Cellular and immunological mechanisms mediate reservoir host specialization by genotypically variable microparasites

Yi-Pin Lin[1,2#]*, Danielle M. Tufts[3#], Alan P. Dupuis, II[1], Matthew Combs[3], Ashley L. Marcinkiewicz[1], Andrew D. Hirsbrunner[1], Alexander J. Diaz[1], Jessica L. Stout[1], Anna M. Blom[4], Klemen Strle[1], April D. Davis[1], Laura D. Kramer[1,2], Maria A. Diuk-Wasser[3]*

[1]Division of Infectious Diseases, Wadsworth Center, New York State Department of Health, Albany, NY, USA, [2]Department of Biomedical Sciences, State University of New York at Albany, NY, USA, [3]Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Environmental Biology, Columbia University, New York, NY USA, [4]Division of Medical Protein Chemistry, Department of Translational Medicine, Lund University, Malmo, Sweden

Short title: Early defense and pathogen adhesiveness confer spirochete host specialization

Key words: Lyme disease, Host specialization, *Borrelia*, Early immune responses, Adhesion

[#]Contributed equally to this work

*correspondence: Yi-Pin Lin, Ph.D.
                  Division of Infectious Disease,
                  Wadsworth Center, New York State Department of Health
                  120 New Scotland Ave., Albany, NY 12047
                  Telephone: 518-402-2233; Fax: 518-473-1326
                  Email: Yi-Pin.Lin@health.ny.gov

*correspondence: Maria A. Diuk-Wasser, Ph.D.
                  Department of Ecology, Evolution, and Environmental Biology,
                  Columbia University
                  1200 Amsterdam Ave., New York, NY 10027
                  Telephone: 212-854-3355
                  Email: mad2256@columbia.edu

ABSTRACT (289 words)

Host specialization is an ecological and evolutionary process by which a pathogen becomes differentially adapted to a subset of hosts, restricting its host range. For parasites transmitted by generalist vectors, host specialization is not expected to evolve because of the high cost to lose infections in hosts. Adaptation strategies mediating the process of host specialization thus occur. The causative agent of Lyme disease is multiple species of bacteria, *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato species complex (*Bb*sl), and these bacteria are suited to study host specialization as birds and rodents appear to carry different species of these bacteria. Debate exists about whether there is a host specialization among the strains within a particular species of *Bb*sl, such as *B. burgdorferi* sensu stricto (*Bb*ss). Current evidence supports some *Bb* strains widespread in white-footed mice but others in non-rodent vertebrates, such as birds. To recapitulate that in the laboratory and define the mechanisms for host specialization, we introduced different genotypes of *Bb*ss via tick transmission to American robins and white-footed mice, the Lyme disease reservoirs in North America. Among these strains, we found distinct levels of spirochete presence in the bloodstream and tissues and maintenance by these animals in a host-dependent fashion. We showed that the late stage persistence of these strains largely corresponds to bacterial survival at early infection onsets. We also demonstrated that those early survival phenotypes correspond to spirochete adhesiveness, evasion of complement-mediated killing in sera, and/or not triggering high levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines and antibodies. Our findings thus link host competence to *Bb*ss with spirochete genotypic variation of adhesiveness and inducing/escaping host immune responses, illuminating the potential mechanisms that dictate host specialization. Such information will provide a foundation for further investigation into multi-disciplinary processes driving host specialization of microparasites.

AUTHOR SUMMARY (200 words)

Host specialization arises when microparasites adapt to a subset of available hosts, restricting the host ranges they can infect. The molecular basis and selective pressures for the evolution of host specialization remain unclear. The causative agent of Lyme disease (LD), the bacteria species complex of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato, is adapted to different vertebrates. However, whether such a differential host adaption also applies to each genotype within the same species is under debate. Further, the mechanisms that drive such host specialization are unclear. We thus introduced three genotypes of one LD bacteria species (*B. burgdorferi* sensu stricto) individually via tick bite to American robins and white-footed mice, the most common LD reservoirs in North America. We found that these genotypes differed in the persistent maintenance by those reservoirs and occurred in a host-specific fashion. The ability of those bacteria for long-term maintenance is linked with their capability to attach to cells and lack of induction of high levels of immune responses at early infection onsets. This work demonstrates the potential mechanisms that dictate host specialization of LD bacteria circulating in natural populations. Such information will pave the road to define the molecular, ecological and evolutionary determinants that drive host-microparasite interactions.

INTRODUCTION

The range of hosts a parasite can infect is arguably one of the most important properties of a parasite because it can determine, among other things, whether a parasite can survive the extinction of a host species and whether it can become established and spread following its introduction to a new area (1, 2). For vector-borne microparasites, host-specialization (defined as the ecological and evolutionary process by which a pathogen becomes differentially adapted and thus restricts its host range to a subset of potential hosts) is expected to evolve when vectors are specialized to competent hosts, as it would lead to microparasite amplification. However, it is much less obvious how and when host-specialization in a vector-borne microparasite can occur when vectors are host-indiscriminate. Given the significant cost incurred when microparasites are inoculated into incompetent hosts, the evolution of host specialization is only expected to occur when it provides a significant selective advantage for the microparasite to overcome cellular or immunological barriers to infection.

The spirochetes of the *B. burgdorferi* sensu lato (s.l.) species complex, the agents of Lyme disease, represent an ideal system to investigate the tradeoffs involved in the evolution of host specialization. *B. burgdorferi* s.l. is maintained in an enzootic cycle between generalist ticks of the *Ixodes ricinus* complex and reservoir hosts, including small and medium-sized mammals, birds, and reptiles (3-5). Despite being transmitted by the same generalist vector, some *Borrelia burgdorferi* s.l. genospecies in Europe are almost exclusively associated with a host taxa (e.g. *B. afzelii* in rodents; *B. garinii* in avian hosts). In contrast, *B. burgdorferi* sensu stricto (hereafter *B. burgdorferi*) in North America is considered a host generalist as it has been isolated from multiple classes of vertebrate animals including mammalian and avian hosts (3, 6-8). However, laboratory infection studies indicate that *B. burgdorferi* fitness varies in different hosts (9, 10). In natural

populations, weak associations have been found between hosts and particular *B. burgdorferi*

genotypes defined by polymorphic markers, such as *ospC* or 16S-23S rRNA intergenic spacer type

(RST) (11-13). An intriguing possibility is that the partially and regionally constrained host

associations observed in *B. burgdorferi* genotypes represent an incipient evolutionary process of

host specialization (4, 12, 14-17). That is, *B. burgdorferi* may be on an evolutionary path to

diversify into host specialized genospecies, similar to the *B. burgdorferi* s.l. genospecies in Europe.

However, the molecular processes underlying such diversification and the extent to which they

would drive genome-wide diversification in *B. burgdorferi* s.l. remain under debate.

Multiple-niche polymorphism (MNP), or diversifying selection, has been proposed as a

balancing selection mechanism maintaining the diversity of *B. burgdorferi* genotypes through

adaptation to host 'niches' (11, 12, 18, 19). This model was applied to the maintenance of the

polymorphism in OspC, one of the most diverse Lyme borreliae antigens that is heavily targeted

by the vertebrate immune system (20-22). Alternatively (or concurrently), the OspC

polymorphism could be maintained in a host-independent manner, through negative frequency-

dependent selection, a form of balancing selection driven by adaptive immune response. Thus,

bacterial populations carrying rare genotypes have a selective advantage over common genotypes

and are thus maintained in the population (14, 17, 23-25). Theoretical studies have examined

patterns of OspC diversity predicted by proposed eco-evolutionary mechanisms in different

ecological settings (25-28), but a mechanistic understanding of the cellular and immunological

mechanisms mediating strain-host interactions is critical to disentangle these multiple co-occurring

selective pressures.

In this study, we simultaneously assessed cellular and immunological mechanisms that mediate

strain-host interactions using three strains to represent variable *ospC* genotypes of *B. burgdorferi*

and North American rodent and avian reservoir hosts, American robins (hereafter robins) and

white-footed mice (*Peromyscus leucopus*), respectively. We aimed to determine which cellular

and immunological mechanisms mediate variation in strain-host fitness, measured as the efficiency

of *B. burgdorferi* transmission to feeding larval ticks. Specifically, we identified genotypic

differences across *B. burgdorferi* interacting with hosts in (1) the role of complement inhibition

and inflammation induction; (2) the role of bacterial adhesion; (3) the role of antibodies in driving

late stage persistence in specific hosts and (4) transmission efficiency to larval ticks. By

characterizing these mechanisms, we aimed to identify plausible selective pressures that shape the

composition of *B. burgdorferi* strain community, its diversity and population dynamics.

RESULTS

***B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differed in their adhesiveness to fibroblasts, *ex vivo*
cytokine induction, and infection establishment in robins and *Peromyscus* mice.** To study the

genotypic variation for *B. burgdorferi* and its capability to initiate infection in reservoir hosts, the

cloned *B. burgdorferi* strains B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 belonging to different genotypes and

displaying similar growth rates *in vitro* were used in this study (Table S1 and Fig. S1). Bacterial

burdens at inoculation sites of skin and in blood were determined at 1 day after each of these strains

was intradermally introduced into robins and white-footed mice. We did not detect any of these

strains in robin blood (Fig. S2A), in agreement with no hematogenous dissemination at such an

early time point (29). However, we found that B31-5A4 and cN40 showed higher spirochete

burdens at the initial injection sites, compared to mock-infected robins (Fig 1). The injection sites

from only two out of four 297-inoculated robins had spirochete burdens higher than detection

limits (10 bacteria per 100ng of DNA from tissues), leading to non-significant differences in the

levels of colonization from mock-infected robins (Fig. 1A). Similarly, we did not observe

spirochete burdens higher than detection limits of any of these strains in the blood of white-footed

mice (Fig. S2B). We observed the levels of B31-5A4 and 297 higher than detection limit at the

inoculation site (~10^2 bacteria per 100ng of DNA); only two of five white-footed mice produced

cN40 bacterial loads greater than the detectable threshold limit, resulting in non-significant

differences in burdens from mock-infected mice (Fig. 1B). These findings indicate B31-5A4, 297,

and cN40 have the capacity to establish infection selectively in robins and white-footed mice.

As the burdens of *B. burgdorferi* during infection initiation can be attributed to differences in

spirochete attachment to cells or clearance by host inflammatory responses, we incubated B31-

5A4, 297, and cN40 with fibroblasts isolated from robin or white-footed mouse for 1h and

determined the levels of bacterial attachment using fluorescent microscopy (Fig. S3). A non-

adhesive *B. burgdorferi* strain B314 was also included as control (Table S1). We found that B31-

5A4, 297, and cN40 bind to robin fibroblasts at greater levels compared to B314 (Fig. 1C and D).

Whereas B31-5A4 and cN40 bound to robin fibroblasts more than 2.9-fold higher levels than 297

(Fig. 1C), B31-5A4 and 297 attached to white-footed mouse fibroblasts at least 1.6-fold higher

levels than cN40 (Fig. 1D). To determine whether B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 trigger differential

pro-inflammatory responses in fibroblasts from different reservoir origins, we measured the

expression levels of the genes encoding pro-inflammatory cytokines, IFNγ and TNF, or the

proteins related to these cytokines after incubating cells with each of the spirochete strains for 24h.

