing a high level of structural similarity between the structures, with only a few
161 differences in the flexible loop regions. With the apo_{open} structure on the other hand, the loop can be
162 seen pointing away from the active site, leaving it the active site accessible to the substrate (Fig. 1A).
163 The tunnel formation as seen in the closed form is completely absent due to different positioning of
164 both backbone and side-chain atoms. In the complex structures, the largest active-site-facing
165 changes seen in the L1 loop occur between residues Val25 and Val31, with these two residues
166 moving towards the carbapenems to form hydrophobic interactions (movements are in the range of
167 5 Å and 1 Å for the Val25 and Val31, respectively). The residues located in the middle of the L1 loop,

168 Val25 and Trp28, show more significant changes, moving approximately 9–10 Å in order to cover the
169 substrate during catalysis, thereby closing the tunnel-like structure above the active site of the
170 enzyme and acting as a gatekeeper between the ligand and the solvent. Further conformational
171 differences between apo and carbapenem-bound structures include movement of Asn167 closer to
172 the active site in order to facilitate the hydrogen bonding with the substrate (the rest of the L3 loop
173 does not alter its conformation significantly). Strands B7 and B8 are also altered between the open
174 and closed protein conformations, with Tyr123 and Trp124 showing the most pronounced changes.

175 Compared to the apo structures the zinc ions in carbapenem-bound IMP-13 are located slightly
176 further apart with the distance for the different antibiotics ranging from 3.8 Å (doripenem complex)
177 to 4.22 Å (ertapenem complex) compared to 3.5 Å for the apo state, presumably to maximise
178 interactions with the ligand. The zinc-protein coordination remains unchanged (Fig. S15): Zn1 still
179 coordinates the three histidines (His77, 79 and 139), whilst Zn2 coordinates Asp81, Cys158 and
180 His197, but the bridging water is no longer observed due to the presence of the enzyme's substrate.

181

182 **Conserved binding mode of the carbapenem scaffold to IMP-13**

183 Binding of the carbapenem scaffold (Fig. 2, S11) is similar for the four antibiotics investigated, with
184 contacts created with the surrounding residues via a network of hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic
185 and electrostatic interactions. In the carbapenem complexes, two loops, L1 and L3 (Fig. 2, S13, S14),
186 interact with the hydrolyzed substrates (Fig. S16). Both zinc ions show an interaction with N6 on the
187 pyrroline ring, with Zn2 having a closer interaction (SI Table 1, Fig. S15). In addition, there are
188 interactions with carboxylic acid moieties O9, O26 and O27. In all cases, Zn1 coordinates O9, while
189 Zn2 coordinates O26 and O27. Lys161 acts as a counterion to the carboxylate of the carbapenems
190 (O8, O9). Hydrogen bonding is observed between the carbapenems' hydroxyl groups (O24) and the
191 Asp81 backbone nitrogen. Interactions are also observed to the Asp81 sidechain, and between the
192 sidechain of Asn167 and the carbapenems' hydroxyls (O26, O27).

193 L1, the extended β loop that is conserved in β -lactamases, encompasses the active site, forming a
194 tunnel-like structure of a hydrophobic nature (Fig. 1C, 1D); the amino acid composition of L1 results
195 in hydrophobicity index of 0.84 (50), in comparison to the overall protein at -0.32. This largely
196 hydrophobic loop interacts with the β -lactam antibiotics, stabilizing their position during hydrolysis.
197 The tryptophan (Trp28) at the tip of this loop is a key residue that bridges the gap between the loop
198 backbone and the active site residues, forming a closed tunnel. In IMP-1, the equivalent tryptophan
199 is found to affect K_m : for imipenem, a W64A mutant leads to a five-fold increase in K_m (51). The
200 sulfur atom present in the linker region (S10) of all carbapenems creates strong π -sulfur interactions
201 with the aromatic ring of Trp28 (as well as interacting with the backbone of Asn167), thereby
202 contributing to the position of the core scaffold of all presented carbapenem substrates. Due to the
203 multiple tail conformations in imipenem, the orientation for the π -sulfur interaction in this case is
204 not always optimal, however the distance remains consistent. In addition, Trp28 shows interactions
205 with the pyrroline methyl group (C21), present in all the antibiotics studied other than imipenem.
206 These interactions lead to restricted motion in the side chain of Trp28, which further rigidifies the L1
207 loop (Fig. 3). The lack of this interaction in imipenem, could lead to a reduction in binding
208 interactions to the loop and may contribute to the observed reduction in affinity (increase in K_m) for
209 imipenem (SI Table 2). It is likely that there is a hydrophobic interaction between the ring itself and
210 the tryptophan in the absence of this methyl. Two other hydrophobic L1 residues, Val25 and Val31,
211 also form alkyl interactions with C21 where present.

212 **Binding modes of the antibiotic tails to IMP-13**

213 Analysis of the interactions between the carbapenem tail moieties and the surrounding residues and
214 solvent molecules shows a complex network of position-dependent contacts. Due to the presence of
215 more than one molecule in the unit cell, a representative molecule was chosen for discussion where
216 the crystal packing does not affect the antibiotic tail placement. Higher solvent accessibility of the
217 tails leads to less restrained positions, characterized by increased B factor values.

