1   Immunosuppression broadens evolutionary pathways to treatment failure during *Acinetobacter*

2   *baumannii* pneumonia

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Abstract

Acinetobacter baumannii is increasingly refractory to antibiotic treatment in healthcare settings. As is true of most human pathogens, the genetic path to antimicrobial resistance (AMR) and the role that the immune system plays in modulating AMR during disease are poorly understood. Here we reproduced several routes to fluoroquinolone resistance, performing evolution experiments using sequential lung infections in mice that are replete or depleted of neutrophils, providing two key insights into the evolution of drug resistance. First, neutropenic hosts acted as reservoirs for the accumulation of drug resistance during drug treatment. Selection for variants with altered drug sensitivity profiles arose readily in the absence of neutrophils, while immunocompetent animals restricted the appearance of these variants. Secondly, antibiotic treatment failure in the immunocompromised host was shown to occur without clinically defined resistance, an unexpected result that provides a model for how antibiotic failure occurs clinically in the absence of AMR. The genetic mechanism underlying both these results is initiated by mutations activating the drug egress pump regulator AdeL, which drives persistence in the presence of antibiotic. Therefore, antibiotic persistence mutations present a two-pronged risk during disease, causing drug treatment failure in the immunocompromised host while simultaneously increasing the emergence of high-level AMR.

Introduction

Acinetobacter baumannii is a Gram-negative opportunistic pathogen, one of the high-

priority ESKAPE organisms that are increasingly difficult to treat due to multiple antibiotic

resistance[1]. A significant proportion of healthcare-associated diseases caused by this group of

pathogens, such as ventilator associated pneumonia, is linked to their documented multi-drug

resistance (MDR) [2-5]. Of particular importance are patients in intensive care units (ICU) who are

critically ill and have depressed immunological clearance mechanisms that increase the risk of

infection by MDR pathogens [6,7]. As a consequence, the healthcare environment with its

immunologically compromised patients could provide a unique niche for selection of MDR isolates

[8]. Overlaying these issues is the fact that for many patients in healthcare settings, antibiotic

treatment failure is common but is often unexplained, as resistant organisms cannot be identified[9].

A. baumannii clinical isolates have demonstrated a remarkable ability to successfully battle

antibiotic treatment in the clinic, resulting from high intrinsic resistance to antimicrobials and the

acquisition of drug resistance elements by the organism[10,11,12, 13]. A critical missing link is a detailed

roadmap for the stepwise evolution of antibiotic resistance in the clinic, particularly in identifying

A. baumannii subpopulations most likely to give rise to drug treatment failure. Furthermore, it is

largely unknown if there exists a patient group that provides the reservoir for antimicrobial

resistance (AMR) acquisition. Particularly for healthcare-associated diseases, patient groups

susceptible to *A. baumannii* are by their nature compromised in a number of fashions, with the

potential for providing reservoirs for AMR evolution. The range of individuals with altered immune

function in these settings may allow for a diversity of host targets that can act as primary amplifiers

of resistance, with eventual spread to individuals with different sets of susceptibilities. Therefore,

as a model for healthcare-associated pneumonia we aimed to explore whether depletion of a single

arm of innate immunity in mice could help shape the antibiotic treatment outcome and support the

evolution of resistant organisms.

Fluoroquinolones (FQ) such as ciprofloxacin initially showed excellent activity against *A.*

baumannii infections[14]. Members of this drug class inhibit bacterial cell growth by covalently

linking to DNA gyrase (*gyrA*) and topoisomerase IV (*parC*), leading to double stranded DNA breaks

and cell death[15]. Drug resistant mutants arise fairly frequently in the clinic, with over 80% of

clinical isolates of *A. baumannii* currently being FQ resistant[16]. The most commonly reported

mechanisms of ciprofloxacin resistance in the clinic are target protein alterations and the

overexpression of efflux pumps. In *A. baumannii*, alterations in target proteins usually evolve in a

stepwise fashion, starting with *gyrA* (usually Ser81Leu) followed by *parC* (Ser83Leu). Interestingly,

in addition to the patient's underlying condition and hospitalization status, prior exposure to

fluoroquinolones is also a risk factor for *A. baumannii* colonization and infection[17], indicating that

resistance to this antibiotic class is linked to either increased pathogenic potential of the isolate or

is highly associated with acquisition of MDR. Unknown is whether there exist early adaptive

mutations that enable precursor populations of *A. baumannii* to act as ancestors to drug resistance.

There has been little study of whether AMR can be suppressed by the immune response.

Landmark mathematical modeling work argues that the immune response can largely limit the

outgrowth of persisters or other bacterial variants that exhibit intermediate resistance levels [18].

Another study indicates that the cytokine response may control waves of AMR variants[19]. Given the

limited analysis of how antibiotic resistance evolves in the clinic, and the lack of a detailed

interrogation of the role played by the immune response in controlling selection of AMR, we sought

to identify the steps that lead to resistance in the presence or absence of a single arm of innate

immunity.   The rationale behind this approach is that clinical antibiotic resistance is associated

with mutations located outside well-characterized drug targets, and these are difficult to identify

bioinformatically or predict based on culture studies [20-22]. This approach provides evidence that

absence of neutrophil function allows outgrowth of drug persisters and the appearance of

fluoroquinolone resistance. In so doing, we identified mutational pathways to drug resistance, with

the results tied to the problem of unexplained antibiotic treatment failure.

Results

Recapitulation of *Acinetobacter baumannii* evolved drug resistance during pneumonic

disease. We serially passaged *A. baumannii* 15 times within a mouse pneumonia model to analyze

the dynamics and genetic trajectories of resistance to the FQ antibiotic ciprofloxacin (CIP), with the

purpose of determining whether neutrophils play a role in suppressing drug resistance (Fig. 1A).

The CIP^S ATCC reference strain 17978 (AB17978) was passaged by oropharyngeal inoculation in

either immunocompetent animals or those depleted of neutrophils by pretreatment with two doses

of cyclophosphamide. It should be noted that this treatment also has other effects on the immune

system, including the possible reduction of monocyte populations, as well as suppressing T-cell

numbers [23,24]. Mice in three parallel lineages were CIP treated at 7- and 19- hours post infection

(hpi) and bacteria were collected from the lungs of animals euthanized at 27 hpi. The enriched

bacterial pools from each independent infection were used as inocula for the next round of

infection. The dynamics of bacterial yield was assessed from lung homogenates, and the CIP

minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of each population was determined followed by whole

genome sequencing of the heterogenous pool (mean genome coverage depth: 368.4).

Persistent neutropenia during successive passages quickly results in antibiotic

treatment failure. A striking result from the passage experiments is that the protocol allowed drug

resistant mutants to overgrow during passage in neutrophil-depleted animals, while the resistant

variants in the immunocompetent animal failed to reach high abundance in the population. After

each mouse passage in the presence of CIP, the efficiency of bacterial colonization of the lungs was

monitored by quantifying total bacterial colony forming units in the absence of drug (CFU).

Bacterial lung yields increased by 1000-fold in CIP-treated neutrophil-depleted mice over the

course of 15 passages, as compared to little increase in immunocompetent mice (Fig. 1B). After

each passage, we observed 10-fold higher colonization in the neutrophil-depleted compared to

immunocompetent mice. By passages 5-7, the lung bacterial load in the neutrophil-depleted mice

reached the size of the initial inoculum (10^8 CFU), and animals showed significant signs of disease

such as lacrimation, piloerection, and decreased mobility in spite of being CIP treated (Fig. 1B).

To determine levels of CIP resistance after each passage, the saved bacteria were quantified

on solid medium in the absence or presence of increasing amounts of drug, plotting the fraction of

surviving CFU as a function of CIP concentration (Material and Methods; Fig. 2A and 2C). Clinically

resistant bacteria (CIP $\geq$2ug/ml) did not arise in the three Lineages passaged in immunocompetent

mice. Furthermore, the number of bacteria able to survive on increased amounts of CIP relative to

the parental strain never rose above 0.1% of the population (survival on solid medium containing

1ug/ml CIP). Therefore, in immunocompetent mice, 15 passages were insufficient to allow

outgrowth and fixation of resistant variants in the population.

The evolutionary trajectories through neutrophil-depleted mice contrasted strongly with

immunocompetent mice, as the whole population in all three Lineages became CIP resistant over

the course of 15 passages. Bacteria resistant to at least 2 μg/ml CIP were observed as early as the

3rd passage (Fig. 2C). After the 9th passage, approximately 1×10^{-5} of the bacteria isolated from the

neutrophil-depleted mice showed resistance to 8 μg/mL CIP, four times higher than the clinically-

defined resistance breakpoint. By 15 passages, almost all bacteria from the neutrophil-depleted

Lineages were clinically defined as CIP resistant (at concentration of at least 2 μg/mL), with a large

fraction showing resistance to CIP =8 µg/ml. Therefore, resistance acquisition during disease is

amplified in the absence of neutrophils.

