ampG Is Essential for High-Level Expression of AmpC 13-Lactamase in Enterobacter cloacae

GISELA KORFMANN* AND CHRISTINE C. SANDERS

Department of Medical Microbiology, Creighton University School of Medicine, Omaha, Nebraska 68178

Received 16 May 1989/Accepted 14 August 1989

Mutants of Enterobacter cloacae 55 were studied to delineate more completely the genetics of inducible expression of AmpC β -lactamase. E. cloacae 55M-L, derived by mutagenesis from a mutant with high-level cefotaxime resistance (MIC, $>64 \mu g/ml$), E. cloacae 55M, demonstrated a novel phenotype by producing only low levels of AmpC constitutively. Neither the parental phenotype of E. cloacae 55M nor the wild-type phenotype of E . cloacae 55 could be restored in E . cloacae 55M-L by the introduction of functional amp R , ampC, or ampD genes. Cloning each of these genes from E. cloacae 55M-L confirmed the same genotype for this mutant as for its parental strain. Mutation of E. cloacae 55M-L to the E. cloacae 55M phenotype was found to occur spontaneously at a frequency of 10-8. AU such revertants demonstrated an inducible wild-type phenotype after introduction of a functional ampD. These results suggested that the E. cloacae 55M-L phenotype was due to a mutation in an as yet unrecognized gene, designated ampG. Verification of this gene was obtained by the restoration of the E . cloacae 55M phenotype in E . cloacae 55M-L by introduction of a cloned 2.9-kilobase BamHI fragment from the E. cloacae 55 chromosome. Transformation of both ampG and ampD into E. cloacae 55M-L reconstituted the inducible wild-type phenotype. These results indicate that ampG is required for the activation of ampC by AmpR. Without ampG, neither induction nor high-level expression of AmpC is possible. It is likely that the $ampG$ gene product and AmpD together modulate the ability of AmpR to activate ampC expression.

Most members of the family Enterobacteriaceae and other gram-negative bacteria possess a chromosomal class ^I cephalosporinase. In many of these species, expression of the enzyme is inducible by various β -lactam antibiotics (29, 32, 34). This inducibility can be altered by mutation resulting in elevated production of β -lactamase and resistance to many of the new β -lactam antibiotics $(9, 15, 16, 21, 26, 31)$. To date the genetic apparatus responsible for both the inducible and the high-level expression of class I β -lactamase in *Entero*bacter cloacae and Citrobacter freundii has not been fully delineated. However, major advances have been made when the corresponding genes involved in regulation have been cloned (13, 15-17, 20-22, 26). From these studies, two regulatory genes affecting expression of $ampC$, the structural gene, have been identified. $ampR$, which is adjacent to $ampC$, appears to encode a DNA-binding protein that serves as the activator of $ampC$ (13, 16, 20–22). A second regulatory gene, ampD, not closely linked to the ampRampC region, is responsible for low-level expression of ampC in uninduced E. cloacae wild-type strains. Inactivation of ampD by mutation occurs at a high frequency and results in high-level production of β -lactamase (16, 17, 21, 26). Therefore, ampD negatively regulates ampC expression. Exactly how or whether the product of *ampD* interacts with the AmpR protein is unknown. However, both ampR and ampD must be present to yield the inducible wild-type phenotype.

In a previous publication, Werner et al. described a mutant of E. cloacae 55 that expressed low levels of β lactamase constitutively (36). Investigation of this unusual phenotype has led to the discovery of a new regulatory gene, $ampG$. We cloned $ampG$, and we propose a model for its role in ampC regulation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains and plasmids. The various strains and plasmids used in this study are described in Table 1. E. cloacae 55 is a wild-type clinical isolate that produces a class ^I type B (pI 7.8) chromosomal B-lactamase (9). E. cloacae 55M is a spontaneous mutant expressing high levels of the enzyme (9). E. cloacae 55M-L was derived from E. cloacae 55M by mutagenesis with nitrosoguanidine (36).

Antibiotics and enzymes. The following β -lactam antibiotics were used: cefoxitin and cefotaxime were kindly provided by their manufacturers (Merck, Sharp & Dohme, West Point, Pa., and Hoechst-Roussel Pharmaceuticals Inc., Somerville, N.J., respectively); kanamycin, tetracycline, chloramphenicol, sulfamethoxazole, and quinolinic acid were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, Mo.). Restriction enzymes and T4 DNA ligase were purchased from Bethesda Research Laboratories, Inc. (Gaithersburg, Md.); alkaline phosphatase and ^a kit for labeling of DNA with digoxigenin-dUTP were purchased from Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals (Indianapolis, Ind.).

