Evolutionarily stable gene clusters shed light on the common grounds of pathogenicity in the *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus-baumannii* complex

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Abstract

Nosocomial pathogens of the *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus-baumannii* (ACB) complex are a

cautionary example for the world-wide spread of multi- and pan-drug resistant bacteria.

Aiding the urgent demand for novel therapeutic targets, comparative genomics studies

between pathogens and their apathogenic relatives shed light on the genetic basis of

human-pathogen interaction. Yet, existing studies are limited in taxonomic scope, sensing of

the phylogenetic signal, and resolution by largely analyzing genes isolated from their

functional contexts. Here, we explored more than 3,000 *Acinetobacter* genomes in a

phylogenomic framework integrating orthology-based phylogenetic profiling and micro-

synteny conservation analyses. This allowed to delineate gene clusters in the type strain *A.*

baumannii ATCC 19606 whose evolutionary conservation indicates a functional integration

of the subsumed genes. These evolutionarily stable gene clusters (ESGCs) reveal metabolic

pathways, transcriptional regulators residing next to their targets but also tie together sub-

clusters with distinct functions to form higher-order functional modules. We shortlisted 150

ESGCs that either co-emerged with, or are found preferentially in, the pathogenic ACB clade.

They unveil, at an unprecedented resolution, the genetic makeup that coincides with the

manifestation of the pathogenic phenotype in the last common ancestor of the ACB clade.

Key innovations are the remodeling of the regulatory-effector cascade connecting LuxR/LuxI

quorum sensing via an intermediate messenger to biofilm formation, the extension of

micronutrient scavenging systems, and the increase of metabolic flexibility by exploiting

carbon sources that are provided by the human host. Specifically, we could show that only

members of the ACB clade use kynurenine as a sole carbon and energy source, a substance

produced by humans to fine-tune the antimicrobial innate immune response. In summary,

this study provides a rich and unbiased set of novel testable hypotheses on how pathogenic

Acinetobacter interact with and ultimately infect their human host. They disclose promising

routes for future therapeutic strategies.

Keywords

gene cluster, kynurenine, carbohydrate metabolism, phylogenomics, biofilm, quorum

sensing, synteny, virulence, innate immune response

Author Summary

The spread of multi- and pan-drug resistant bacterial pathogens is a world-wide threat to

human health. Understanding the genetics of host colonization and infection is essential for

devising novel ways of treatment. *Acinetobacter baumannii*, a nosocomial pathogen ranked

top by the World Health Organization in the list of bacteria for which novel therapeutic

approaches are needed, is a prime example. Here, we have carved out the genetic make-up

that distinguishes *A. baumannii* and its pathogenic next relatives comprising the *A.*

baumannii–calcoaceticus complex from other and mostly apathogenic *Acinetobacter*

species. We found a rich spectrum of pathways and regulatory modules that reveals how the

pathogens have modified biofilm formation, iron scavenging, and their carbohydrate

metabolism to adapt to their human host. Among these, the capability to metabolize

kynurenine is particularly intriguing. Humans produce this substance to contain bacterial

invaders and to fine-tune the innate immune response. But *A. baumannii* and its allies have

turned the table. They feed on kynurenine, and thus most likely also dysregulate human

immune response. In summary, our study substantially deepens the understanding of how a

highly critical pathogen interacts with its host, which substantially eases the identification of

novel targets for innovative therapeutic strategies.

Introduction

Acinetobacter is a physiologically and biochemically diverse genus of Gram-negative coccobacilli. Most of its species are considered benign, but the genus harbors with the *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus-baumannii* (ACB) complex a group of closely related human opportunistic pathogens [1, 2] that account for the vast majority of severe hospital-acquired *Acinetobacter* spp. infections [3-7]. *Acinetobacter baumannii*, a notorious nosocomial pathogen, is the most renowned member of the ACB complex and signs responsible for up to 5% of the total bacterial infections in hospitals worldwide [8]. By now, antibiotic resistance determinants against virtually all available antibiotics drugs are present in *A. baumannii* [9], and multi- or even pan-drug resistant strains are isolated from 44% of all patients with an *A. baumannii* induced infection [10]. At the same time, both the frequency and severity of infections have increased. Recent case studies report mortality rates of up to 70% [11-13] as well as growing numbers of (clonal) epidemic outbreaks [14]. Moreover, community-acquired infections by members of the ACB complex begin to rise [6, 15]. In recent years, significant advancements in the molecular characterization of drug resistance mechanisms have led to more informed drug administration schemes for hospitalized patients [6]. Still, the ease with which *A. baumannii* acquires resistance to novel antibiotics [10] makes it likely that resistant strains and their resistance determinants are going to spread at a faster pace than novel antimicrobials become available [16]. As a consequence, *A. baumannii* ranks top in the WHO charts of pathogens for which drug development is most urgent [17].

A systemic understanding of how *A. baumannii* interacts with and infects their human host can lead to novel paths for antimicrobial treatments [18-20]. Three main approaches have been used to elucidate the molecular basis of *Acinetobacter* virulence. Candidate approaches

(i) have scanned for virulence factors previously characterized in other bacterial pathogens [4,

7, 21-25]. To extend the scope beyond pre-compiled virulence factor catalogs, genome-wide

approaches (ii) have assessed, for example, the effect of gene knockouts on the infection

process (e.g. [12, 26]), or have identified the transcriptional changes under conditions the

bacterium typically encounters in the human host (e. g. [23, 27]). These studies are, in theory,

the most comprehensive way to identify virulence-related traits. However, experiments are

usually performed only on a small set of model strains (e.g. [28]). Moreover, the limited set of

tested conditions cannot reflect the diversity of infection sites in the human body.

Consequently, results are hard to generalize. Lastly, factors that contribute only indirectly to

virulence are hard to pinpoint. For example, we have only begun to understand how

adaptations in the carbohydrate metabolism contribute to the virulence of *A. baumannii* [29].

Comparative genomics studies (iii) provided complementary evidence with the potential to

overcome limitations imposed by the experimental procedures. They aim at identifying

evolutionary changes that correlate with the emergence of pathogenic species [30]. To date,

the genus *Acinetobacter* encompasses 72 (validly) named and mostly nonpathogenic species

[31], which have been isolated from a broad range of habitats such as floral nectar, tree bark,

seawater, but also animals [32]. This diversity provides an almost perfect setup to identify

changes in the gene repertoires that are associated with the evolutionary emergence of the

pathogenic potential, which eventually manifested in the ACB complex. Thus far, comparative

genomics studies have begun to shed light on the general evolution of the genus [9] and the

clonal epidemiology [33] of *A. baumannii*. They indicated that a major driver of *A. baumannii*'s

success as a pathogen is its remarkably flexible genome [9]. High mutation rates [34] paired

with the ability to acquire new, or alter the structure or expression of existing genes [11-13]

promote a rapid adaptation to novel and adverse environmental conditions. Moreover, its

high genomic plasticity [34-36] facilitates the acquisition of antimicrobial resistance

determinants complementing the intrinsic *A. baumannii* resistance [37]. However, against the

intuition, most of the known virulence determinants were found also in the nonpathogenic

members of the genus (e.g. [4, 38-40]). Thus, it is still largely unknown which genetic changes

correlate with the emergence of the ACB complex as opportunistic human pathogens, and the

genetic basis underlying the adaptation of *A. baumannii* to the human host largely remains to

be understood [41].