Clinical failure results from a bacterial population that is clinically defined as drug

sensitive. By the 6th passage in neutrophil-depleted mice, yields of bacteria began to approach

those observed in the absence of antibiotic (Fig. 1B), in spite of the fact that the majority of the

population remained sensitive to CIP based on the defined clinical breakpoint (Fig. 2C; clinical

breakpoint CIP>2 µg/ml). Yields remained high in successive passages, while the distribution of the

population increasingly skewed toward variants with increasing levels of resistance to CIP.

Therefore, drug treatment failure at passage 6 under neutrophil-depleted conditions was

dominated by bacteria that grew at 1µg/ml CIP but showed low viability at the 2µg/ml clinical

breakpoint. These mutants were replaced by more resistant isolates during later passages (Fig. 2C).

To link specific mutational changes over time to these observed phenotypes, we sequenced

the pools of genomic DNA isolated from the original inoculum, the parent AB17978 strain, and the

pools harvested after the 3rd, 6th, 9th, 12th and 15th passages. Mutation frequencies were then

plotted for each passage in the two immune conditions (Fig. 2B and 2D). Based on the predicted

sensitivity from the depth of pooled whole genome sequencing, we expected that only nucleotide

changes in greater than 5% of the population could be detected using this approach (Materials and

Methods).

The results from the pooled genomic sequencing allowed us to identify changes associated

with either the development of drug resistance, or the lack thereof, in these populations. As

predicted from Fig. 2A and the sensitivity limits of the analysis, there was no evidence for

mutations driving drug resistance at greater than 5% abundance in the three populations evolved

in immunocompetent mice. The only alteration that approached fixation was a mutation in a gene

encoding a putative solanesyl diphosphate synthase (ACX60_03850; *ispB*), but this allele was

unrelated to resistance, as single colony isolates showed no increased survival in the presence of

CIP (Fig. 2E). All the other mutations identified by sequencing the pools appeared unrelated to

resistance, as none survived incubation on solid medium containing 1μg/ml CIP (Figs. 2B, 2E).

Furthermore, the analysis of individual colonies isolated after plating bacterial populations on

antibiotic-free medium after the 15th mouse passage identified isolates with CIP MICs that were

only slightly elevated relative to the WT (Fig. 2E, left panel; WT MIC = 0.25-0.5).

Variants with altered CIP sensitivity arose in the immunocompetent mice, but they

remained at low levels in these populations, as predicted by the previous mathematical modeling

study (Fig. 2A) [18]. Mutations causing decreased drug sensitivity were identified by isolating single

colonies on solid medium containing 1μg/ml CIP, and all twelve of the single colonies selected from

the 10th passage had the identical mutation in *adeL*, the regulator of the AdeFGH egress pump [25,26].

The presence of the mutation in multiple Lineages is consistent with it existing in the initial

bacterial culture prior to the first inoculation of all three Lineages. Interestingly, 8 distinguishable

Lineage-specific strains were identified that were derived from the parental AdeL C312* mutation,

consistent with downstream mutations arising during mouse passage (Fig. 2E, right panel). These

strains appeared to be largely lost by passage 15 in the immunocompetent mouse (Fig. 2A, E). We

conclude that although strains with mutations that activate the AdeFGH egress pump are detected,

they are unable to overgrow the WT and are eventually depleted during later passages in

immunocompetent mice (Fig. 2B).

Consistent with the dynamic nature of resistance acquisition in neutrophil-depleted mice

(Fig. 2B), pool sequencing uncovered mutations that drove the stepwise trajectory to CIP[R] in later

passages (Fig. 2D). Unlike the immunocompetent lineages, first step mutations that occurred within

adeL after 6 passages in neutrophil-depleted mice were easily detected by whole pool sequencing.

Each Lineage harbored different *adeL* mutations in these early passages that disrupted the 3' end of

the gene, consistent with previous work arguing that alterations in the C-terminus of the AdeL

protein result in AdeFGH pump activation[25,26]. Mutations in various other genomic sites arose

between passage 9 and 12, with many predicted to contribute to decrease susceptibility to CIP

treatment. For instance, the *adeL312** mutant acquired a second mutation in *gyrB* that overgrew

Lineage 1. In addition, a mutant harboring a noncononical mutation in *gyrA* arose in Lineage 2 that

was outcompeted by a strain with multiple genetic alterations, while a quadruple mutant appeared

to overgrow the single *adeL* mutant in Lineage 3.

To identify the various genotypes linked to increased CIP resistance, we isolated single

colonies after 9 passages to verify that two transiently predominant variants had the predicted

genotypes, and also sequenced isolates from passage 15 after plating in the absence or presence of

CIP (1μg/mL). Isolated colonies in absence of drug selection from Lineages 2 and 3 from passage 9

showed the predicted *adeL* alleles (compare Fig. 2D and 2F). In addition, after plating the passage

15 pools in the absence of drug, the two predicted gyrase alleles *gyrA*(A117E) and *gyrB*(Q447H)

that are observed infrequently in the clinic were also identified (Fig. 2F). Having *gyrA*(A117E)

alone was able to raise the CIP MIC by 16-fold (Fig 2F). Clones having the *gyrB*(Q447H) allele were

only observed linked to *adeL*(C312*) at passage 15, resulting in a CIP MIC that was 8-fold higher

than that of the parent strain (Fig 2E). Besides the mutations in target proteins, other single

colonies that resulted in a similar MIC increase were found to have a combination of four mutations

(Fig. 2F). When comparing the single colonies isolated that had a CIP of 1 μg/mL to those isolated

without antibiotic, the single colony isolates had genomic changes that were predicted by the

sequencing of the pools, indicating that the mutants described here became predominant without

requiring CIP selection *ex vivo*.

Mutations in *adeL* allow for persistence in the presence of high levels of ciprofloxacin.

To deconvolve the function of the various mutations observed, we backcrossed mutations into the

parent strain and assessed their relative contributions to CIP resistance. Of particular interest were

adeL nucleotide changes identified in populations after the 6th passage in neutrophil-depleted

mouse lineages, as CIP failed to efficiently restrict growth in the lung in these passages (Figs. 1A,

2D). The *adeL* gene (ACX60_06025)[26] has two predicted domains often associated with LysR type

transcriptional regulators: a helix-turn-helix domain and a substrate binding domain responsible

for regulation of the AdeFGH pump (Fig. 3A). Of the *adeL* mutations that arose during the *in vivo*

passages, one is located within the predicted substrate binding domain while the others are at the C

terminal end comprising in-frame deletions or early termination codons (Fig. 3A and 3B). We

constructed strains with each of these mutations and observed 100-1000X increased *adeG*

transcription levels compared to the parental strain, consistent with AdeFGH efflux pump

overexpression (Fig. 3C).

While these single *adeL* mutations resulted in an increase in MIC to ∼1 μg/mL CIP that

barely rose to the level of significance (Fig. 4C), this level was below the recognized clinical

breakpoint[27], and such strains would be indicated as susceptible. As these are first step mutations,

we hypothesize that variants harboring these changes may facilitate the outgrowth of more

resistant isolates by promoting tolerance or persistence in the presence of antibiotic. To test this

model, we evaluated the survival of *adeL* mutants during exposure to high levels of CIP [28-32].

Exposure to 10 μg/mL CIP, roughly 20X MIC of the parental strain, led to the majority of the *adeL*

mutants (> 99%; MDK99) being rapidly killed (within 1 hour), mimicking what was observed for

the parental strain (Fig. 3D). However, unlike the parental strain, a subpopulation of the *adeL*

mutant was able to persist through 24 hours of drug exposure (Fig. 3D). This phenotype was

dependent on pump overproduction, as an *adeL* mutant strain deleted for the *adeFGH* operon was

indistinguishable from the parental strain in regards to persistence (Fig. 3D). These data argue that

adeL mutations drive persistence in the presence of CIP *via* increased expression of *adeFGH*,

providing a reservoir within neutrophil-depleted animals for the outgrowth of strains with

increased resistance[33].

Resistance of evolved mutants in neutrophil-depleted mice can be explained by

combining *adeL* with *mfsA* mutations. We continued backcross analysis to identify the minimal

determinants necessary to confer clinical resistance during passage in the mouse. Many of the single

colony isolates from Lineage 3 at passage 15 of the immunocompromised mice possessed a

combination of mutations in four genomic locations: *adeL*, *acfR* (ACX60_03155), *lpxD*, and the

intergenic *rpmL-mfsA* region, the latter of which is located between a ribosomal protein gene and a

predicted coding region for a putative MFS transporter which we have named *mfsA* (ACX60_15150,

annotated as *nreB* in GenBank; Fig. 2D and 2E). To determine the role in drug susceptibility of each

of these mutations, we constructed separate strains carrying single mutations. All single mutants

showed various MICs well below 2 μg/ml CIP, with each of the *adeL* mutations as well as *mfsA*(-9)

showing increased MICs above the parental strain (Table S1; Fig. 4C). The *mfsA*(-9) mutation is

located 9 bp upstream of a predicted MFS efflux pump, within 2 bases of a previously reported

mutation selected during evolution of CIP resistance in *A. baumannii* in planktonic conditions[34].