Media and growth conditions. For routine purposes Mueller-Hinton broth or agar was used. M9 (25) medium containing 0.2% Casamino Acids (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich.) and thiamine $(1 \mu g/ml)$ was used for some cloning experiments. Quinolinic acid (30 μ g/ml), tetracycline (10 μ g/ml), sulfamethoxazole (300 μ g/ml), chloramphenicol (30 μ g/ml), kanamycin (50 μ g/ml), or β -lactam antibiotics at various concentrations were added as required. Induction experiments were performed in Iso-Sensitest Broth (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, Hants, United Kingdom). For transformation experiments SOB medium (20 g of Bacto-tryptone [Difco], 5 g of yeast extract [Difco], 0.6 g of NaCl, 0.19 g of KCl, 10 ml of 1 M $MgCl₂$, and 10 ml of 1 M $MgSO₄$) and SOC medium (SOB medium plus 20 ml of 20% glucose) were used as described by Hanahan (11).

Susceptibility testing. Serial twofold dilution tests in Muel-

^{*} Corresponding author.

 a Strain 14 is an E. cloacae wild-type strain with a class I chromosomal β -lactamase, pI 7.8 (16).

 b Strain 7835 is an E. cloacae wild-type strain with a class I chromosomal β -lactamase, pI 9.1 (16).

ler-Hinton agar were performed with an inoculum of $10⁴$ CFU per spot. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration preventing growth after 18 h of incubation at 35°C in air.

Induction of β -lactamase and determination of enzyme $activity.$ β -Lactamase was induced with cefoxitin in strains by using a 2-h induction assay (32). The concentration of cefoxitin varied from 1 to 64 μ g/ml depending upon the susceptibility of the strain to the drug. β -Lactamase activity in sonic extracts was quantified by using ^a UV spectrophotometric assay with 100 μ M nitrocefin as the substrate (32). The protein content of each sonic extract was determined by the Bio-Rad protein assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Richmond, Calif.). For *Enterobacter* constructs containing two ampC genes, one encoding a type B enzyme (pI 7.8) and the other encoding a type C enzyme (pl 9.1), expression of each gene product was examined on isoelectric focusing gels (33). The various patterns obtained before and after induction made it possible to ascertain how both genes were expressed: inducibly or constitutively (8). Every induction experiment was performed at least in duplicate and usually in triplicate.

Nucleic acid techniques. Chromosomal DNA was prepared by a modified version of the protocol described by Edlund et al. (7). For rapid isolation of plasmid DNA, the alkaline extraction method of Birnboim and Doly (1) was used; for cloning experiments, DNA was isolated by the method of Clewell and Helinski (5). Restriction fragments were isolated out of an agarose gel by using the Geneclean system from Bio ¹⁰¹ Inc. (La Jolla, Calif.). Recombinant DNA techniques were performed as described by Maniatis et al. (23). Usually, vector DNA was treated with alkaline phosphatase to prevent self-ligation.

The procedure for transforming Escherichia coli was as described by Hanahan (11). Transformation of E. cloacae was performed as follows. Competent cells of E. cloacae were obtained by growing the cells in SOB medium to an A_{546} of 0.3 to 0.4, centrifuging, and then suspending the cell pellet in 0.5 volume of 0.1 M CaCl₂. After incubation on ice for ¹ to 1.5 h, the cells were concentrated 20-fold in 0.1 M $CaCl₂$, and samples of 0.2 ml were added to DNA. After 0.5 h on ice, the cells were incubated at 42°C for 1.5 min, cooled down on ice for ¹ to ² min, diluted with ³ ml of SOC medium, and incubated for 1 to 2 h with vigorous shaking at 37°C. Finally, the cells were plated on agar plates containing the appropriate selective antibiotic.