Here, we exploit the availability of thousands of *Acinetobacter* spp. genomes in the public

databases (NCBI RefSeq; [42]) to shed light on the evolution of the pathogenic ACB complex

at a resolution that extends from a genus-wide overview to the level of individual clonal

lineages within *A. baumannii.* For the first time, we integrate genus-wide ortholog searches,

with analyses of gene order conservation providing a highly-resolved view on the joint

evolutionary fate of neighboring genes using the type strain ATCC 19606 as a reference. This

revealed 150 evolutionarily stable gene clusters (ESGC$_{ACB}$) that are prevalent in the ACB

complex and rare or absent in the other members of the genus. The functional annotations

of these ESGCs provide insights into the genetic and functional specifics of a clade

comprising mostly pathogens, and thus direct the focus to key processes likely relevant for

the adaptation of the bacterium to the human host. We find that the ACB complex acquired

novel genetic modules for the regulation and formation of biofilms, for the scavenging of

micronutrients, and have substantially extended their capabilities to exploit a diverse set of

carbon sources. Most notably, we show that members of the ACB complex possess the

kynurenine (Kyn) pathway and can grow on kynurenine as a sole carbon and energy source.

The implications beyond the tapping of a novel carbon source are compelling. Both

metabolites are produced by the human host via tryptophan degradation upon bacterial

infection and they contribute to the finetuning of the human innate immune response [43,

44]. Thus, the presence of the Kyn pathway allows members of the ACB complex to feed on

substances produced by the host to defend against bacterial attack. By that, they potentially

interfere with the kynurenine-dependent finetuning of the human innate immune response.

Results

The ability to infect humans emerged in the course of *Acinetobacter* spp. evolution and is a

hallmark of the ACB complex. Here, we exploited the full diversity of *Acinetobacter* genomes

available in the public databases that was available at the onset of the study (S1 Table SA1).

We use this resource to trace changes in the *Acinetobacter* pan-genome that correlate with

the manifestation of pathogenicity in the ACB complex. To make the analyses

computationally tractable we devised a two-stage strategy.

In the priming stage, we determined the evolutionary relationships within the *Acinetobacter*

pan-genome with the orthology inference tool OMA [45]. Because the computational

complexity of the OMA ortholog search scales exponentially with the numbers of genes in

the pan-genome, we compiled a representative set of strains (Set-R) for this analysis. In

brief, we considered all available type, reference and representative genomes, as well as all

validly named species for which a genome sequence was available at the study onset. This

set was filled to a total number of 232 strains by adding further genomes to maximize the

phylogenetic diversity of the taxon set (see Methods, and S2 Suppl. Text: Overview of

genome assemblies in Set-R). The corresponding strains together with genome assembly

statistics, and, where available, the origins of the isolates are summarized in S3. Members of

the ACB complex harbor, on average, 14% more genes than other members of this genus

(students t-test - $p<0.001$; S4 Fig. SA3.A). Gene counts were highly correlated with genome

lengths (spearman, $\rho=0.98$), and neither the difference in genome length nor the number of

encoded genes was significantly correlated with the assembly status (Completeness status

"Complete" vs. Others, Kruskal-Wallis, p=0.311) (see SA3 for further information). The Set-R

pan-genome comprises 22,350 orthologous groups harboring 783,306 proteins; 16,000

proteins remained singletons (see SA4.C for a graphical representation). Rarefaction

analyses revealed that the pan-genomes of the entire genus, the ACB complex, and *A.*

baumannii are open (S2 Suppl. Text: Pan-genome reconstruction). 889 genes represent the

core genome of *Acinetobacter* (S5 Table SB1; S2 Suppl. Text: Core-genome reconstruction).

Eventually, we tentatively annotated gene function in the Set-R pan-genome by linking the

individual genes to COGs [46], to KEGG KOs [47], to entries in the virulence factor databases

PATRIC [21] and VFDB [48], and by predicting their subcellular localization. To make this data

available to the community, we developed the web application Aci-Dash (https://aci-

dash.ingress.rancher.computational.bio/; Fig. 1), the first web-based platform to

interactively browse and explore the *Acinetobacter* pan-genome.

In the extension stage, we used a targeted ortholog search to complement the orthologous

groups from the SET-R analysis with sequences from the remaining 2,820 *Acinetobacter*

genomes (Set-F).

Consistency-based phylogeny of the genus *Acinetobacter*

To establish a stable phylogenetic backbone for our analysis, we reconstructed the

maximum likelihood evolutionary relationships of the taxa in Set-R and Set-F, respectively,

from three non-overlapping partitions of the 889 core genes. The majority-rule consensus

phylogenies from the three trees each (Set-R – Fig. 2A, S6 Fig. SC5; Set-F – Fig. 2B, Additional

files 7: Fig. SC6 and 8: File SC7) reveal that all named species (at the time of download) as

well as the members of the ACB complex are consistently placed into monophyletic clades.

Incongruencies between the three partition trees are confined to the branching order within

individual species, and here mainly within the densely sampled *A. baumannii* and *A. pittii*.

This indicates that genetic recombination, which is most likely the source of the incongruent

phylogenetic signal [49], is common enough only within species to interfere with

phylogenomic reconstructions based on hundreds of genes [50]. Across the genus, we

detected and corrected individual taxonomic assignments that are at odds with the

phylogenetic placement of the taxa, and most likely indicate mislabeled strains ([51, 52]).

Specifically, we corrected 16 of such instances within the ACB clade, of which ten were

wrongly classified as *A. baumannii* according to NCBI RefSeq. In turn, 60 out of 182 genomes

with an unknown taxonomic assignment were placed within the ACB clade (see S8 Table SC1

for species and clade assignments including the corrections). Interestingly, a comparison of

the average pair-wise nucleotide identity (ANI) across all genomes within Set-R revealed that

at least two genomes placed into the ACB clade cannot be associated with any known

species (ANI <95%, c. f. S9 Fig. SC3). This indicates that the full species diversity of the ACB

complex is not yet fully charted.

To ease the integration of the phylogenetic information into the following sections, we used

one species each to name the individual clades in the *Acinetobacter* phylogeny (Figure 2A).