Consistent with MFS transporter over-production, we found that the *mfsA*(-9) mutation increased

the *mfsA* mRNA levels by ~9-fold relative to the parental strain, based on q-rtPCR analysis (Fig. 4B).

Significantly, when the *mfsA*(-9) mutation was combined with the *adeL*P131H mutation, the CIP MIC

increased to ~4ug/ml approaching that of the quadruple mutant strain isolated from mouse passage

15 (Fig. 4C; Table S1). A single nucleotide change located nearby the *mfsA*(-9) mutation that arose

transiently in the immunodepleted Lineage 3 (Fig. 2D; *mfsA*(-19)) behaved nearly identically (Figs.

4B,C). Therefore, combining two mutations that resulted in upregulation of both the AdeFGH pump

and a putative MFS transporter was sufficient to provide CIP resistance above the clinical

breakpoint, approaching that seen for the quadruple mutant.

A hotspot for mutations within *lpxD* is tightly linked to fluoroquinolone resistance in

clinical isolates. The mutation *lpxD* T118_A119insA (locus tag: ACX60_07955; GenBank:

AKQ26661.1) was consistently found in CIP[R] isolates from mice. This alteration within an

acyltransferase involved in lipooligosaccharide (LOS) biosynthesis[35-37] showed no effect on MIC

(Table S1). To test for clinical linkage of *lpxD* mutations to drug resistance, we downloaded the

genomes of all 8666 *A. baumannii* genomes clinical isolates from the PATRIC database[38]. Focusing

on nonrepetitive sequences that had antibiotic resistance profiles, 1830 were resistant to

ciprofloxacin and 215 were susceptible. Of the CIP[R] isolates, 883 genomes had an E->K change at

residue number 117, with a z-score $\geq$ 18 (Supp. Fig. 1). In comparison, only 9 of 215 CIP[S] isolates

had the same mutation. By Fisher's exact t test, p<0.0001, supporting the siginificance of these

observations.

To determine if the overrepresentation of the E117K allele could be due to outgrowth of a

single clone, we performed multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) using the Pasteur *A. baumannii*

scheme, generating 7-gene allele profiles [39]. Of the 123 distinct MLST groups, 16 had both CIP[R] and

CIP[S] isolates (Supp. Dataset 1; Supp. Fig. 2), although over half of the CIP[R] isolates belonged to two

MLST types (ST2 and ST3). To avoid skewing the results due to this overrepresentation, we limited

the number of isolates per ST group to 1, reducing strains analyzed to 139 across 123 distinct MLST

groups (Fig 5A), including 59 CIP[R] isolates and 80 CIP[S]. Even after limiting the clonal effects in this

fashion, we still observed overrepresentation, with the E117K allele found in 13 of 59 CIP[R] isolates

(Fig. 5B), while only 3 of 80 CIP[S] isolates had the same alterations (Fig. 5B; p= 0.0011, Fisher's exact

t test). Both a whole genome phylogenetic tree (Supp. Fig. 3) and clustering analysis of the 7-gene

allelic profiles from these 139 clinical isolates (Fig. 5C) identified CIP[R] isolates that shared parents

with CIP[S] ones, further arguing against clonal effects for the enrichment.

Interestingly, the alteration at residue E117 (z-score: 8.98; p-value, < 0.00001) directly

proceeds the T118 allele identified in our mouse experiments, with both variants predicted to be in

a turn between two beta sheets (Fig. 5D)[38]. Although the significance of this linkage is unclear, the

fact that the *lpxD* T118_A119insA has a fitness defect in broth (Fig. 5E), raises the possibility that

mutations in this turn could contribute to a persistence phenomenon in tissues leading to evolution

of drug resistance.

Evolutionary replay experiments reconstruct the pathway to drug resistance. The

observation that resistant organisms outcompeted a persistent strain (Fig. 2D) could be due to a

coincidence that occurred during serial passage or due to antibiotic-driven selection for strains

with increased MIC over persistent strains. We performed three evolutionary replay experiments[40]

with neutrophil-depleted Lineage 3 variants to distinguish between these possibilities. In the first

(Fig. 6A), bacteria were harvested after passage 9 and cycled 3 times in duplicate in neutrophil-

depleted animals to test if the AdeL ΔI335A336 allele, a 6 nucleotide in-frame deletion identified in

cyclophosphamide treated animals, would again be outcompeted by low abundance drug-resistant

mutants (Fig. 2D). The second approach was to passage three times a mix of a colony-purified drug

persistent AdeL ΔI335A336 single mutant (P9Cy3.1; Table S1) with a colony-purified drug resistant

quadruple mutant (Cy31; Table S1) in the approximate ratio present at passage 9 (95:5; Fig. 6B).

The third was to test the model that neutrophils restrict the outgrowth of strains having activating

mutations in *adeL* (Fig. 6C).

When the *adeL* mutant was analyzed in competition within the pool (Fig. 6A) or when

mixed 95:5 with colony purified quadruple mutant (Fig. 6B), we observed an increase in bacterial

burden and fraction of bacteria showing CIP MIC >2 after passaging the pools in neutrophil-

depleted CIP-treated mice (Supp. Fig. 4). Whole genome sequencing of the bacterial populations

harvested after each passage revealed a near identical evolutionary trajectory as seen from the

original experiment, with the single mutant associated with drug persistence eventually

outcompeted by drug resistant mutants (Fig. 6). Furthermore, in one of our replicate Lineages (Fig.

6A), another mutation located in the intergenic region between *rpmL* and *mfsA* (*mfsA*(-19)) arose

that had appeared transiently in immunodepleted Lineage 3 (Fig. 2D), further arguing for the

contribution of this regulatory region in resistance evolution. Therefore, these two reconstructions

(Figs. 6A,B) demonstrate that the evolutionary trajectory is reproducible, and can be regenerated

by phenotypically similar mutations that arise spontaneously.

In the third experiment, single *adeL* mutants were unable to overgrow the WT in the

presence of CIP in immunocompetent animals, in contrast to what was observed in passage 9 of the

neutrophil-depleted animals. When a 5:95 (*adeL*:WT) mixture was passaged in immunocompetent

mice, the mutant was unable to increase its population share (Fig. 6C), mimicking the failure of *adeL*

activating mutations to overgrow the pool in any of the immunocompetent Lineages (Fig. 2A). In

contrast, CIP[R] mutants having canonical resistance alleles in *gyrA* or *gyrAparC* were able to compete

efficiently with WT in the presence of neutrophils, with the GyrA(S81L) ParC(S84L) double mutant

growing from 5% to 70% of the population within 3 passages (Fig. 6C). This argues that depleting

the immune response allows the outgrowth of persistence mutants, facilitating complex pathways

to drug resistance that are blocked in immunocompetent hosts.

Ciprofloxacin treatment within the host simultaneously selects for increased

resistance and enhanced fitness. Antibiotic resistance is often associated with a fitness cost[41] that

may be compensated over time by continued selection of secondary genotypes that overcome these

costs. The inability of the *adeL* mutant to overgrow WT during infection in the presence of CIP in

immunocompetent animals may reflect this point. Mutants with high resistance, however, could

maintain their selective advantage over non or low-resistance mutants even in the absence of drug

treatment. To test this model, the relative fitness of the drug resistant mutants derived from

neutrophil-depleted Lineages was compared to the parent strain AB17978. In the absence of CIP,

variants isolated after passage in neutrophil-depleted mice showed varying degrees of subtle

growth impairment in broth relative to the parental strain (Fig. 7A; Cy11, p< 0.01). During animal

infections in the absence of antibiotic, these growth defects were amplified. When

immunocompetent mice were challenged with the high fitness *gyrAparC* mutant in competition

with the WT, the two strains showed similar levels of colonization (Fig. 7B). In contrast, each of the

drug resistant mutants derived from neutrophil-depleted mice competed poorly in

immunocompetent animals (Fig. 7B; p <0.0001).

Although the lowered fitness of mutants in immunocompetent animals further supports

the model that outgrowth of unique resistance alleles occurs in the absence of neutrophils, it did

not directly test the model that selection in neutropenic mice increased fitness relative to first-step

CIP^R variants. In the absence of CIP treatment, the parent strain showed a subtle advantage over the

Lineage 3 quadruple mutant isolate Cy31 (Table S1) under neutrophil-depleted conditions,

although the results were clearly not as robust as in the presence of neutrophils due to increased

scatter (Fig. 7C; Cy31 against WT). More striking is the fact that the Cy31 strain had a clear fitness

advantage over its predecessor, the Lineage 3 *adeL* mutant, when competed in the absence of

antibiotics (Fig. 7C; Cy31 against P9Cy3.1). Therefore, in competition with persister mutants,

ciprofloxacin simultaneously selected for an isolate with increased CIP resistance and enhanced

fitness relative to mutant competitors. This predicts that drug-resistant mutants were able to

evolve to heightened fitness to replace persister mutants. As fitness increases, resistant mutants

should be able to compete with sensitive strains even after cessation of antibiotic treatment,

potentially escalating treatment failure and providing fertile ground for the emergence of resistant

strains with high fitness.

