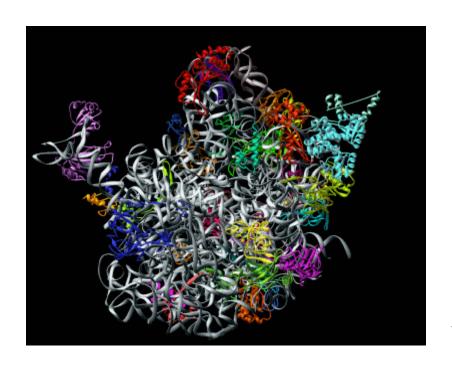
Ribosomes and Antibiotics



www.biochemj.org/bj/330/0581/bj3300581.htm

Professor Vassie Ware Bioscience in the 21st Century November 10, 2010

PERSPECTIVE

- Widespread use of antibiotics after WWII to improve global health
- Increasing antibiotic resistance in bacterial pathogens coupled with a lag in the development of additional antibiotics by pharmaceutical companies poses an escalating problem in the 21st century

20 years ago: ~13,000 deaths/year from bacterial infections.

Today: ~90,000 deaths/year from bacterial infections!!!

- Challenge to design effective new generation antibiotics
- Use of structure-based drug design to develop novel drugs based on high resolution structures of drug targets and their resistance mutants
- The ribosome is the target of over 50% of existing antibacterial drugs.
 High resolution structures of bacterial ribosomal subunits offers new
 prospects for developing new drugs with the advent of increasing
 bacterial resistance.



General Lecture Outline

- 1. General information about antibiotics and their targets
- 2. Bacterial antibiotic resistance
- 3. Ribosomes as evolutionarily conserved nanomachines required to make proteins
- 4. Why study ribosome structure? Why study ribosomes from different species?
- 5. How are ribosomes manufactured in bacteria and eukaryotic cells?
- 6. Bacterial ribosomes as targets for antibiotics

Antibiotics

 Natural or synthetic compounds that either kill (bactericidal) or inhibit growth (bacteriostatic) of bacteria (or other microorganisms)

 Antibiotics may be classified in several ways.
 Most common classification schemes are based on chemical structure of the antibiotic

Antibacterial agents, suitable for therapy:

Natural –

Derived from natural sources such as fungi and soil bacteria.

Penicillin as the classic example, derived from the fungus Penicillium

Pharmaceutical industry produces penicillin from cultures of

Penicillium chrysogenum that are adapted for high yield

Others: many aminoglycosides from soil bacteria (e.g., streptomycin)

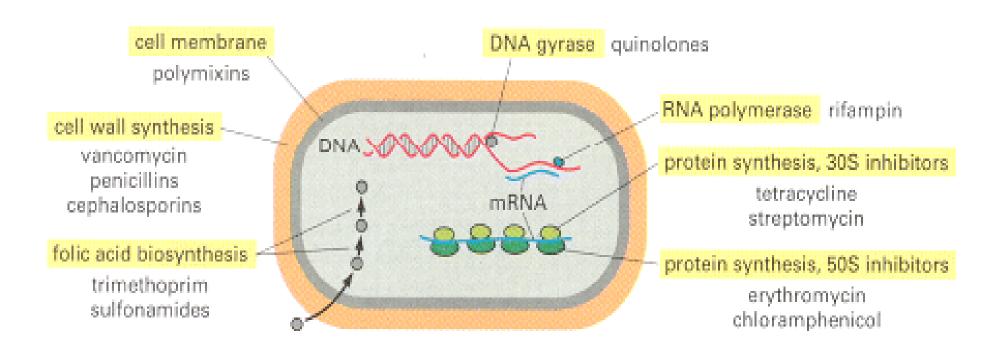
Semi-synthetic -

Natural products that have been chemically modified to improve effectiveness of the product or to reduce side effects, etc Examples include the β-lactams ampicillin, amoxicillin, etc, derived from fungi

Completely synthetic –

Products are synthesized completely in the laboratory Sulfa drugs, folic acid analogs are examples

Antibiotic Targets in Bacterial Cells



Resistance to Antibiotics

Intrinsic resistance

Some bacteria are naturally more resistant to certain classes of antibiotics than others (e.g., Gram positive bacteria are more resistant than Gram negative bacteria to polymixins – a class of antibiotics that behave as detergents and cause leakiness of the cell membrane)

Acquired resistance

Bacteria acquire resistance to antibiotics for which they were previously susceptible. For example, in 10 years' time between 1985 and 1995, the percentage of ampicillin-resistant *Shigella* (causes intestinal illness) grew from 32% to 67%!