Lifestyle and host switches during *Acinetobacter* evolution

The two earliest branching clades, named after *A. qingfengensis* (QI) and *A. brisouii* (BR),

respectively, solely comprise environmental species. *A. apis*, which was isolated from bees

[53], appears as an exception. However, *Acinetobacter* species are sporadically observed in

the bee gut, though they are not considered part of the gut microbiome [54]. Instead, they

likely represent environmental bacteria that were taken up by the bee with the food [55].

Thus, the capability to colonize animals evolved later and most likely in the ancestral species

prior to the split of the *A. lwoffii* (LW) clade (Fig. 2B). Usually, members of the LW clade are

nonpathogenic. Repeated cases of human infection have only been reported for individual

strains that mainly group with *A. lwoffii* and *A. radioresistens*, which manifested in vascular

catheter-induced bloodstream infections with a low mortality rate [56]. Thus, human

infection is likely an exception rather than the rule for this clade. Species descending from

the most recent common ancestor *A. baumannii* shares with the *A. baylyi* clade (BA, in

particular *A. ursingii*) and with the *A. haemolyticus* clade (HA), respectively, are found

increasingly often associated with human pathogenicity, suggesting a progressive adaptation

to humans as a host [57]. Members of the monophyletic ACB complex (ACB clade), which

subsumes the *A. pittii clade* (PI), the *A. nosocomialis* clade (NO), and the *A. baumannii* clade

(B), are all potentially pathogenic, although *A. calcoaceticus* has, thus far, very rarely been

seen in the context of human infection. It can be speculated that the few reported cases

were due to a miss-classified strain from a different species (see subsection "Consistency-

based phylogeny of the genus Acinetobacter" above). Thus, *A. calcoaceticus* at least

substantially reduced its pathogenic potential if not lost it completely [25].

Functional innovation in the Set-R pan-genome

We next scanned the Set-R pan-genome for gains of function on the lineage towards

contemporary *A. baumannii*. We tentatively stratified the pan-genome by assigning each

orthologous group to the inner node in the *Acinetobacter* phylogeny that represents the last

common ancestor (LCA) of the two most distantly related taxa in that group (Fig. 3A). For

each node, we then determined the set of significantly enriched gene functions using the

gene ontology (GO) terms from the sub-ontology Biological Process. Because genes with a

sparse phylogenetic distribution cannot drive the shared phenotype of a clade, we confined

the GO term enrichment analysis to only the subset of orthologous groups, where orthologs

were detected in at least half of the subsumed taxa of a node (Fig. 3B; Table 1; S10 Tables

SD1). This revealed several processes with potential relevance for pathogenicity, e.g. cell

adhesion, siderophore biosynthesis, and response to oxidative stress. However, reproducing

previous observations [4, 38-40], the corresponding genes were assigned to nodes in the

phylogeny that predate the emergence of the ACB clade. Only three significantly enriched

GO terms were assigned to the node representing the LCA of the ACB clade, and no term

was significantly enriched in the genes private to *A. baumannii*.

Table 1 Selection of overrepresented GO terms in the assigned gene sets of the inner nodes.[1]

Node	GO	Biological Process	p_cor[2]	RT[3]	RB[4]	d[5]	SC[6]	SA[7]	%B[8]	%ACB[9]	%nACB[10]
ACB+BR (n=230)	GO:0018189	pyrroloquinoline quinone biosynthesis	$<10^{-7}$	8.6	5.0	9	192	5	97.8	98.7	17.0
	GO:0006855	drug tm transport	$<10^{-7}$	2.4	9.5	5	53	1	96.4	96.8	23.4
	GO:0015810/3	aspartate/L-glutamate tm transport	$<10^{-7}$	4.3	2.5	10	96	2	96.4	97.8	24.8
	GO:0071705	nitrogen compound transport	$<10^{-7}$	2.8	9.1	4	62	1	100	100	27.7
	GO:0019439	aromatic compound catabolism	$5.2*10^{-3}$	2.2	14.0	4	49	2	92.7	95.7	28.4
	GO:0006631	fatty acid metabolism	$<10^{-7}$	3.3	6.5	7	73	1	89.1	91.4	36.2
	GO:0019619	3,4-dihydroxybenzoate catabolism	$<10^{-7}$	3.2	10.6	8	72	1	90.9	92.5	39.0
	GO:0007155	cell adhesion	$<10^{-7}$	4.6	10.6	2	103	1	98.2	98.9	40.4
	GO:0010124	phenylacetate catabolism	$<10^{-7}$	10.4	8.5	8	233	4	89.6	90.6	45.7
ACB+LW (n=223)	GO:0031388	organic acid phosphorylation	$<10^{-7}$	2.9	2.4	6	54	1	98.2	98.9	14.9
	GO:0009437	carnitine metabolism	$3.1*10^{-3}$	0.2	0.1	6	3	1	94.5	88.2	22.0
	GO:0071705	nitrogen compound transport	$<10^{-7}$	4.4	10.5	4	83	2	99.1	94.6	23.4
	GO:0036104	Kdo2-lipid A biosynthesis	$<10^{-7}$	2.4	3.8	8	45	1	94.5	91.4	29.8
	GO:0009435	NAD biosynthesis	$<10^{-7}$	3.4	15.7	11	65	1	89.1	91.4	30.5
	GO:0009116	nucleoside metabolism	$<10^{-7}$	3.5	13.0	6	67	1	96.4	95.7	31.2
	GO:0055085	tm transport	$<10^{-7}$	24.2	149.4	4	459	7	90.2	89.1	38.7
	GO:0019557/6	histidine catabolism to glutamate and formate/formamide	$<10^{-7}$	9.9	6.1	10	188	3	95.8	97.5	41.6
	GO:0006351	transcription, DNA-templated	$<10^{-7}$	86.9	320.1	9	1645	21	95.5	93.7	41.8
	GO:0019290	siderophore biosynthesis	$<10^{-7}$	8.0	4.8	8	170	3	95.8	72.8	41.8
ACB+BA (n=152)	GO:0045150	acetoin catabolism	$<10^{-7}$	33.6	0.8	7	36	1	100	100	14.9
	GO:0019290	siderophore biosynthesis	$<10^{-7}$	29.9	5.6	8	32	1	96.4	97.8	22.0
	GO:0006351	transcription, DNA-templated	$<10^{-7}$	76.5	0.03	9	82	2	84.5	84.9	26.2
ACB+HA (n=143)	GO:0022904	respiratory electron transport chain	$<10^{-7}$	45.9	5.39	5	44	0	90.9	79.6	11.3
	GO:0006351	transcription, DNA-templated	$<10^{-7}$	78.3	314.8	9	75	0	90.9	91.4	27.0
ACB (n=93)	GO:0009372	quorum sensing	$<10^{-7}$	8.8	0.3	3	13	2	86.4	90.3	0.0
	GO:0006351	transcription, DNA-templated	$<10^{-7}$	98.9	318.1	9	146	5	92.0	87.1	0.0
	GO:0006979	response to oxidative stress	$4.7*10^{-5}$	9.5	17.4	3	14	1	89.1	78.5	0.0

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[1] The full list of enriched terms is provided in Additional file 10 Table SD1.1.

