

# The SOS response promotes *qnrB* quinolone-resistance determinant expression

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The *qnr* genes are plasmid-borne fluoroquinolone-resistance determinants widespread in Enterobacteriaceae. Three families of *qnr* determinants (*qnrA*, *B* and *S*) have been described, but little is known about their expression and regulation. Two new determinants, *qnrC* and *qnrD*, have been found recently. Here, we describe the characterization of the *qnrB2* promoter and the identification of a LexA-binding site in the promoter region of all *qnrB* alleles. LexA is the central regulator of the SOS response to DNA damage. We show that *qnrB2* expression is regulated through the SOS response in a LexA/RecA-dependent manner, and that it can be induced by the quinolone ciprofloxacin, a known inducer of the SOS system. This is the first description of direct SOS-dependent regulation of an antibiotic-resistance mechanism in response to the antibiotic itself.

Keywords: antibiotic resistance; ciprofloxacin; *qnrB*; SOS response  
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## INTRODUCTION

Quinolones are synthetic broad-spectrum antibiotics used widely to treat a variety of infectious diseases. Bacterial resistance to quinolones emerged rapidly after their widespread use. In Gram-negative bacteria, quinolone resistance was for a long time considered to be entirely mediated by mutations in chromosomal genes encoding quinolone targets (that is, DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV) and/or in regulatory genes of outer membrane proteins or efflux pumps (Jacoby, 2005). Recently, plasmid-encoded quinolone resistance has been described along with

three mechanisms: (i) a quinolone-protective mechanism encoded by the *qnr* genes; (ii) a modifying enzyme, *aac(6′)-Ib-cr* (Robicsek *et al*, 2006b); and (iii) an efflux pump encoded by the *qepA* gene (Perichon *et al*, 2007; Yamane *et al*, 2007).

Since the identification of the first plasmid-mediated quinolone-resistance determinant, *qnrA*, a decade ago (Martinez-Martinez *et al*, 1998), many other plasmid-borne *qnr* determinants have been found, comprising three families of Qnr proteins (QnrA, QnrB and QnrS), for which, respectively, 6, 20 and 3 alleles have been described (Jacoby *et al*, 2008). Recently, two more *qnr* determinants have been identified: *qnrC* and *qnrD* (Cavaco *et al*, 2009; Wang *et al*, 2009a). The *qnr* determinants encode pentapeptide-repeat proteins, which bind to DNA gyrase, protecting it from quinolone inhibition. Several studies worldwide have shown that *qnr* genes are widespread in the Enterobacteriaceae often associated with extended-spectrum β-lactamases (Robicsek *et al*, 2006a). The *qnr* determinants are found on conjugative plasmids that often carry other antibiotic-resistance determinants, and all *qnrA* and most *qnrB* genes are located in complex *sul1*-type integrons downstream from the insertion sequence, ISCR1 (insertion sequence common region 1; Nordmann & Poirel, 2005; Garnier *et al*, 2006). So far, the *qnr* promoter has been identified for only two determinants, *qnrA1* and *qnrB19* (Mammeri *et al*, 2005; Cattoir *et al*, 2008). Little is known about *qnr* gene expression and its regulation, except that *qnrA1* expression can be induced by ciprofloxacin, through an unknown mechanism (Rodriguez-Martinez *et al*, 2006).

We recently reported the presence of the *qnrB2* gene on a complex *sul1*-type integron in *Salmonella enterica* serovar Keurmassar (Garnier *et al*, 2006). Here, we characterized the *qnrB2* promoter and identified a LexA-binding site upstream from the start codon. LexA is the central regulator of the SOS response to DNA damage. We showed that *qnrB2* expression is repressed by LexA, and that ciprofloxacin, a known inducer of the SOS response, upregulates the expression of its own resistance determinant. This regulation seems to be a common trait of *qnrB* determinants, as the LexA site is conserved in all *qnrB* allele promoter regions described so far.