Discussion

Comparative analyses of bacterial pathogen databases indicate that clinical antibiotic

resistance is associated with mutations located outside well-characterized drug targets [20-22].

Analysis of clinical resistance is often retrospective, with a few exceptional studies that have

allowed identification of a timeline of bacterial resistance in human populations[28-32,42-44]. Our study

bridges an important gap in understanding how resistance evolves, by following experimental

evolution of fluoroquinolone resistance in a pneumonia disease model. Strikingly, in the absence of

one arm of immune pressure, *A. baumannii* resistance arose after few passages in murine lungs

during CIP treatment (Fig. 1B), resulting in treatment failure. Conversely, the overall frequency

remained low in immunocompetent mice, and this did not lead to treatment failure (Fig. 1B).

The absence of neutrophils resulted in the identification of rare alleles associated with drug

resistance. In contrast to the canonical target site GyrAS81LparCS84L mutation which shows high

fitness under conditions tested, the *gyrA*A117E and *gyrB*Q447H alleles rarely observed in clinical

strains predominated in two of the lineages from neutrophil-depleted animals (Fig 2E). These

unusual isolates showed fitness defects during disease and/or in culture (Fig. 7) that make them

unlikely to arise in the presence of intact immune functions, consistent with evolutionary

trajectories being determined by the immunological state of the host. Therefore, we propose that

immunocompromised hosts are incubators for the generation of unique drug resistant variants,

with uncertain outcomes after pathogen exposure to the community at large. Although the variants

we described have reduced fitness relative to WT, continued passage demonstrated that stepwise

increase in drug resistance was associated with stepwise increase in fitness (Fig. 7). Similar fitness

effects have been obtained during continued passage in culture[34]. The recent demonstration of

enhanced viral evolution of SARS-CoV-2 in an immunocompromised patient undergoing

therapeutic antibody treatment is a graphic example of the potential interplay between immunity,

antimicrobials and evolution in the clinic, with potential largescale community effects[45].

Furthermore, persistence mutants have been demonstrated to arise during continued antibiotic

therapy in an immunocompromised patient treated for vancomycin-resistant enterococcus[46], tying

the results presented here with documented clinical outcomes.

Antibiotics primarily act by targeting essential cellular functions or pathways [47,48]. In

response to transient antibiotic exposure, a proportion of bacteria typically persist or tolerate this

treatment with mutations arising that can increase the fraction of the surviving population[49-51]. The

mechanisms for allowing persistence/tolerance likely differ between bacterial species and vary

among antibiotics[52], but it is generally agreed that persistence/tolerance is caused by cell

dormancy[53-55] or transient expression of efflux pumps and stress response pathways[28,56].

Persistence/tolerance mechanisms may play an important role in the relapse of bacterial infections

[57-59]. In our study, we found that persistence in *A. baumannii* can be promoted by upregulation of a

drug efflux pump, AdeFGH [26]. It is known that clinical isolates often overproduce efflux pumps that

remove multiple antibiotics from the bacterial cytoplasm[26,60], and that antibiotic persistence is

associated with such pump upregulation[61,62]. Of note, mutations upregulating this pump are rarely

isolated in the laboratory through simple antibiotic single-step selections on solid agar, indicating

there may be a special environment in the lung that allows outgrowth of these mutants.

There are three important repercussions from the analysis of the AdeL efflux overproducer

mutations. First, overproduction results in drug treatment failure during pneumonic disease in the

mouse, in spite of the fact that these bacterial strains are CIP-sensitive based on the international

standard for clinical breakpoints[27]. Therefore, clinical drug treatment failure in the absence of

identified antibiotic resistance[9] could be explained by the outgrowth of drug persistent mutants,

particularly in the immunocompromised host. Second, the *adeL* mutations provide a molecular

basis for *A. baumannii* to develop second-step variants that lead to CIP resistance above the clinical

breakpoint. Of interest, inhibitors of efflux pumps have been suggested to re-sensitize bacteria to

multiple antibiotics[63], but perhaps such a regimen may also delay progression to resistance. Finally,

isolates from drug treatment failure occurring in immunocompromised patients could generate a

pool of precursor mutants giving rise to resistant isolates that eventually infect a broad range of

patients. A number of studies have similarly argued that efflux pump mutations provide a critical

pool for the multi-step evolution of antibiotic resistance [33,64,65]

We propose a model of bacterial resistance progression in immunodepleted hosts (Fig. 8).

When infecting a host, the antibiotic susceptible bacteria colonize at a relatively low rate. With

active transmission and continuous CIP treatment, there is outgrowth of bacterial persisters that

have MICs below the clinical breakpoint, increasing the bacterial load at the infection site. On

continued treatment, or transfer to a similar host undergoing CIP treatment, fully resistant mutants

can then outgrow the population. The presence of intact immune function interferes with

outgrowth of these mutants, but the identification of persister mutants in the presence of immune

function indicates that such alleles could act as enablers of drug resistance in all hosts, particularly

under conditions of temporary breaching or depression of innate immunity.

Genomic analyses can identify allelic variants linked to drug resistance, but verifying the

functional importance of these alleles is hindered by founder effects that are often difficult to

discount. The *lpxD* E117K mutation is one such allele associated with resistant *gyrA* S81L-

containing genomes. The fact that the adjacent *lpxD* T118 insA allele was isolated during multiple

passages in immune-depleted mice argues for a role of these altered residues in supporting the

outgrowth of drug resistant organisms. The *lpxD* T118 insA mutation likely alters envelope

function. This raises the possibility that the mutation causes subtle changes in permeability that

slow drug access to target, or else the slowed growth of strains harboring this allele increases drug

tolerance during growth in tissues[52]. Our inability to demonstrate increased tolerance to CIP and

the fact that the clinical *lpxD* E117K did not show a fitness defect when grown in LB broth (Fig. 5E)

argues that the critical phenotypes may be observed exclusively during growth in tissues, making

them difficult to evaluate.

In summary, we hypothesize that resistance progression in clinical isolates follows a similar

trend witnessed in our experiments, albeit with greater complexity in the human. Drug sensitive

bacteria may colonize both healthy and immune system-compromised patients, but resistance

evolution occurs more rapidly within hosts having impaired neutrophil function. The canonical

resistance mutations that arise within healthy individuals may compete efficiently with host-

evolved mutations in patients having impaired neutrophil function. Hence, the transmission from

individuals having intact immune function may pose risks to immunocompromised patients.

Adding to the risks subjected to vulnerable patients, we found that *A. baumannii* persistence

mutants with MIC levels below the clinical breakpoint were associated with treatment failure,

emphasizing the difficulty in treating these patients (Fig. 1B) [9,66-69]. While heterogeneity and

variability between infected patients is inevitable, this work provides insight into some genetic

factors that could predispose individuals to treatment failures in specific clinical contexts. Future

work should be focused on how this evolutionary trend towards drug resistance can be controlled,

such as tackling the molecular basis for selection of persister or other mutations that lead to

treatment failure.

Material and Methods

Bacterial Strains. Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table S1. *Acinetobacter*

baumannii strains are derivatives of ATCC 17978. Bacteria were grown in Lysogeny Broth (LB) (10

g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L NaCl) or on LB agar plates (LB supplemented with 15g/L

agarose). Broth cultures were grown at 37°C in flasks with orbital shaking at 200 rpm or in tubes

with rotation on a roller drum at 56 rpm. Growth was monitored by measuring absorbance

spectrophotometrically at 600 nm (A_{600nm}). Plates were incubated at 37°C. Antibiotics were used at

the following concentrations: Gentamicin: 10 μg/mL (*A. baumannii*) and 50 μg/mL (*E. coli*);

Carbenicillin: 100 μg/mL.

Murine experimental evolution. The *in vivo* passaging experiments were performed

identically in either immunocompetent or neutrophil-depleted 6-8 weeks-old female BALB/C mice

(Fig. 1A). Neutrophil depletion was induced via cyclophosphamide pretreatment [70]. Briefly, 150

mg/kg and 100 mg/kg of cyclophosphamide monohydrate (Sigma-Aldrich: C7397) were

administered 4 days and 1 day prior to infection, respectively. At the time of infection, mice were

transiently anesthetized by inhalation of isoflurane and lung infections were established using ~10^8

colony forming units (CFU) of *A. baumannii* from mid-log phase cultures (A_{600nm} ~0.5) via

oropharyngeal aspiration [71]. For Passage 1, all Lineages were derived from a single broth-grown

culture. At 7 and 19 hours post infection (hpi), 100 mg/kg of ciprofloxacin (Sigma-Aldrich:

PHR1044) was administered via subcutaneous injection. At 27 hpi, mice were euthanized, and

lungs were removed aseptically and homogenized in 1 mL of ice-cold 1x phosphate buffered saline

(PBS). Afterwards, the homogenate was plated on large (150 x 15 mm) LB agar plates and

incubated for ~17 hours at 37°C. The total number of bacteria was quantified using CFU. The

enriched bacteria were scraped off the LB plates and resuspended in 1x PBS. The resuspension was

used for DNA isolation as well as the inoculum for the next passage/round of infection (stored at -

80°C in 20% glycerol prior to use). For each round of mouse infection/passage, bacterial frozen

stocks were revived by diluting them in LB broth and growing them to exponential phase.