[2] corrected p-value

[3] Ratio of genes with term in test set of that node ($\times10^{-3}$)

[4] Ratio of genes in background set of that node ($\times10^{-4}$)

[5] Depth of term in GO tree

[6] Count of subjects with term in study set of that node

[7] Number of ortholog groups associated with proteins in the study set. For this table, redundancy was reduced by selecting the lowest depth GO terms if any two GO terms had non-empty intersections between their sets of protein sequence identifiers or associated ortholog group identifiers.

[8] Mean prevalence of associated ortholog groups in *A. baumannii*

[9] Mean prevalence of associated ortholog groups in the ACB clade

[10] Mean prevalence of associated ortholog groups in *Acinetobacter* spp.

Evolutionary and functional units in the ATCC 19606 gene set

The GO term enrichment analysis revealed only a weak signal for the gain of biological

processes that can be directly connected to bacterial virulence in the evolutionarily younger

nodes of the *Acinetobacter* phylogeny. However, two factors confound the analysis. Only

about two-thirds of all unique sequences in the *Acinetobacter* spp*.* pan-genome is annotated

with a GO term and many of the genes with only unspecific terms. Moreover, the sporadic

presence of orthologs to individual genes in taxa outside the ACB clade, e.g. as a result of

recombination, confounds the phylogenetic stratification of the pan-genome. To increase

both power and resolution, we widened the focus and traced the emergence and evolution

of gene clusters in *Acinetobacter* spp. using the type strain *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 as a

reference. For each gene in the type strain, we integrated its node assignment, the

abundance of orthologs within *A. baumannii*, within other members of the ACB clade, and

within the remaining taxa in SET-R, respectively, and, where applicable, the overrepresented

GO terms (Fig. 4). As a recurrent theme, we observed that genes linked to the same

overrepresented GO term reside adjacent to genes with highly similar phylogenetic

abundance patterns, despite being occasionally assigned to different nodes in the

phylogeny. We subsequently connected neighboring genes with significantly similar

abundance patterns across the entire genome of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 to form

candidate clusters. A candidate cluster was then propagated to represent an evolutionarily

stable gene cluster (ESGC), which likely forms a functional entity if its gene order was found

conserved within the ACB clade (S11 Table SE1.3). Subsequently, we shortlisted 150 ESGC$_{ACB}$

that are abundant among members of the ACB clade and, at the same time, rare or even

absent outside the clade (SE1.3 and SE1.4; see S2 Suppl. Text: Workflow of ESGC

identification and shortlisting). As the last step, we manually validated the automatic

ESGC$_{ACB}$ assignment for 44 clusters whose sets of genes were each functionally annotated to

a level that allowed us to infer general cluster function (Fig. 5), and for further 10 clusters

with an unknown function but that are almost exclusively found in the ACB clade (Fig. 6).

These 54 ESGC$_{ACB}$ can be broadly distinguished into four categories: The cluster comprises (i)

a known operon or metabolic gene cluster (e.g., ESGC$_{ACB}$-0622, phenylacetate metabolism),

(ii) a group of functionally related genes that are linked to genes, whose functional link, e.g.

acting as a transcriptional regulator, was unknown thus far (e.g., ESGC$_{ACB}$-0162), (iii) super-

clusters connecting two or more clusters with distinct functions to form a higher-order

functional unit (ESGC$_{ACB}$-0394, *adeFGH* and *hisQMP*), and (iv) clusters of genes with an

unknown function (e.g., ESGC$_{ACB}$-0503 to 0510; Fig. 6). We hypothesize that the adaptation

of pathogenic *Acinetobacter* species to their human host is likely mirrored in the various

functions that these ESGC$_{ACB}$ convey. In the following sections, we highlight a selection of

clusters related to persistence, micronutrient acquisition, and the evolution towards

nutritional flexibility (see S2 Suppl. Text: Gene clusters (ESGCs) not discussed in main

manuscript).

The evolutionary emergence of the ACB clade coincides with changes in quorum sensing and

biofilm formation

Quorum sensing and biofilm formation are key determinants of *A. baumannii* virulence [58-

60]. Both functions are represented by ESGC$_{ACB}$-0162 (14 genes) and 0410 (8 genes).

ESGC$_{ACB}$-0162 represents the regulatory module of this process. It harbors the Lux-type

quorum sensing system (QS$_{Lux}$), which regulates motility and biofilm formation in *A.*

baumannii, and additionally, a biosynthetic gene cluster containing a non-ribosomal peptide

synthetase here referred to as NRPS cluster. Both genes of QS$_{Lux}$, *abaI* and *abaR,* are

separated by a short gene that was tentatively named *abaM* (Fig 7A; see also S2 Suppl. Text:

Characterization of AbaM). This three-gene architecture is conserved in the ACB clade, and it

is common in *Burkholderia* spp. [61], where the intervening short gene acts as a negative

regulator of the QS_{Lux} system [62]. Recently, initial evidence emerged that AbaM in the *A.*

baumannii strain AB5075 indeed regulates quorum sensing and biofilm formation [63]. In

the light of our results, we propose that AbaM is an understudied modulator of quorum

sensing in the entire ACB clade.

The NRPS cluster (Figure 7A) produces a three-amino acid lipopeptide, Ac-505 [60], which

likely plays a central role in regulating bacterial motility and biofilm formation [64].

Disrupting its biogenesis alters the expression of numerous factors involved in biofilm

formation and surface adherence [65], in particular the chaperon-usher pili (CUP) and the

archaic chaperon-usher pili (CSU). Consequently, host cell adhesion and virulence of *A.*

baumannii are substantially reduced*.* Here, we provide first-time evidence that the

evolutionary fate of the NRPS cluster is intimately intertwined with that of the QS_{Lux} cluster.

We found that the rare strain-specific loss of the QS_{Lux}-cluster determines the loss of the

NRPS cluster, which implies that they not only form an evolutionary but also a functional

unit. Interestingly, strains lacking $ESGC_{ACB}$-0162 are not randomly distributed. Most

prominently, the cluster is missing in almost all (48/55) *A. baumannii* strains representing

the international clone type (IC) 8 (Fig. 5). The formation of a higher-order module

comprising the QS genes and an NRPS biosynthetic gene cluster is a repeated scheme during

bacterial evolution. For example, the methane-oxidizing bacterium *Methylobacter*

tundripaludum harbors an NRPS biosynthetic gene cluster that was integrated between the

abaI and *abaR* orthologs. And the production of the corresponding extracellular factor is

under control of the QS cluster [66]. NRPS-dependent molecules have been implicated to

mediate interspecific communications across kingdoms both in symbiotic and pathogenic

communities. In *P. aeruginosa*, the interplay of N-acyl-L-homoserine lactone-dependent

quorum-sensing signaling and an NRPS-dependent biosynthesis of bacterial cyclodipeptides

(CDPs), which act as auxin signal mimics, modulates the communication to its host plant

Arabidopsis thaliana [67]. It can be speculated that $ESGC_{ACB}$-0162 may similarly coordinate,

the communication between the bacteria and their human host.