How do bacteria acquire resistance?

Bacteria acquire genes that encode proteins that shield or protect them from the effects of the antibiotic.

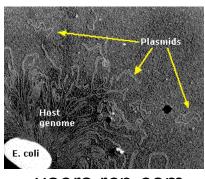
These genes may have arisen by **mutation** of existing genes OR

they may have been acquired from other resistant bacteria through the transfer of genetic information between bacteria

Antibiotic resistance genes are often carried on plasmids



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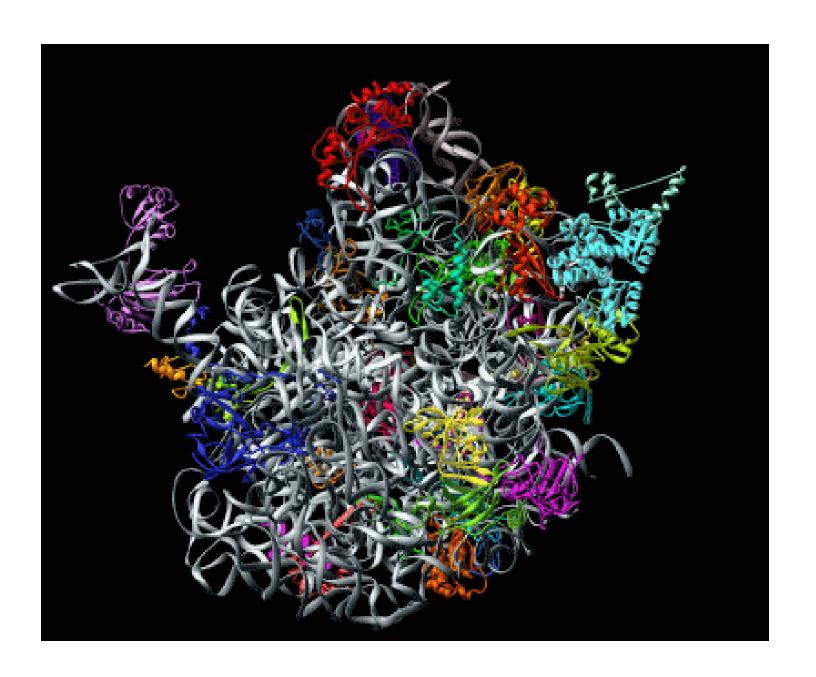
"Clever tricks" by bacteria to inactivate antibiotics:

 Synthesis of enzymes that breakdown the antibiotic: Penicillinase (a type of β-lactamase, breaks the β-lactam ring, thereby destroying the antibiotic). Other enzyme types are also prevalent (e.g., cephalosporinases)

2. Modification of their own enzymes that would normally be targets of the antibiotic (e.g., DNA gyrase)

Clever tricks, continued:

- 3. Synthesis of "pumps" inserted into the cell membrane to remove the antibiotic from the interior of the cell
- 4. Addition of chemical groups onto the target so that the antibiotic does not recognize the target. (e.g., erythromycin resistance)
- 5. Modification of the antibiotic so that it no longer recognizes its target (e.g., kanamycin resistance)
- 6. Modification of the peptidoglycan cell wall to avoid the antibiotic effect





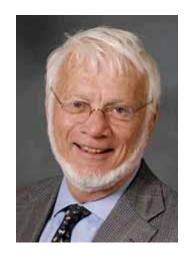
The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2009

"for studies of the structure and function of the ribosome"