218 The most solvent-exposed parts of the four antibiotics are very distinct, while in addition imipenem
219 has no pyrrolidine ring in the antibiotic tail. The pyrrolidine ring of meropenem, doripenem and
220 ertapenem is suitably located to form aromatic, π -alkyl interactions with His197 and is further
221 stabilised by the hydrophobic environment created by Val25 and Val31. The terminal NMe₂ group of
222 meropenem is stabilized by direct, as well as water-mediated interactions with the backbone of
223 His163 and Gly164 and π -alkyl interactions with Trp28. The sulfonamide moiety of doripenem forms
224 several hydrogen bonds: the nitrogen of the primary amine group interacts with Thr32 and the
225 backbone of Val30, whilst the oxygen creates hydrogen bonds with backbone and sidechain atoms of
226 Thr32. The terminal part of the imipenem tail was modelled in three different conformations
227 (50%:25%:25% occupancy) highlighting the extreme flexibility of this moiety. Due to the different
228 conformers, the interaction network is different in every modelled position - conformer A creates a
229 hydrogen bond with the backbone carbonyl of Val30 and water-mediated hydrogen bonds with the
230 backbone of Thr32. The most solvent-exposed conformation, conformer B, lacks interactions with
231 surrounding residues, most likely interacting with a water network, while conformer C interacts with
232 the wider water network. In each case, a water molecule replaces the amine group from the other
233 two conformer positions.

234

235 **NMR measurements show altered dynamics in presence and absence of antibiotic**

236 As discussed above, the L1 loop adopts very different conformations in the two apo structures
237 (apo_{closed} and apo_{open}). In apo_{closed}, the loop is folded over the active site, whilst in the apo_{open}
238 structure, L1 is extended away from the protein, leaving the active site accessible. In complex with
239 each of the hydrolyzed carbapenems, this loop forms a tightly locked, tunnel-like structure around
240 the hydrolyzed antibiotic (Fig. 1D), with several hydrophobic interactions appearing to stabilize this
241 state.

242 To further understand the role of the L1 loop in antibiotic binding, NMR spectra were acquired for
243 IMP-13 in the apo state and bound to ertapenem. An overlay of ^1H , ^{15}N HSQC spectra for the two
244 forms (Fig. S17) shows substantial chemical shift changes on addition of ertapenem, necessitating
245 backbone assignment using triple resonance spectra in both forms. ^1H , ^{15}N assignments were
246 achieved for 203 residues in the apo form (93%) and 195 residues in the ertapenem-bound form
247 (89%) from a total of 219 residues (excluding the 9 prolines) Assignments are shown in Fig. S18 for
248 the apo state and Fig. S19 for the ertapenem-bound state.

249 Chemical shift perturbations are shown in Fig. 4 and plotted on the ertapenem-bound structure
250 (PDB: 6RZS). The largest changes are colored in red on the structure and predominantly localize to
251 loops in the vicinity of the ertapenem-binding pocket. These changes are also marked with arrows
252 on the spectra shown in Fig. S17. As expected, significant shifts are seen for residues in the L1 loop
253 (marked with red boxes on Fig. 4), in particular residues Glu24, Gly27, Trp28, Thr32 and Lys33 as well
254 as the side-chain NεHε of Trp28; the L3 loop (residues 163–166, especially residue Gly166), which
255 lies in the vicinity of the ertapenem tail and residue Asp81, which coordinates Zn²⁺ as well as in the
256 linker between B11 and A5 (residues 197–201). Smaller changes are seen in the β-strands, B9, B10
257 and B11. These changes are consistent with the observations in the crystal structure (above).

258 Heteronuclear ^1H - ^{15}N NOE (hetNOE) experiments were acquired to detect fast picosecond-
259 nanosecond (ps-ns) timescale motions (52, 53). Typically, structured regions of the protein show
260 hetNOE values > 0.8, while flexible loops and the N- and C-termini show lower values, < 0.8. Fig. 5
261 shows an overlay of the heteronuclear NOE values for the apo and ertapenem-bound forms. Both
262 states show similar values with an average hetNOE value, taken across backbone residues Asp6 to
263 Glu219, of 0.783 (standard deviation 0.078) for the apo form and 0.799 (standard deviation 0.096)
264 for the ertapenem-bound form. However, notably lower values are recorded in the L1 loop in the
265 apo state, with values of 0.51 and 0.46 for residues Asn26 and Gly29 respectively whereas in the
266 ertapenem-bound state, values do not drop below 0.6 in this region. Most significantly, Trp28 NεHε

267 has a hetNOE of 0.3 in the apo form, which rises to 0.77 in the ertapenem-bound state, comparable
268 to backbone amides in structured regions of the protein, indicating a significant change in dynamic
269 properties. This suggests that in the apo form the L1 loop is undergoing fast-timescale motions,
270 while binding of antibiotic in the active site stabilizes the L1 loop. The restricted motion of Trp28
271 NεHε suggests that the antibiotic interacts with this residue reducing fast-timescale motions at this
272 position. The hetNOE data shows slightly more restriction in residues 165-168 in the presence of
273 ertapenem, but residue Gly164 is considerably more flexible in both the apo and ertapenem-bound
274 states. It was not possible to assign residues at the beginning of the L3 loop suggesting unfavourable
275 dynamics in this region.

276 **Molecular dynamics simulations show significant variations in L1 loop dynamics between complex**
277 **structures**

278 The distinct conformations observed in the two apo crystal structures and the NMR relaxation data
279 indicate that the L1 loop is likely to be flexible in solution. We therefore performed molecular
280 dynamics (MD) simulations to assess the movement and flexibility of this protein fragment on the
281 nanosecond time scale for the apo and carbapenem-bound structures (Fig. 3). During a total
282 simulation time of 50 ns for each system, all systems showed no significant large-scale fluctuations,
283 indicating that the solute systems were stable. In addition, the ligand RMSD values (SI Table 3)
284 suggest that the conformation of the hydrolyzed ligands remains stable during both the 50 ns and
285 100 ns simulation times. Torsion angles were also generally maintained throughout both the
286 simulation runs. Excluding the intrinsic flexibility of L1, the protein overall does not undergo
287 significant conformational changes aside from the active-site region.