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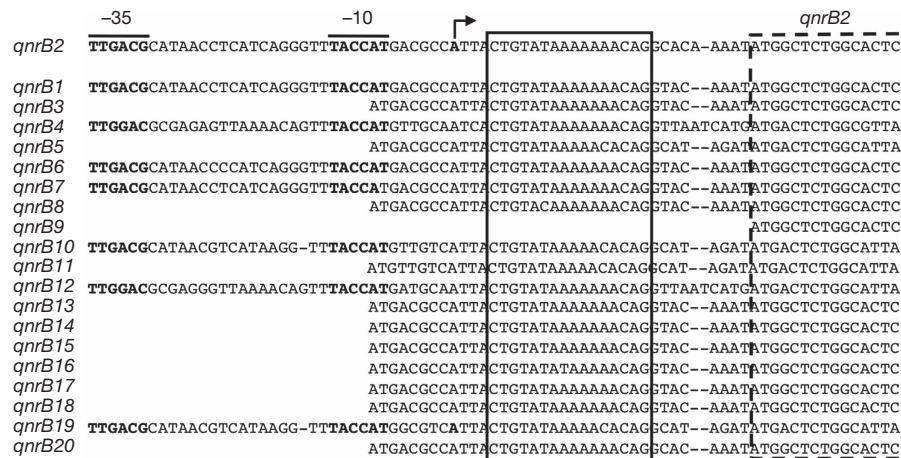
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**Fig 1** | Sequence alignment of the *qnrB2* promoter and *qnrB* alleles. The -35 and -10 promoter elements are indicated; the +1 start site is represented by an arrow; the start of the *qnrB* coding sequence is indicated by a dashed-open frame and the consensus sequence of the LexA-protein-binding site is boxed. *qnrB* allele sequences were aligned using the Geneious software. Sequence accession numbers EF682134, AM234698, EF683583, EF667294, EU052800, EU523120 and AB379831 for sequences with promoter regions for *qnrB1*, *qnrB2*, *qnrB4*, *qnrB6*, *qnrB10*, *qnrB19* and *qnrB20*, respectively; for the remaining determinants, see Jacoby et al (2008).

## RESULTS

### Characterization of the *qnrB2* promoter

We identified the *qnrB2* promoter by using the 5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends technique (Frohman, 1993). The *qnrB2* transcription initiation site (+1) was mapped to position -28, upstream from the start codon (Fig 1). The -35 and -10 promoter elements (TTGACG and TACCAT, respectively), separated by 18 bp, were identified upstream from the +1 start site (Fig 1). This organization is in agreement with the recent description of the promoter of the *qnrB19* allele, albeit with a difference in the spacer between the -35 and -10 boxes (18 bp in *qnrB2*, 17 bp in *qnrB19*; Cattoir et al, 2008; Fig 1). Only six other potential *qnrB* promoter regions are available among all *qnrB* sequences deposited in databases. Their alignment with the *qnrB2* and *qnrB19* promoter sequences showed that the -10 box is strictly conserved among the various *qnr* alleles and is separated by 17–18 bp from the -35 box, of which two sequences can be found (Fig 1). Our results confirm that the second ATG initiation codon, common to all known *qnrB* gene variants, is the initiation codon for all *qnrB* alleles, as postulated by Cattoir et al (2008).

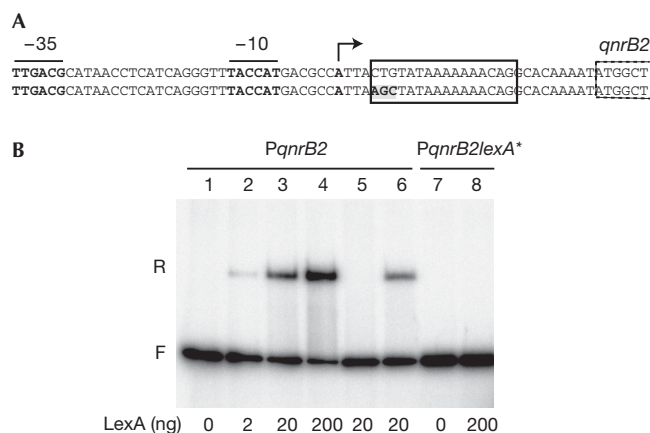
Interestingly, we also identified the CTGTATAAAAAACAG sequence between the +1 start site and the initiation codon of *qnrB2*. This sequence is homologous to the gammaproteobacteria LexA-protein-binding site consensus, CTGTN<sub>8</sub>ACAG (Erill et al, 2007), suggesting that *qnrB2* might be regulated by LexA. Furthermore, alignment of all available *qnrB* allele sequences upstream from the ATG (18 out of 20) showed that this potential LexA-binding site is fully conserved (Fig 1). The LexA protein is a member of the SOS regulatory network that represses a set of genes, the products of which are involved in several cellular processes (Little & Mount, 1982; Fernandez De Henestrosa et al, 2000). By binding specifically to a 16-bp palindromic motif typically located near or within the RNA-polymerase-binding site, the LexA dimer blocks gene transcription by interfering with RNA polymerase activity (Erill et al, 2007). The SOS response is induced in response to DNA damage, leading to RecA protein