The expression levels of housekeeping genes (18S rRNA and β-actin) were also included as

controls. We did not detect significantly higher levels of expression for each of the genes in any

spirochete-treated cells, compared to mock-treated cells, until the spirochete to cell ratio reached

1:100 (Fig. 1E to J and S4). At spirochete to cell ratio at 1:100, the B31-5A4- or cN40-treated

robin fibroblasts expressed similar levels of tested cytokines to the cells under mock treatment while 297-incubated cells had 4.2- and 5.8-fold greater expression of IFNγ and TNF-induced protein than mock-treated cells, respectively (Fig. 1F and G). Conversely, while white-footed mouse fibroblasts incubated with B31-5A4 or 297 expressed those cytokines indistinguishably from mock-treated cells, cN40-treated cells showed a 4.6- and 30.1-fold higher expression of IFNγ and TNF, respectively, than the cells under mock treatment (Fig. 1I and J). These results suggest that *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differ in their fibroblast adhesiveness and cytokine induction in a host-dependent fashion.

Ticks acquired different levels of *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 from robins and white-footed mice infected with each of these spirochetes strains. To compare the reservoir host competence to B31-5A4, 297, and cN40, we assessed spirochete transmission from host to feeding larvae. Unfed *I. scapularis* nymphs were allowed to feed on robins or white-footed mice until repletion (Fig. 2A). We subsequently measured bacterial loads in fed nymphs and found indistinguishable burdens between these ticks (~10^4 bacteria per nymph), indicating no differences of the ability for any tested strain to survive in fed nymphs (Fig. S5).

We then placed *I. scapularis* larvae on robins or white-footed mice at different time points to determine spirochete burdens and the percent positivity of spirochete-positive larvae (Fig. 2A). The spirochete burdens in uninfected (control) robin-derived larvae were below the detection limit of the burdens (10 bacteria per tick), resulting in zero spirochete positivity at 14, 28, 35, and 56 days post nymph feeding (dpf) (Fig. 2B to F and Table 1). At least 18% of larvae feeding on B31-5A4-, 297-, or cN40-infected robins were spirochete positive at all time points with greater than detection limits of bacterial loads, indicating robins' ability to persistently maintain and transmit

these strains (Fig. 2C to F and Table 1). The percent positivity of fed larvae carrying cN40 were

at least 1.7-fold greater than those harboring 297 at all four time points and more than 1.5-fold

higher than those carrying B31-5A4 at 28, 35, and 56 dpf (p < 0.05, Fig. 2B and Table 1). Moreover,

the cN40-infected larvae had greater than 4.8-fold higher bacterial loads than the 297-infected

larvae at all time points and more than 6.8-fold greater than those in B31-5A4-infected larvae at

28, 35, and 56dpf (Fig. 2C to F). These data suggest that the cN40 is maintained and transmitted

more efficiently in robins than B31-5A4 and 297.

Similarly, we found bacterial burdens lower than detection limits in the larvae feeding on

uninfected (control) mice, resulting in zero spirochete positivity (Fig. 2G to K, Table 1). At least

9% of the larvae feeding on B31-5A4-, 297-, or cN40-infected mice were positive throughout the

experiment (Fig. 2G and Table 1) with bacterial loads higher than detection limits (Fig. 2H to K),

except that larvae infected with cN40 had similar spirochete burdens to uninfected mouse-derived

larvae at 56dpi. These data indicate the ability of white-footed mice to maintain and transmit these

strains. We found 1.3 and 1.2-fold lower spirochete positivity in larvae infected with 297,

compared to that in larvae infected with B31-5A4 at 28 and 35 dpf, respectively (p< 0.05, Fig. 2G

and Table 1 (Fig. 2I and J). Finally, the larvae infected with cN40 showed more than 2.9-fold lower

spirochete positivity (p < 0.05, Fig. 2G and Table 1) and had at least 69-fold less bacterial burdens

than B31-5A4- and 297-infected ticks throughout the experiments (Fig. 2H to K). These data

suggest less capability of white-footed mice to maintain and transmit cN40 than B31-5A4 or 297.

***B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 varied in their capability to trigger bacteremia and**

persistently colonize robins and white-footed mice. We next determined the ability of B31-5A4,

297, and cN40 to survive in the bloodstream of robins and white-footed mice (Fig. 2A). We found

that robins infected with cN40 develop greater levels of bacteremia at 7, 14, and 21dpf than the

uninfected robins, which had undetectable levels of spirochete burdens (10 bacteria per 100ng

DNA, Fig. 3A to C). However, this strain was under detection limits at 28dpf, consistent with early

transient bacteremia triggered by Lyme borreliae (Fig. 3D) (30). The robins infected with 297 had

spirochete burdens not detected until 14dpf that then dwindled to undetectable levels at 21dpf (Fig.

3A to C). Though B31-5A4 was capable of inducing bacteremia in robins at 7 and 14dpf, this strain

did not stay detectable at 21dpf (Fig. 3A to C). These results indicate the ability of cN40 to induce

long-lasting bacteremia in robins, compared to other strains, and 297 displayed delayed onsets of

bacteremia. Like uninfected robins, uninfected white-footed mice did not have bacteremia at the

levels above the detection limit throughout the experiment, and no spirochetes were detected in

any *B. burgdorferi*-infected mouse blood at 21 and 28dpf (Fig. 3E and H). B31-5A4 and 297 were

detectable in the mouse blood at 7 and 14 dpf (3 and 4 out of 5 mice) at higher levels of bacteremia

than uninfected mice ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 3E and F). However, the majority of mice infected with cN40

did not have detectable bacteremia (3/5 and 5/5 mouse blood had burdens below detection limits

at 7 and 14dpf, respectively) (Fig. 3E and F). These data suggest that cN40 is less capable of

surviving in the white-footed mouse bloodstream than B31-5A4 and 297, in contrast to results

derived from robins.

We also evaluated the ability of B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 to colonize robins and white-footed

mice tissues and be detectable after animals were sacrificed at 64dpf (Fig. 2A). Robins infected

with each of these strains had greater spirochete burdens in skin than uninfected robins, bacterial

loads of which were undetectable ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 3I). In addition, spirochetes were detected at

greater burdens in the heart and brain of cN40-infected robins and the heart of robins infected with

B31-5A4, compared to respective tissues from uninfected robins ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 3J and K).

However, the average burdens of B31-5A4, 297 or cN40 in the livers from spirochete-infected

robins were below detection limits (Fig. 3L). These data showed persistent skin colonization of

strains B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 in robin, but the ability of each strain to colonize other tissues

varied (Fig. 3I to L). We also measured the bacterial burdens at 64dpf in the tissues from white-

footed mice infected with each of these strains. We detected spirochetes in ears, tibiofemoral joints,

heart and bladder from mice infected with B31-5A4 or 297 ($\sim 10^2$ to 10^3 bacteria per 100ng of

DNA from tissues). Such burdens were greater than those in uninfected mice throughout the

experiment (Fig. 3M to P). However, the spirochete loads in cN40-infected mouse tissues were

undetectable (Fig. 3M to P). These findings demonstrated the ability of B31-5A4 and 297 but not

cN40 to persistently colonize white-footed mice.

Robin but not white-footed mouse complement differentiated the ability of *B. burgdorferi*

B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 to survive in sera. To define the capability of B31-5A4, 297, and cN40

to evade complement-mediated killing, we evaluated the percent survival after incubation of these

strains individually with the sera from uninfected robins or white-footed mice by counting the

number of motile bacteria under microscopes. More than 95% of all tested strains including a

serum sensitive control strain, *B. burgdorferi* B313 (31), survived in heat inactivated robin sera,

in which the heat sensitive components such as complement were not functional (Fig. 4A and

Table S1). Less than 16% of B313 remained motile, verifying the bactericidal activity of these

robin sera (Fig. 4A). More than 85% of B31-5A4 and cN40 were alive, but only 50% of 297 was

motile after incubated with robin sera (Fig. 4A). However, all strains survived at similar levels

(greater than 80% of live spirochetes) in the sera pre-treated with OmCI, which inactivates robin

complement by abolishing the lytic activity towards gram negative bacteria (Fig. 4B) (32). These

results indicate that the 297 is more vulnerable to robin complement-mediated killing than B31-

5A4 and cN40. We also determined the ability of spirochete strains to evade killing by white-

footed mouse complement in the similar fashion. Greater than 95% of B313, B31-5A4, 297, and

cN40 survived in heat inactivated *Peromyscus* mouse sera (Fig. 4C). Whereas only 29% of B313

remained motile after treated with these sera, more than 97% of other tested strains were alive in

the sera (Fig. 4C). More than 93% of tested strains remained motile in white-footed mouse sera

pre-treated with CVF, which inactivates mammal complement (Fig. 4D) (33). These results

indicate that all tested strains evade the killing by white-footed mouse complement at

indistinguishable levels.

Robins and white-footed mice generated different levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines in

response to early infection of *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40. We compared the levels

of pro-inflammatory cytokines, IFNγ and TNFα, in the sera derived from robin- and white-footed

mice at different times during the infection. We found similar levels of IFNγ and TNFα in robins

prior to the infection among different infection groups ($p > 0.05$, Fig. 5A and E). At 7dpf, though

robins infected with B31-5A4 or cN40 displayed no significantly different levels of those

cytokines from uninfected robins, robins infected with 297 produced 2.5 to 4-fold greater levels

of IFNγ and TNFα than those uninfected birds, respectively (Fig. 5B and F). These levels

diminished to baseline at 14dpf. In contrast to robins at 7dpf, mice infected with cN40 displayed

3.2- to 11.4-fold higher levels of these cytokines than uninfected mice at this time point,

respectively, while mice infected with 297 had no different levels of those cytokines, compared to

uninfected mice (Fig. 5J and N). Note that mice infected with B31-5A4 had slightly greater levels

of IFNγ ($p < 0.05$, Fig. 5J) but no significantly different levels of TNFα at 7dpf ($p > 0.05$, Fig. 5N),

compared to uninfected mice. These data indicate differences of pro-inflammatory cytokine

induction by each of these spirochete strains, particularly at early stages of robin and white-footed

mouse infection.

Robins and white-footed mice developed distinct levels of bactericidal antibodies during

early infection of *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40. We aimed to quantitatively measure

the levels of antibodies induced by the infection of B31-5A4, 297, and cN40. To avoid the

confounding factors of strain-specific antibody recognition observed previously (10, 34), we

mixed these strains and determined the IgG titers against such mixtures in robins infected with

B31-5A4, 297, or cN40. We found that the robins infected with either strain develop higher anti-

spirochete IgG titers than uninfected robins at 14, 21, and 28dpf (Fig. 6C to E). cN40 triggered

greater levels of such IgGs than other strains at 21 and 28 dpf whereas 297 induced IgG titers

higher than those titers triggered by other strains at 7dpf (Fig. 6B, D and E). Further, we found that

white-footed mice infected with each of these strains have anti-spirochete IgG titers at more robust

levels than uninfected mice at 14, 21, and 28dpf (Fig. 6G to J). cN40 induced lower titers of such

IgG at 21 and 28dpf but higher titers at 7dpf, compared B31-5A4 and 297 (Fig. 6G, I and J). These

results indicate that B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differ in their ability to induce antibodies, and such

differences depend on the hosts and infection onset.