DNA-DNA hybridization. After electrophoresis, the gels were depurinated in 0.25 M HCl twice for ¹⁵ min each, denatured in 1.5 M NaCl-0.5 M NaOH twice for ³⁰ min each, and neutralized in 1.5 M NaCl-1.0 M Tris hydrochloride (pH 8.0) twice for 30 min each. Gels were then blotted to nylon filters (Micron Separations Inc., Westboro, Mass.) in a Vacu-blot apparatus for 35 min with $2 \times$ SSC as buffer $(1 \times SSC$ is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate [pH 7.0]). After blotting, filters were rinsed in $2 \times$ SSC and dried at 80°C for ³⁰ min. Labeling of the probe DNA with digoxigenin-dUTP, prehybridization, hybridization, and detection of hybridized probe DNA were performed as recommended by the supplier (Boehringer Mannheim Biochemicals). Bands were usually visible after 5 to 30 min.

RESULTS

Characterization of E . cloacae 55M-L. The phenotype of E . $cloacae$ 55M-L based upon expression of AmpC β -lactamase and susceptibility to cefotaxime is shown in Table 2 in comparison with those of E. cloacae 55 and E. cloacae 55M. Since E. cloacae 55M-L produced cephalosporinase constitutively at very low basal levels, it was susceptible to cefotaxime. E. cloacae 55 showed the normal wild-type phenotype of inducible enzyme expression. In E. cloacae 55M, which was resistant to cefotaxime, the enzyme was produced constitutively at high levels. Introduction of ampD (pBP141-1-2) by transformation into this latter mutant re-

TABLE 2. Cefotaxime susceptibility and β -lactamase expression of E. cloacae strains before and after transformation with ampRampC (pBP132-3) and ampD (pBP141-1-2)^a

E. cloacae strain	Cefotax- ime MIC $(\mu$ g/ml)	Enzyme sp act ^b		Inducer concn of
		Unin- duced	Induced	cefoxitin $(\mu g/ml)$
55M-L	0.12	9		
55	0.12	9	68	
55M	64	9,123	8,839	32
55M(pBP141-1-2)	0.12	10	51	4
55(pBP141-1-2)	0.12	8	39	4
55M-L(pBP132-3)	0.25	55	50	2
55M-L(pBP141-1-2)	0.12	6	6	1 or 4
55M-L(pBP141-1-2)(pBP132-3)	0.25	62	64	2 or 16

Results shown are means of replicate determinations.

^b Nanomoles of nitrocefin hydrolyzed per minute per milligram of protein.

stored inducible expression of $AmpC$ β -lactamase and susceptibility to cefotaxime (Table 2). This indicated that E. cloacae 55M was mutated in the ampD region. The lower inducibility of this construct and E . *cloacae* 55 (Table 2) containing a cloned ampD in comparison to E. cloacae ⁵⁵ was probably due to the gene dosage effect described previously by Peter et al. (28), i.e., multiple copies of ampD produced by pBP141-1-2 provided greater negative influence over $ampC$ expression than the single copy of $ampD$ normally provided by the Enterobacter chromosome.

To determine whether a mutation in one of the known regulatory genes or in the promoter region of $ampC$ was responsible for the low-level constitutive phenotype of E . cloacae 55M-L, the corresponding regions of a wild-type E. cloacae strain were transformed into this strain. Introduction of $ampD$ had no effect on the phenotype of E . cloacae 55M-L (Table 2). The ampRampC region from E. cloacae 7835(pBP132-3), which encoded a type C enzyme (pl 9.1), produced an elevated level of $AmpC$ β -lactamase due to the higher copy number of the cloned ampC gene versus the chromosomally located one. Enzyme expression, however, was still constitutive. Introduction of ampD (pBP141-1-2) into this construct by transformation still failed to provide an inducible phenotype (Table 2). To exclude the possibility that induction was masked by the amount of β -lactamase produced in these constructs, higher concentrations of inducers were examined. However, even when concentrations as high as 16 μ g of cefoxitin per ml were used, no evidence of inducibility was observed. From these results, we concluded that the unusual phenotype of E. cloacae 55M-L was not due to a mutation in one of the known genes.