activation, which in turn promotes LexA autocatalytic cleavage and thereby derepresses LexA-controlled genes. To verify the functionality of the LexA site identified upstream from the *qnrB2* gene, we performed electrophoresis mobility shift assay (EMSA) experiments with purified *Escherichia coli* LexA protein and showed that LexA binds to the identified motif, but not a form mutated at crucial site positions (Fig 2). This strongly suggested a role for LexA in the regulation of *qnrB2* expression.

### Negative regulation of *qnrB2* by LexA

To investigate whether *qnrB2* gene expression is regulated in a LexA-dependent manner, we constructed a *lacZ* reporter transcriptional fusion with the *qnrB2* promoter (*PqnrB2*). The recombinant plasmid, p*PqnrB2-lacZ*, was introduced into *E. coli* K12 MG1656 (a *lac*- derivative of MG1655), its *lexA*- and *recA*-deleted derivatives (MG1656Δ*lexA* and MG1656Δ*recA*, respectively), and *E. coli* K12 DM49, a strain carrying the *lexA3*(Ind-) allele encoding a non-cleavable LexA protein (Mount et al, 1972). Measurements of β-galactosidase activity showed that *PqnrB2* exhibited a basal level of expression in the MG1656 parent strain, its *recA*- derivative and in the DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-) strain, which was sixfold higher in the *lexA*- derivative (Fig 3). A fivefold increase was also observed (Fig 3) with strain MG1656(p*PqnrB2lexA\*-lacZ*), which carries changes in the crucial positions of the LexA-binding site that impede LexA binding (Fig 2). Complementation experiments in which LexA was overexpressed by the arabinose-inducible plasmid p*Bad-lexA* showed that, when induced in the MG1656Δ*lexA*(p*PqnrB2-lacZ*) strain, LexA repressed *PqnrB2*, nearly restoring its expression level to that of MG1656(p*PqnrB2-lacZ*; supplementary Fig S1 online).

We also performed real-time PCR assays with MG1656, MG1656Δ*lexA* and DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-) strains that carry a plasmid allowing *QnrB2* expression from its own promoter (p*PqnrB2-qnrB2*; supplementary Table S1 online). We observed a similar number of transcripts for strains MG1656 and DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-), and a 5.3-fold increase in the MG1656Δ*lexA* strain.



**Fig 2** | LexA binds to the *qnrB2* promoter. (A) Sequence of the *qnrB2* promoter region with the LexA-binding site and the mutated version. The LexA-binding site sequence is boxed, the -35 and -10 promoter sequences are shown in bold, the mutated bases in the LexA site are grey-shaded and the *qnrB2* 5' sequence indicated in a dashed open frame. (B) Electrophoresis mobility shift assay with the native (lanes 1–6) or mutated (lanes 7–8) *qnrB2* LexA-binding site (*PqnrB2* and *PqnrB2lexA\**, respectively) in the presence or absence of LexA purified protein (amounts in nanograms are indicated). Competition experiments were performed with an excess of cold probe *PqnrB2* (lane 5) or *PqnrB2lexA\** (lane 6). F, free DNA; R, retarded complex.

A 3.6-fold increase was consistently observed with the MG1656 (*pPqnrB2lexA\*-qnrB2*) strain containing a mutation in the LexA-binding motif.

Together, these results confirmed that LexA is involved in *qnrB2* negative regulation.