The levels of antibodies against B31-5A4, 297, or cN40 at 7dpf in robins and *Peromyscus* mice

negatively corresponded to the ability of these hosts to carry spirochetes (Fig. 2B and G). This

finding raised a hypothesis that such correspondences are mediated by bactericidal activities of

those antibodies. We thus tested this hypothesis by incubating the mixture of B31-5A4, 297, and

cN40 with different dilution rates of sera from robins or white-footed mice infected with each of

these strains at 7dpf. We found that B31-5A4- and cN40-derived robin sera did not kill spirochetes

at any of the tested dilution rates, similar to sera from uninfected robins. However, 297-derived

sera eliminated 50% of spirochetes at the dilution rate of 1:52× (Fig. 6K). Conversely, B31-5A4-

and 297-derived white-footed mouse sera did not eliminate spirochetes, similar to the sera from

uninfected mice. However, cN40-derived sera eliminated 50% of spirochetes at the dilution rate

of 1:32× (Fig. 6L). These finding showed different levels of bactericidal activities from the

antibodies produced by B31-5A4-, 297-, or cN40-infected robins and white-footed mice early

during infection.

DISCUSSION

Theory predicts that generalist vectors should select for generalist pathogens, to minimize their

loss to incompetent hosts. Host-specialized genospecies in *B. burgdorferi* s.l. thus represent a

paradox, with the intriguing possibility of incipient host specialization within genotypes of the

generalist *B. burgdorferi*. We present evidence of molecular mechanisms that differentially

influence the ability of three strains of *B. burgdorferi* to colonize, disseminate to distal tissues,

evade host immune responses, and transmit from the host to feeding ticks between two

representative natural hosts (Fig. 7). We found that cellular and immunological mechanisms act

mostly synergistically, resulting in increased fitness of strain cN40 in robins and 297 in white-

footed mice. Contrary to theoretical expectations, strain B31-5A4 was able to efficiently infect

both hosts, with higher fitness than the 'white footed mouse-specialized' strain, 297, and

intermediate fitness in robins. The synergistic nature of those cellular and immunological

mechanisms indicates a strong selective pressure for the evolution of host specialization, as

predicted by the MNP theory. However, the highest overall fitness of B31-5A4 does not support

the existence of tradeoffs, with this strain having very high fitness in both representative hosts.

This higher fitness advantage is consistent with the greater overall prevalence for the genotype of

this strain (RST type 1/OspC type A) circulated in Lyme disease prevalent regions of North

America (10, 13, 35-38).

Multiple mechanisms were tested in this study for their role in contributing to host specialization

of *B. burgdorferi*. At one day after intradermal infection of spirochetes, we found that *B.*

burgdorferi B31-5A4 and cN40 colonized robin inoculation sites (skin tissue) more efficiently

than 297, whereas B31-5A4 and 297 colonized the inoculation sites of white-footed mice at higher

levels than cN40. We also found that these strains differed in their capability to attach to robin and

white-footed mouse skin fibroblasts *in vitro*. These results showed that strain-to-strain variability

of fibroblast adhesion is host-dependent and corresponds to the ability of *B. burgdorferi*

spirochetes to colonize the inoculation sites of these hosts immediately after infection. This

supports prior findings of Lyme borreliae strains varying in their adhesive activities (39),

demonstrating the role of such cellular processes (adhesion) in conferring strain-host associations.

However, the levels of robin fibroblast adhesion of B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 did not perfectly

agree to strain colonization of other tissues (e.g. brain and liver) in robins at 64 days after fed on

by *B. burgdorferi*-infected nymphs. Additionally, strain 297 colonized robin skin at similar levels

to B31 or cN40 at 64 dpf, but this strain attached to robin fibroblast at lower levels than other

strains. These disagreements between fibroblast adhesion/early colonization of inoculation sites

and tissue colonization at later stages suggest the possibility of adhesion-independent mechanisms

to determine strain-host associations. In fact, the complement system is the first line of immune

defense in vertebrate animal sera and confers Lyme borreliae clearance as soon as infection begins

(40, 41). Our findings of greater percentages of B31-5A4 and cN40 surviving in robin sera,

compared to those of 297, mirror the trends of these spirochete strains maintained at earlier

infection onsets (e.g. 14 dpf) and early bloodstream survival of *B. burgdorferi* (e.g. 7 dpf). These

results imply that the host complement plays a role in determining spirochete genotype-specific

robin competence. In contrast, all three *B. burgdorferi* strains showed similar levels of survival in

the presence of white-footed mouse sera, suggesting a non-complement defense mechanism to

dominate the association of white footed mice with these spirochetes.

In fact, cytokines are generally triggered shortly after pathogen invasions, often leading to

activation of different pathways and downstream bactericidal responses as a bottleneck of infection

initiation (i.e. recruitment of innate and adaptive immune cells) (42-46). *Borrelia burgdorferi*

strain-to-strain variability in inducing pro-inflammatory cytokines has been observed in humans,

M. musculus, and *P. leucopus* mice or from cells derived from these animals (47-53). In humans,

the levels of multiple cytokines are positively correlated with disease severity but are independent

from spirochete burdens (47, 48, 54-56). We found that three tested *B. burgdorferi* strains differed

in their ability in robins and white-footed mouse fibroblasts to induce the expression of two pro-

inflammatory cytokines and their related proteins, IFNγ, TNFα, and TNFα-induced proteins. Such

differences also matched the variation of these strains to trigger IFNγ and TNFα during early

infection. The ability of these strains to induce those pro-inflammatory cytokines were negatively

associated with the larvae percent positivity from the infection of these *B. burgdorferi* strains.

These results raised the hypothesis that less robust host cytokine induction by spirochetes

facilitates reservoir competence, and differences in cytokine induction by genotypically distinct

spirochetes shape Lyme borreliae-reservoir associations.

Following the induction of innate immune responses, the adaptive responses including

antibodies are essential in Lyme borreliae clearance by vertebrates (42, 57, 58). Distinct levels of

antibodies have been observed during the infection by different spirochete strains (10, 59). We

observed at 7 dpf that 297 and cN40 trigger higher titers of anti-*B. burgdorferi* IgG in robins and

white-footed mice, respectively, compared to other spirochete strains. Furthermore, *B. burgdorferi*

was selectively eliminated by the sera collected at 7dpf from robins infected with 297 or white-

footed mice infected with cN40, suggesting that the antibody response varies among different

spirochete strain-host pairings. Interestingly, a previous study showed variable IgG levels against

lp36- and lp28-1-derived proteins in white-footed mice infected with different *B. burgdorferi*

strains (10). However, those lp36- and lp28-1-derived proteins were generated from a *B.*

burgdorferi strain (*B. burgdorferi* strain B31), leading to the possibility that allelic-specific

recognition is the result of antigenic sequence variation among spirochete strains (10, 34, 60-62).

Thus, that finding does not rule out the possibility of the antibodies against other spirochete

proteins to confer *B. burgdorferi* clearance. Our finding of early antibody-mediated bactericidal

activities in robin and white-footed mouse sera highlights the potential role of antibodies in

dictating pathogen-host associations. We observed high titers of antibody responses at late time

points (21 and 28 dpf) in robins infected with cN40 and mice infected with B31-5A4- or 297.

Nonetheless, cN40 is persistently maintained in robins whereas B31-5A4 and 297 efficiently

survive in long term in white-footed mice. Such observations are consistent with the evidence of

pathogen-specific antibodies present in persistently infected animals (63-65). These results thus

suggest inefficient spirochete elimination by those antibodies at later stages of infection. That

inefficient pathogen killing could be because of the onset-dependent reduction of highly antigenic

spirochete proteins (i.e. downregulation of OspC at late infection onsets) (66-70), constantly

changing features of antigen sequences to evade antibody responses (i.e. VlsE) (71-73), or the

rapid dissemination of spirochetes to the sites less vulnerable to antibody-mediated clearance (74).

Our results suggest spirochete adhesiveness and early immune responses as the cellular and

immunological mechanisms that differentially confer spirochete fitness in reservoir-strain-host

combinations (Fig. 7). Both mechanisms could play in concert to determine *B. burgdorferi* strain-

to-strain variation in host fitness. Our findings support previous studies which determined that

some polymorphic Lyme borreliae proteins confer these immune response functions in a variant-

specific manner, and such manner is host dependent. (30, 31, 60, 63, 64, 75-80). The potential for

host specialization caused by genome-wide diversification has been illustrated by the recent

definition of a new species of *B. burgdorferi* s.l., *B. bavariensis*, which was previously considered

as a genotype of the avian associated species, *B. garinii*. Such a redefinition is based on the

variations in chromosomal housekeeping genes and the association of this species with rodents,

unlike other *B. garinii* strains (81). This reclassification reflects to how host adaptation can lead to

speciation in Lyme borreliae (82). Prior field studies along with our current laboratory evidence

showing incipient host specialization raises the possibility of diversification of *B. burgdorferi* in

North America into multiple genospecies. Here, we used a controlled laboratory setup to

demonstrate distinct differences in fitness of North American Lyme disease reservoir hosts to

different *B. burgdorferi* strains. The molecular mechanisms supported by our findings here provide

a potential model of how specific adaptations may lead to specialization even with a significant

cost in lost propagules to incompetent hosts. The identified mechanisms can illuminate future

modeling studies of parasite-host dynamics that can be validated in local populations and increase

the understanding of the associations between hosts and microparasites.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics statement. All experiments involved in American robins (*Turdus migratorius*) and white-footed mice (*Peromyscus leucopus*) were performed in strict accordance with all provisions of the Animal Welfare Act, the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, and the PHS Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Additionally, the protocol was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of Wadsworth Center, New York State Department of Health (Protocol docket number 18-412 and 19-451), and Columbia University (Protocol docket number AC-AAAY2450), and City University in New York Advanced Science Research Center (Protocol number ASRC AUP 2016-20). To mist net robins, personnel were approved on scientific collecting permits (USFWS Collecting Permit MB035731; NYSDEC Permit #1236).

Bird, Mouse, Tick, and Bacterial strains. From June-July, 2019 and July, 2020, American robins were mist netted around the property of Griffin Laboratory of Wadsworth Center, New York State Department of Health at Albany, NY. This site was selected given previously reported low tick abundance, thus minimizing the probability of previous tick exposure. Sera were collected from 32 and 17 robins in 2019 and 2020, respectively, using BD Microtainer Capillary Blood Collector tubes (Fisher Scientific, Hampton, NH, USA) to assess previous infection with *B. burgdorferi* infection by the methods previously described (32). To confirm seronegative status, robins were quarantined for two weeks at 25°C on a 12L:12D (light: dark) cycle by housing them in cages with a wire bottom, under which a water moat was placed. If replete ticks were found while the birds were in quarantine, quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to determine the spirochete burdens in those ticks (see "Quantification of *B. burgdorferi* in infected ticks, tissues, and blood samples" for more details). The birds with spirochete positive ticks attached were removed from the

experiments. After two weeks of quarantine, those robins were subjected to additional serological

examination as described above, and 40 seronegative juvenile (hatch year) robins were considered

non-infectious and used in this study.

White-footed mice were purchased from the *Peromyscus* Genetic Stock Center at the University

of South Carolina (Columbia, SC). Non-sibling mice were bred in house at Columbia University.

Immunodeficient Fox Chase SCID mice (C.B.17 SCID) were obtained from Charles River (Boston,

MA) and used to generate infected nymphs for each *B. burgdorferi* strain as described in the

"Mouse infection experiments by ticks" section. *Ixodes scapularis* larvae were purchased from the

National Tick Research and Education Center, Oklahoma State University (Stillwater, OK). Mice

and birds were housed individually and maintained at 21 to 24°C on a 14L:10D (light: dark) cycle

and handled humanely. The *B. burgdorferi* strains used in this study were cultivated in BSK-II

completed medium as described in Table 1 (83).