Afterwards, ~10^8 CFU of the pool was used to establish infection in each mouse. Three separate

Lineages of murine infections were maintained in parallel in each condition (immunocompetent or

neutrophil depleted), and within each Lineage each starting inoculum was passaged 15 times.

Validation experiments involving the reconstruction of identified mutants and re-passaging of these

strains in mice were similarly performed.

Murine Competition Assays. Competition experiments were performed as described

previously[71]. Briefly, designated strains were grown to exponential phase ($A_{600nm} \sim 0.5\text{-}1.0$) and

mixed at a 1:1 ratio for the inoculum. Afterwards, ~10^8 CFU of the bacterial mixture was used to

challenge WT or cyclophosphamide-treated BALB/C mice via the oropharyngeal route as described

for the mouse passage experiments. 24 hr post inoculation, lungs were removed aseptically,

homogenized and extracts were spread on LB agar plates. To quantify the input and output ratio of

each designated strain, both the inoculum and the lung homogenate were serially diluted in 1x PBS

and plated on LB agar as well as LB agar supplemented with 2 µg/mL of ciprofloxacin to

differentiate between the WT and CIP resistant test strains. Selection rate coefficients (SRC) were

determine by SRC = ln(Strain 1 output/input ratio) – ln(Strain 2 output/input ratio)[72]. Prism was

used for statistical analysis and significance was determine by one-way ANOVA followed by

Dunnett's or Tukey's Multiple Comparison. *p<0.05; ****p<0.0001.

Evolutionary replay experiments. For the evolutionary replay experiments (6A), the

saved Cy3 Passage 9 pool was used as inoculum. For the evolution experiments involving isolates

(Figs. 6B and 6C), designated strains were grown to exponential phase and mixed at a 5:95 ratio in

the inoculum. In both cases the inoculum was administered via the oropharyngeal route to mice

and passaged three times in the presence of CIP treatment in a near identical manner as the initial

passaging experiments. Each pool/mixture was performed in duplicate. The bacterial pools after

each passage were saved, and variant frequencies at each passage were determined as described

above. The abundance of each mutant in the isolate mixtures was determined by measuring the

colony forming efficiency (CFE) at an antibiotic concentration that was below the mutant MIC but

above that of wild type AB17978. The CFE versus passage number was displayed and expressed as

strain abundance (%). CFE = number of colonies on antibiotic-containing medium / number of

colonies in the absence of antibiotic.

Determining the fraction of resistance as a function of ciprofloxacin concentrations in

each pool. To evaluate the fraction of bacteria acquired from each passage that are viable on

culturing in various concentration of ciprofloxacin, the glycerol stock of each pool was revived in

fresh LB broth and grown to exponential phase. A total of $\sim 10^7$ CFU were used for serial dilutions in

1x PBS and 10 μl from each diluted culture was spotted on LB agar plates containing the following

concentrations of ciprofloxacin: 0, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4 and 8 μg/ml. After an overnight incubation at

37°C, colonies were counted, and CFU/ml was calculated. A detection limit of 100 CFU/ml was used.

The fraction bacteria resistant to a certain concentration (C_0; $C_0 > 0$) of ciprofloxacin is calculated as

(CFU/ml at C_0 - CFU/ml at all concentrations above C_0) / Total CFU. A stacked bar plot of the data

was generated using Prism GraphPad (Fig. 2).

Whole Genome Sequencing. Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from bacteria using the

DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen). Library preparation was performed using Illumina Nextera

with previously described modifications [73]. Libraries were enriched with 8 cycles of PCR and

sequenced using HiSeq2500 at Tufts University Core Facility using single-end 100 bp reads. Reads

were aligned to the *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 genome and its plasmids (GenBank Accession:

CP012004; pAB1: CP000522; pAB2: CP00523; pAB3: CP012005), and variants were identified at

5% cutoff using breseq 0.32 [74]. Reads were aligned to *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 reference genome

(https://genomes.atcc.org/genomes/e1d18ea4273549a0) to include an additional 44kb gene

cluster [75]. The identified mutations are listed in Supplemental Dataset 2. The predicted functional

impact of substitution variants was determined by using PROVEAN [76].

Persistence Assay. *A. baumannii* was grown in 3 individual LB broth cultures overnight

from separate colonies. The cultures were diluted 1000-fold into 8 ml LB broth and incubated by

rotation at 37°C for 2-3 hours until reaching mid or late exponential growth ($A_{600nm} \sim 0.3$-0.8).

Ciprofloxacin was added to reach a final concentration of 10 μg/ml, the concentration regarded as

20x the MIC for the parent ATCC 17978 *A. baumannii* strain. These cultures were then incubated at

37°C for up to 24 hours. After 0, 1, 3, 6, and 24 hours, 500 μl of culture was removed, washed twice

in 1x PBS, resuspended in 500 μl PBS, and sequentially diluted in 1x PBS. Serial dilutions were used

for CFU quantification by spot plating on LB agar plates. Dilution factors harboring quantities

ranging from 3-35 CFUs were used to calculate the CFU/ml. The limit of detection by this assay was

determined to be 375 CFUs. The CFU/mL across the biological replicates at each time point

throughout the drug challenge were plotted as mean $\pm$ Standard Error of Mean.

qRT-PCR gene expression analysis. Bacteria were grown to early stationary phase in LB

broth, RNA was harvested and purified using RNeasy kit (Qiagen) followed by cDNA synthesis using

SuperScript VILO cDNA kit (Thermo Fisher). The cDNA was then amplified with PowerUp SYBR

Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) via a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR system (Applied

Biosystems) per manufacturer's instructions, and target amplification efficiency was evaluated by

generating a standard curve with dilutions of cDNA (>95% amplification efficiency for each primer

pair). Primers were designed to amplify regions of around 150 bp internal to genes (Table S2).

Triple technical replicates were examined per biological sample and at least three biological

replicates per strain were tested, with controls lacking reverse-transcriptase included to verify a

lack of contaminant genomic DNA. Transcript levels of specific targets from each strain were

evaluated by the comparative $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method to the parental strain, normalizing to that of the

endogenous control 16s. The transcript level for each target across biological replicates was plotted

as mean $\pm$ Standard Error of Mean (Fig. 3&4).

MIC determination. Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were determined by broth

microdilution. Overnight cultures of strains of interest were diluted 1000X in fresh LB broth and

grown to mid-logarithmic phase (A_{600} ~0.5). Afterwards, cultures were diluted to a final A_{600} =

0.003 and tested in the presence of two-fold dilutions of antibiotics. 200 µl of culture-antibiotic

mixture was then aliquoted to a 96 well plate (COSTAR) and technical duplicates were performed in

a Biotek plate reader with rotation. Growth was monitored by measuring A_{600} at 15 min. intervals

for 16 hr, and the MIC was determined as the lowest concentration of drug that prevented growth,

using at least three biological replicates for each strain. The MICs across biological replicates were

plotted as mean $\pm$ Standard Error of Mean (Fig. 4).

Molecular cloning and mutant construction. Plasmids and primers used in this study are

listed in Table S2. The mutant strains were constructed through sequential cloning into pUC18[77]

then pJB4648[78] as previously described[13]. Briefly, the mutant allele from each strain of interest was

amplified alongside upstream and downstream segments to generate a PCR product ~1500 bp in

length flanked by appropriate restriction sites. The PCR product was then ligated into pUC18 and

propagated in *E. coli* DH5α. The PCR product was then subcloned from pUC18 into pJB4648 and

propagated in *E. coli* DH5α λpir. After sequence confirmation, the pJB4648 plasmid construct

containing the desired mutation was introduced into *A. baumannii* via electroporation. Markerless,

in-frame mutations were isolated via homologous recombination as described [13].