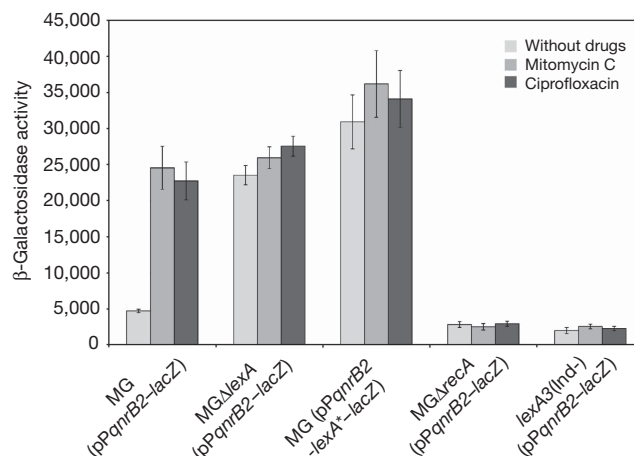
### Involvement of the SOS response in *qnrB2* regulation

To confirm the involvement of the SOS response in *qnrB2* regulation, we measured the  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity of MG1656(*pPqnrB2-lacZ*) after treatment with mitomycin C (a commonly used *in vitro* SOS activator) or ciprofloxacin (a quinolone known to induce the SOS response; Beaber *et al*, 2004; Bisognano *et al*, 2004). As shown in Fig 3, the addition of either mitomycin C or ciprofloxacin induced a fivefold increase in  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity in MG1656(*pPqnrB2-lacZ*) cultures, but not in MG1656 $\Delta$ *recA*(*pPqnrB2-lacZ*) cultures, indicating that mitomycin C and ciprofloxacin regulation of *PqnrB2* is RecA dependent. As expected, neither drug had a significant effect on MG1656 $\Delta$ *lexA*(*pPqnrB2-lacZ*) nor on MG1656(*pPqnrB2-lexA\*-lacZ*) cultures, and there was no induction in DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-) (Fig 3).

These results confirmed that *qnrB2* expression is regulated by the SOS response in a LexA/RecA-dependent manner.

### Effect of *qnrB2* regulation on quinolone resistance

To investigate the influence of the SOS-dependent regulation on the level of *qnrB2*-encoded quinolone resistance, we determined the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of ciprofloxacin for each strain (Table 1). As ciprofloxacin itself is a well-known inducer of the SOS response, we expected to observe an induction of ciprofloxacin resistance with strain MG1656(*pPqnrB2-qnrB2*). Indeed, the MIC was 32-fold higher with MG1656(*pPqnrB2-*



**Fig 3** | Expression of *qnrB2* is regulated by LexA and the SOS response.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase activity was measured without drugs (light grey), in the presence of mitomycin C (medium grey) or ciprofloxacin (dark grey) in various genetic backgrounds: the parent *Escherichia coli* strain MG1656 (MG), its derivatives MG1656 $\Delta$ *lexA* and MG1656 $\Delta$ *recA*, as well as strain DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-). These strains contained a *lacZ*-fusion plasmid with either the native or the mutated *qnrB2* promoter, *pPqnrB2-lacZ* and *pPqnrB2lexA\*-lacZ*, respectively. The error bars represent the standard deviation of at least four independent assays.

**Table 1** | Minimal inhibitory concentrations of ciprofloxacin

<i>E. coli</i> strains	Plasmids		
	pSU38 $\Delta$ <i>tot</i>	<i>pPqnrB2-qnrB2</i>	<i>pPqnrB2lexA*-qnrB2</i>
MG1656	0.02 <sup>†</sup>	0.64	0.64
MG1656 $\Delta$ <i>lexA</i>	0.02	0.32	0.32
MG1656 $\Delta$ <i>recA</i>	0.0025	0.005	0.32
DM49 <i>lexA3</i> (Ind-)	0.01	0.01	0.32

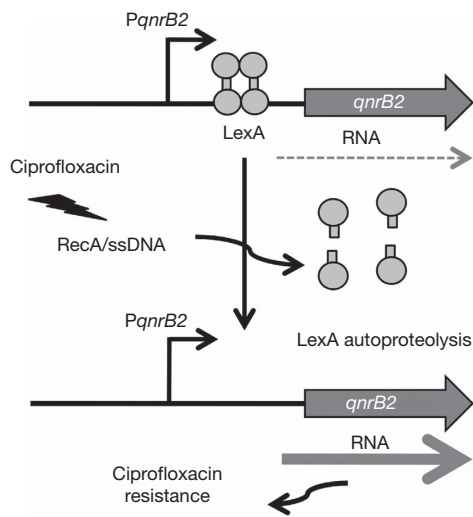
<sup>†</sup>Ciprofloxacin minimal inhibitory concentration ( $\mu$ g/ml).

