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# The role of AmpR in regulation of L1 and L2 β-lactamases in *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*

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#### Abstract

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#### 1. Introduction

β-lactamase production is a major mechanism causing bacterial resistance to β-lactam antibiotics [1]. The genomic module of ampR and an inducible β-lactamase gene has been commonly seen in many gram-negative bacteria, in which both genes are divergently transcribed and the intergenic region (IG) between them contains the promoters and the regulatory domains [12]. Two different classes of β-lactamases have been identified in such an ampR-β-lactamase module, i.e. AmpC and class A β-lactamase.

Chromosomally encoded *ampR-ampC* systems have been found in *Citrobacter freundii* [18], *Enterobacter cloacae* [13], *Yersinia enterocolitica* [40], *Morganella morganii* [33], *Hafnia alvei* [11], *Ochrobactrum anthropi* [25], *Buttiauxella agrestis* 

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[5], Serratia marcescens [22] and Pseudomonas aeruginosa [21]. The regulation of chromosomal ampR-ampC systems is well documented [15,19,29,44]. In C. freundii, induction of ampR-ampC is intimately linked to peptidoglycan recycling. There are at least three gene products known to be involved in the induction mechanism: AmpG, AmpD and AmpR. AmpG encodes a transmembrane protein that functions as a permease to transport the cell wall degradation products such as anhMur-NAc-tripeptide from the periplasm into the cytoplasm. AmpD encodes a cytosolic N-acetyl-anhydromuramyl-L-alanine amidase, which hydrolyzes the anhMurNAc-tripeptide for further recycling. The ampR gene encodes an LysR-type transcriptional regulator (LTTR), which controls ampC gene transcription. The ampR-ampC IG region of C. freundii has been characterized. The promoters for ampR and ampC are located in the IG region in opposite orientation and partially overlap. A consensus T-N11-A LysR-motif is conserved and located in the ampR promoter region, resulting in the negative autoregulation of ampR [20]. Similar IG architecture is observed in many other ampR-ampC modules. Furthermore, AmpR acts as a repressor in

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the absence and as an activator in the presence of the  $\beta$ -lactams [15,18,19]. In addition to the chromosomally encoded *ampR-ampC* systems, many plasmid-born AmpC  $\beta$ -lactamases have been discovered in bacteria [4,6,10,26,31,32], including some clinical isolates [3,9,27,35,42].

Another similar regulatory module, ampR-class A β-lactamase, has been identified in Rhodopseudomonas capsulate sp108 [7], E. cloacae NOR-1 [23], Proteus vulgaris B317 [8], Serratia marcescens S6 [24], Burkholderia cepacia 249 [41], Citrobacter sedlakii 2596 [37], Xanthomonas campestris [43] and Stenotrophomonas maltophilia [14]. The ampR-class A βlactamase modules described so far are all chromosomal. Compared to the ampR-ampC module, the IG region architectures of ampR-class A β-lactamase modules are more diverse. For example, in S. marcescens S6, the promoters of the ampR and class A β-lactamase genes exhibit a face-to-face architecture [24]. In addition, the regulatory role of AmpR proteins is different in the different ampR-class A β-lactamase modules. AmpR acts as an activator regardless of the presence of an inducer in E. cloacae NOR-1 [23] and S. marcescens S6 [24], but it acts as a repressor in B. cepacia 249 [41].

 $S.\ maltophilia$ , a non-fermenting gram-negative bacillus, is known to produce at least two chromosomally encoded inducible  $\beta$ -lactamases, L1 and L2 [2,36,37]. The corresponding genes L1 and L2 and their flanking DNA sequences have been separately cloned and analyzed in our previous study [14]. Recently, AmpR was shown to be a key regulator for inducible expression of L1 and L2 [30]. This work aims at identifying the regulatory role of AmpR towards basal L1 and L2 gene expression and at testing the autoregulation of AmpR expression. Moreover, the ampR-ampC and ampR-class A  $\beta$ -lactamase systems are compared and discussed in detail.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Bacterial strains, plasmids and media

Table 1 shows the bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study. S. maltophilia KH is a clinical isolate. The active β-lactamases present in S. maltophilia KH are encoded by the LI and L2 genes, as verified by isoelectric focusing electrophoresis after nitrocefin staining (our unpublished data). Escherichia coli DH5 $\alpha$  and E. coli S17-1 were used for general cloning and conjugation experiments, respectively. For the induction experiment,  $10 \mu g/ml$  of cefuroxime was added.