288 However, the simulations reveal significant changes in L1 behaviour between the different
289 structures. Lower root-mean-square fluctuations (RMSFs) for heavy atoms of L1 residues in the
290 simulated doripenem, ertapenem and meropenem-bound complex structures when compared to
291 those of apo_{closed} indicate that L1 is more rigid in the closed conformation when these ligands are

292 bound, while in the apo protein, L1 can move with a higher degree of freedom. This is shown by the
293 C α RMSF being 1.4, 2.1 and 1.9 Å larger in the apo structure than in the doripenem-, ertapenem- and
294 meropenem-bound forms respectively (1.1, 1.4 and 0.8 for the replicas). However, while the
295 behaviour of L1 is comparable and shows the greatest restriction for the doripenem, ertapenem and
296 meropenem bound structures, it differs significantly for the imipenem complex, which is comparable
297 to the apo form (Fig. 3C,E). In the X-ray structures, interaction of bound ertapenem and meropenem
298 with the Trp28 sidechain occurs via the sulfur adjacent to the β -lactam ring and additionally via the
299 methyl group on the pyrrolidine ring. In contrast, imipenem lacks this additional methyl group, which
300 reduces the strength of the lipophilic interaction with the Trp28 side-chain, thus resulting in greater
301 loop flexibility. Furthermore, as shown by both shorter and longer overall simulation times for all the
302 complexes, the tail of imipenem shows high flexibility and occupies multiple rotamer positions, and
303 thus does not contribute further to the loop stability. Doripenem, however, does contain both a
304 sulfur- π and a methyl- π interaction, but the MD simulation shows a higher motility of the
305 sulfonamide tail of the hydrolyzed antibiotic (atoms N18, N19, O21, O22 and S28, Fig. 3A). This is in
306 agreement with the chemical character of this moiety which, due to a higher energy contribution to
307 desolvation, is more prone to interact with nearby solvent molecules, thus leading to a markedly
308 higher RMSF for the atoms in the antibiotic tail in comparison to ertapenem and meropenem
309 structures.

310

311 Discussion

312 We present apo and complex structures of IMP-13, bound to hydrolyzed carbapenems.
313 Imipenemases represent one of the major groups of class B1 metallo- β -lactamases found in Gram-
314 negative pathogens, which can hydrolyze all bicyclic β -lactam antibiotics. This includes carbapenems,
315 which are often reserved as the last resort for treatment in cases of multidrug resistance. There are
316 relatively few structures of imipenemase enzymes available, and no structures bound to

317 carbapenems. Currently no inhibitors of metallo- β -lactamases are available in the clinic.
318 Consequently, understanding the structural features of carbapenem interactions with a member of
319 the imipenemase class is essential to developing new inhibitors to treat multidrug resistant
320 pathogens.

321 Our data demonstrate that the key interactions in the bound structures are found between the
322 conserved carbapenem core (β -lactam and pyrrole rings and the exocyclic sulfur) of the antibiotic
323 and the divalent zinc ions, as well as the backbone and sidechain residues of the IMP-13 active site,
324 particularly the L1 and L3 loops. Notably fewer interactions are made with the antibiotic tail region,
325 leading to high flexibility, which likely affects enzyme efficiency, rendering careful design of the tail
326 section key in drug discovery efforts. That IMP-13 is not selective towards the antibiotic tail region
327 likely contributes to its broad-spectrum activity, which makes the B1 class metallo- β -lactamases
328 particularly challenging resistance determinants. A key feature of the binding mode is the interaction
329 between the tryptophan of L1 and the carbapenem scaffold – the tryptophan forms a closed tunnel
330 over the β -lactam ring, thus locking the loop and the antibiotic in place (Fig. 1D). In the apo-state
331 crystal structures, two positions for the L1 loop are observed, open and closed. Molecular dynamics
332 simulations also show different degrees of flexibility in the L1 loop region. These results are
333 supported by the fast-timescale motion for loop L1 observed in the apo form in the hetNOE
334 experiment, which is reduced in the presence of the antibiotic ertapenem (Fig. 5), and in particular
335 the substantial reduction in the flexibility of Trp28HeNe between the apo and ertapenem-bound
336 states. These observations are consistent with previous NMR studies on a sub-class B1 di-zinc
337 metallo β -lactamase from *Bacteroides fragilis* (54-56), where L1 loop residues show lower hetNOE
338 values in the free-form compared to in the presence of a tight-binding inhibitor, most notably for the
339 L1 tryptophan indole (Trp28 for IMP-13, Trp49 in (56)), indicating a potentially important role of the
340 L1 loop in substrate recruitment and stabilization during the hydrolysis reaction. Previous studies
341 have discussed whether the tryptophan and other hydrophobic residues in the L1 loop could act as a

342 recruiter, loosely binding the substrate in the open formation and then moving to the closed
343 formation to aid substrate addition to the binding site (54, 56).

344 Nevertheless, it is clear from the MD simulations (Fig. 3) that differences in antibiotic structure affect
345 the restriction of the L1 loop, with doripenem, ertapenem and meropenem complexes showing the
346 greatest restriction in the L1 loop mobility. This is consistent with kinetic parameters reported for
347 IMP-13 (SI Table 2), showing tight binding for meropenem and ertapenem (K_m in the low μM and
348 high nM range respectively). In contrast imipenem shows weaker binding (ca. 50 μM), consistent
349 with the higher L1 flexibility. Notably the k_{cat} for imipenem is two orders of magnitude higher than
350 meropenem and ertapenem. Given that product release, preceded by the necessary L1 opening,
351 likely determines the turnover rate, this indicates that tighter binding reduces the turnover rate of
352 IMP-13. Consequently an efficient, non-covalent inhibitor could interact with and stabilize the L1
353 loop in the closed conformation forming a principle for inhibitor design.