Determination of spirochete growth curves and generation time. *Borrelia burgdorferi* strains

B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 were cultivated in BSK-II complete media at 33°C in the initial

concentration of 5×10^{6} ml^{-1}. The concentration of spirochetes was measured prior to incubation

and at 24-, 48-, 72-, 96-, 120-, 144-, and 168-h post incubation using a Nikon Eclipse E600 dark

field microscope (Nikon, Melville, NY). The generation time of each spirochete strain at the

exponential phase was calculated as described previously (84).

Robin, C.B.17 SCID mouse, and white-footed mouse infection by intradermal inoculation.

Four to eight week old of male or female white-footed mice, American robins, or C.B.17 SCID

mice were intradermally inoculated, using a 27-guage needle, with *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297,

cN40, or BSK-II medium without rabbit sera (1×10^5 bacteria per C.B.17 SCID mouse or 1×10^4

bacteria per robin or white-footed mouse) as a control (64). The plasmid profiles and the presence

of the shuttle plasmids of each of these *B. burgdorferi* strains were verified prior to infection to

ensure no loss of plasmids, as described previously (85-87). The C.B.17 SCID mice were

euthanized at 21 days post injection whereas both robins and white-footed mice were sacrificed at

one day post injection. The inoculation site of the skin and blood from robins and white-footed

mice were collected to quantitatively evaluate spirochete burdens as described in the

"Quantification of *B. burgdorferi* in infected ticks, tissues and blood samples" section.

Quantification of *B. burgdorferi* in infected ticks, tissues, and blood samples. The white-footed

mouse- or robin-derived replete nymphs were mixed with glass beads and homogenized by a

Precellys 24 High-Powered Bead Mill Homogenizer (Bertin, Rockville, MD). DNA was extracted

from blood and tissues of white-footed mouse and robin and homogenized ticks using an EZ-10

Genomic DNA kit (Biobasic, Amherst, NY). The quantity and quality of DNA for each tissue

sample was assessed by measuring the concentration of DNA and the ratio of the UV absorption

at 280 to 260 using a nanodrop 1000 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA). The amount of DNA used in this study was 100 ng for each sample, and the

280:260 ratio was between 1.75 to 1.85, indicating the lack of contamination by RNA or proteins.

qPCR was performed to quantitate bacterial loads. *Borrelia burgdorferi* genomic equivalents were

calculated using an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR system (ThermoFisher Scientific)

in conjunction with PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher Scientific), based on

amplification of the *B. burgdorferi 16S rRNA* gene using primers 16S rRNAfp and 16S rRNArp

(Table S2), as described previously (88). Cycling parameters for SYBR green-based reactions

were 50°C for 2 min, 95°C for 10 min, 45 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, and 60°C for 1 min. The number

of *16S rRNA* copies was calculated by establishing a threshold cycle (Cq) standard curve of a

known number of *16S rRNA* gene copies extracted from *B. burgdorferi* strain B31, and compared

to the Cq values of the experimental samples. To assure low signals were not simply a function of

the presence of PCR inhibitors in the DNA preparation, we included in all five samples of blood,

tibiofemoral joints, and bladders of white-footed mice and the skin, brain, and heart of robins in

the B31-5A4 experimental group to amplify β-actin from *P. leucopus* (pActfp and pActrp) and

robins (rActfp and rActrp) (Table S2) as an internal standard (64, 89). Note that the primers used

to determine the expression of the genes encoding robin actin were based on the mRNA sequences

that were translated to protein (Genbank Accession number: PYHW01009720.1) from a closely

related avian host, rufous-bellied thrush (*Turdus rufiventris*) due to the lack of sequence

information of American robin actin. As predicted, we detected 10^7 copies of the actin gene from

100ng of each DNA sample in robins and white-footed mice, ruling out the presence of PCR

inhibitors in these samples.

Isolation of robin fibroblasts. The procedures to isolate robin fibroblasts were described

previously (90). Five 5mm × 5mm sections of skin were removed from the breast of the euthanized

robins, plucked of feathers, washed twice in PBS buffer, and then incubated in the transferring

solution until the next step was ready to be performed. The constituents of transferring solution

include Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) (Wadsworth media & tissue culture core)

with glucose (4.5mg ml^{-1}) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO), sodium pyruvate (110mg l^{-1}) (Sigma-

Aldrich), L-glutamine (ThermoFisher Scientific), supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum (ThermoFisher Scientific), 2% heat-inactivated chicken serum (Biowest, Riverside,

MO, USA), and antibiotics (100U ml^{-1} of mixture of penicillin and streptomycin) (ThermoFisher

Scientific). The skin was then submerged in 70% ethanol (Sigma-Aldrich) for 30s, minced using

sterile scalpels, and placed in collagenase B at 37°C overnight (ThermoFisher Scientific). We then

applied the mixture of the cells to a 20µm cell strainer and spun down the samples. The pellets

containing fibroblasts were re-suspended in growth media and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2.

Growth media has the same components as transferring solution except it is supplemented with

amphotericin B (ThermoFisher Scientific) to a concentration of 0.25µg/ml. The cells were

harvested by trypsinization using Trypsin (0.25% trypsin in DMEM media, ThermoFisher

Scientific) and used in the spirochete attachment experiment.

Determination of the levels of spirochete attachment to robin and white-footed *mouse*

fibroblasts. The primary fibroblasts from the neck skin of American robins (see the previous

section) and ears of *P. leucopus* acquired commercially (#AG22353, Coriell Institute for Medical

Research, Camden, NJ) were cultivated on cover slips in 24-well plates (2×10^5 cells per well).

Borrelia burgdorferi strains B31-5A4, 297, cN40, or B314 were suspended in BSK-II medium

and added to prepared plates (2×10^6 spirochetes per well). The plates were centrifuged at 106g

for 5 min and then rocked at room temperature for 1 h. After removing unbound bacteria through

washing each well with PBS containing 0.2% BSA, the bound bacteria and cells on the cover slips

were fixed using 100% chilled methanol for 1h followed by blocking with PBS containing 0.2%

BSA for 1 h. After washing with PBS containing 0.2% BSA, the cover slips were incubated with

a fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated goat anti-*B. burgdorferi* polyclonal antibody

(Abcam, Cambridge, MA) for 1h and mounted using ProLong Gold antifade mountant with DAPI

fluorescent stain (ThermoFisher Scientific). The spirochetes (green) and the DNA from

spirochetes and the nuclei of fibroblasts (blue) were then visualized under overlaid FITC and DAPI

filters using an Olympus BX51 fluorescence microscope (Olympus Corporation, Waltham, MA)

(Fig. S3). The number of spirochetes from three fields of view were counted in four independent

events. The results were presented as the average number of spirochetes per 50 fibroblast cells.

Determination of the relative expression levels of the genes encoding IFNγ and TNF or TNF-

induced proteins in fibroblasts by qRT-PCR. The procedures for the examination of expression

levels in the genes encoding cytokines of fibroblasts were described previously (53). In brief, the

primary fibroblasts from robins and white-footed mice were cultivated in 24-well plates (2×10^5

cell per well). When the cells were greater than 80% confluent, *B. burgdorferi* strains B31-5A4,

297, or cN40 suspended in BSK-II medium were added to corresponding wells on each plate ($2 \times$

10^6 and 2×10^7 spirochetes per well for the cell to spirochete ratio (MOI) of 1:10 and 1:100,

respectively) for 24h. The cells incubated with BSK-II medium without bacteria (mock-treated

cells) were included as a control.

After incubation, the supernatant was removed, and the cells were washed with PBS buffer.

These fibroblasts were then suspended in Trizol (ThermoFisher Scientific) at room temperature

for 1h to inactivate RNase. The procedure of RNA extraction was performed using Direct-Zol

RNA MiniPrep Plus Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA) as previously described (84), and DNA was

removed using RQ1 RNase-Free DNase (Promega, Madison, WI). We then synthesized cDNA

using these RNA samples (1 µg per sample) by qScript cDNA SuperMix (Quanta Bioscience,

Beverly, MA). The expression levels of the house keeping genes encoding the 18S rRNA gene

from robins (Genbank Accession number: M59402.1) or white-footed mice (Genbank Accession

number: AY591913.1) were included as controls. The primers used to quantitate the expression of

the genes encoding white-footed mouse IFNγ, TNF, and 18S rRNA, and robin IFNγ, TNFα-

induced proteins, and 18S rRNA are listed in Table S2 (89). Note because of the lack of the

sequence information of robin cytokines, the primers to determine the expression of these

cytokines are based on the mRNA sequences of IFNγ (Genbank Accession number:

PYHW01010552.1) and TNFα-induced proteins (Genbank Accession number: PYHW01009717.1)

from Rufous-bellied thrush (*Turdus rufiventris*). The quantity and quality of cDNA for each

sample was evaluated by obtaining the concentration of DNA and the ratio of the UV absorption

at 260 and 280 using a Nanodrop 1000 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA).

The resulting ratio between 1.75 and 1.85, indicated the lack of RNA or protein contamination.

Samples were applied to an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher) in

conjunction with PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (ThermoFisher) to detect the expression

levels of the above-mentioned genes. The cycling parameters were 50°C for 2 min, 95°C for 10

min, and 45 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, and 49°C for 1 min, and the resulting values of threshold

cycles (Cq) were determined from duplicate experiments in three independent events. The relative

expression of the genes encoding IFNγ, TNF, TNF-induced proteins, or 18S rRNA was presented

by normalizing the Cq-derived from each of these cytokines to that of β-actin from respective

animals through the following equation (Equation 1).

$$\textit{cytokine expression relative to actin} = 2^{-(Cq(cytokines)-Cq(actin))} \text{ (Equation 1)}$$

Generation of *B. burgdorferi*-infected nymphal ticks. Four-week-old male and female C.B.17

SCID mice were injected with a concentration of 1×10^5 of either *B. burgdorferi* strain B31-5A4,

297, or cN40 via subcutaneous injection. The plasmid profiles and the presence of the shuttle

vector of each of these *B. burgdorferi* strains were verified prior to injection to ensure no loss of

plasmids, as previously described (85-87). The SCID mice inoculated with BSK-II media without

rabbit sera were used to generate uninfected nymphs. A 3 sq. mm. of ear biopsy was collected 7

days post injection from each mouse inoculated with a *B. burgdorferi* strain and DNA was

extracted using a DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD). DNA from ear tissue

was subjected to qPCR analysis to verify infection in each host (31). At 14 days post injection,

approximately 200 larvae were placed in the ears of anesthetized mice using a paint brush. Mice

were anesthetized with isoflurane for 45 min to allow larvae to attach before being housed

individually in water bath cages, and the larvae were allowed to feed to repletion, as described

previously (31, 91). Engorged larvae were collected, cleaned with 10% bleach and 70% ethanol

solutions, and stored in an incubator at 21°C, 95% relative humidity, and a 14L:10D light: dark

cycle. Larvae molted into the nymphal life stage in approximately 4-6 weeks and were used in the

subsequent experiments with *P. leucopus* mice and robins.

Robin and white-footed mouse infection by nymphs. The timeline of experimental procedures

is provided in Fig. 2. Basically, the unfed nymphs carrying B31-5A4, 297, cN40 or unfed,

uninfected nymphs were placed in the ear canals of each mouse. Mice were maintained under

anesthesia for 60 min to allow nymphs to attach before being placed individually in water bath

cages. Approximately 100 to 150 xenodiagnostic larvae were placed on each mouse at 14, 28, 35,

and 56 days post nymph feeding using the aforementioned procedure. To permit flat nymphs to

feed on robins, robins were placed into a PVC pipe (~2.5-3.0 inches in diameter; 10 inches in

length) as described (92). After the unfed nymphs carrying B31-5A4, 297, cN40 or unfed,

uninfected nymphs were placed on these robins (10 nymphs per bird), the PVC pipes were covered

by a fine mosquito net ('no-see-um' netting, Skeeta, Bradenton, FL) that was secured with a rubber

band and then moved into the cages with wired bottom, under which the moat is located. These

tick-infested robins were kept in a dark room for 1h to minimize grooming and allow ticks to attach

before they were released and returned to the cages. To allow xenodiagnostic larvae feed on robins,

approximately 100 to 200 naïve larvae were placed on robins restrained in the PVC pipes as

described above at 14, 28, 35, and 56 days post nymph feeding.