2.2. Construction of recombinant plasmids  $pKHR174L2_{xylE}$ ,  $pKH\Delta RL2$ ,  $pKH\Delta L2$ ,  $pKH\Delta L2$ ,  $pKH\Delta L1$ 

Fig. 1A shows the restriction enzyme map of the *S. maltophilia* KH *ampR-L2* module (accession No. EU032534). A 1.3-bp *xylE* cassette derived from pTXylE [14] was inserted into the SmaI site in the *ampR* gene and in the SphI site of L2 in pKHR174L2. The resultant recombinant plasmids, pKHR<sub>xylE</sub>174L2 and pKHR174L2<sub>xylE</sub>, were sequenced to confirm the correct orientation of *xylE* gene. The recombinant plasmids pKH $\Delta$ RL2 and

Table 1
Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

Strain or plasmid	Genotype or properties
Stenotrophomonas KH KHΔL1 KHΔL2 KHΔRL2	Maltophilia Wild type, a clinical isolate from Taiwan S. maltophilia KH isogenic mutant of L1 gene S. maltophilia KH isogenic mutant of L2 gene S. maltophilia KH double mutant of L2 and ampR gene; deletion 797 bp StuI-StuI DNA fragment which including partial 5' terminus of ampR, intergenic region of ampR and L2, and partial 5' terminus of L2
Escherichia coli	
DH5α	F- Φ80dlacZΔM15 Δ(lacZYA-argF)U169 deoR recA1 endA1 hsdR17 (r <sub>k</sub> m <sub>k</sub> +) phoA supE44χ thi-1 gyrA96 relA1
S17-1	$\lambda$ pir + mating strain
Plasmids	
pEX18Tc	sacB oriT, Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHR174L2	pEX18Tc vector with a 2.8 kb PCR amplicon containing the partial 3' terminus of ABC transport protein gene, <i>ampR</i> gene, 174-bp IG region, and <i>L2</i> gene; Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHR174L2 <sub>xyIE</sub>	Derived from pKHR174L2, inserting an <i>xylE</i> cassette of the same orientation as <i>L2</i> gene into SphI site of <i>ampR</i> gene; Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHΔL1	pEX18Tc vector with a 298-bp XbaI-SphI DNA fragment of 5' terminus of <i>L1</i> gene and a 336-bp PstI-HindIII DNA fragment of 3' terminus of <i>L1</i> gene, deleting the internal 407-bp DNA fragment of <i>L1</i> gene
pKHΔL2	Derived from pKHR174L2, deleting the 107-bp StuI-SphI DNAa fragment; Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHΔR	Derived from pKHR174L2, deleting the 468-bp PstI-PstI DNA fragment; Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHΔRL2	Derived from pKHR174L2, deleting the 797-bp StuI-StuI DNA fragment; Tc <sup>r</sup>
pKHR <sub>xyIE</sub> 174L2	Derived from pKHR174L2, inserting an <i>xylE</i> cassette of the same orientation as <i>ampR</i> gene into the SmaI site of <i>ampR</i> gene; Tc <sup>r</sup>

pKHΔR were derived from pKHR174L2 by deleting a 797-bp StuI and a 468-bp PstI fragment, respectively. The 608-bp SmaI-StuI fragment from pKHR174L2 was ligated into the SmaI-digested pEX18Tc, and the resultant plasmid was further ligated with the 854-bp SphI-HindIII fragment from pKHR174L2, producing pKHΔL2. The correctness of both inserted DNA fragments in pKHΔL2 was checked by DNA sequencing. The intact *L1* gene of *S. maltophilia* KH was amplified by PCR using the paired primers 5′-AAG GAG GCC CAT GCT AGT TT-3′ and 5′-TTC TGA CCG GCA CCC TTC-3′, and cloned into the T-vector (pTKHL1). The recombinant plasmid pKHΔL1 was constructed by a two-step cut-ligation of HindIII-PstI and XbaI-SphI from pTKHL1 to pEX18Tc treated with the same restriction enzymes. Again, DNA sequencing was performed to check the correctness of both insertions.

### 2.3. Construction of isogenic mutants KH $\Delta$ L2, KH $\Delta$ RL2, KH $\Delta$ R, and KH $\Delta$ L1

Recombinant plasmids pKH $\Delta$ L2, pKH $\Delta$ RL2, pKH $\Delta$ R, and pKH $\Delta$ L1 were introduced into *S. maltophilia* KH via conjugation to generate isogenic mutants KH $\Delta$ L2, KH $\Delta$ RL2,

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