354 IMP-13 shows 83% and 92% sequence identity with the IMP-1 and IMP-2 forms respectively and is
355 quite divergent from other variants (41). Consequently, it is instructive to compare our structures to
356 other available MBL structures (Fig. 6, SI10).

357 Comparison of the IMP-1 structures (PDB: 5Y5B, 5EV6 (58)) with both our apo_{closed} and carbapenem-
358 bound IMP-13 structures yields differences in the L1 region. The amino acid sequences are highly
359 conserved between L1 regions of the two, with only one difference at the C-terminal end of the loop
360 (IMP-1 Pro32 changed to Thr in IMP-13). In one of the IMP-1 structures, the β -strand of the loop at
361 this point is seen to be straighter and further out from the active site than in the case of our
362 presented structures, despite the tip of the loop being closer to the active site than in the open-
363 conformation IMP-13 structure presented here. It is likely that the Pro32 to Thr mutation leads to a
364 more flexible loop in IMP-13 and more restricted loop in IMP-1, as a result of the more constrained
365 dihedral angles of proline. Mutagenesis analysis of IMP-18 (59) (subclass B4 β -lactamase (31)) also
366 indicates that this residue has a key effect as turnover rates of the enzyme are significantly altered

367 (3 and 10-fold increase in k_{cat} for imipenem and meropenem respectively) on mutation from
368 threonine to proline. IMP-2 also lacks Pro32 at the end of L1, which is instead mutated to Ser. The
369 IMP-2 structure (4UBQ (60)) shows that the loop is found between the apo_{open} and apo_{closed}
370 structures reported here. The varying extent of the β -strand structure (B2 and B3) on either side of
371 the L1 loop may reflect the dynamic nature of this protein part and thus the loop can be captured in
372 different conformations in different crystal structures.

373 The ligands crystallized previously with IMP-1 belong to different compound classes and hence we
374 compare with our carbapenem-bound structures to identify if similar interactions are exploited
375 Comparison with the IMP-1 structure bound to the mercaptocarboxylate inhibitor (57) (PDB: 1DD6)
376 shows that the benzyl ring is pointing towards the loop (residues 21–23). Were the loop in the same
377 position as in IMP-13, this would clash with the loop position, particularly with Val31. The position of
378 the loop in IMP-1 is shifted laterally by approximately 1 Å. This could indicate potential binding
379 selectivity to IMP-1 or an alternative explanation of sterically-induced loop movement. The free thiol
380 of mercaptocarboxylate is coordinated by the two zinc atoms, displacing the nucleophilic water,
381 equivalent to the carboxylate of β -lactams. In contrast both the tertiary amine and the sulfur of the
382 thiophene ring point in the opposite orientation to comparable antibiotic residues. This suggests
383 further structural optimization, based on a knowledge of antibiotic binding, could be used to
384 optimize inhibitor interactions.

385 Structures of bithiazolidine inhibitors bound to IMP-1 (PDB: 5EWA) (58) show a number of
386 interactions mimicking those of antibiotic binding. The free thiol is coordinated by Zn1 and Zn2,
387 displacing the nucleophilic water, while the thiazoline rings interact with the L1 tryptophan creating
388 stacking interactions. The carboxylate interacts with the lysine residue in L3, equivalent to the β -
389 lactam carboxylate. In contrast a phosphonate inhibitor (61) (PDB: 5HH4) does not displace the
390 nucleophilic water, with the phosphonate group coordinating Ser119 (IMP-1 numbering) and the
391 nucleophilic water. The pyridine nitrogen and carboxylate interact with Zn2 and the L3 lysine, again

392 making interactions similar to those observed in our antibiotic-bound structures. The pyridine ring
393 makes a T-shaped π -stacking interaction with the L1 tryptophan. These comparisons suggest that
394 mimicking key interactions found in the antibiotic complex structures presented in this paper is
395 important in designing inhibitors.

396 Comparing our IMP-13 structures to NDM-1 β -lactamase, another broad-spectrum MBL of clinical
397 relevance, the key difference is the replacement of the tryptophan of L1 (Trp28) in IMP-13 with a
398 phenylalanine in all 17 NDM variants (62). Consequently, this suggests an alternative mode of
399 binding. In the published structure of NDM-1 in complex with hydrolyzed meropenem (PDB: 4EYL,
400 re-refined in 5N0H) (63), the loop is shown in the open conformation, and therefore does not form a
401 closed tunnel covering the β -lactam ring. In contrast Trp28 of IMP-13 shows direct interactions with
402 the bound carbapenems, whilst the equivalent Phe70 of NDM-1 is more than 7 Å away and does not
403 interact with the ligand. The conservation of this residue in all known NDM-1 variants indicates the
404 importance of this amino acid for the proteins' activity. The equivalent residues to Val25 (Met in
405 NDM-1), which in IMP-13 flanks the flexible loop section and interacts with C21 of meropenem, is
406 seen in NDM-1 in a location where this interaction is removed altogether. The equivalent of Val31,
407 the other flanking valine, is also seen in an altered position. This is further away from C21 of the
408 antibiotic but is closer to the methylamine group, which could explain why this group of the
409 meropenem molecule is in a different location in this structure, differing in position by around 5 Å.