Genotype of E. cloacae 55M-L. To determine the genotype of E. cloacae 55M-L directly, several cloning experiments were performed with wild-type strain E. cloacae 55 as a positive control. The ampRampC region of both strains was cloned on an 8.8-kilobase (kb) EcoRI fragment into pACYC184, resulting in plasmids pGKS131-3 and pGKS132- 3. In E. coli HB101, both constructs showed identical inducible expression of AmpC β -lactamase, indicating that the ampRampC region of E. cloacae 55M-L was functional in an $ampD^+$ background (Table 3). The $ampD$ gene was cloned by using a procedure that used the expression of the adjacent nadC gene as a selective marker in a nadC mutant strain (E. coli JRG582) as described previously (16, 17). First, however, a DNA-DNA-hybridization experiment was performed with the ampDnadC region from pBP141-3 as a probe. According to this blot (data not shown), nadC,

TABLE 3. Cefotaxime susceptibility and β -lactamase expression of E. coli strains containing ampRampC or ampD from various E. cloacae strains^a

E. coli strain	Cefotax- ime MIC $(\mu$ g/ml $)$	Enzyme sp act ^b		Inducer concen- tration of
		Unin- duced	Induced	cefoxitin $(\mu$ g/ml)
HB101(pGKS131-3)	0.12	27	162	4
HB101(pGKS132-3)	0.06	31	139	4
SN0302(pBP131)(pGKS162-4)	64	5.026	14.618	32 or 64
SN0302(pBP131)(pGKS161-4)	0.12	25	823	4

^a ampRampC from E. cloacae 55(pGKS131-3) or 55M-L(pGKS132-3); ampD from E. cloacae 55(pGKS161-4) or 55M-L(pGKS162-4).

Nanomoles of nitrocefin hydrolyzed per minute per milligram of protein.

ampD, and ca. 2.8 kb of additional sequences downstream of ampD were cloned on a 5-kb HpaI fragment into pACYC184, cut with EcoRV. The resulting recombinant plasmids (pGKS161-4 and pGKS162-4) containing either the ampD region of E. cloacae 55 or the corresponding region of E. cloacae 55M-L were finally transformed into E. coli SN0302 that also contained the ampRampC region of E. cloacae 14(pBP131). In contrast to the ampD region of the wild-type E . cloacae 55, the corresponding region from E . cloacae 55M-L could not trans-complement the ampD2 mutation of the E. coli host back to the wild-type phenotype of inducible enzyme synthesis (Table 3). The latter construct showed an induction ratio of AmpC β -lactamase of 2.9, which was similar to that reported previously for E. coli SN0302 containing an ampRampC and an ampD mutant plasmid (17). Therefore, we concluded that E. cloacae 55M-L was mutated in ampD like its parent E. cloacae 55M, but only the latter expressed high levels of AmpC constitutively. These cloning experiments suggested that despite its unusual phenotype, E. cloacae 55M-L had the same genotype for all of the known amp genes as its parent, E. cloacae 55M.

To determine whether E. cloacae 55M-L could mutate back to the E. cloacae 55M phenotype, a mutation experiment was performed. When E. cloacae 55M-L was plated onto agar containing $32 \mu g$ of cefotaxime per ml, spontaneous revertants showing the E. cloacae 55M phenotype occurred at a frequency of 10^{-8} . Results of tests with one such revertant, E. cloacae 55M-L-Mu13, are shown in Table 4. Another such revertant (E. cloacae 55M-L-M2) behaved identically to E. cloacae 55M-L-Mu13 (data not shown). Introduction of ampD (pBP141-1-2) by transformation into these revertants produced an inducible phenotype similar to that seen with E. cloacae 55M/pBP141-1-2 (Tables 2 and 4). These results suggested that the low-level constitutive phe-

TABLE 4. Cefotaxime susceptibility and β -lactamase expression of E. cloacae 55M-L and derivatives

E. cloacae strain	Cefotax- ime MIC $(\mu$ g/ml)	Enzyme sp act ^a		Inducer concn of
		Unin- duced	Induced	cefoxitin $(\mu$ g/ml)
55M-L-Mu13	64	10.562	9.691	32
55M-L-Mu13(pBP141-1-2)	0.12	q	43	4
55M-L(pGKS171-3)	128	9.432	8.624	32
55M-L(pGKS171-3)(pBP141-1-2)	0.12		34	4

^a Nanomoles of nitrocefin hydrolyzed per minute per milligram of protein.

notype of E. cloacae 55M-L was due to a mutation in an as yet unrecognized gene, which we designated ampG. Thus, the genotype of E. cloacae 55M-L appeared to be $ampR+ampC+ampD$ amp G .