Comparative sequence analysis. Genome sequences from 8666 *A. baumannii* clinical

isolates and ciprofloxacin resistance profiles for 2618 isolates were downloaded from PATRIC

database in Nov 2021 as described in results. MLST analysis was performed using Pasteur scheme[39]

with the publicly available tool "mlst" (https://github.com/tseemann/mlst). The LpxD protein

sequence from ATCC 17978 was compared to these 2045 isolates using tblastn to identify the

amino acid locations of mismatches and gaps. The nucleotide sequences with the best matches to

the LpxD protein were extracted and translated into protein sequences. For each isolate, the

translated LpxD sequence was compared to the reference LpxD sequence from AB17978. The

nonsynonymous changes were recorded for each clinical isolate. The nonsynonymous changes at

each residue were then summarized to reflect the total number of clinical isolates showing those

changes. The raw numbers were further transformed into *z*-scores to determine if a particular

residue was significantly overrepresented by nonsynonymous changes linked to CIP^R or CIP^S

phenotypes (Supp. Fig. 1). In order to reduce clonal effects, one clinical isolate per ST group was

selected randomly. Multiple aligned LpxD protein sequences are shown in Supp. Dataset 3. One

isolate had no hit for LpxD. The MLST profiles from 7 housekeeping genes were used to calculate

the Euclidean distance, and hierarchical clustering was determined using R (Fig. 5A). A

phylogenetic tree from these 139 genomes was built using mashtree [79] and visualized in Geneious

Prime (https://www.geneious.com/) (Supp. Fig. 3). The presence and absence of isolates was

summarized and visualized in a heatmap using Prism GraphPad v9 (Fig. 5B; Supp. Fig. 2). Within

each group, the mismatches/gaps at each amino acid location within LpxD were displayed as

number of genomes having mismatches/gaps at that location. A table of the data was constructed

showing the specific amino acid in the rows, the genome groups harboring these mutations in the

columns, and the total number of mismatches/gaps in the cells. The results in each cell were then

normalized using *z*-scores with the mean and standard deviation from individual genome groups.

The *z*-score was plotted as function of each residue.

Calculation of doubling time in broth culture. Overnight cultures of bacteria were diluted

1000-fold in fresh LB broth and grown for 8 hours. The A_{600} values were measured every hour

using a spectrophotometer, and the log2 transformed values were plotted as a function of time (hr).

To calculate the doubling time, a modified sigmoid function ($y = \frac{L1}{e^{-k(x-x0)}+1} - L2$) was fitted to the

plotted curve (y: log2 transformed A_{600} value, x: time in hrs, x_0: timepoint when the growth rate was

the fastest, k, L1, L2: rate constants), with the fastest growth rate for each culture determined as the

time in which second derivative of the fitted curve approached 0 (or when $x = x0$), at which point

the doubling time was represented as the inverse of the slope ($\Delta t = \frac{4}{k * L1}$) (Code available at:

https://github.com/huoww07/calulate_bacteria_doubling_time). To evaluate the goodness-of-fit,

the R^2 value was calculated for each growth curve assay (the R^2 ranges from 0 to 1, representing the

worst to the best fit). At least three biological replicates were performed for each test strain (Table

S3, Table S4) and the average doubling time and standard deviation was calculated. Statistical

significance was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons.

Accession numbers.

The datasets generated during the current study are available in the Sequence Read Archive (PRJNA485355). Detailed accession numbers for each sample are listed in Table 1.

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Author Contributions

RI, JR and TvO devised the study. LB, JH and WH performed the mouse experiments. WH, EH and JH performed the wet-lab experiments. WH and LB performed the whole genome sequencing and bioinformatics analyses. CM, VC, EG and TvO collaborated on the bioinformatics analyses and performed training. WH, LM, EH, JH and RI interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript. WH, LB, EH, JH, CM, EG, VC, TvO, JR and RI approved the final manuscript.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Continuous passaging of *A. baumannii* in a lung infection model results in early antibiotic failure in neutrophil-depleted mice. A). The 15-passage strategy using the pneumonia model in both immunocompetent and neutrophil-depleted mice. Neutrophil depletion was induced by two doses of cyclophosphamide at 72- and 24-hrs prior of infection. At the time of infection, *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 was oropharyngeally inoculated into mice at 10^8 CFU, and two doses of CIP were administered at 9- and 19-hrs post infection. All Lineages are derived from a single broth-grown culture. At 27-hrs post infection, the mice were euthanized, lungs were homogenized, and bacteria were plated on LB agar plates. After overnight growth, the bacteria were collected and 10^8 CFU used for the next round of infection/passage. B). Rapid development of antibiotic failure as a consequence of passage in the absence of neutrophils. After lungs were homogenized, total CFU on LB agar in the absence of antibiotic were determined and plotted as function of passage number. Shown are three lineages for immunocompetent and neutrophil-depleted animals treated with CIP as described in panel (A).

Figure 2. High level ciprofloxacin resistance evolves in a stepwise fashion during passage in neutrophil-depleted mice. (A, C) After each passage, bacteria from lung homogenates were serially diluted onto LB agar containing noted concentrations of CIP (μg/ml). The fraction of CFU on the series of CIP plates was determined for each pool and displayed in stacked bar plots for immune competent (A) and immune depleted (C) mouse infection Lineages. The limit of detection was 2.7E-6. (B, D) The gDNA from each bacterial pool was isolated and subject to whole genome sequencing to identify the genomic mutations acquired throughout passaging (after passage 3, 6, 9, 12 and 15). The mutations were detected using a 5% abundance cutoff and filtered against the parent strain

AB17978. The relative abundance of each mutation was plotted as a function of passage number

from (B) immune competent Lineages and (D) immune deficient Lineages (D). (E-F) After 10 or 15

passages (as noted), the bacterial pools from each Lineage were incubated on LB in the presence or

absence of CIP (1 μg/mL) to select for single colonies. Purified single colonies were subjected to

whole genome sequencing and MIC assays. In (E-F), each column represents a single colony. Rows

display absence or presence of selection criteria, passage, amino acid or SNP alleles, and MIC values

for each single colony isolate. The presence of each mutation in an individual colony is highlighted

in purple. MICs are labeled and color-coded for all colonies, a minimal of three biological replicates

were performed.

Figure 3. *adeL* mutations drive bacterial persistence through over-expression of the AdeFGH

pump. (A). Sites of nonsynonymous changes during *in vivo* passaging and domain structure of

AdeL. (B). Locations of nonsynonymous changes on predicted functional domains of AdeL. (C).

Mutations in *adeL* selected during mouse passage result in specific overproduction of an AdeL-

regulated gene *adeG*. Data were determined by qRT-PCR analysis of pump-encoding components

adeG (regulated by AdeL) or *adeB* and *adeJ* (components of other pumps) in noted *adeL* mutant

backgrounds. (D). Overproduction of AdeL-regulated pump components results in increased

persistence in presence of CIP. AB17978 derivatives described in legend were exposed to CIP at

20X MIC for noted times and titered for viability by quantitating CFUs. Data shown are mean $\pm$

Standard Error of Mean, a minimal of three biological replicates were performed.

Figure 4. The presence of mutations in *adeL* and *mfsA* is sufficient to explain CIP[R] in strains

derived from mouse passage experiments. A) Two mutations located directly upstream of *mfsA*

selected during mouse passaging experiments. B) Transcription levels of *mfsA* and *rpmL* were

determined by qRT-PCR in strains harboring the two mutations upstream of *mfsA*. Significance

level: ****, p < 0.0001 using two-tailed t-test against mean fold change of WT. Two technical

replicates and at least three biological replicates were performed. Data are mean MICs $\pm$ SEM. C)

Double mutants containing *adeL* and *mfsA* mutations show MICs of CIP that are similar to evolved

quadruple mutant strain. Data are raw MIC values for each biological replicate in black with mean

MICs $\pm$ SEM in red. At least three biological replicates were performed. WH124: AB17978 with *lpxD*

insA *acfR* V136D *adeL* P131H ; C312*: Cysteine to stop codon at residue 312; Y324*: Tyrosine to

stop codon at residue 324. Statistical significance was tested using one-way ANOVA followed by

Dunnett's multiple comparison. Blue: multiple comparison against WT AB17978 MICs; Orange:

multiple comparison against MICs of Cy3a quadruple mutant. *: p<0.05; **: p<0.01; ****: p<0.0001;

ns: not significant.

Figure 5. The LpxD E117K allele is tightly linked to clinical fluoroquinolone resistance. A)

Assembled genomes of 139 clinical isolates with ciprofloxacin resistance profiles from PATRIC

database[80]. Displayed is heatmap showing the presence (orange; 1 isolate) or absence (white; 0

isolate) of clinical isolates for each ST type per each resistance group. B). LpxD sequences from

resistant (red dots) and susceptible isolates (green dots) were aligned and compared to ATCC

17978 and the total number of variants per residue was calculated for each group of genomes. The

total number of amino acid changes was normalized and presented as a *z*-score for each group,

plotted against the LpxD residue number. C). Hierarchical clustering of the 7-gene MLST profile

from 139 genes showing Euclidean distance as height and nodes color-coded with resistance profile

(red: CIP[R]; blue: CIP[S]) and the presence of LpxD E117K allele in purple. D). Structure of *Chlamydia*

trachomatis LpxD protein[38] showing the presumed site of the *A. baumannii* E117 based on sequence

similarity. E). Broth growth of AB17978 strains differing by single changes in *lpxD*. Shown are

strains harboring either the WT, *lpxD* T118A119_insA or *lpxD* E117K alleles. Statistical significance

was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison. ***: p-value <

0.001 for LpxD + A strain against WT. Data shown are mean ± SEM.