410 We extended our comparison to structures of a variety of NDM proteins bound to various ligands
411 that were deposited in the PDB in 2017 and 2018 (PDBs: 4TYF, 4TZ9, 4TZB, 4TZE, 4TZF, 5WIG (64),
412 5WIH (64), 5XP9 (65), 5A5Z (66), 5N0H (67), 5N0I, 5YPK (46), 5YPL (46), 5YPN (46), 6EX7 (67), 5YPM
413 (46), 5JQJ, 5K4M, 5XP6 (65)). Notably, none of these structures show a fully "closed-tunnel"
414 conformation, as seen in the IMP-13-carbapenem complexes presented here. The backbone is seen
415 in a half-closed formation in many of these PDBs (e.g. 5JQJ, 5K4M, 5XP6), but the chain never fully
416 reaches over the substrate. This could lead to a reduced contact area between the ligand and the

417 protein. The reduced hydrophobicity of this loop in NDM-1 could also explain the higher K_m (lower
418 affinity) of meropenem and imipenem (SI Table 2) relative to that of the IMP enzymes (28).

419 We also compare our results to the natural target of β -lactam antibiotics, the penicillin binding
420 proteins. A structure of Penicillin Binding Protein 3 (68) (PBP-3) bound to meropenem is available,
421 facilitating comparison between the interactions of meropenem with a β -lactam target protein (PBP)
422 and the enzymes (β -lactamases) that degrade it (Fig. 7). From the point of view of drug development,
423 comparative studies could highlight key similarities and differences, aiding with development of new
424 antibiotics in this class with lower susceptibility to the β -lactamase-driven degradation. The major
425 interactions, primarily hydrophobic, between the protein and the antibiotic are maintained, but key
426 differences are observed. Firstly, the central Trp28 interaction of IMP-13, both to the sulfur and to
427 C21 of the core carbapenem scaffold, is replaced by a hydrophobic interaction with Phe533 of PBP-3.
428 The interactions from His139 on L3 are partially emulated in PBP-3 by Gly486, whilst Asn167 and
429 Cys158 provide interactions similar to Thr487 and Lys484 of PBP-3 respectively. However, whilst
430 these interactions are different, they are very similar in character. It is also interesting to note the
431 difference between the meropenem and imipenem interactions. In PBP, the imipenem scaffold
432 (lacking C21) interacts with Tyr532, whilst C21 of meropenem displaces this and Phe533 rotates by
433 180° around the chain to form an alternative hydrophobic environment in the vicinity. Despite the
434 strong Tyr interaction, and the fact that this is closer to the native position than in the meropenem-
435 bound form, the imipenem binds a factor of 16 times weaker than meropenem (68), indicating that
436 the tail plays a much stronger role in the binding to PBP than to IMP-13, where the carbapenem
437 scaffold and alterations to it are more important. PBP-3 binding also utilizes an intricate water
438 network to align for formation of the covalent bond with Ser294 that ultimately deactivates the
439 protein. Neither covalent interactions nor a water network are seen in the IMP-13 or NDM-1
440 structures. The similarities at play highlight the challenge that drug discovery programmes face in
441 this area, but the differences may provide opportunities that can be exploited to deliver novel
442 pharmaceutical solutions.

443 We report high-resolution structures of IMP-13 in diverse functional states and with different ligands
444 bound. The structures explain the specificity of the enzymatic mechanism and molecular recognition
445 of substrates by the IMP-13 β -lactamase. The data presented and the comparisons above suggest
446 that in IMP-13 the active-site loop plays a central role in antibiotic binding, with the primary
447 interactions to the core carbapenem scaffold. Consequently, such identified motifs that cause
448 restriction in the L1 loop flexibility could form important parts of β -lactamase inhibitors engaging
449 and stabilizing the loop in the closed conformation and blocking access of the natural substrates. The
450 substantial chemical shift changes observed by NMR in the tryptophan indole region (Fig. 4, SI7)
451 could be used in high-throughput screening to identify ligands with the potential to stabilize the
452 active-site loop in the closed conformation, similar to previous 2D screening approaches focusing on
453 spectral properties specific to the system of interest (69).

454 On the other hand, the ability of the loop to adopt a fully-open state, as observed in the apo_{open}
455 structure of IMP-13 provides an alternative strategy for inhibitor development. Most drug
456 development strategies on these targets have so far been aimed at the active site itself. As the loop
457 appears to play an active role in the binding of ligands to the protein, prevention of the loop closing
458 by an allosteric inhibitor could have a similar inhibitory effect.

459 The presented crystal structures and experimental NMR data combined with our molecular
460 dynamics simulations provide complementary information about changes in conformational
461 dynamics linked to ligand binding that should be considered in the development of small molecule
462 inhibitors.

463

464 Materials and Methods

465 Protein expression and purification

466 The mature form of IMP-1 (residues 29-276) and IMP-13 (residues 21-246) proteins without signal
467 peptide were cloned into a pET-SUK vector (70). The constructs were transformed into *E. coli* BL21
468 (DE3) cells and plated on LB agar supplemented with Kanamycin (50 µg/ml). Cells were grown in
469 ZYM 5052 autoinduction medium (71) at 37 °C until an OD₆₀₀ of 2.0 and thereafter protein was
470 expressed at 20 °C overnight. The cells were collected by centrifugation, resuspended in lysis buffer
471 (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-Mercaptoethanol, 20 mM imidazole supplemented
472 with AEBSF, DNase I and lysozyme) and lysed by sonication. The lysate was clarified by centrifuging
473 for 45 minutes at 27,000 rpm and the pH was adjusted to 8.0. The resulting supernatant was then
474 passed twice over a HisTrap-excel column (GE healthcare) pre-equilibrated with lysis buffer. The
475 column was washed with binding buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-
476 mercaptoethanol, 20 mM imidazole, 10 mM ZnCl₂) and protein was eluted with elution buffer (50
477 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-Mercaptoethanol, 300 mM imidazole). SUMO hydrolase
478 (dtUD1, (72) provided by Protein Expression and Purification Facility (PEPF), Helmholtz Zentrum
479 München) was added to the eluted protein, gently mixed and incubated for one hour at room
480 temperature followed by buffer exchange to binding buffer. A second step of affinity
481 chromatography was performed to remove the SUMO-tag and SUMO protease. IMP-1/13 containing
482 fractions were then concentrated and purified to homogeneity using Superdex 75 size exclusion
483 column pre-equilibrated with 5 mM Tris pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol and 10 µM
484 ZnCl₂.