Blood samples were collected from each animal (robins and *P. leucopus* mice) prior to nymph

feeding and at 7, 14, 21, and 28 days post nymph feeding. The skin, heart, liver, and brain from

robins and the ears, tibiofemoral joints, heart, and bladder from *P. leucopus* mice were obtained at

64 days post nymphs feeding. The blood, tissues and replete nymphs derived from each animal

were applied to qPCR to determine spirochete burdens as described in the section "Quantification

of *B. burgdorferi* in infected ticks, tissues, and blood samples".

Serum resistance assays. Serum resistance of *B. burgdorferi* strains was determined as described

previously with modifications (31, 84). The mid-log phase of *B. burgdorferi* strains B31-5A4, 297,

and cN40 as well as a high passage, serum sensitive strain B313 (negative control) were cultivated

in triplicate. The resulting spirochete culture was diluted to a final concentration of 5×10^6 bacteria

per milliliter into BSK-II medium without rabbit sera. The cell suspensions were mixed with sera

collected from naïve white-footed mice or robins (60% spirochetes and 40% sera) in the presence

or absence of 2μM of cobra venom factor (CVF) or recombinant *Ornithordorus moubata*

complement inhibitor (OmCI). The generation of recombinant OmCI has been described

previously (32). The sera incubated at 65°C for 2-h (heat-inactivated sera) were included as a

control. At 0- and 4-h following incubation with sera, the number of motile spirochetes was

measured under dark field microscopy. The percent survival of *B. burgdorferi* was calculated by

the normalization of motile spirochetes at 4-h post incubation to that immediately after incubation

with sera.

Determination of the relative levels of IFNγ and TNFα in sera by ELISA. Due to the lack of

commercially available ELISA kits to detect robin cytokines, the kits for chicken IFNγ

(ThermoFisher) and TNFα (Genorise, Glen Mills, PA) were used to measure the levels of those

cytokines in robins based on the absorption values derived from ELISA. Similarly, the ELISA kits

to determine the levels of IFNγ and TNFα from house mouse (*Mus muscuslus*) (Tonbo Bioscience,

San Diego, CA) were utilized to detect those cytokines in white-footed mice. We observed the

antibodies in the ELISA kits cross reacted with IFNγ and TNFα from robins and white-footed mice.

However, the recombinant proteins provided in these kits to generate standard curves were based

on the sequences from chicken and house mouse IFNγ and TNFα, potentially leading to the

inaccuracy of quantification for those cytokines by normalizing the results obtained from robin

and white-footed mouse samples to standard curves. Therefore, we chose to present reservoir

animal cytokines as relative levels (arbitrary unit; A.U.), similar to the previous study (93). In brief,

the monoclonal capture antibodies that recognized chicken or house mouse IFNγ or TNFα were

coated on microtiter plate wells. After blocked by 5% PBS-BSA, the different dilution (1:100×,

1:300×, or 1:900×) of sera from robins and white-footed mice at 0, 7, 14, or 21 days post nymph

feeding were added to the wells. Wells were washed using PBST buffer (PBS with 0.5% of Tween

20) and the detection of antibodies against chicken or house mouse IFNγ or TNFα were incubated

for 1 h at room temperature. The wells were then washed with PBST buffer and subsequently

mixed with a tetramethyl benzidine solution (ThermoFisher). The absorbance level was detected

at 620nm for 10 cycles of 60 s kinetic intervals with 10 s of shaking duration in a Sunrise

absorbance ELISA plate reader (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland). We then obtained the greatest

maximum slope of optical density/min per sample multiplied by respective serum dilution factors

to represent the relative levels of cytokines shown as arbitrary units.

Determination of the titers of the antibodies against spirochetes. The titers of IgG against

spirochetes were measured as described previously with modifications (94). Basically, microtiter

plate wells were coated with a mixture of *B. burgdorferi* B31, 297, and cN40 (1×10^6 spirochetes

per strain in a well). After blocking with 5% PBS-BSA, the sera from white-footed mice or robins

collected at 7, 14, 21, 28, and 56 days post nymph feeding were diluted in 50µl of PBS (1:100×,

1:300×, or 1:900×) and then added to the wells. After the samples were washed with PBST buffer,

the microtiter wells were incubated with antibodies that recognize the Fc region of IgG from *P.*

leucopus (1:1,000×, Serocare, Inc, Milford, MA), or wild bird (1:10,000×, Bethyl laboratory,

Montgomery, TX). After the addition of these antibodies, tetramethyl benzidine solution

(ThermoFisher) was added, and the absorbance was detected at 620nm for 10 cycles of 60 s kinetic

intervals with 10 s of shaking duration in a Sunrise absorbance ELISA plate reader (Tecan,

Männedorf, Switzerland). The values of greatest maximum slopes of optical density/min per

sample were multiplied by respective serum dilution factors as shown as arbitrary units,

representing antibody titers.

Borreliacidal assays. Sera collected from robins and white-footed mice at seven days post tick

feeding were used to measure the bactericidal activity against *B. burgdorferi* as described

previously (95). The complement in these serum samples was heat-inactivated by incubating these

samples at 55°C for 2h. The heat inactivated sera were serially diluted in BSK-II media without

rabbit sera followed by being mixed with complement-preserved sera from guinea pig (Sigma-

Aldrich) or chicken (Biowest, Riverside). Heat-inactivated guinea pig and chicken sera were

included as controls. *Borrelia burgdorferi* strains B31-5A4, 297, or cN40 (1×10^7 spirochetes per

strain) were then mixed prior to their addition to the reaction. At 24-h after incubation, the

surviving spirochetes were quantified by counting the motile bacteria under dark-field microscopy

and presented as the proportion of serum-treated to untreated spirochetes. We also calculated the

50% borreliacidal titer (BA), which represents the serum dilution rate that eradicates 50% of

spirochetes, using dose-response stimulation fitting in GraphPad Prism 5.04.

Statistical Analysis Significant differences between the samples were determined using the

Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli,

a two tailed Fisher exact test, or a Mann−Whitney U test. A P-value less than 0.05 was considered

significant.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Thomas Hart and Tristan Nowak for graph editing, and Jen Owen and Jean Tsao for

technical support in the protocol of tick infection in robins. We also thank Thomas Hart, Patricia

Lederman, Tristan Nowak, and Frank Blaisdell for the husbandry work to maintain tick colony

and robins. We are grateful for John Leong and George Chaconas for sharing the *B. burgdorferi*

strains B31-5A4, 297, and cN40, Sudha Chaturvedi allowing us to use her Bead Homogenizer,

Susan Madison-Antenucci allowing us to use her fluorescence microscope, and Noel Espina for

the assistance with that microscope. We thank Wadsworth Media & Tissue Culture Core for

preparation of *Borrelia* and American Robin and white-footed fibroblast culture medium. This

work was supported by NSF IOS-1755370 (DMT, MC and MDW), NSF-IOS1755286 (DMT, MC,

MDW, YL, ADII, ALM, JS, and LDK), New York State Department of Health Wadsworth Center

Start-Up Grant (ALM and YL). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and

analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. The authors declare that the research

was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed

as a potential conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1.　　Poulin R. KBR, Morand S. Micromammals and Macroparasites. Tokyo: Springer; 2006.

233-56 p.

2.　　Futuyma DJ, Moreno, G. The evolution of ecological specialization. Ann Rev Ecol Syst

1988;19:207-33.

3.　　Tufts DM, Hart TM, Chen GF, Kolokotronis SO, Diuk-Wasser MA, Lin YP. Outer surface

protein polymorphisms linked to host-spirochete association in Lyme borreliae. Molecular

microbiology. 2019.

4.　　Lin YP, Diuk-Wasser MA, Stevenson B, Kraiczy P. Complement Evasion Contributes to

Lyme Borreliae-Host Associations. Trends in parasitology. 2020;36(7):634-45.

5.　　O'Keeffe KR, Oppler ZJ, Brisson D. Evolutionary ecology of Lyme *Borrelia*. Infection,

genetics and evolution : journal of molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics in infectious

diseases. 2020:104570.

6.　　Kurtenbach K, De Michelis S, Etti S, Schafer SM, Sewell HS, Brade V, et al. Host

association of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato--the key role of host complement. Trends in

microbiology. 2002;10(2):74-9.

7.   Kurtenbach K, Peacey M, Rijpkema SG, Hoodless AN, Nuttall PA, Randolph SE.

Differential transmission of the genospecies of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu lato by game birds and

small rodents in England. Applied and environmental microbiology. 1998;64(4):1169-74.

8.   Kurtenbach K, Schafer SM, Sewell HS, Peacey M, Hoodless A, Nuttall PA, et al.

Differential survival of Lyme borreliosis spirochetes in ticks that feed on birds. Infection and

immunity. 2002;70(10):5893-5.

9.   Hanincova K, Ogden NH, Diuk-Wasser M, Pappas CJ, Iyer R, Fish D, et al. Fitness

variation of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto strains in mice. Applied and environmental

microbiology. 2008;74(1):153-7.

10.   Baum E, Hue F, Barbour AG. Experimental infections of the reservoir species *Peromyscus*

leucopus with diverse strains of Borrelia burgdorferi, a Lyme disease agent. mBio.

2012;3(6):e00434-12.

11.   Hanincova K, Kurtenbach K, Diuk-Wasser M, Brei B, Fish D. Epidemic spread of Lyme

borreliosis, northeastern United States. Emerging infectious diseases. 2006;12(4):604-11.

12.   Brisson D, Dykhuizen DE. *ospC* diversity in *Borrelia burgdorferi*: different hosts are

different niches. Genetics. 2004;168(2):713-22.

13.   Vuong HB, Canham CD, Fonseca DM, Brisson D, Morin PJ, Smouse PE, et al. Occurrence

and transmission efficiencies of *Borrelia burgdorferi ospC* types in avian and mammalian wildlife.

Infection, genetics and evolution : journal of molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics in

infectious diseases. 2014;27:594-600.

14.   Kurtenbach K, Hanincova K, Tsao JI, Margos G, Fish D, Ogden NH. Fundamental

processes in the evolutionary ecology of Lyme borreliosis. Nature reviews Microbiology.

2006;4(9):660-9.

15.   Haven J, Magori K, Park AW. Ecological and inhost factors promoting distinct parasite

life-history strategies in Lyme borreliosis. Epidemics. 2012;4(3):152-7.

16.   Qiu WG, Bosler EM, Campbell JR, Ugine GD, Wang IN, Luft BJ, et al. A population

genetic study of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto from eastern Long Island, New York, suggested

frequency-dependent selection, gene flow and host adaptation. Hereditas. 1997;127(3):203-16.

17.   Qiu WG, Dykhuizen DE, Acosta MS, Luft BJ. Geographic uniformity of the Lyme disease

spirochete (*Borrelia burgdorferi*) and its shared history with tick vector (*Ixodes scapularis*) in the

Northeastern United States. Genetics. 2002;160(3):833-49.