$ESGC_{ACB}$-0410, harbors the Csu cluster responsible for biofilm formation on abiotic surfaces

via archaic chaperon-usher pili [68, 69] (Figure 7B) together with a transcriptional regulator

of the TetR/AcrR family (TFTRs) (S12 Fig. SE3.0410). TFTRs represent one-component

systems that regulate a broad variety of cellular processes in bacteria, among them many

that are related to virulence such as efflux pump expression and biofilm formation [70, 71].

Notably, they are often encoded alongside their target operons. To the best of our

knowledge, regulation of the Csu cluster via an adjacent TFTR has never been reported.

Thus, next to the two-component systems BfmRS [72] and GacSA [73], a third hitherto

undescribed one-component system, seems to be involved in regulating the formation of

Csu pili.

In line with our finding that $ESGC_{ACB}$-0162 and $ESGC_{ACB}$-0410 have similar abundance

patterns (cf. Figure 5), the regulation of the Csu cluster appears under the direct control of

Ac-505 [26, 65]. Thus, Ac-505 likely acts as a modulator between biofilm formation on

abiotic and biotic surfaces. However, contrary to the QS_{Lux} - NRPS supercluster, the Csu

cluster was lost multiple times independently in the ACB clade (Figure 5). Given its terminal

position in the regulator-effector cascade, this indicates a lineage-specific fine-tuning of

biofilm formation. Interestingly, within *A. baumannii*, we find that all 55 IC8 strains in our

dataset lack both the QS_{Lux} - NRPS supercluster and the Csu cluster, which points towards

substantial changes in the way how IC8 strains regulate biofilm formation.

KatA – an ACB clade specific catalase

The genome of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 harbors five putative catalases: *katA*, *katE*, *katE-like*, *katG*, and *katX* [23, 74]. Note, that both Sun et al. [74] and Juttukonda et al. [23, 74] refer to a catalase labeled *katE*, which, however, represent different genes (locus tags A1S_1386/A1S_3382 and DJ41_RS22765/DJ41_RS10660 in *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 and ATCC 19606, respectively). We, therefore, named the latter *katE*-like. *KatA* is the only catalase that is exclusively found in the ACB clade. The corresponding gene resides in a cluster next to a putative MFS transporter and a cytochrome b561 (ESGC$_{ACB}$-0624, Fig. 7C). The KatA cluster is highly conserved in all species of the ACB clade except *A. calcoaeceticus*, where it has been lost (cf. Figs 5 and 7C). Upon host infection, both neutrophils and macrophages recruit radical oxygen species (ROS) for bacterial clearance [75, 76], and thus ROS defense mechanisms are an essential contributor to bacterial virulence. However, an initial investigation in *Ab* ATCC 17978 found no obvious link between KatA and ROS protection [23]. Still, the abundance pattern of ESGC$_{ACB}$-0624 is perfectly in line with the hypothesis that this cluster contributes to virulence in pathogenic members of the ACB clade, and more comprehensive studies are needed to elucidate its precise role during bacterial infection.

Metabolic adaptation – Micronutrient acquisition is refined in the ACB-clade

All members of the genus *Acinetobacter* must supply their demand of essential micronutrients, most importantly iron and zinc. Acquisition systems for these two metals are therefore represented in the genus-wide core genome (Figure 8). However, both iron and zinc are actively sequestered by the host to starve invading pathogens, a strategy referred to as nutritional immunity [77]. This likely results in a strong selective pressure for the

pathogenic ACB clade to optimize scavenging systems such that the reduced bioavailability

of these metal ions in the host can be counterbalanced.

Acquisition systems for iron, whose limited availability at the host-pathogen interface is

considered one of the key obstacles for invading and persisting within the human host, are a

showcase example. The iron transporter system *feoABC* represents the evolutionary core of

iron uptake. It is complemented, in many but not all taxa [28] both inside and outside of the

ACB clade, by the baumannoferrin cluster (Figure 8). Two further clusters extend the

spectrum of iron uptake systems exclusively in the ACB clade. $ESGC_{ACB}$-0498 represents the

2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid synthesis cluster (*entAB*), which synthesizes a siderophore

precursor [78]. $ESGC_{ACB}$-0368 and 0369 together resemble the acinetobactin biosynthesis

clusters *bauA-F*, *basA-I* and *barAB*. However, a third cluster, $ESGC_{ACB}$-0485, that very likely

represents an ABC-type Fe^{3+}-hydroxamate transport system seems to extend the diversity of

iron uptake systems in the ACB clade even further. It encodes a substrate-binding protein, an

iron complex ABC transporter (permease), an ATP-binding protein, and an N-

Acetyltransferase protein (GNAT family). The AraC-family-like transcriptional regulator,

which is located downstream on the opposite strand in $ESGC_{ACB}$-0485, likely controls the

expression of this cluster. In line with this operon-like organization, these genes are jointly

downregulated under mucin-rich conditions [79]. The complex and seemingly redundant

infrastructure for iron uptake in the ACB clade seems at odds with a recent study in *A.*

baumannii ATCC 17978, which stated that acinetobactin is the only system that is necessary

for *A. baumannii* to grow on host iron sources [80]. However, here we show that this

conclusion does not generalize to the entire ACB clade. The pathogens *A. nosocomialis* and

A. seifertii, for example, lost the acinetobactin cluster (cf. Fig. 5). Instead, it is conceivable

that the diversity of iron acquisition systems is an adaptation to diverse niches each

requiring different strategies of iron scavenging.

Given the essentiality of zinc (Zn), it is not surprising to see that also Zn uptake was refined

on the lineage towards the ACB clade. The zinc uptake system Znu, including the distal *znuD*

gene, which facilitates resistance to human calprotectin-mediated zinc sequestration [23], is

evolutionarily old and part of the genus-wide core genome (Figure 8) The histidine utilization

(Hut) system (*hutCDUHTIG*, ESGC$_{ACB}$-0215) is prevalent in the ACB clade, though not

exclusively. This system ensures the bio-availability of Zn via the histidine catabolism both

under high availability and starvation of Zn. However, it requires histidine to be abundant.