485 For isotopically-labelled expression, cells were grown in M9 minimal medium supplemented with
486 ¹⁵NH₄Cl and ¹³C-glucose and induced as above at an OD₆₀₀ of 1, with overnight expression at 20 °C.
487 Cells were collected by centrifugation and resuspended in lysis buffer (100 mM Tris, 300 mM NaCl, 5
488 mM β-Mercaptoethanol, pH 8.0) supplemented with DNase I and AEBSF. The supernatant was

489 passed twice over ZnNTA beads. In our hands, NDM-1 was observed (by paramagnetic effects in
490 NMR spectra) to bind Ni from the column in its active site; therefore, to prevent the possibility of the
491 same occurring with IMP-13 and affecting the spectral quality, the NTA beads were loaded with Zn
492 to ensure the IMP-13 metal binding site was loaded with Zn. The column was pre-equilibrated with
493 lysis buffer as above and SUMO hydrolase added to the protein on the column and left overnight at
494 room temperature. The cleaved IMP-13 was eluted with 5 ml lysis buffer and further purified using
495 Superdex 75 size exclusion chromatography pre-equilibrated with NMR buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100
496 mM NaCl, pH 7.0). Samples were supplemented with 10% D₂O for NMR spectroscopy.

497 **Crystallization of IMP-13 in apo and carbapenem-bound forms**

498 Purified protein was concentrated to 12 mg/ml and screening for crystallization conditions was
499 performed using commercially available buffer sets in a sitting-drop vapor diffusion setup by mixing
500 0.2 µl of protein complex solution and 0.2 µl of buffer solution. For co-crystallization, meropenem
501 and doripenem powder was added to protein solution (100 and 50 mM final concentration,
502 respectively) and incubated for 30 minutes. For co-crystallization of IMP-13 with ertapenem and
503 imipenem, antibiotic powder was dissolved in crystallization buffer and mixed with protein to final
504 concentration of 5 and 25 mM, respectively. All crystals were obtained at room temperature from
505 solutions containing 0.1 M Tris pH 8.5, 25% PEG 4000 (apo_{open}, **PDB ID: 6R79** - loop open), 0.1 M SPG
506 buffer pH 8.0, 25% PEG 1500 (apo_{closed}, **PDB ID: 6R78** - loop closed), 0.1 M Bis-Tris pH 6.5, 25% PEG
507 3350 (meropenem complex, **PDB ID: 6R73**), 0.1 M Bis-Tris pH 5.5, 0.2 M Ammonium sulfate, 25%
508 PEG 3350 (imipenem complex, **PDB ID: 6RZR**), 0.1 M tri-Sodium acetate pH 5.6, 0.2 M Ammonium
509 acetate, 30% PEG 4000 (ertapenem complex, **PDB ID: 6RZS**) and 0.1 M Sodium HEPES pH 7.5, 25%
510 PEG 2000 MME (doripenem complex, **PDB ID: 6S0H**).

511 **Structure determination and refinement**

512 Crystals were cryo-protected in 20% glycerol (apo), MPD (meropenem complex) or 25% ethylene
513 glycol (imipenem, ertapenem and doripenem complexes) in the mother liquor and flash-frozen in

514 liquid nitrogen. The diffraction data were collected at the id30b beamline at ESRF (Grenoble, France)
515 and on the X06SA beamline at the Swiss Light Source (Paul Scherrer Institut, Villigen, Switzerland).
516 The data were indexed and integrated using XDS (73, 74), and scaled and merged using Aimless (75).
517 The initial phases were obtained by molecular replacement calculated using Phaser (76) and the
518 IMP-1 structure as a search model (PDB 1DD6 (57)). The initial model was manually rebuilt according
519 to the resulting electron density maps using Coot (77). Structures of IMP-13 in complex with
520 hydrolyzed carbapenems were solved using the same approach and the IMP-13 apo structure as a
521 search model. Carbapenem geometrical restraints files were created using the Grade web server
522 (78). Restrained refinement was performed using Phenix, or Refmac with additional restraints
523 generated using proSMART (79-81). Five percent of the reflections were used for cross-validation
524 analysis and the R_{free} was employed to monitor the refinement strategy. Water molecules were
525 added using Coot and afterwards manually inspected. The final models were deposited in the
526 Protein Data Bank under accession numbers 6R79 and 6R78 for apo and 6R73, 6RZR, 6RZS and 6S0H
527 for meropenem, imipenem, ertapenem and doripenem bound forms, respectively. Interactions were
528 visualized with BIOVIA Discovery Studio Visualiser (82). All molecular graphics were prepared using
529 PyMOL (83) or Maestro (84). Crystallographic parameters are shown in SI Table 4.