18.   Brisson D, Dykhuizen DE, Ostfeld RS. Conspicuous impacts of inconspicuous hosts on

the Lyme disease epidemic. Proc Biol Sci. 2008;275(1631):227-35.

19.   Brisson D, Baxamusa N, Schwartz I, Wormser GP. Biodiversity of *Borrelia burgdorferi*

strains in tissues of Lyme disease patients. PloS one. 2011;6(8):e22926.

20.   Xu Q, Seemanapalli SV, McShan K, Liang FT. Constitutive expression of outer surface

protein C diminishes the ability of *Borrelia burgdorferi* to evade specific humoral immunity.

Infection and immunity. 2006;74(9):5177-84.

21.   Tilly K, Krum JG, Bestor A, Jewett MW, Grimm D, Bueschel D, et al. *Borrelia burgdorferi*

OspC protein required exclusively in a crucial early stage of mammalian infection. Infection and

immunity. 2006;74(6):3554-64.

22.   Liang FT, Yan J, Mbow ML, Sviat SL, Gilmore RD, Mamula M, et al. *Borrelia burgdorferi*

changes its surface antigenic expression in response to host immune responses. Infection and

immunity. 2004;72(10):5759-67.

23.   Andersson M, Scherman K, Raberg L. Multiple-strain infections of *Borrelia afzelii*: a role

for within-host interactions in the maintenance of antigenic diversity? Am Nat. 2013;181(4):545-

54.

24.   Brisson D, Dykhuizen DE. A modest model explains the distribution and abundance of

Borrelia burgdorferi strains. The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene.

2006;74(4):615-22.

25.   Haven J, Vargas LC, Mongodin EF, Xue V, Hernandez Y, Pagan P, et al. Pervasive

recombination and sympatric genome diversification driven by frequency-dependent selection in

Borrelia burgdorferi, the Lyme disease bacterium. Genetics. 2011;189(3):951-66.

26.   Woolhouse ME, Taylor LH, Haydon DT. Population biology of multihost pathogens.

Science. 2001;292(5519):1109-12.

27.   Gog JR, Grenfell BT. Dynamics and selection of many-strain pathogens. Proceedings of

the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2002;99(26):17209-14.

28.   Barrett LG, Thrall PH, Burdon JJ, Linde CC. Life history determines genetic structure and

evolutionary potential of host-parasite interactions. Trends Ecol Evol. 2008;23(12):678-85.

29.   Barthold SW, Persing DH, Armstrong AL, Peeples RA. Kinetics of *Borrelia burgdorferi*

dissemination and evolution of disease after intradermal inoculation of mice. The American

journal of pathology. 1991;139(2):263-73.

30.   Caine JA, Lin YP, Kessler JR, Sato H, Leong JM, Coburn J. *Borrelia burgdorferi* outer

surface protein C (OspC) binds complement component C4b and confers bloodstream survival.

Cellular microbiology. 2017.

31.	Hart T, Nguyen NTT, Nowak NA, Zhang F, Linhardt RJ, Diuk-Wasser M, et al.

Polymorphic factor H-binding activity of CspA protects Lyme borreliae from the host complement

in feeding ticks to facilitate tick-to-host transmission. PLoS pathogens. 2018;14(5):e1007106.

32.	Frye AM, Hart TM, Tufts DM, Ram S, Diuk-Wasser MA, Kraiczy P, et al. A soft tick

Ornithodoros moubata salivary protein OmCI is a potent inhibitor to prevent avian complement

activation. Ticks and tick-borne diseases. 2020;11(2):101354.

33.	Finnie JA, Stewart RB, Aston WP. A comparison of cobra venom factor-induced depletion

of serum C3 in eight different strains of mice. Dev Comp Immunol. 1981;5(4):697-701.

34.	Ivanova L, Christova I, Neves V, Aroso M, Meirelles L, Brisson D, et al. Comprehensive

seroprofiling of sixteen *B. burgdorferi* OspC: implications for Lyme disease diagnostics design.

Clinical immunology. 2009;132(3):393-400.

35.	States SL, Brinkerhoff RJ, Carpi G, Steeves TK, Folsom-O'Keefe C, DeVeaux M, et al.

Lyme disease risk not amplified in a species-poor vertebrate community: similar *Borrelia*

burgdorferi tick infection prevalence and OspC genotype frequencies. Infection, genetics and

evolution : journal of molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics in infectious diseases.

2014;27:566-75.

36.	Wormser GP, Brisson D, Liveris D, Hanincova K, Sandigursky S, Nowakowski J, et al.

Borrelia burgdorferi genotype predicts the capacity for hematogenous dissemination during early

Lyme disease. The Journal of infectious diseases. 2008;198(9):1358-64.

37.	Jones KL, Glickstein LJ, Damle N, Sikand VK, McHugh G, Steere AC. *Borrelia*

burgdorferi genetic markers and disseminated disease in patients with early Lyme disease. Journal

of clinical microbiology. 2006;44(12):4407-13.

38.   Wang G, Ojaimi C, Wu H, Saksenberg V, Iyer R, Liveris D, et al. Disease severity in a

murine model of lyme borreliosis is associated with the genotype of the infecting *Borrelia*

burgdorferi sensu stricto strain. The Journal of infectious diseases. 2002;186(6):782-91.

39.   Parveen N, Robbins D, Leong JM. Strain variation in glycosaminoglycan recognition

influences cell-type-specific binding by lyme disease spirochetes. Infection and immunity.

1999;67(4):1743-9.

40.   Zipfel PF, Skerka C. Complement regulators and inhibitory proteins. Nature reviews

Immunology. 2009;9(10):729-40.

41.   Sjoberg AP, Trouw LA, Blom AM. Complement activation and inhibition: a delicate

balance. Trends in immunology. 2009;30(2):83-90.

42.   Tracy KE, Baumgarth N. *Borrelia burgdorferi* Manipulates Innate and Adaptive Immunity

to Establish Persistence in Rodent Reservoir Hosts. Frontiers in immunology. 2017;8:116.

43.   Hyde JA. Borrelia burgdorferi Keeps Moving and Carries on: A Review of Borrelial

Dissemination and Invasion. Frontiers in immunology. 2017;8:114.

44.   Liu N, Montgomery RR, Barthold SW, Bockenstedt LK. Myeloid differentiation antigen

88 deficiency impairs pathogen clearance but does not alter inflammation in *Borrelia burgdorferi*-

infected mice. Infection and immunity. 2004;72(6):3195-203.

45.   Bolz DD, Sundsbak RS, Ma Y, Akira S, Kirschning CJ, Zachary JF, et al. MyD88 plays a

unique role in host defense but not arthritis development in Lyme disease. Journal of immunology.

2004;173(3):2003-10.

46.   Troy EB, Lin T, Gao L, Lazinski DW, Camilli A, Norris SJ, et al. Understanding barriers

to *Borrelia burgdorferi* dissemination during infection using massively parallel sequencing.

Infection and immunity. 2013;81(7):2347-57.

47.   Strle K, Jones KL, Drouin EE, Li X, Steere AC. *Borrelia burgdorferi* RST1 (OspC type

A) genotype is associated with greater inflammation and more severe Lyme disease. The American

journal of pathology. 2011;178(6):2726-39.

48.   Cerar T, Strle F, Stupica D, Ruzic-Sabljic E, McHugh G, Steere AC, et al. Differences in

Genotype, Clinical Features, and Inflammatory Potential of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto

Strains from Europe and the United States. Emerging infectious diseases. 2016;22(5):818-27.

49.   Petzke MM, Iyer R, Love AC, Spieler Z, Brooks A, Schwartz I. *Borrelia burgdorferi*

induces a type I interferon response during early stages of disseminated infection in mice. BMC

microbiology. 2016;16:29.

50.   Mason LM, Herkes EA, Krupna-Gaylord MA, Oei A, van der Poll T, Wormser GP, et al.

Borrelia burgdorferi clinical isolates induce human innate immune responses that are not

dependent on genotype. Immunobiology. 2015;220(10):1141-50.

51.   Wang G, Petzke MM, Iyer R, Wu H, Schwartz I. Pattern of proinflammatory cytokine

induction in RAW264.7 mouse macrophages is identical for virulent and attenuated *Borrelia*

burgdorferi. Journal of immunology. 2008;180(12):8306-15.

52.   Kern A, Schnell G, Bernard Q, Boeuf A, Jaulhac B, Collin E, et al. Heterogeneity of

Borrelia burgdorferi Sensu Stricto Population and Its Involvement in *Borrelia* Pathogenicity:

Study on Murine Model with Specific Emphasis on the Skin Interface. PloS one.

2015;10(7):e0133195.

53.   Schramm F, Kern A, Barthel C, Nadaud S, Meyer N, Jaulhac B, et al. Microarray analyses

of inflammation response of human dermal fibroblasts to different strains of *Borrelia burgdorferi*

sensu stricto. PloS one. 2012;7(6):e40046.

54. Li X, McHugh GA, Damle N, Sikand VK, Glickstein L, Steere AC. Burden and viability

of *Borrelia burgdorferi* in skin and joints of patients with erythema migrans or lyme arthritis.

Arthritis and rheumatism. 2011;63(8):2238-47.

55. Jones KL, McHugh GA, Glickstein LJ, Steere AC. Analysis of *Borrelia burgdorferi*

genotypes in patients with Lyme arthritis: High frequency of ribosomal RNA intergenic spacer

type 1 strains in antibiotic-refractory arthritis. Arthritis and rheumatism. 2009;60(7):2174-82.

56. Dykhuizen DE, Brisson D, Sandigursky S, Wormser GP, Nowakowski J, Nadelman RB,

et al. The propensity of different *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto genotypes to cause

disseminated infections in humans. The American journal of tropical medicine and hygiene.

2008;78(5):806-10.

57. Barthold SW, Bockenstedt LK. Passive immunizing activity of sera from mice infected

with *Borrelia burgdorferi*. Infection and immunity. 1993;61(11):4696-702.

58. Fikrig E, Bockenstedt LK, Barthold SW, Chen M, Tao H, Ali-Salaam P, et al. Sera from

patients with chronic Lyme disease protect mice from Lyme borreliosis. The Journal of infectious

diseases. 1994;169(3):568-74.

59. Wang G, Ojaimi C, Iyer R, Saksenberg V, McClain SA, Wormser GP, et al. Impact of

genotypic variation of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto on kinetics of dissemination and severity

of disease in C3H/HeJ mice. Infection and immunity. 2001;69(7):4303-12.

60. Benoit VM, Fischer JR, Lin YP, Parveen N, Leong JM. Allelic variation of the Lyme

disease spirochete adhesin DbpA influences spirochetal binding to decorin, dermatan sulfate, and

mammalian cells. Infection and immunity. 2011;79(9):3501-9.

61.   Roberts WC, Mullikin BA, Lathigra R, Hanson MS. Molecular analysis of sequence

heterogeneity among genes encoding decorin binding proteins A and B of *Borrelia burgdorferi*

sensu lato. Infection and immunity. 1998;66(11):5275-85.

62.   Wilske B, Preac-Mursic V, Jauris S, Hofmann A, Pradel I, Soutschek E, et al.

Immunological and molecular polymorphisms of OspC, an immunodominant major outer surface

protein of *Borrelia burgdorferi*. Infection and immunity. 1993;61(5):2182-91.

63.   Lin YP, Tan X, Caine JA, Castellanos M, Chaconas G, Coburn J, et al. Strain-specific joint

invasion and colonization by Lyme disease spirochetes is promoted by outer surface protein C.