Interestingly, the most recent acquisition in the Zn metabolism is the putative

metallochaperone, ZigA. The corresponding gene resides directly adjacent to ESGC$_{ACB}$-0215,

and thus is likely an evolutionary more recent extension of this cluster. *zigA* was found active

only under Zn starvation, where it increases the bioavailability of Zn also under histidine

depletion [81] and counteracts nutritional starvation.

Manganese (Mn^{2+}) is required only in small amounts and is mostly used for coping with

reactive oxygen species (ROS), as Mn^{2+}, other than Fe^{2+}, does not promote the Fenton

reaction that converts H$_2$O$_2$ to highly damaging hydroxyl radicals [82, 83]. Therefore, Mn

uptake systems should be prevalent in bacteria frequently exposed to ROS stress,

particularly in the pathogenic *Acinetobacter* strains. Thus far, only one Mn acquisition

system, *mumRTLUHC* [84], has been identified in *Acinetobacter spp*. This system is

represented by ESGC$_{ACB}$-0611 and plays an essential role in protecting *A. baumannii* against

calprotectin-mediated Mn depletion by the host and contributes to bacterial fitness in a

murine pneumonia model [84]. ESGC$_{ACB}$-0611 is found throughout the genus though less

frequently in clades that are more distantly related to the ACB clade (cf. Figures 5 and 8).

Within the HA-clade, several species including *A. tjernbergiae*, *A. junii*, *A. beijnerickii,* and *A.*

haemolyticus lack both the putative manganese transporter gene *mumT* and the gene

encoding a putative hydrolase *mumU* (S12 Fig. SE3.0611). Within IC 3, several strains lack the

entire cluster. These taxa either found alternatives to Mn^{2+}-dependent processes for coping

with oxidative stress, are more vulnerable to ROS, or they scavenge Mn^{2+} via a mechanism

that is still hidden in functionally uncharacterized gene clusters.

In summary, we see a clear signal that the ACB clade is enriched for genes and gene clusters

that functionally complement the genus-wide available and evolutionarily old metal uptake

systems. In line with the reinforcement hypothesis, these more recently acquired clusters

seem particularly important for metal scavenging during infection, i.e. when the metals are

actively sequestered by the host [80, 81].

Carbohydrate metabolism - Evolution towards nutritional flexibility

The ability of individual *Acinetobacter* strains to utilize a broad spectrum of carbon sources is

important for their adaptation to different environments, including the human host [40, 85-

88]. However, it is largely unknown when the corresponding metabolic pathways were

acquired during *Acinetobacter* evolution, how widespread they are, and if and to what

extent they are connected to the pathogenicity of the ACB clade. More than 20 of the

shortlisted $ESGCs_{ACB}$ represent pathways that shuttle metabolites into the carbohydrate

metabolism of the bacterium (Figure 5, in red font, and see Figure 9 for a selection), many of

which are prevalent in the human body. The corresponding gene clusters mostly channel

these metabolites into catabolic processes (see below). However, the genes involved in the

glucose/gluconate metabolism seem to fuel anabolic processes.

 Glucose / Gluconate metabolism

Glucose and gluconate serve as carbon and energy sources for individual species in the

genus *Acinetobacter*, e.g., *A. soli, A. apis,* and *A. baylyi.* For *A. baylyi* ADP1 it was shown that

the glucose catabolism involves the Entner-Doudoroff pathway [89]. Members of the ACB

clade have lost the ability to use glucose as a carbon source [90] (see also S13 Fig. SF6C and

S14 Table SF2). It is, thus, surprising that we find the genetic infrastructure to feed both

molecules into the bacterial metabolism almost exclusively in the ACB clade.

ESGC$_{ACB}$-0112 comprises the gluconate permease (GntP) that shuttles gluconate from the

periplasm into the bacterial cell (Figure 9, yellow pathway). The cluster further encodes the

kinase GntK, which phosphorylates gluconate into 6-phosphogluconate, and the enzymes

Edd and Eda of the Entner-Doudoroff pathway, which link to the pentose phosphate

pathway that produces pyruvate. Members of the ACB clade also possess two variants of a

glucose dehydrogenase (*gdh*), which catalyze the reaction from D-glucose to D-gluconate in

the periplasm [91]. The membrane-bound variant (*gdhA*), forms together with an outer

membrane porin a cluster of two genes, ESGC$_{ACB}$-0287 (cf. S15 SE2.0287), which is

ubiquitous across *Acinetobacter* spp. We note that the porin is orthologous to OprB in *P.*

aeruginosa, where it facilitates the diffusion of various sugars - including glucose - into the

periplasm. The second, soluble Gdh (*gdhB*) is confined to and nearly ubiquitous in the ACB

clade (S16 Fig. SF3, S11 Table SE1.1, HOG3408).

The prosthetic group for both Gdh, pyrroloquinoline quinone (PQQ), is a small, redox-active

molecule that serves as a cofactor for several bacterial dehydrogenases. ESGC$_{ACB}$-0497

comprises six genes that together represent the PQQ biosynthesis pathway: *pqqABCDE* and

an additional membrane-bound dipeptidase referred to as *pqqF* in *Klebsiella pneumoniae*

[92] (cf. Figure 9, pink). All genes reside contiguously on the same strand suggesting an

operonic structure. The complete cluster is present in almost all genomes of the ACB clade,

although we had to manually confirm the presence of *pqqA*, because its length (40 amino

acids) is below the length cutoff of the ortholog assignment tool. Only 31 out of 2436 strains

in the ACB clade have lost the ability to synthesize PQQ, among them the model strain *A.*

baumannii ATCC 17978. Cluster abundance outside the ACB clade is low (<20%), but it is

present in all strains of species with demonstrated ability to assimilate glucose and

gluconate (i.e. *A. soli*, *A. baylyi*, and *A. apis*, cf. [90]; SE2.0497).

The holoenzymes *GdhA* and/or *GdhB*, in theory, could establish a gapless route for glucose

via this gluconate 'shunt' into the cell for further degradation via the Entner-Doudoroff

pathway, even in the absence of a dedicated Glucose transporter. Why then does none of

the tested strains in the ACB clade grow with glucose as sole carbon and energy source? We

hypothesize that they utilize this route for anabolic processes exclusively, e.g. for the

production of polysaccharides as it was demonstrated for *P. aeruginosa* [93].

Carbohydrate Catabolism

The ACB clade has substantially increased its repertoire of catabolic pathways for alternative

carbon sources compared to taxa outside this clade [94]. For a small number of mostly hand-

picked *A. baumannii* strains, previous studies have experimentally confirmed the ability to

grow on tricarballylate and putrescine, malonate, butanediol and acetoin, phenylacetate,

muconate, glucarate, galactarate (mucate), and 4-hydroxyproline as sole carbon sources [40,

85]. Our analyses identified the corresponding gene clusters among the ESGC$_{ACB}$. Hence, the

ability to use these resources is prevalent in the ACB clade, whereas non-ACB species have

to rely largely on different carbon sources. We will highlight two examples that likely

represent an adaptation to humans as a host.