Cloning of ampG. Based on the hypothesis that low-level constitutive expression of β -lactamase in E. cloacae 55M-L was due to a mutation in ampG, it was proposed that wild-type $ampG$ should be dominant over the mutated allele. If this assumption were correct, introduction of $ampG^+$ should change E. cloacae 55M-L into a cefotaxime-resistant strain with high-level production of β -lactamase, since E . cloacae 55M-L, like E. cloacae 55M, is mutated in ampD. In a "shotgun" approach for cloning of $ampG$, chromosomal DNA of E. cloacae 55 cut with BamHI was ligated into the vector pACYC184, which had been digested with the same enzyme and then treated with alkaline phosphatase. Since E. cloacae 55M-L is very difficult to transform, the ligation mixture was first transformed into E. coli FLO1 to enrich recombinant plasmids. Then, in the second step for cloning ampG, plasmid DNA isolated from all chloramphenicolresistant transformants was used to transform E. cloacae 55M-L. In this experiment, transformants were selected on chloramphenicol and cefotaxime $(1 \mu g/ml)$. All colonies growing on this medium were tested on higher concentrations of cefotaxime and found to be highly resistant to this β -lactam antibiotic. To ensure that ampG had been cloned, plasmid DNA of the cefotaxime-resistant constructs of E. cloacae 55M-L was transformed into E. coli HB101 and from there back into E. cloacae 55M-L. This time, chloramphenicol alone was used for selection. Testing of the transformants revealed that the recombinant plasmid pGKS171-3, containing ^a 2.9-kb insertion of chromosomal DNA from E. cloacae 55, was able to transform E. cloacae 55M-L into a cefotaxime-resistant strain that produced β -lactamase at the same high level as E. cloacae 55M (Table 4). Transformation of ampG and ampD into E. cloacae 55M-L resulted in inducible expression of AmpC (Table 4) similar to that seen with E. cloacae 55 and E. cloacae 55M with the cloned ampD gene (Table 2).

To determine whether ampG was located close to ampR, ampC, or ampD, a Southern blot was performed. In this experiment, ampG did not hybridize with the 8.8-kb $EcoRI$ fragment containing the ampRampC region or with the 5-kb HpaI fragment containing ampD, nadC, and 2.8 kb of additional sequences distal to ampD. However, a homologous region of less than 300 base pairs between the probe and a positive control could be detected. From this, we concluded that ampG was not linked to one of the previously known genes involved in expression of β -lactamase in E. cloacae.

Influence of $ampG$ on β -lactamase production in an E. coli host. Although E. coli expresses its own chromosomal enzyme constitutively (34) , it produces the AmpC β -lactamase of E. cloacae inducibly when ampR is also present (16, 21, 26). Therefore, $E.$ coli, like $E.$ cloacae, appears to be $ampG^+$. To study the effect of additional ampG on AmpC production in a well-defined host, E. coli HB101 containing the ampRampC plasmid pBP131 was transformed with pGKS171-3. The results of induction experiments (Table 5) revealed that additional ampG has no positive or negative influence on induction. Similar results were observed when E. cloacae 55 was transformed with pGKS171-3 (data not shown). Thus, in contrast to ampD, ampG does not show a gene dosage effect.

TABLE 5. Cefotaxime susceptibility and β -lactamase expression of E. coli HB101 containing amp genes from E. cloacae^a

E. coli strain	Cefotax- ime MIC	Enzyme sp act ^b	
	$(\mu$ g/ml)	Unin- duced	Induced ^c
HB101(pBP131)	0.12	48	211
HB101(pBP131)(pGKS171-3)	0.12	47	216
HB101(pBP131)(pBP141-1-2)	0.12	31	50
HB101(pBP131)(pBP141-1-2)(pGKS171-3)	0.12	33	59

ampRampC on pBP131; ampG on pGKS171-3; ampD on pBP141-1-2.

^b Nanomoles of nitrocefin hydrolyzed per minute per milligram of protein.

 c Inducer concentration of cefoxitin, 4 μ g/ml.