PLoS pathogens. 2020;16(5):e1008516.

64.   Lin YP, Benoit V, Yang X, Martinez-Herranz R, Pal U, Leong JM. Strain-specific variation

of the decorin-binding adhesin DbpA influences the tissue tropism of the lyme disease spirochete.

PLoS pathogens. 2014;10(7):e1004238.

65.   Isogai E, Tanaka S, Braga IS, 3rd, Itakura C, Isogai H, Kimura K, et al. Experimental

Borrelia garinii infection of Japanese quail. Infection and immunity. 1994;62(8):3580-2.

66.   Schwan TG, Piesman J, Golde WT, Dolan MC, Rosa PA. Induction of an outer surface

protein on *Borrelia burgdorferi* during tick feeding. Proceedings of the National Academy of

Sciences of the United States of America. 1995;92(7):2909-13.

67.   Hodzic E, Feng S, Freet KJ, Borjesson DL, Barthold SW. *Borrelia burgdorferi* population

kinetics and selected gene expression at the host-vector interface. Infection and immunity.

2002;70(7):3382-8.

68.   Hodzic E, Feng S, Freet KJ, Barthold SW. *Borrelia burgdorferi* population dynamics and

prototype gene expression during infection of immunocompetent and immunodeficient mice.

Infection and immunity. 2003;71(9):5042-55.

69. Bykowski T, Woodman ME, Cooley AE, Brissette CA, Brade V, Wallich R, et al. Coordinated expression of *Borrelia burgdorferi* complement regulator-acquiring surface proteins during the Lyme disease spirochete's mammal-tick infection cycle. Infection and immunity. 2007;75(9):4227-36.

70. Iyer R, Caimano MJ, Luthra A, Axline D, Jr., Corona A, Iacobas DA, et al. Stage-specific global alterations in the transcriptomes of Lyme disease spirochetes during tick feeding and following mammalian host adaptation. Molecular microbiology. 2015;95(3):509-38.

71. Zhang JR, Hardham JM, Barbour AG, Norris SJ. Antigenic variation in Lyme disease borreliae by promiscuous recombination of VMP-like sequence cassettes. Cell. 1997;89(2):275-85.

72. Verhey TB, Castellanos M, Chaconas G. Analysis of recombinational switching at the antigenic variation locus of the Lyme spirochete using a novel PacBio sequencing pipeline. Molecular microbiology. 2018;107(1):104-15.

73. Coutte L, Botkin DJ, Gao L, Norris SJ. Detailed analysis of sequence changes occurring during *vlsE* antigenic variation in the mouse model of *Borrelia burgdorferi* infection. PLoS pathogens. 2009;5(2):e1000293.

74. Shih CM, Telford SR, 3rd, Pollack RJ, Spielman A. Rapid dissemination by the agent of Lyme disease in hosts that permit fulminating infection. Infection and immunity. 1993;61(6):2396-9.

75. Lagal V, Portnoi D, Faure G, Postic D, Baranton G. *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto invasiveness is correlated with OspC-plasminogen affinity. Microbes and infection / Institut Pasteur. 2006;8(3):645-52.

76.   Rogers EA, Marconi RT. Delineation of species-specific binding properties of the CspZ

protein (BBH06) of Lyme disease spirochetes: evidence for new contributions to the pathogenesis

of Borrelia spp. Infection and immunity. 2007;75(11):5272-81.

77.   Wallich R, Pattathu J, Kitiratschky V, Brenner C, Zipfel PF, Brade V, et al. Identification

and functional characterization of complement regulator-acquiring surface protein 1 of the Lyme

disease spirochetes *Borrelia afzelii* and *Borrelia garinii*. Infection and immunity.

2005;73(4):2351-9.

78.   Hammerschmidt C, Koenigs A, Siegel C, Hallstrom T, Skerka C, Wallich R, et al. Versatile

roles of CspA orthologs in complement inactivation of serum-resistant Lyme disease spirochetes.

Infection and immunity. 2014;82(1):380-92.

79.   Alitalo A, Meri T, Comstedt P, Jeffery L, Tornberg J, Strandin T, et al. Expression of

complement factor H binding immunoevasion proteins in *Borrelia garinii* isolated from patients

with neuroborreliosis. European journal of immunology. 2005;35(10):3043-53.

80.   Xie J, Zhi H, Garrigues RJ, Keightley A, Garcia BL, Skare JT. Structural determination of

the complement inhibitory domain of *Borrelia burgdorferi* BBK32 provides insight into classical

pathway   complement   evasion   by   Lyme   disease   spirochetes.   PLoS   pathogens.

2019;15(3):e1007659.

81.   Margos G, Vollmer SA, Cornet M, Garnier M, Fingerle V, Wilske B, et al. A new *Borrelia*

species   defined   by   multilocus   sequence   analysis   of   housekeeping   genes.   Applied   and

environmental microbiology. 2009;75(16):5410-6.

82.   Norte AC, Margos G, Becker NS, Albino Ramos J, Nuncio MS, Fingerle V, et al. Host

dispersal shapes the population structure of a tick-borne bacterial pathogen. Mol Ecol. 2019.

83. Barbour AG. Isolation and cultivation of Lyme disease spirochetes. The Yale journal of

biology and medicine. 1984;57(4):521-5.

84. Marcinkiewicz AL, Dupuis AP, 2nd, Zamba-Campero M, Nowak N, Kraiczy P, Ram S, et

al. Blood treatment of Lyme borreliae demonstrates the mechanism of CspZ-mediated complement

evasion to promote systemic infection in vertebrate hosts. Cellular microbiology.

2019;21(2):e12998.

85. Purser JE, Norris SJ. Correlation between plasmid content and infectivity in *Borrelia*

burgdorferi. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America.

2000;97(25):13865-70.

86. Blevins JS, Hagman KE, Norgard MV. Assessment of decorin-binding protein A to the

infectivity of *Borrelia burgdorferi* in the murine models of needle and tick infection. BMC

microbiology. 2008;8:82.

87. Chan K, Casjens S, Parveen N. Detection of established virulence genes and plasmids to

differentiate *Borrelia burgdorferi* strains. Infection and immunity. 2012;80(4):1519-29.

88. Marcinkiewicz AL, Lieknina I, Yang X, Lederman PL, Hart TM, Yates J, et al. The Factor

H-Binding Site of CspZ as a Protective Target against Multistrain, Tick-Transmitted Lyme

Disease. Infection and immunity. 2020;88(5).

89. Izuogu AO, McNally KL, Harris SE, Youseff BH, Presloid JB, Burlak C, et al. Interferon

signaling in *Peromyscus leucopus* confers a potent and specific restriction to vector-borne

flaviviruses. PloS one. 2017;12(6):e0179781.

90. Calhoon EA, Miller, M. K., Jimenez, A. G., Harper, J. M., Williams, J. B. Changes in

cultured dermal fibroblasts during early passages across five wild bird species. Canadian Journal

of Zoology. 2013;91:653-9.

91.   Kern A, Zhou CW, Jia F, Xu Q, Hu LT. Live-vaccinia virus encapsulation in pH-sensitive

polymer increases safety of a reservoir-targeted Lyme disease vaccine by targeting gastrointestinal

release. Vaccine. 2016;34(38):4507-13.

92.   Johnston E, Tsao JI, Munoz JD, Owen J. *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* infection in

American robins and gray catbirds: an assessment of reservoir competence and disease in captive

wildlife. Journal of medical entomology. 2013;50(1):163-70.

93.   Varkey R, Du Q, Karnell JL, Xiao X, Casey KA, Woods R, et al. Discovery and

characterization of potent IL-21 neutralizing antibodies via a novel alternating antigen

immunization and humanization strategy. PloS one. 2019;14(1):e0211236.

94.   Lin YP, Yu Y, Marcinkiewicz AL, Lederman P, Hart TM, Zhang F, et al. Non-

anticoagulant Heparin as a Pre-exposure Prophylaxis Prevents Lyme Disease Infection. ACS

Infect Dis. 2020;6(3):503-14.

95.   Marcinkiewicz AL, Lieknina I, Kotelovica S, Yang X, Kraiczy P, Pal U, et al. Eliminating

Factor H-Binding Activity of *Borrelia burgdorferi* CspZ Combined with Virus-Like Particle

Conjugation Enhances Its Efficacy as a Lyme Disease Vaccine. Frontiers in immunology.

2018;9:181.

96.   Burgdorfer W, Barbour AG, Hayes SF, Benach JL, Grunwaldt E, Davis JP. Lyme disease-

a tick-borne spirochetosis? Science. 1982;216(4552):1317-9.

97.   Leong JM, Moitoso de Vargas L, Isberg RR. Binding of cultured mammalian cells to

immobilized bacteria. Infection and immunity. 1992;60(2):683-6.

98.   Steere AC, Grodzicki RL, Kornblatt AN, Craft JE, Barbour AG, Burgdorfer W, et al. The

spirochetal etiology of Lyme disease. The New England journal of medicine. 1983;308(13):733-

40.

99.   Barthold SW, de Souza MS, Janotka JL, Smith AL, Persing DH. Chronic Lyme borreliosis

in the laboratory mouse. The American journal of pathology. 1993;143(3):959-71.

100.   Barthold SW, Beck DS, Hansen GM, Terwilliger GA, Moody KD. Lyme borreliosis in

selected strains and ages of laboratory mice. The Journal of infectious diseases. 1990;162(1):133-

8.

101.   Sadziene A, Wilske B, Ferdows MS, Barbour AG. The cryptic *ospC* gene of *Borrelia*

burgdorferi B31 is located on a circular plasmid. Infection and immunity. 1993;61(5):2192-5.

102.   Lin T, Oliver JH, Jr., Gao L. Genetic diversity of the outer surface protein C gene of

southern *Borrelia* isolates and its possible epidemiological, clinical, and pathogenetic

implications. Journal of clinical microbiology. 2002;40(7):2572-83.

103.   Wang IN, Dykhuizen DE, Qiu W, Dunn JJ, Bosler EM, Luft BJ. Genetic diversity of *ospC*

in a local population of *Borrelia burgdorferi* sensu stricto. Genetics. 1999;151(1):15-30.

104.   Chan K, Awan M, Barthold SW, Parveen N. Comparative molecular analyses of *Borrelia*

burgdorferi sensu stricto strains B31 and N40D10/E9 and determination of their pathogenicity.

BMC microbiology. 2012;12:157.

105.   Barbour AG, Travinsky B. Evolution and distribution of the *ospC* Gene, a transferable

serotype determinant of *Borrelia burgdorferi*. mBio. 2010;1(4).

1000

1001

1002

1003

1004

1005

TABLES

Table 1. The number of positive xenodiagnostic larval ticks collected from robins and white-footed mice.

dpf[a]	Positive xenodiagnostic larval ticks acquired from			
	Mice fed on by naïve nymphs	Mice fed on by nymphs carrying *B. burgdorferi*		
		B31-5A4	297	cN40
American robins				
14	0/44	39/44[b]	19/44[b,c]	41/55[b]
28	0/44	18/33[b,c]	11/44[b,c]	46/55[b]
35	0/44	11/33[b,c]	12/44[b,c]	34/55[b]
56	0/44	8/33[b,c]	7/44[b,c]	30/55[b]
White-footed mice				
14	0/55	47/55[b,c]	47/55[b,c]	16/55[b]
28	0/33	50/55[b,c]	40/55[b,c]	8/55[b]
35	0/33	51/55[b,c]	40/55[b,c]	9/55[b]
56	0/33	38/55[b,c]	35/55[b,c]	5/55[b]

[a]Days post nymph feeding.
[b]Difference compared with larvae from the mice fed on by naïve nymphs by two-tailed Fisher test.
[c]Difference compared with larvae from the mice fed on by nymphs carrying strain cN40 by two-tailed Fisher test.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 1. *B. burgdorferi* **B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differed in early colonization in robins and**

 white-footed mice and adhesion and cytokine triggering in these animals-derived fibroblasts.