530 **NMR spectroscopy**

531 NMR experiments were recorded at 298 K on Bruker Avance III 600 MHz and 800 MHz
532 spectrometers (^1H frequency 600 or 800 MHz respectively) equipped with a 5 mm TCI or QCI
533 cryoprobe. For assignments ^1H , ^{15}N HSQC, and 3D ^{15}N -edited NOESY, HNCA, HN(CO)CA, HNCACB,
534 HN(CO)CACB and CBCACONH experiments were recorded on uniformly ^{15}N , ^{13}C -labelled samples.
535 Samples at 0.5–0.6 mM were prepared in NMR buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.0)
536 supplemented with 10% D_2O . For the ertapenem assignment, the sample was supplemented with
537 5.7 mM ertapenem (ca. 10-fold excess). Spectra were recorded with 2.9 mM and 5.7 mM ertapenem
538 added and with no further changes observed between the two spectra, the protein was assumed to

539 be saturated. Backbone assignment experiments (excepting the 3D NOESY) were recorded with 25%
540 non-uniform sampling, using Poisson-gap sampling (85), and reconstructed using the Cambridge CS
541 package using the CS-IHT algorithm (86). Heteronuclear NOE experiments were recorded at 600 MHz
542 and 298 K using a sequence with interleaved saturated and unsaturated planes (53). Spectra were
543 acquired with 2048 x 300 complex points and a recycle delay of 1.2 s, with 32 scans. NOEs were
544 calculated as the ratio of saturated to unsaturated experiments. Errors were calculated using the
545 standard deviation of the noise. All spectra were processed with zero-filling and Gaussian and/or
546 sinebell window functions in the direct dimension and a sinebell window function in the indirect
547 dimension. The water signal was removed by convolution with a sine function. Spectra were
548 processed in Azara (W. Boucher, unpublished) and analyzed using CCPN Analysis (87). Chemical shift
549 perturbations were calculated according to the formula: $\Delta \delta = \sqrt{((\Delta\delta_{\text{HN}})^2 + (\Delta\delta_{15\text{N}})^2/6)}$.

550 **Antibiotic hydrolysis assay**

551 Enzymatic studies were carried out on the expressed proteins to confirm that the protein was in its
552 active state. The enzymatic activity of the recombinantly produced metallo- β -lactamases was
553 monitored as previously described (88) at 37 °C in 75mM HEPES buffer at pH 7.3, using 1-500 μ M
554 meropenem or imipenem respectively, as substrate. β -lactam hydrolysis was followed at 300 nm (SI
555 Table 2).

556 **Molecular dynamics simulations**

557 Simulations were run using Maestro Desmond Molecular Dynamics Package version 2017.3 (89, 90).
558 PDBs of the apo_{closed} and complex structures were prepared adding missing sidechains and
559 hydrogens using YASARA Structure's built-in *clean* command (91). Structures were then imported
560 into Schrödinger Maestro version 2017.3 and further refined using the Maestro version 11.1 'Protein
561 Preparation Wizard'(92). Protonation states were calculated using PROPKA (93, 94) at pH 7.0 \pm 2.0
562 and minimization of hydrogen positions with restrained backbone was performed using OPLS3 force

563 field (95) in order to optimize the hydrogen bonding network. Both apo_{closed} and complex systems
564 were then prepared for simulation using Maestro version 11.1 'System Builder' GUI using TIP4P (96)
565 solvent model (crystallographic water molecules were deleted) in an automatically generated cubic
566 cell with periodic boundary conditions. In addition to the solvated complex, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions
567 corresponding to a 150 mM buffer were placed in the cell in order to set the total net charge to zero.
568 The coordination of the zinc metal centers was maintained by adding pseudo-bonds between the
569 metals and the coordinating residues, using the default parameters for angles and charges of the
570 OPLS-AA 2005 force field for the sake of the speed of the calculations. In the case of the apo protein,
571 a tetrahedral coordination was chosen for both the zinc atoms in the active site. Furthermore, in the
572 apo structure, no pseudo-bond was added to the bridging water molecule observed in the
573 crystallographic structure, thus reducing the coordination of the metal centers to three residues to
574 simulate the hydration sphere around the zinc atoms. For all the other complexes, the geometry of
575 the zinc bound to histidines was considered tetrahedral (with a coordination number of four) and
576 the other zinc atom was considered to be octahedral (with a coordination number of six).

577 Simulations of the systems were run using Maestro 'Molecular Dynamics' Desmond GUI for a total
578 simulation time of 50 ns to ensure system convergence (this was checked on the RMSD plot of the
579 simulations), recording intervals every 50 ps (1000 snapshots in total) for xyz coordinates and 1.2 ps
580 for potential energy calculations of the ensemble. Replicates of the simulations were performed
581 using the Desmond molecular dynamics package version 2019.3 in Maestro v11.8. One replica for
582 each system was simulated for 100 ns, recording intervals every 100 ps (1000 snapshots in total) for
583 xyz coordinates and 2.5 ps for potential energy calculations. For both the first run of production MD
584 and for the replicates, the ensembles were set to constant temperature (300 K) and pressure (1.01
585 bar); the force cut-off radius was set to 9.0 Å and each solvated model was relaxed with Desmond
586 default relaxation protocol before starting the simulation. Simulations were performed on a
587 standard PC workstation (Intel Core i7 5960x, 32 GB RAM) using Nvidia GeForce 1070 GPU.

588 Accession Numbers

589 Coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank with accession
590 codes PDB: 6R79 - apo loop open; 6R78 - apo loop closed; 6R73 - meropenem complex; 6RZR -
591 imipenem complex; 6RZS - ertapenem complex; 6S0H - doripenem complex. NMR assignments have
592 been deposited in the BMRB: 50012 - apo; 50013 - ertapenem-bound.

593

594 Acknowledgements

595 This project was carried out with the support of BAG proposal MX-2088 at the ESRF Grenoble. We
596 are grateful to the Protein Expression and Purification Facility and the X-ray Crystallography Platform
597 at Helmholtz Zentrum München for support. We are thankful for all the discussion and help in
598 structure refinement during the 2019 CCP4/APS School in Macromolecular Crystallography. We are
599 also grateful to Dr. Rita Monson for useful discussions. C.S., R.F., G.M.P. and M.S. acknowledge
600 funding from the European Union's Framework Programme for Research and Innovation Horizon
601 2020 (2014-2020) under the Marie Skłodowska-Curie Grant Agreement No. 675555, Accelerated
602 Early staGe drug discovery (AEGIS). M.B. is supported by Helmholtz Zentrum München. M.K. is
603 supported by Wrocław Centre of Biotechnology program, The Leading National Research Centre
604 (KNOW) for years 2014–2018 and by a doctoral fellowship by the National Science Center (NCN,
605 Poland), grant no 2018/28/T/NZ1/00337. R.M.N. and K.Z. are supported by the German Federal
606 Ministry of Research and Education (BMBF) program "Targetvalidierung für die pharmazeutische
607 Wirkstoffentwicklung", grant no. GFTARV38.