DISCUSSION

Inducible expression of $AmpC$ β -lactamase in genera like Enterobacter and Citrobacter has been shown in previous studies to be regulated by two genes: $ampR$, coding for an activator of $ampC$ expression (13, 16, 20–22), and $ampD$, the gene product of which has a negative influence on $ampC$ expression (16, 17, 26, 28). In this study, we have now shown that a third gene, ampG, is essential for expression of high levels of $AmpC$ β -lactamase. Whether these levels result from the effects of an inducer upon an $ampD^+$ strain or from the loss of ^a functional AmpD protein due to ^a mutation in *ampD*, *ampG* appears to be necessary for high level expression of AmpC. E. cloacae 55M-L, a derivative of the cefotaxime-resistant strain E. cloacae 55M, was found to be mutated in this gene since its low-level constitutive phenotype could be converted to high-level production only by the introduction of an ampG-containing plasmid. From these results, it appears that ampG is responsible for the activation of ampC expression by AmpR.

To explain the mechanism of elevated β -lactamase production in E. cloacae and other species with inducible cephalosporinase, several models have been proposed (6, 18). However, in light of the discovery of ampG and new information concerning AmpR (22), ^a revision of these models is indicated. Recent studies have demonstrated a great deal of homology between $ampR$ and activator genes unrelated to β -lactamase production (4, 12, 22). These homologous regions were found to be located in the sequence encoding the N terminus of the protein that is thought to be responsible for the DNA binding of the activator protein. The diversity in the regions encoding the C terminus was suggested to reflect the specificity of the inducer-binding site. Furthermore, the promoters of $ampR$ and $ampC$ are divergently organized and overlap, similar to other positively regulated operons (35). Considering the function of an activator, it appears that this regulatory protein usually exists in two forms: inactive and active. Very recently, Lindquist et al. showed that these two forms of AmpR can bind to a DNA region immediately upstream of the *ampC* promoter in either the presence or absence of an inducer (22). Two studies dealing with the activator proteins AraC and IlvY strongly suggest that the conversion from the inactive to the active conformation of an activator protein occurs by the binding of a ligand which is identical or similar to a substrate in the regulated pathway (24, 35).

Projection of these findings onto the regulation of ampC expression resulted in the model depicted in Fig. 1. The assumption that AmpR has to be converted into an activator to generate high levels of AmpC is supported by data from $ampR$ mutants (13, 16, 21, 26). The expression of AmpC

FIG. 1. Regulation model for the expression of AmpC in E. cloacae. A, Basal levels of β -lactamase; B, elevated levels; \bigoplus , substrate for AmpG; $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$, product of AmpG, substrate for AmpD, ligand for AmpR; $\overline{\mathbb{E}}$, product of ampD; R*, activated AmpR.

 β -lactamase in E. coli constructs containing only ampC is usually 2 to 5 times higher than the basal levels expressed by similar constructs containing $ampR$ and $ampC$. The most likely explanation for this is that the binding of an inactive AmpR protein interferes with the activity of the DNAdependent RNA polymerase. In induced or ampD mutant E. coli or E. cloacae constructs containing an intact ampRampC region, transcription of ampC occurs with much higher efficiency than in $ampR$ mutant constructs due to the effects of an activated AmpR protein. As suggested by others (22), the conversion of AmpR into an activator of transcription is presumably due to the binding of a ligand. However, this ligand is probably not the inducing β -lactam molecule, since there is no evidence that β -lactam antibiotics cross the cytoplasmic membrane (6, 18). Furthermore, Lindquist et al. could not find any sequence homology between AmpR and any known β -lactam-binding protein (22). Therefore, these authors suggest an interaction of AmpR with ^a second messenger of unknown nature. From the data presented in this study, it appears most likely that this ligand is provided enzymatically by the AmpG protein. Although possible, it is highly unlikely that the AmpG protein binds to or activates AmpR directly, since substrates related to the regulated pathway are usually involved in such activation (35) . In the absence of $ampG$, AmpR remains bound to DNA in its inactive form; thus no elevated expression of $ampC$ is possible either via induction or via mutation of ampD. Conversely, in the absence of ampD, AmpR can be maximally activated by the ligand provided by the AmpG protein. No data were generated in our study that proved how *ampD* exerts its negative influence. However, the presence of a gene dosage effect with ampD but not ampG suggests that the AmpD protein may inactivate the ligand produced by AmpG. This observation also makes it unlikely that AmpG is directly inactivated by AmpD, although this remains a possibility. The absence of a gene dosage effect for ampG is probably due to the fact that the small amount of AmpR produced by the cell and its rapid turnover (19, 21) limits the positive impact of this gene on AmpC expression. Exactly how the negative influence of ampD is removed or diminished by exposure of a strain to a P-lactam inducer is unknown. However, as hypothesized by others (6, 14, 18), this must certainly involve a transmembrane protein capable of binding the β -lactam antibiotic. One or more penicillinbinding proteins may ultimately be found to be the transmembrane sensors that initiate the events leading to a decrease in the negative effect of ampD. In a recent study, Oliva et al. presented evidence that in $E.$ coli, PBP 2 might

be one of the sensors involved in induction of the cloned C. freundii class I chromosomal ß-lactamase (27).