Venkatraman Ramakrishnan

MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology Cambridge, UK



Thomas A. Steitz

Yale University New Haven, CT

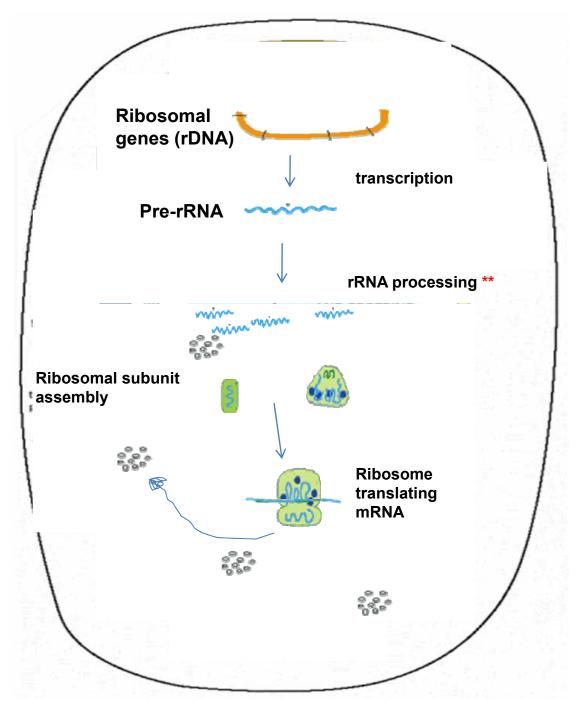


Ada E. Yonath

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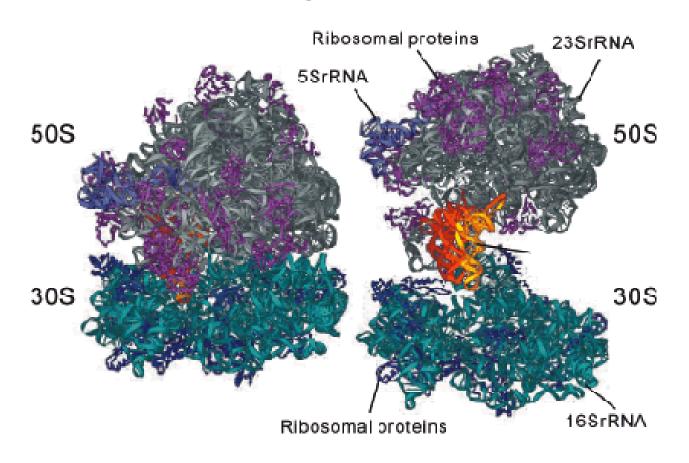
http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/chemistry/laureates/2009/sci.html

Ribosome Synthesis in Bacteria

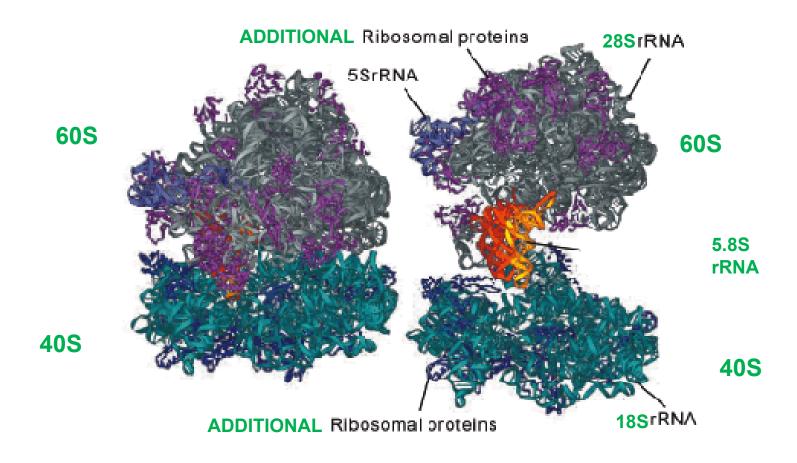


Eukaryotic Ribosome loop of nucleolar organizer DNA **Synthesis** rRNA gene TRANSCRIPTION 45S rRNA precursor 3 SnoRNAs MODIFICATION AND PROCESSING OF rRNAs proteins involved in processing ribosomal of rRNA proteins large made in ribonucleoprotein cytoplasm particle RECYCLING OF RNAs AND PROTEINS INVOLVED IN 5S rRNA rRNA PROCESSING NUCLEOLUS telomerase telomerase proteins RNA immature large subunit telomerase NUCLEUS large subunit small subunit CYTOPLASM TRANSPORT AND FINAL ASSEMBLY OF RIBOSOMES 60S 40S subunit subunit