D-glucarate (saccharate) is a major organic acid in human serum [95]. $ESGC_{ACB}$-0568

comprises all necessary genes for glucarate and galactarate (mucic acid) degradation (Figure

9). In *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium deletion of the D-glucarate/D-galactarate

permease ortholog attenuated virulence [96]. Further, galactarate digestion was shown to

increase the colonization fitness of intestinal pathogens in antibiotic-treated mice and to

promote bacterial survival during stress [97]. Given that $ESGC_{ACB}$-0568 is almost exclusively

confined to the ACB clade, it is conceivable that this cluster contributes to colonization and

virulence in pathogenic *Acinetobacter* species. It is therefore interesting that within *A.*

baumannii the cluster is almost absent in IC2 strains (0.08% prevalence in Set-F; *cf.* Figure 5).

Carnitine is essential for the oxidative catabolism of fatty acids in humans [98]. $ESGC_{ACB}$-0016

comprises six genes necessary for catabolizing carnitine [99]. A LysR-type transcriptional

regulator likely controls the activity of this cluster. The remaining five genes represent a

putative tartrate dehydrogenase (*ttuC*), a BCCT-family carnitine transporter (Aci01347), a

generically annotated alpha/beta hydrolase which possibly catalyses the conversion of D-

acylcarnitine into L-carnitine (see Figure 9, green), and the genes encoding the two subunits

of the carnitine monooxygenase CntA and CntB. The latter two genes are separated by a

gene that is tentatively annotated as an NAD-dependent succinate-semialdehyde

dehydrogenase. However, two lines of evidence indicate that the precise function of this

gene as well as that of the putative tartrate hydrogenase might both differ. In the literature,

the putative succinate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase is speculated to act as malic

semialdehyde dehydrogenase [99], an enzyme that converts malate semialdehyde into

malate. Further, the putative tartrate dehydrogenase belongs to the KEGG orthologous

group KO7246 which is annotated as a D-malate dehydrogenase. The product of the latter

enzyme, pyruvate, can be further processed into oxaloacetate, which serves as a substrate

for the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (cf. Figure 9). Assuming that the putative malic

semialdehyde dehydrogenase produces D-malate, then, in the presence of an appropriate

transporter, this cluster should allow the members of the ACB clade to utilize D-malate as a

carbon source. We tested this hypothesis, and confirmed that *Ab* ATCC 19606 indeed grows

on D-malate (S13 Fig. SF6B), which corroborates initial growth experiments [100]. We note

that the unusual production of the D-malate enantiomer rather than L-malate would have a

further interesting implication. It potentially allows the bacterium to accumulate D-malate in

conditions when carnitine is abundant, without interfering with the stoichiometry of the

remaining substrates of the TCA cycle.

Thus far, two *A. baumannii* strains have been shown to use carnitine as sole carbon source

[101]. We evaluated exemplarily that the absence of the cluster indeed correlates with

Acinetobacter inability to grow on carnitine and is not functionally complemented by an

alternative degradation pathway. Both, *A. baylyi* ADP1 and the *A. calcoaceticus* type strain

(DSM 30006), which both lack the ESGC$_{ACB}$-0016, did not grow on carnitine after 24h.

The clusters abundance profile reveals that the ability to metabolize carnitine occurs also

outside the ACB clade (31 strains in Set-R; cf. Figure 5). However, 25 of these strains were

isolated from infected patients, 2 from hospital sewage water, and only 3 strains were

sampled from the environment (cf. S17 Table SF7). The isolation origin of the one strain is

unknown. The presence of the carnitine cluster, therefore, correlates surprisingly well with

the pathogenic potential of a strain and it will be interesting to test a causal dependence. In

support of causality, we find that the carnitine cluster is absent in *A. calcoaceticus*, the only

species of the ACB clade that is nonpathogenic or at least has substantially reduced virulence

(cf. S2 Suppl. Text: ESGC$_{ACB}$-0016).

Novel carbon sources

The functional annotations of the $ESGC_{ACB}$ in Figure 5 indicate that the list of potential carbon sources for *A. baumannii* and other members of the ACB clade is still incomplete. We find degradation pathways for xanthine, 2-aminoethylphosphonate, acyclic terpenes, vanillin/valinate, taurine, and anthranilate (see S2 Suppl. Text: Gene clusters (ESGCs) not discussed in main manuscript). To the best of our knowledge, none of these metabolites have been considered as potential carbon sources for *A. baumannii,* although a putative Xanthine dehydrogenase has been characterized previously via heterologous expression in *E. coli* [102]. One cluster is, however, particularly interesting because it intertwines the bacterial carbohydrate metabolism with the human tryptophan catabolism. $ESGC_{ACB}$-0452 (Figure 10A) harbors the kynurenine hydrolase KynU, which catalyzes the cleavage of kynurenine to anthranilic acid and alanine (Figure 10B). Within the same cluster, we identified an AsnC-type transcriptional regulator, a putative amino acid permease, and a gene generically annotated as an alpha/beta-hydrolase. Notably, this hydrolase is listed as an ortholog to the human kynurenine formamidase (KynB) in the OMA database [103] with which it shares the same domain architecture (Fig. 10C). Together with its evolutionarily stable localization in the vicinity of KynU, this provides convincing evidence that the *A. baumannii* hydrolase resembles a hitherto overlooked KynB. This enzyme transforms formyl-kynurenine into kynurenine and, thus, acts immediately upstream of KynU in the Kynurenine pathway of tryptophan degradation (*cf.* Fig. 10B). A similar gene cluster was recently described in *P. aeruginosa* (Pae) [104, 105], however with two notable exceptions: $KynB_{Aba}$ is substantially more similar both in sequence and domain architecture to the human KynB than the $KynB_{Pae}$ (Fig. 10C), and we found no trace of an enzyme that catalyzes the formation of N-formyl-kynurenine from tryptophan in *A. baumannii.*

We next confirmed that the presence of the kynurenine cluster allows *A. baumannii* to grow

on kynurenine as a sole carbon- and energy source (Figure 10D). A deletion of the Kyn-

cluster abolished growth on kynurenine but not on anthranilate, the product of KynU (Figure

10D). In a last step, we investigated the phylogenetic profile of the Kyn-cluster in greater

detail (Figure 10E and S18 Figures SF5). Within *Acinetobacter*, the cluster is almost

exclusively present in the pathogens of the ACB clade, and it has been lost several times

independently within *A. calcoaceticus*. Along the same lines, we find the Kyn-cluster in a

proteobacteria-wide screen across more than 1,000 species (see S19 Table SF3 for the list of

genomes and identifiers) only in a few taxa, of which many are opportunistic human

pathogens (SF5). Taken together, our findings provide strong evidence that members of the

ACB clade possess the genetic infrastructure to interfere with the tryptophan metabolism of

humans, as it was already shown for *P. aeruginosa* [105]. This opens up a novel and hitherto

unexplored route of how these pathogens interacts with its human host.