*qnrB2*) than with MG1656, and was comparable with the MIC of MG1656 $\Delta$ *lexA*(*pPqnrB2-qnrB2*). Conversely, the MIC remained low for both the DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-)(*pPqnrB2-qnrB2*) and MG1656 $\Delta$ *recA*(*pPqnrB2-qnrB2*) strains. Furthermore, both strains DM49 and MG1656 $\Delta$ *recA* carrying plasmid *pPqnrB2lexA\*-qnrB2*, in which the LexA-binding site is mutated, showed the same MIC (0.32  $\mu$ g/ml) as MG1656 $\Delta$ *lexA*(*pPqnrB2-qnrB2*).

These results showed that, *in vivo*, ciprofloxacin induced *qnrB2*-mediated quinolone resistance through LexA.

### DISCUSSION

Our results show that *qnrB2* has all the characteristics of an SOS-response LexA-regulated gene, as defined by Kelley (2006). These include: (i) induction in wild-type strains when exposed to DNA-damaging agents, and basal expression without drug exposure; (ii) no induction in *recA*-negative strain (no LexA derepression) or DM49 *lexA3*(Ind-) strain (uncleavable LexA); and (iii) constitutive



**Fig 4** | Regulation of *qnrB2* gene expression. In the uninduced state, the LexA protein is bound to its site at the promoter region of *qnrB2*. The *qnrB2* gene is expressed at a basal level (dashed-line arrow). On induction of the SOS response, by ciprofloxacin for example, single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) is produced and the co-protease activity of the RecA protein is activated by binding to ssDNA. The interaction between LexA and the nucleoprotein filament RecA/ssDNA results in autoprolytic cleavage of LexA and subsequently in *qnrB2* derepression (thick-line arrow). Induced expression of *qnrB2* leads to an increase in the ciprofloxacin minimal inhibitory concentration.

induction in  $\Delta$ lexA strains. Furthermore, we performed EMSA assays definitely proving that the identified LexA-binding site is functional. This study shows that *qnrB2* expression is regulated directly by LexA and induced by SOS-response activators including ciprofloxacin (Fig 4).

When we analysed the available allele promoter sequences of the other *qnr* determinants (accession numbers AY070235 and EU495238 for *qnrA1* and *qnrA3*, DQ460733 and AB187515 for *qnrS1* and *qnrS2*, EU917444 for *qnrC* and FJ228229 for *qnrD*), we did not see any evidence for a LexA-binding site around the initiation codon of *qnrA*, *qnrS* and *qnrC* alleles, but we identified a potential LexA-binding site upstream from the *qnrD* gene. Interestingly, phylogenetic analysis showed that *qnrB* and *qnrD* are closer to one another than to the other *qnr* determinants (Baquirin & Barlow, 2008; Cavaco et al, 2009; Wang et al, 2009a). Furthermore, QnrB2 protein has been shown to protect DNA gyrase more efficiently than QnrA, and to inhibit DNA gyrase supercoiling activity at high concentrations (Jacoby et al, 2006). Other gyrase-protecting proteins, such as MfpA and Gyrl, have also been shown to inhibit DNA gyrase supercoiling activity, and it has been suggested that this feature could have a cost in terms of bacterial fitness (Robicsek et al, 2006a). Furthermore, it has been speculated that Qnr proteins would have physiological functions other than quinolone resistance, such as resistance to naturally occurring toxins that inhibit DNA gyrase, such as CcdB and MccB17 (Ellington & Woodford, 2006). Indeed, it has been shown that McbG, a Qnr-like protein, protects DNA gyrase against MccB17, which also induces the SOS response (Herrero & Moreno, 1986). Thus, direct *qnrB* regulation through the SOS response might have two benefits, first by limiting the fitness cost

of *qnrB* expression, and second by providing protection against natural stressors and toxins that are deleterious for DNA gyrase.

The presence of *qnr* determinants only leads to slightly increased resistance to fluoroquinolones, but these determinants considerably facilitate the emergence of higher-level resistance (Jacoby, 2005). In *E. coli*, this latter effect depends on the increased mutation ability conferred by the non-essential polymerases Pol II, Pol IV and Pol V on LexA-cleavage-mediated derepression of their respective genes (*polB*, *dinB* and *umuDC*; Cirz et al, 2005). Thus, *qnrB*-mediated quinolone resistance and increased mutation ability are two events triggered by the same signal, namely the SOS response. Upregulation of the quinolone-resistance gene *qnrB* by ciprofloxacin in a RecA/LexA-dependent manner is thus one more example of the involvement of the SOS system in the evolution of bacterial antibiotic resistance. Indeed, the SOS system is known to be induced by a variety of antibiotics (ciprofloxacin, rifampicin,  $\beta$ -lactams and trimethoprim) and has been implicated in the spread of antibiotic resistance by promoting horizontal dissemination of antibiotic-resistance genes (Beaber et al, 2004) or mutations (Cirz et al, 2005). All these observations identify LexA as a potential target for the development of inhibitor molecules to delay the emergence of multidrug-resistant bacteria.