 (A and B): (A) American robins and **(B)** white-footed (WF) mice were intradermally inoculated

 with 10^4 *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or with BSK-II medium without rabbit sera as

 mock infection ("Mock"). The inoculation site of skin from these robins and mice were collected

 at 1-day post infection (1dpi) to determine bacterial burdens by qPCR. The bacterial loads in the

 tissues or blood from robins or mice were normalized to 100 ng total DNA. Shown are the

 geometric mean ± geometric standard deviation of bacterial burdens in those tissues from four

 robins or mice per group. Significant differences (P < 0.05 by Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the

 two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli) in the spirochete burdens relative

 to the mock infected group are indicated ("*"). **(C and D):** *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, cN40,

 or B314 (negative control) (2×10^6 spirochetes) were incubated with fibroblasts (2×10^5 cells) from

 (C) American robins and **(D)** white-footed (WF) mice for 1 h. We mixed those cells with FITC-

 conjugated goat anti-*B. burgdorferi* polyclonal antibodies and visualized the spirochetes after

 fixation. Additionally, DAPI was incubated with these cells to localize the nuclei from fibroblasts.

 The levels of spirochete attachment were evaluated by counting the number of bacteria per 50 cells

 under fluorescence microscopy described in the section "Materials and Methods." Each bar

 represents the mean of four independent determinations ± standard deviation. Asterisks indicate

 the significant difference (P < 0.05) in spirochetal attachment relative to the strain B314

 determined by Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini,

 Krieger and Yekutieli. **(E to J):** Fibroblasts (2×10^5 cells) from **(E to G)** American robins and **(H**

 to J) white-footed (WF) mice were incubated for 24h with *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40

(2×10^7 of spirochetes for spirochete to cell ration (MOI) at 1:100). Cell media-treated fibroblasts

were included as control ("Mock"). After the RNA was extracted from these cells, the expression

levels of the genes encoding IFN-γ, TNF, or TNFα-induced protein and the constitutively

expressed gene, actin and 18rRNA, from robins and white-footed mice were determined using

quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction. The expression levels of the genes

encoding **(E and H)** 18srRNA, **(F and I)** IFNγ, **(G)** TNFα-induced protein, and **(J)** TNF are

presented by normalizing to the expression levels of the gene encoding actin. Each bar represents

the mean of three independent determinations ± SD. The asterisk ("*") indicates significant

differences ($P < 0.05$; Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini,

Krieger and Yekutieli) in the normalized expression levels of the gene encoding IFN-γ ,TNF, or

and TNFα-induced protein in fibroblasts treated with indicated spirochete strains relative to those

in mock-treated cells.

1060

Figure 2. *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 displayed strain-to-strain variation of

xenodiagnostics acquisition from robins and white-footed mice. (A) The experimental timeline

of infection. **(B to K):** *I. scapularis* nymphs carrying *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or

naïve nymphs (Uninfect.) were allowed to feed to repletion on **(B to F)** 3, 4, 5, or 4 American

robins, respectively, or **(G to K)** 5 white-footed (WF) mice per group of mice. Approximately 100

larval ticks were placed on each robin at the time points indicated in Fig. S1 to feed till repletion.

qPCR was used to determine spirochete burdens derived from 55 larvae feeding on the *B.*

burgdorferi-infected white-footed mice or 33, 44, 55, and 44 larvae feeding on robins fed on by

nymphs carrying B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or uninfected nymphs, respectively. **(B and F)** The

larvae were considered xenodiagnostic positive if their spirochete burdens were greater than the

threshold, the mean plus three-fold standard deviation of spirochete burdens in the uninfected group. Shown are the means ± 95% SEM of percent positive larvae. **(C to F and H to K)** Shown are the geometric means ± 95% geometric standard deviation of bacterial burdens in larvae that are allowed to feed on robins or white-footed (WF) mice at **(C and H)** 14, **(D and I)** 28, **(E and J)** 35, and **(F and K)** 56 days post nymph feeding (dpf). Significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli) in the spirochete burdens relative to larvae feeding on naïve robins or white-footed mice (''*'') or between different groups ("#") are indicated.

Figure 3. *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differed in their ability to induce bacteremia and colonize tissues in robins and white-footed mice. *I. scapularis* nymphs carrying *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or naïve nymphs (Uninfect.) were allowed to feed to repletion on **(A to D and I to L)** 3, 4, 5, and 4 American robins, respectively, or **(E to H and M to P)** 5 white-footed (WF) mice per group of mice. The bacterial loads in the blood at **(A and E)** 7, **(B and F)** 14, **(C and G)** 21, and **(D and H)** 28 days post nymph feeding (dpf) and in **(I)** skin, **(J)** heart, **(K)** brain, and **(L)** liver of robins and **(M)** ears, **(N)** tibiofemoral joints (Tibio.), **(O)** heart, **(P)** bladder of white-footed mice at 64 days post nymph feeding (dpf) were determined by qPCR. The bacterial loads in blood were normalized to 100 ng total DNA. Shown are the geometric mean ± geometric standard deviation of indicated number of robins or white-footed mice. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli) in the spirochete burdens relative to robins or white-footed mice fed on by naïve nymphs (''*'') are indicated.

Figure 4. *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 varied in their ability to survive in robin but not white-footed mouse sera. A high passage, non-infectious, serum sensitive *B. burgdorferi* strain B313 ("B313") or *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40 was incubated for 4-h with the sera from American robins at a final concentration of 40% in the **(A)** absence or **(B)** presence of 2 µM of OmCI. Each of these spirochete strains was also incubated for 4-h with the sera from white-footed (WF) mice at a final concentration of 40% in the **(C)** absence or **(D)** presence of 2 µM of CVF. The above-mentioned sera were also heat-inactivated and included as controls. The number of motile spirochetes was assessed microscopically. The percentage of survival for *B. burgdorferi* was calculated using the number of mobile spirochetes at 4-h post incubation normalized to that prior to the incubation with serum. The assays were performed at three independent occasions; within each experiment, samples were run in triplicate, and the survival percentage for each experiment was calculated by averaging the results from triplicate runs. The result shown here is the average ± standard deviation of the survival percentage from three independent experiments. (#), the significant difference ($P < 0.05$) of the percent survival of spirochetes between indicated groups was determined using Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli.

Figure 5. *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 triggered different levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines at early stages of robin and white-footed mice infection. *I. scapularis* nymphs infected with *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, cN40, or naïve nymphs (Uninfect.) were allowed to feed to repletion on **(A to H)** American robins or **(I to P)** white-footed (WF) mice. The sera were obtained **(A, E, I, and M)** prior to tick feeding or at **(B, F, J, and N)** 7-, **(C, G, K, and O)** 14-, or **(D, H, L, and P)** 21-days post nymph feeding ("dpf"). The levels of IFNγ **(A to D and**

I to L) and TNFα **(E to H and M to P)** were determined using quantitative ELISA as described

in Section "Materials and Methods." Shown are the geometric mean ± geometric standard

deviation of five white-footed mice per group or robins (3, 4, 5, and 4 for the strains B31-5A4-,

297-, cN40-infected robins or uninfected robins per group, respectively). Significant differences

($p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger

and Yekutieli) in the cytokine levels relative to robins or white-footed mice fed on by naïve

nymphs ("*") are indicated.

1124

Figure 6. *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 differed in the ability to induce antibodies

against spirochetes in robin and white-footed mice during infection. *I. scapularis* nymphs

infected with *B. burgdorferi* B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or naïve nymphs (Uninfect.) were allowed

to feed to repletion on **(A to E)** American robins or **(F to J)** white-footed (WF) mice. The sera

were obtained at **(A and F)** 0-, **(B and G)** 7-, **(C and H)** 14-, **(D and I)** 21-, or **(E and J)** 28-days

post nymph feeding ("dpf"). The levels of IgG against the mixture of *B. burgdorferi* strains B31-

5A4, 297, and cN40 (1×10^6 spirochetes per strain in each microtiter well) were determined using

quantitative ELISA as described in Section "Materials and Methods." Shown are the geometric

mean ± geometric standard deviation of five white-footed mice or robins per group (3, 4, 5, and 4

for the strains B31-5A4-, 297-, cN40-infected robins or uninfected robins per group, respectively).

Significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by the two-stage step-up method

of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli) in the antibody titers relative to robins or white-footed mice

fed on by naive nymphs ("*") are indicated. Sera from the **(K)** American robins and **(L)** white-

footed (WF) mice at 7 days after fed on by *I. scapularis* nymphs carrying *B. burgdorferi* strains

B31-5A4, 297, or cN40, or naïve nymphs (Uninfect.) were collected. These sera were serially

diluted as indicated and mixed with **(K)** chicken or **(L)** guinea pig complement and the mixture of

the strains B31-5A4, 297, and cN40 (1×10^7 spirochetes per strain in each reaction). After

incubation for 24- h, surviving spirochetes were quantified from three fields of view for each

sample microscopically. The experiment was performed at three independent occasions. The

survival percentage was derived from the proportion of serum-treated to untreated spirochetes.

Data shown are the mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of the survival percentage from three

replicates in one representative experiment. The 50% borreliacidal dilution of each serum sample

(50% BA), representing the dilution rate that effectively killed 50% of spirochetes, was obtained

from curve-fitting and extrapolation of data shown in the table above respective panels. The 50%

BA of some strain-sera pairs could not be determined because no robust killing was observed,

resulting in curves that did not fit (N.F.).

1151

Figure 7. The schematic diagram showing the model supported by this study. Upon *B.*

burgdorferi transmission from ticks to hosts, multiple cellular and immunological mechanisms

may play in concert to determine the fitness of spirochetes in hosts. These mechanisms include the

ability of *B. burgdorferi* to attach to cells or tissues (spirochete adhesiveness) and escape from host

immune clearance (early host defense), such as complement, cytokine-mediated responses, and

antibodies. Both mechanisms applied on spirochetes would lead to host specialization, resulting in

the association of *B. burgdorferi* with particular hosts (i.e. mammal or avian specialists).

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

A

Days post initial nymph feeding (dpf)

0 — 7 — 14 — 21 — 28 — 35 — 56 — 64

- 0: Place nymphs
- 7: Serum & blood collection
- 14: Xenodiag. larvae Serum & blood collection
- 21: Serum & Blood collection
- 28: Xenodiag. larvae Serum & blood collection
- 35: Xenodiag. larvae
- 56: Xenodiag. larvae
- 64: Tissue collection

B Robin — Spirochete percent positivity: cN40, B31-5A4, 297, Uninfect.

G WF mouse — Spirochete percent positivity: B31-5A4, 297, cN40, Uninfect. — Duration (days)

C 14dpf — Spirochete burdens (Bact. per tick): Uninfect., B31-5A4, 297, cN40

D 28dpf

E 35dpf

F 56dpf

H Spirochete burdens (Bact. per tick): Uninfect., B31-5A4, 297, cN40

I

J

K

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Fig. 7

1) **Spirochete adhesiveness**
2) **Early Host defense:**
   Complement
   Cytokine-mediated response
   Antibodies

Host specialization

Avian specialist

Mammalian specialist