Figure 6. The evolutionary trajectories of isolates acquired throughout passaging in

neutrophil-depleted mice is due to fitness advantage in presence of drug. (A) A single *adeL*

mutant is outcompeted during infection of CIP-treated mice by a quadruple mutant (Cy31) having

drug resistant *adeLmfsA* alleles. The passage 9 pool was oropharyngeally inoculated into

neutrophil-depleted mice in duplicate but separate lineages and passaged three times in the

presence of CIP treatment, subjecting each passage to deep sequencing. A-B)Displayed are plots

showing relative abundance of all mutations identified in deep sequencing pools of the duplicate

passaging experiments as a function of the passage number) Competition of purified *adeL* and

quadruple mutant having *adeLmfsA* alleles in presence of CIP results in predominance of the

quadruple mutant. The two strains were mixed at a ratio 95:5 (single : quadruple mutant), and

oropharyngeally inoculated into neutrophil-depleted mice in the presence of CIP treatment through

three successive passages. Deep sequencing of the initial inoculum and each subsequent passage

was performed to determine the ratio of the two strains, and the relative abundance of each

mutation is displayed as a function of passage. C) The presence of neutrophils prevents enrichment

of an *adeL* mutant during CIP challenge in the mouse. Competition of designated mutants

(*adeL*ΔI335I336, *gyrA*S81L, or *gyrA*S81L *parC*S84L) against wild type AB17978 was performed. The

strains were mixed at a ratio 95 : 5 (AB17978 : mutant), oropharyngeally inoculated into

immunocompetent mice. and then passaged in duplicate but separate lineages three times in the

presence of CIP treatment. The abundance of each mutant was determined by measuring the colony

forming efficiency (CFE) at an antibiotic concentration that was below mutant MIC but above that

of wild type AB17978 (AdeL ΔI335I336 MIC: 0.75 µg/mL, GyrA S81L MIC: 0.75 µg/mL, or GyrA

S81L + ParC S84L MIC: 2 µg/mL), and the CFE versus passage number was displayed and expressed

as strain abundance (%). CFE = number of colonies on antibiotic-containing medium / number of

colonies in the absence of antibiotic.

Figure 7. Simultaneous selection for increased resistance and fitness. A) Growth rates in broth

culture of noted isolates from passages in mice. Significance determined by one-way ANOVA

followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison: **: p<0.01 for Cy11 against WT. C312*: mutation of

Cysteine to stop codon at residue 312. B) Neutrophil-replete and C) Neutrophil depleted

(cyclophosphamide treated) BALB/C mice were challenged oropharyngeally with noted strain

combinations for 24-hours to determine the selection rate for each competing pair of strains.

Selection rate coefficient (SRC) was determine by SRC = LN(Strain 1 output/input ratio) – LN(Strain

2 output/input ratio)(Materials and Methods) [72]. Data are mean $\pm$ SEM, with significance determine

by one-way ANOVA followed by B) Dunnett's or C) Tukey's Multiple Comparison. *p<0.05;

****p<0.0001.

Figure 8. Model of bacterial resistance progression. The antibiotic susceptible inoculum (blue)

colonizes poorly in presence of antibiotic. During continued passage with CIP, in the absence of

neutrophils, the persister mutants (yellow) arise as first step mutations showing intermediate

MICs. With continued passage under the same antibiotic treatment regime, second step mutations

arise that have increased fitness in the presence of antibiotic (red) and dominate the population.

Supplemental Figure 1. The LpxD E117K allele is tightly linked to clinical fluoroquinolone

resistance. Assembled genomes of 2045 clinical isolates were obtained from PATRIC database[80].

LpxD sequences from all genomes were aligned and compared to ATCC 17978 and the total number

of variants per defined amino acid was calculated for each group of genomes. The total number of

amino acid changes was normalized and presented as a z-score for each of the three groups, plotted

against the residue numbers.

Supplemental Figure 2. Distribution of MLST type among select clinical isolates. A) Heatmap

showing MLST enrichment among 1830 genomes from ciprofloxacin resistant isolates and 269

genomes from susceptible isolates. In order to reduce the populational clonal effect, analysis was

limited to only one representative genome per ST group. Heatmap in B) shows the distribution of

MLST types after filtering.

Supplemental Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of genomes from 139 clinical isolates. The genome

contigs were analyzed to build the phylogenetic tree using mashtree with the minimum abundance

finder.

Supplemental Figure 4. Bacterial load and resistance levels to CIP after re-passaging. A) The

bacterial load harvested from the lungs after each passage is plotted against the passage number for

each Lineage. B) CIP resistance level of each pool (after each passage) was assayed via

quantification of CFU on LB agar supplemented with CIP.

Supp. Dataset 1. MLST profiles with 7-gene allelic profiles for 2045 clinical isolates

Supp. Dataset 2. All mutations identified in Fig 2 with their detection frequency.

Supp. Dataset 3. Multiple alignment of LpxD sequences from 138 clinical isolates.

Competing Interests Statement

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Data availability statement.

Sequencing reads that support the findings of this study (Fig 2) are deposited in NCBI SRA with the

accession code PRJNA485355. Detailed accession numbers for each sample are listed in

Supplementary Table S1. Sequencing reads were analyzed by breseq

(https://github.com/barricklab/breseq) and all variants can be found at

https://github.com/huoww07/Ab_evolutionary_pathways. Variants were filtered against parent al

WT AB17978 and results are attached as Supp. Dataset 2. *A. baumannii* genome data used in this

study (Fig 5) are available in the PATRIC database (patricbrc.org) with the sequence IDs listed in

Supp. Dataset 1. All other data that support the findings of this study are available on request from

the corresponding author RRI.

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Table S1. Strains used in this study.

Clone name	Description	Accession	Cipro MIC	reference	Relevant alleles
DH5α	*E. coli:* F⁻ *endA1 glnV44 thi-1 recA1 relA1 gyrA96 deoR nupG purB20* φ80d*lacZ*ΔM15 Δ(*lacZYA-argF*)U169, hsdR17($_{rK}^-$$_{mK}^+$), λ⁻	N/A	N/A	70	N/A
DH5α λ*pir*	DH5α encoding π protein	N/A	N/A	71	N/A
WT/AB17978	*A. baumannii* ATCC 17978	SRX9736139	0.5	72	N/A
Ab12	Single colonies selected without CIP from immunocompetent L1: 15 passages	SRX9736138	0.5	This study	*ispB* R49H; ΔCP012005
Ab11		SRX12722651	0.5	This study	*ispB* R49H; *acx60_02425* V138I
Ab21	Single colonies selected without CIP from immunocompetent L2: 15 passages	SRX9736117	0.5	This study	*ispB* R49H; soxF V374*fs*
Ab22		SRX9736106	0.5	This study	*adeS* F114L; ACX60_04790 S27fs
Ab31	Single colonies selected without CIP from immunocompetent L3: 15 passages	SRX9736104	0.5	This study	*alaA* H391fs
Ab33		SRX12722652	0.5	This study	MrcB 768delN
CIPP10 Ab11	Single colonies CIP 1 µg/mL selection from immunocompetent L1: 10 passages	SRX12722636	4	This study	*obg* Δ12bp; AdeL C312*; Mmg V193M; PntB P363S
CIPP10 Ab12		SRX12722647	2	This study	AdeL C312*; Mmg V193M; PntB P363S
CIPP10 Ab13		SRX12722621	2	This study	AdeL C312*; Mmg V193M; PntB P363S
CIPP10 Ab14		SRX12722622	2	This study	AdeL C312*; RsgA Q45*
CIPP10 Ab21	Single colonies CIP 1 µg/mL selection from immunocompetent L2: 10 passages	SRX12722623	1	This study	AdeL C312*
CIPP10 Ab22		SRX12722624	1	This study	AdeL C312*
CIPP10 Ab23		SRX12722625	1	This study	AdeL C312*; GyrA R241C
CIPP10 Ab24		SRX12722626	1	This study	AdeL C312*; *utcC$_{intergenic}$*