This description of the direct SOS-dependent regulation of an antibiotic-resistance mechanism has clinical implications. Indeed, we found that *qnrB2*-mediated quinolone resistance is induced in response to the antibiotic itself even at sub-inhibitory concentrations. This is probably the case for all *qnrB* genes given the presence of a conserved LexA-binding site. Indeed, during the reviewing process of this study, Wang et al also identified the LexA-binding site upstream from *qnrB* alleles and showed by PCR experiments after reverse transcription that expression of several *qnrB* determinants (*qnrB1–4*) was increased in response to SOS inducers including ciprofloxacin (Wang et al, 2009b). Thus, a *qnrB*-containing strain does not express quinolone resistance in non-inducing conditions (silent resistance gene), but this resistance will be activated under selective antibiotic pressure. This is an important observation with respect to preventing the dissemination of resistance genes, and should be taken into account in the management of infectious disease treatments and in future antibiotic policies.

## METHODS

**Bacterial strains and culture conditions.** All bacteria were grown in Brain Heart Infusion at 37 °C. Antibiotics, when required, were used at the following concentrations: kanamycin 25  $\mu$ g/ml and ampicillin 100  $\mu$ g/ml. Mitomycin C was added at a final concentration of 0.8  $\mu$ g/ml, ciprofloxacin at 0.025  $\mu$ g/ml, and glucose and arabinose at 1%. MG1656 $\Delta$ *sfIA* $\Delta$ *lexA* (referred to as MG1656 $\Delta$ *lexA*) and MG1656 $\Delta$ *recA* were constructed by three-step PCR as described in Chaverche et al (2000) and at <http://www.pasteur.fr/recherche/unites/Ggb/3SPCRprotocol.html>. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are summarized in supplementary Table S2 online.

**Plasmid construction.** Plasmids were constructed as detailed in the supplementary information online.

**5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends.** 5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends was performed as recommended by the manufacturer (Invitrogen, Cergy Pontoise, France). Total RNAs were extracted from cultures of *S. enterica* serovar Keurmassar (Garnier et al,

2006). Gene-specific primers GSP1-*qnrB2*, GSP2-*qnrB2* and GSP3-*qnrB2* were used (supplementary Table S3 online).

**Minimal inhibitory concentration determination.** MICs were determined as recommended by CLSI (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; <http://www.clsi.org>), and were evaluated three times.

**$\beta$ -Galactosidase assay.** Overnight (o/n) cultures of cells containing pP*qnrB2-lacZ* were diluted 1:100 in Brain Heart Infusion supplemented with kanamycin and grown for 2 h before adding mitomycin C or ciprofloxacin. Cells were then grown for a further hour before the assay.  $\beta$ -Galactosidase-specific activity was measured as described in Miller (1992), except that the temperature was set at 37 °C.

**Electrophoresis mobility shift assay.** Overexpression and purification of the *E. coli* LexA protein encoded by pUA1107 were performed as described earlier (Abella et al, 2004). EMSA probes were obtained by PCR amplification using oligonucleotides qnrB-EMSA-5 and qnrB-EMSA-3 (supplementary Table S3 online), and were end-labelled with [ $\gamma$ <sup>32</sup>P]ATP (Amersham, Saclay, France) using T4 polynucleotide kinase (Promega, Charbonnières, France). EMSA experiments were performed as described elsewhere (Abella et al, 2004), using various amounts of purified LexA, 20 ng of one of the radiolabelled DNA probes in the binding mixture and 1.4  $\mu$ g of unlabelled probe for competition experiments. Samples were separated in 5% non-denaturing Tris-glycine-EDTA polyacrylamide gel, then dried and exposed to storage Phosphor Screen (Perkin-Elmer, Courtaboeuf, France). Images were digitized with a Cyclone scanner.

**Supplementary information** is available at *EMBO reports* online (<http://www.emboreports.org>).

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#### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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