Further investigations on all known regulatory genes, ampR, ampD, and ampG and their corresponding gene products will be necessary to show whether the proposed model is correct or has to be refined again. It is clear that many aspects remain to be proven directly. To elucidate the induction process, it is necessary to include penicillinbinding proteins or other transmembrane proteins that could serve as sensors for induction into the investigations as well as the products of all the now known regulatory genes.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported in part by a grant from the Health Future Foundation, Omaha, Nebr.

We thank D. A. Weber, K. S. Thomson, and E. S. Moland for their technical assistance and R. V. Goering for his helpful comments during this study.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Birnboim, H. C., and J. Doly. 1979. A rapid alkaline extraction procedure for screening recombinant plasmid DNA. Nucleic Acids Res. 7:1513-1523.
- 2. Boyer, H. W., and D. Roulland-Dussoix. 1969. A complementation analysis of the restriction and modification of DNA in Escherichia coli. J. Mol. Biol. 41:459-472.
- 3. Chang, A. C. Y., and S. N. Cohen. 1978. Construction and characterization of amplifiable multicopy DNA cloning vehicles derived from P1SA cryptic miniplasmid. J. Bacteriol. 134: 1141-1156.
- 4. Chang, M., A. Hadero, and I. P. Crawford. 1989. Sequence of the Pseudomonas aeruginosa trpI activator gene and relatedness of trpI to other procaryotic regulatory genes. J. Bacteriol. 171:172-183.
- 5. Clewell, D. B. , and D. R. Helinski. 1969. Supercoiled circular DNA-protein complex in Escherichia coli: purification and induced conversion to an open circular DNA form. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 62:1159-1166.
- 6. Cole, S. T., N. Honore, and M.-H. Nicolas. 1988. Regulation de la cephalosporinase inducible chez Enterobacter: induction et mutation, autres hypotheses. Med. Mal. Infect. Hors Ser. 18-21.
- 7. Edlund, T., T. Grundstroem, and S. Normark. 1979. Isolation and characterization of DNA repetition carrying the chromosomal ß-lactamase gene of Escherichia coli K-12. Mol. Gen. Genet. 173:115-125.
- 8. Goering, R. V., C. C. Sanders, W. E. Sanders, Jr., R. Guay, and S. Guerin. 1988. Heterogeneity in ampR-ampC gene interaction in Enterobacter cloacae. Rev. Infect. Dis. 10:786-792.
- 9. Gootz, T. D., C. C. Sanders, and R. V. Goering. 1982. Resistance to cefamandole: derepression of β -lactamase by cefoxitin

and mutation in Enterobacter cloacae. J. Infect. Dis.146: 34-42.