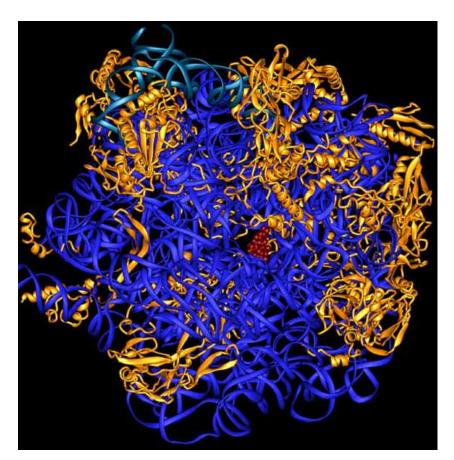
Bacterial ribosome composition



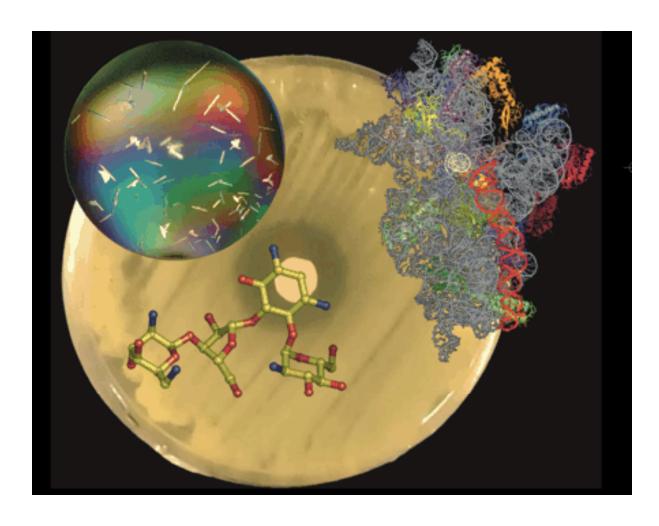
Eukaryotic ribosome composition



Erythromycin – a macrolide antibiotic that blocks protein synthesis by binding to bacterial ribosomes but not to eukaryotic ribosomes

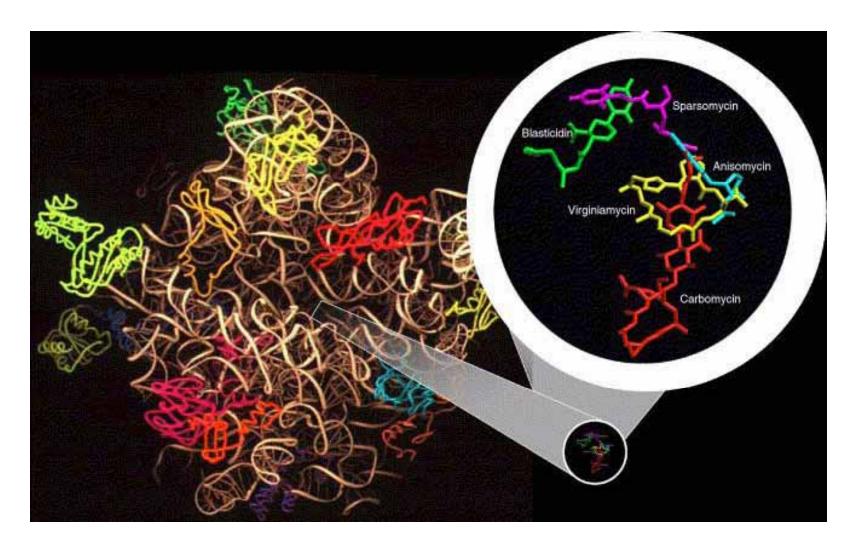


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The aminoglycoside antibiotic paromomycin binds to the small ribosomal subunit and blocks protein synthesis.