608

609 Author contributions

610 C.S., K.Z., M.B., R.Z. and M.K. carried out molecular biology, protein expression and purification. C.S.,
611 K.Z., M.K. and R.Z. carried out crystallisation, data acquisition and analysis and M.B. carried out NMR

612 measurements and analysis. R.M. carried out enzymatic assays and R.F. performed molecular
613 dynamics simulations. C.S., M.B. and K.Z prepared the manuscript. H.M., M.S. and G.P. supervised
614 the project.

615

616 Declaration of Interests

617 The authors declare no competing interests.

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889 Figures

890 **FIG 1. IMP-13 apo and meropenem-bound structures.** (A) Overlay of IMP-13 apo structures, with
891 open (magenta) and closed (violet) loops. Zinc-coordinating residues of the open state are shown as
892 sticks. (B) Zoomed view of A showing coordination of the two Zn(II) ions in the apo structures. (C)
893 IMP-13 meropenem-bound structure, loop in orange, ligand in salmon. (D) The closed loop forms a
894 tunnel in the meropenem-bound structure. Zinc ions are shown as gray spheres and water as red
895 spheres.

896

897 **FIG 2. 2Fo-Fc maps at a contour level of 1σ for the presented complex crystal structures showing**
898 **interactions of the antibiotics' carbapenem scaffold (A, C, E, G) and tails (B, D, F, H) with IMP-13.**

899 Imipenem (E, F – green) shows three distinct tail conformations – all are depicted. Doripenem (A, B –
900 yellow), ertapenem (C, D – magenta) and meropenem (G, H – salmon) are each seen in one
901 conformation in each chain. Interactions are shown as dashed lines: purple – zinc interactions;
902 yellow – H-bonds and charge-charge interactions; orange – aromatic; green – hydrophobic; pale blue
903 – water network. Zinc ions are shown as gray spheres and water as red spheres.

904

905 **FIG 3 - Summary of molecular dynamics simulations for apo and carbapenem-bound IMP-13.**

906 Structures of the hydrolyzed antibiotics, with numbering used in the simulations, are shown in the
907 left column. Column 1 shows the root mean squared fluctuation (RMSF) of the ligand, fitted on the
908 ligand only and on the protein-ligand complex; column 2 the RMSF of the protein C α atoms and
909 column 3 the RMSF of the protein sidechains. The L1 loop is marked by orange bars on all graphs.
910 Results are shown for doripenem (A), ertapenem (B), imipenem (C) and meropenem (D). Values for
911 apo C α and sidechain RMSF are shown for comparison in F. C α and side-chain RMSF values for the
912 key residue Trp28 are shown for all structures in E.

913 **FIG 4. Chemical shift changes between the apo and ertapenem-bound forms of IMP-13.** (A) ^1H , ^{15}N
914 backbone amide and tryptophan amide sidechain chemical shift changes between the apo and
915 ertapenem-bound forms of IMP-13, for the spectra shown in Fig. S17 (individually in Fig. S18 and S19),
916 plotted against residue number. A representation of the secondary structure of IMP-13 is shown
917 above the plot with β -sheets represented as blue arrows, loops in yellow and α -helices in orange.
918 The L1 region is indicated by red boxes. (B) Shift changes ($\Delta\delta > 0.1$), identified in A, are shown on
919 the ertapenem-bound crystal structure of IMP-13 (PDB: 6RZS).

920

921 **FIG 5. Heteronuclear NOE data showing fast-timescale motions of apo and ertapenem-bound IMP-**
922 **13.** Heteronuclear NOE data of backbone amides and tryptophan indole N ϵ He measured at 600 MHz
923 (^1H frequency) and 25 °C for both the apo (blue) and ertapenem-bound forms (red). The loop 1
924 region is marked with red rectangles. Residues above 224 are removed from the plot as all show
925 negative heteronuclear NOEs in both the apo and ertapenem-bound forms.

926

927 **FIG 6. Comparison of IMP-13 meropenem-bound structure with previously published metallo- β -**
928 **lactamase structures.** IMP-13 is always depicted with an orange loop and the IMP-13-bound
929 meropenem in salmon. (A) and (C) Two views of IMP-13 overlaid with IMP-1 bound to the
930 mercaptocarboxylate inhibitor (yellow - 1DD6 (57)). (B) and (D) Overlay of IMP-13 with NDM-1 and
931 hydrolyzed meropenem (green – 5N0H (67)). The phenylalanine residue at the tip of the loop is not
932 resolved in the structure, but the backbone is shown in sticks. (E) Overlay of IMP-13 with IMP-1
933 bound to the bithiazoline inhibitor L-VC26 (cyan - 5EWA (58)). (F) Overlay of IMP-13 with IMP-1
934 bound to a phosphonate-based inhibitor (purple - 5HH4 (61)).

935

936 **FIG 7. Comparison of PBP-3 and IMP-13 binding to meropenem.** View of the carbapenem scaffold in
937 (A) and (C) and of the tail moieties in (B) and (D). Interactions are shown as dashed lines: purple –
938 zinc interactions; yellow – H-bonds and charge-charge interactions; orange – aromatic; green –
939 hydrophobic; pale blue – water network