CIPP10 Ab31		SRX12722653	1	This study	AdeL C312*; ComL K197N; ΔCP012005
CIPP10 Ab32	Single colonies CIP 1 μg/mL selection from immunocompetent L3: 10 passages	SRX12722627	1	This study	AdeL C312*; ComL K197N
CIPP10 Ab33		SRX12722628	1	This study	AdeL C312*; ComL K197N
CIPP10 Ab34		SRX12722629	1	This study	AdeL C312*; ComL K197N
CIPP15 Ab21		SRX12722630	1	This study	RplN M7L
CIPP15 Ab22		SRX12722631	1	This study	AdeL C312*
CIPP15 Ab23	Single colonies CIP 1 μg/mL selection from immunocompetent L2: 15 passages	SRX12722632	1	This study	PrmA S217I; ACX60_07895 A43fs
CIPP15 Ab24		SRX12722633	1	This study	AdeL C312*
CIPP15 Ab25		SRX12722634	1	This study	AdeL C312*
CIPP15 Ab26		SRX12722635	1	This study	AdeL C312*
Cy11	Single colonies selected without CIP from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 1: 15 passages	SRX9736134	4	This study	*gyrB* Q447H; *adeL* C312*
Cy12		SRX9736133	4	This study	*gyrB* Q447H; *adeL* C312*
Cy21	Single colonies selected without CIP from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 2: 15 passages	SRX9736132	8	This study	*gyrA* A117E
Cy22		SRX9736131	8	This study	*gyrA* A117E
Cy31	Single colonies selected without CIP from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 3: 15 passages	SRX9736130	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
Cy32		SRX9736129	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
CIPCy11	Single colonies selected with CIP 1 μg/mL from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 1: 15 passages	SRX12722637	4	This study	*gyrB* Q447H; *adeL* C312*
CIPCy13		SRX12722638	4	This study	*gyrB* Q447H; *adeL* C312*

CIPCy21	Single colonies selected with CIP 1 μg/mL from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 2: 15 passages	SRX12722639	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
CIPCy22		SRX12722640	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
CIPCy32	Single colonies selected with CIP 1 μg/mL from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 3: 15 passages	SRX12722641	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
CIPCy33		SRX12722642	4	This study	*acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H; *lpxD* insA; *mfsA*(-9)
P9Cy2.1	Single colony selected from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 2: 9 passages	SRX9736110	1	This study	*adeL* Y324*
P9Cy3.1	Single colony selected from neutrophil-depleted mice lineage 3: 9 passages	SRX9736109	1	This study	*adeL* ΔI335A336
WH_B3	AB17978 *gyrB* Q447H	SRX9736122	0.5	This study	*gyrB* Q447H
WH113	AB17978 *adeL* C312*	SRX9736121	1	This study	*adeL* C312*
WH114	AB17978 *lpxD* T118_A119insA	SRX9736120	0.25	This study	*lpxD* T118_A119insA
WH309	AB17978 *lpxD* E117K	SRX9736119	0.25	This study	*lpxD* E117K
WH115	AB17978 *acfR* V136D	SRX9736118	0.25	This study	*acfR* V136D
WH_mfsA_48	AB17978 *mfsA*(-9)	SRX9736116	0.75	This study	*mfsA*(-9) A->G
WH_mfsA_12	AB17978 *mfsA*(-19)	SRX9736115	0.75	This study	*mfsA*(-19) T->A
WH319	AB17978 *mfs*(-9) *adeL* P131H	SRX9736114	4	This study	*mfs*(-9); *adeL* P131H
WH316	AB17978 *mfs*(-19) *adeL* P131H	SRX9736113	2	This study	*mfs*(-19); *adeL* P131H
JH1	AB17978 *mfsA*(-19) *adeL* ΔI335A336	SRX9736112	3	This study	*mfsA*(-19); *adeL* ΔI335A336
WH124	AB17978 *lpxD* insA *acfR* V136D *adeL* P131H	SRX9736111	0.75	This study	*lpxD* insA; *acfR* V136D; *adeL* P131H
EHA8	AB17978 *adeL* ΔIA	SRX9736108	1	This study	*adeL* ΔI335A336
EHA15	AB17978 *adeL* P131H	SRX9736107	1	This study	*adeL* P131H
EHA123	AB17978 *adeL* ΔIA Δ*adeFGH*	SRX9736105	1	This study	*adeL* ΔI335A336; Δ*adeFGH*

2 **Table S2. Plasmids and primers used in this study.**

Plasmid	Description	Reference
pUC18	*oriColE1* MCS AmpR	68
pJB4648	R6K ori (E. coli), GentR	69,71
Primers	**Sequence**	
qRT_PCR primers		
16s_qRT_For	CAGCTCGTGTCGTGAGATGT	
16s_qRT_Rev	CGTAAGGGCCATGATGACTT	
adeG_qRT_For	tgctgaaacggttgcatctc	
adeG_qRT_Rev	acggttttgaaccaattgttgg	
adeB_qRT_For	tccggtacagcagagattac	
adeB_qRT_Rev	tgaagcctcaacctgtaaac	
adeJ_qRT_For	cttgaagaacgtgagtctgg	
adeJ_qRT_Rev	attgcaccaatgacaccaag	
15145_qRT_For	GGGCACATACGACGAACTGA	
15145_qRT_Rev	CAAGCGCCACATTTTGACCA	
15150_qRT_For	GTTTTCCGCCAACTCAGCAC	
15150_qRT_Rev	ATCGCCAACGCAAATAGGGA	
Mutant construct primers		
mfsA_For_BamHI	CGCGGATCCTGTTTAACCTGCAACTGCGC	
mfsA_Rev_SalI	ACGCGTCGACCAAGCCTTCAGGACCGACTT	
AdeL_For_BamHI	CGCGGATCCGAAATGTACGGCAATGAG	
AdeL_Rev_Long_SalI	ACGCGTCGACCGAATCACCTTCCAATCCTT	
AraC_For_NotI	ATAAGAATGCGGCCGCCCGTGTTGAGCTTCTTGTTT	
AraC_Rev_XmaI	TCCCCCCGGGCGTCTACTCCTGCCGCAA	
LpxD_For_BamHI	CGCGGATCCCTGGTTATGGGGTAATTGATC	
LpxD_Rev_SalI	ACGCGTCGACGGTTTTGGCGTTTCATTGT	
GyrB_For_BamHI	CGCGGATCCGCCTCTCAAACAGAACAAACC	

GyrB_Rev_SalI	ACGCGTCGACGTGGTTCAACATCATCGCCC

4   **Table S3. *in vitro* growth rates of LpxD mutants compared to AB17978.**

Time (hr)		AB17978				AB17978::LpxD T118_A119insA				AB17978::LpxD E117K			
Optical density at 600nm	0	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.004	0.003	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
	1	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.013	0.009	0.011	0.011	0.011	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.013
	2	0.144	0.138	0.143	0.131	0.054	0.059	0.064	0.067	0.124	0.132	0.129	0.12
	3	1.085	1.01	1.01	0.97	0.335	0.37	0.395	0.43	0.935	0.975	0.985	0.825
	4	2.47	2.68	2.445	2.38	1.16	1.27	1.355	1.39	2.36	2.475	2.475	2.27
	5	3.79	3.82	3.78	3.8	2.81	2.98	2.92	3.12	3.64	3.79	3.64	3.76
	6	4.26	4.23	4.3	4.29	3.56	3.52	3.57	3.81	4.41	4.31	4.33	4.12
	7	4.5	4.59	4.67	4.64	3.95	3.97	3.99	4.09	4.69	4.4	4.47	4.55
	8	4.3	4.29	4.58	4.64	4.34	4.36	4.23	4.28	4.44	4.44	4.49	4.32
Doubling time(min)		**17.325**	**17.479**	**17.667**	**17.258**	**21.579**	**21.904**	**21.563**	**21.165**	**17.927**	**17.511**	**17.546**	**18.005**
R^2		**0.999**	**1**	**0.995**	**0.996**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**0.999**	**0.999**	**0.999**	**0.999**	**0.998**

6 **Table S4.** *in vitro* growth rates of the isolates acquired from the *in vivo* passaging experiments.

Time (hr)		AB17978			AB17978::*adeL* ΔIA			Cy11			Cy21			Cy31		
Optical density at 600nm	0	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	1	0.004	0.002	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.003
	2	0.02	0.021	0.025	0.013	0.015	0.014	0.012	0.011	0.011	0.014	0.012	0.013	0.017	0.015	0.015
	3	0.106	0.182	0.201	0.074	0.077	0.055	0.034	0.042	0.03	0.059	0.042	0.049	0.109	0.052	0.094
	4	0.566	0.712	0.747	0.417	0.416	0.284	0.111	0.235	0.084	0.33	0.22	0.222	0.532	0.272	0.488
	5	1.6	1.65	1.8	1.22	1.2	0.99	0.65	0.9	0.51	1.02	0.93	1.95	1.23	1.03	1.24
	6	2.03	2.04	2.12	1.44	1.38	1.3	1.06	1.23	0.94	1.35	1.23	1.22	1.55	1.36	1.55
	7	2.3	2.29	2.5	1.69	1.76	1.63	1.38	1.54	1.1	1.57	1.5	1.39	1.88	1.74	1.78
	8	2.56	2.55	2.7	1.85	1.83	1.89	1.51	1.73	1.37	1.78	1.61	1.57	2.01	1.91	2
Doubling time(min)		21.463	17.147	19.693	20.828	21.57	23.843	27.629	23.331	28.985	22.828	23.691	21.038	20.606	24.404	20.682
R^2		0.993	0.986	0.999	0.996	0.997	0.996	0.987	0.992	0.984	0.995	0.99	0.975	0.999	0.984	0.998

LpxD aa changes normalized 2300_268

883 genomes

z-score

Amino acid

A STtypes heatmap original

B ST types heatmap after filtering