Antibiotics Targeting the Large Ribosomal Subunit of Bacteria



http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/chemistry/laureates/2009/sci.html

Classes of Antibiotics Affecting the Small Ribosomal Subunit in Bacteria

| Proposed mechanism of action | Antibiotic class | Antibiotic | Refs. | PDB ID | System used for structural determination |
|--|---------------------|---------------|-------|-----------------------|---|
| Bind to A- or P-sites and affect decoding. | Aminoglycosides | Apramycin | [66] | 1YRJ | RNA fragment |
| | | Geneticin | [67] | 1MWL | RNA fragment |
| | | Hygromycin B | [68] | 1HNZ | T. thermophilus |
| | | Paromomycin | [26] | 1FJG | T. thermophilus |
| | | Paromomycin | [48] | 1IBK | T. thermophilus |
| | | Paromomycin | [25] | 1 J 7 T | RNA fragment |
| | | Tobramycin | [50] | 1LC4 | RNA fragment |
| | | Streptomycin | [26] | 1FJG | T. thermophilus |
| lock binding of A-site tRNA | Tetracyclines | Tetracycline | [68] | 1HNW | T. thermophilus |
| | - | Tetracycline | [69] | 1197 | T. thermophilus |
| nhibit translocation | Various | Edeine | [69] | 1195 | T. thermophilus |
| | | Pactam ycin | [68] | 1HNX | T. thermophilus |
| | | Spectinomycin | [26] | 1 FJG | T. thermophilus |

| Proposed mechanism of action | Antibiotic class | Antibiotic | Refs. | PDB ID | System used for structural determination |
|------------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|---------|---------------|--|
| | Macrolides | Azithromycin | [70] | 1M1K | H. marismortui |
| | | Azithromycin | [71] | 1NWY | D. radiodurans |
| | | Azithromycin | [19] | 1YHQ | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | | Erythromycin | [72] | 1JZY | D. radiodurans |
| | | Carbomycin | [70] | 1K8A | H. marismortui |
| | | Erythromycin | [19,79] | 1YI2 | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | | Clarithromycin | [72] | 1J5A | D. radiodurans |
| | | Roxithromycin | [72] | 1JZZ | D. radiodurans |
| | | Spiramycin | [70] | 1KD1 | H. marismortui |
| | | Troleandomycin | [73] | 10ND | D. radiodurans |
| | | Tylosin | [70] | 1K9M | H. marismortui |
| | Ketolides | ABT-773 | [71] | 1NWX | D. radiodurans |
| Block peptide bond formation | | Telithromycin | [74,79] | 1P9X | D. radiodurans |
| y interfering with A-site or | | Telithromycin | [19] | 1YIJ | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| P-site tRNA and/or prevent | Streptogramins | Dalfopristin | [75] | 1SM1 | D. radiodurans |
| he elongation of the | | Quinupristin | [75] | 1SM1 | D. radiodurans |
| nascent peptide | | Quinupristin | [19] | 1YJW | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | | Virginiamycin S | [19] | 1YIT | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | | Virginiamycin M | [76] | 1N8R | H. marismortui |
| | | Virginiamycin M | [19] | 1YIT | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | Lincosamides | Clindamycin | [72,79] | 1JZX | D. radiodurans |
| | | Clindamycin | [19] | 1ҮЛ | H. marismortui (G2058A) |
| | Pleuromutilins | Tiamulin | [77] | 1XBP | D. radiodurans |
| | Phenyl propanoids | Chloramphenicol | [72] | 1K01 | D. radiodurans |
| | <i>y</i> 1 1 | Chloramphenicol | [76] | 1NJ1 | H. marismortui |
| | Oxazolidinones | Linezolid | [61] | Not available | H. marismortui |
| | Various | Puromycin | [78] | 1FFZ | H. marismortui |
| | | Sparsomycin | [76] | 1M90 | H. marismortui |
| | | Anisomycin | [76] | 1K73 | H. marismortui |
| | | Blasticidin S | [76] | 1KC8 | H. marismortui |

The PDB ID refers to the Protein Data Bank (PDB) identification code of each structure. The atomic coordinates for each structure can be downloaded from http://www.pdb.org using their respective PDB IDs.

SUMMARY:



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Bacterial antibiotic resistance is an increasingly serious global health problem

Development of new generations of antibiotics becomes increasingly important

Ribosomes (as essential complexes for making proteins in all cells) are one of many antibiotic targets

Ribosomes have many evolutionarily conserved features but important structural differences exist between bacterial and eukaryotic ribosomes

Ribosome structural differences between organisms can be exploited as potential targets in drug development