- 10. Guest, J. R., and P. E. Stephens. 1980. Molecular cloning of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex genes of Escherichia coli. J. Gen. Microbiol. 121:277-292.
- 11. Hanahan, D. 1983. Studies on transformation of Escherichia coli with plasmids. J. Mol. Biol. 166:557-580.
- 12. Henikoff, S., G. W. Haughn, J. M. Calvo, and J. C. Wallace. 1988. A large family of bacterial activator proteins. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 85:6602-6606.
- 13. Honore, N., M.-H. Nicolas, and S. T. Cole. 1986. Inducible cephalosporinase production in clinical isolates of Enterobacter cloacae is controlled by a regulatory gene that has been deleted from Escherichia coli. EMBO J. 5:3709-3714.
- 14. Kobayashi, T., Y. F. Zhu, N. J. Nicholls, and J. 0. Lampen. 1987. A second regulatory gene, blaRI, encoding ^a potential penicillin-binding protein required for induction of β -lactamase in Bacillus licheniformis. J. Bacteriol. 169:3873-3878.
- 15. Korfmann, G., C. Kliebe, and B. Wiedemann. 1986. P-Lactamase antibiotics and selection of resistance: speculation on the evolution of R-plasmids. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 18(Suppl. C):113-121.
- 16. Korfmann, G., and B. Wiedemann. 1988. Genetic control of 1-lactamase production in Enterobacter cloacae. Rev. Infect. Dis. 10:793-799.
- 17. Lindberg, F., S. Lindquist, and S. Normark. 1987. Inactivation of ampD causes semiconstitutive overproduction of the inducible Citrobacter freundii β-lactamase. J. Bacteriol. 169:1923-1928.
- 18. Lindberg, F., S. Lindquist, and S. Normark. 1988. Genetic basis of induction and overproduction of chromosomal class I β lactamase in nonfastidious gram-negative bacilli. Rev. Infect. Dis. 10:782-785.
- 19. Lindberg, F., and S. Normark. 1986. Contribution of chromosomal β -lactamases to β -lactam resistance in enterobacteria. Rev. Infect. Dis. 8:S292-S304.
- 20. Lindberg, F., and S. Normark. 1987. Common mechanism of AmpC β -lactamase induction in enterobacteria: regulation of the cloned *Enterobacter cloacae* P99 ß-lactamase gene. J. Bacteriol. 169:758-763.
- 21. Lindberg, F., L. Westman, and S. Normark. 1985. Regulatory components in Citrobacter freundii AmpC β -lactamase induction. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:4620-4624.
- 22. Lindquist, S., F. Lindberg, and S. Normark. 1989. Binding of the Citrobacter freundii AmpR regulator to ^a single DNA binding site provides both autoregulation and activation of the inducible ampC β -lactamase gene. J. Bacteriol. 171:3746-3753.
- 23. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 24. Martin, K., L. Huo, and R. R. Schleif. 1986. The DNA loop model for ara repression: AraC protein occupies the proposed loop sites in vivo and repression-negative mutations lie in these same sites. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 83:3654-3658.
- 25. Miller, J. H. 1972. Experiments in molecular genetics. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- 26. Nicolas, M.-H., N. Honore, V. Jarlier, A. Philippon, and S. T. Cole. 1987. Molecular genetic analysis of cephalosporinase production and its role in β -lactam resistance in clinical isolates of Enterobacter cloacae. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 31: 295-299.
- 27. Oliva, B., P. M. Bennett, and I. Chopra. 1989. Penicillin-binding protein 2 is required for induction of the Citrobacter freundii class I chromosomal B-lactamase in Escherichia coli. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 33:1116-1117.
- 28. Peter, K., G. Korfmann, and B. Wiedemann. 1988. Impact of the $ampD$ gene and its product on β -lactamase production in Enterobacter cloacae. Rev. Infect. Dis. 10:800-805.
- 29. Richmond, M. H., and R. B. Sykes. 1973. The β -lactamases of gram-negative bacteria and their possible physiological role. Adv. Microb. Physiol. 9:31-88.
- 30. Rose, R. E. 1988. The nucleotide sequence of pACYC184. Nucleic Acids Res. 16:355.
- 31. Sanders, C. C., and W. E. Sanders, Jr. 1983. Emergence of $resistance$ during therapy with the newer β -lactam antibiotics: role of inducible β-lactamases and implications to the future. Rev. Infect. Dis. 5:639-648.
- 32. Sanders, C. C., and W. E. Sanders, Jr. 1986. Type $I \beta$ lactamases of gram-negative bacteria: interactions with 3 lactam antibiotics. J. Infect. Dis. 154:792-800.
- 33. Sanders, C. C., W. E. Sanders, Jr., and E. S. Moland. 1986. Characterization of β -lactamases in situ on polyacrylamide gels. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 30:951-952.
- 34. Sykes, R . B., and M. Matthew. 1976. β -Lactamases from gramnegative bacteria and their role in resistance to β -lactam antibiotics. J. Antimicrob. Chemother. 2:115-157.
- 35. Wek, R. C., and G. W. Hatfield. 1988. Transcriptional activation at adjacent operators in the divergent-overlapping $ilvY$ and $ilvC$ promoters of Escherichia coli. J. Mol. Biol. 203:643-663.
- 36. Werner, V., C. C. Sanders, W. E. Sanders, Jr., and R. V. Goering. 1985. Role of β -lactamases and outer membrane proteins in multiple β -lactam resistance of *Enterobacter cloacae*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 27:455-459.