Discussion

In contrast to more virulent bacteria, the opportunistic nosocomial pathogens from the

genus *Acinetobacter* pursue a resist-and-persist strategy [25]. Instead of pinpointing

individual key determinants of bacterial virulence, this requires the unraveling of a likely

broad and less specific genetic basis conveying adaptation to clinical environments and, at

the same time, to the human host. Experimental studies, either *in vitro* bringing the

advantage of controlled experimental conditions, or *in vivo* with the advantage of a realistic

infection model have provided fundamental insights into the pathobiology of *Acinetobacter*

[19, 20, 40]. However, pathogens encounter – and therefore have to adapt – to diverse

environments during host infection [106]. The resulting selective landscape is complex, and

therefore hard to reproduce in an experimental setup. Virulence determinants that are

relevant only under specific conditions or whose functions blend in with the bacterial

metabolism are easy to miss. Evolutionary approaches can close this gap. They focus on the

signal if a gene or a gene cluster likely contributes to pathogenicity, reflected by their

prevalence preferentially in pathogens, independent of the precise conditions when it is

active. Here, we have charted the genetic specifics of the pathogenic ACB clade at a

resolution ranging from a genus-wide overview down to individual clonal lineages within *A.*

baumannii. To ease the future integration of evolutionary evidence with functional studies,

we have developed the *Acinetobacter* dashboard Aci-Dash. This is the first web application

that allows the community to mine the abundance profiles of genes encoded in 232

representative genomes together with their functional annotations and their connection to

virulence factors.

Comparative genomics studies across the genus *Acinetobacter* have been performed before

(e.g. [9, 107]). The integration of orthology assignments with shared synteny analyses at a

scale that spans several thousand *Acinetobacter* genomes is yet unprecedented. The $ESGC_{ACB}$

detected here form relevant starting points for further unravelling the regulatory and

functional network in a human pathogen. They result in a rich set of testable hypotheses

whose experimental validations will likely deepen the understanding of the genetic basis of

Acinetobacter pathogenicity. Moreover, the lineage specific absence of ESGC within the

pathogenic clade, most prominently demonstrated by the loss of the QS-NRPS cluster

together with the Csu cluster in the IC 8, or of several clusters in *A. calcoaceticus*, helps to

better predict in which characteristics individual strains, clonal lineages, and species differ

from the prototype of an *Acinetobacter* pathogen.

The functions conveyed by these clusters are diverse and many can be readily connected to

Acinetobacter pathogenicity: Quorum sensing and biofilm formation [93], ROS response

[108], and micronutrient acquisition [77]. On top of these, the abundance of gene clusters

involved the carbohydrate metabolism, a largely uncharted area of *Acinetobacter* virulence

factors [29], strongly suggests that members of the ACB clade follow a general evolutionary

trend towards greater metabolic flexibility, which is common to many bacterial pathogens

[30, 106]. Such generalists have a selective advantage over niche-specialists in environments

that are frequently disturbed or altered [109].

Metabolic interaction with the host, in particular those involving amino acids, have an

interesting further implication, that has thus far not been considered in the context of

Acinetobacter pathogens. They can modulate regulatory systems involved, for example, in

the finetuning of the host immune response [30, 110]. The Kynurenine (Kyn) pathway

detected in this study is a likely example of this connection. This cluster is almost entirely

confined to the pathogenic members of the ACB-clade. Interestingly, and in contrast to the

human pathogen *P. aeruginosa,* which also harbors a Kyn pathway, the key enzyme, IDO

(KynA), that allows the bacteria to directly metabolize tryptophan via the kynurenine

pathway is missing (cf. Fig. 10B). How then do they fuel this pathway? Interestingly,

tryptophan depletion via the kynurenine pathway is an important human immune defense

mechanism upon bacterial infection [111]. Here, we provide first time evidence that

pathogenic *Acinetobacter* species from the ACB clade can use the intermediate metabolites

of the host response as additional carbon- and energy sources, likely further promoting its

growth. However, the ability to degrade the intermediates of the human tryptophan

catabolism has a further interesting implication for in the host-pathogen interaction. While it

was shown that *P. aeruginosa* produces elevated levels of kynurenine to inhibit ROS

production and aid bacterial survival [112], *Acinetobacter* species in possession of the Kyn

cluster must pursue a different strategy. By scavenging kynurenine from their environment,

they can potentially interfere with the homeostasis of the human immune system, in

particular with its suppressive effect on T cells and Natural killer cells. This potentially leads

to host tissue damage due to the now uncontrolled production of ROS [76, 79]. Though at a

high cost, this would allow the bacteria to use the rich nutrient resources enclosed in the

host cells.

In summary, antimicrobial resistance is one of largest threats to global health. On the

example of *Acinetobacter*, we have shown that the incorporation of a broad evolutionary

perspective can pinpoint individual genes or entire pathways that result in novel and viable

hypotheses of how the bacteria persist, feed off and interact with the host. At an early phase

of drug development, these candidates provide promising anchor points from which the

development of new therapeutic strategies to either prevent or treat *Acinetobacter*

infections can be initiated.

Methods

Data Acquisition

The full data set (Set-F) comprises all assemblies in the NCBI RefSeq data base (version 87)

stating 'Acinetobacter' in the 'organism' field [S1 SA1]. From Set-F, we selected in total 232

representative strains covering all available type, reference and representative genomes, as

well as all validly named species (https://apps.szu.cz/anemec/Classification.pdf) for which a

genome sequence was available at the study onset are represented. We further picked

genomes of several *A. baumannii* strains that are of interest due to e.g., their context of

isolation as well as representatives of eight international clone types. Lastly, we included

genomes from Set-F into Set-R that allow for an increase of the fraction of total phylogenetic

diversity covered without compromising the quality (cf. S2 Suppl. Text: Taxon Set

Construction). An overview of Set-R is provided in S3 SA2.

To compile the *Proteobacteria* data set (n=1363), we selected all *Proteobacteria* represented

in NCBI RefSeq data base (version 204) and selected one representative per species, which

was either annotated as "reference" or "representative" strain.

International Clone Type (IC) and MLST assignments

For all strains in Set-F, we determined the sequence type with MLSTcheck v2.1.17 [113]

using two different schemes, Oxford [114] and Pasteur [115], that were obtained from the

PubMLST website (http://pubmlst.org/abaumannii/). All members of the *A. baumannii* clade

were assigned to an international clone (IC) type whenever we found literature evidence

that the predicted sequence types and IC were unambiguously linked using the following

publications as a source: [35, 115-124]. The final assignments are provided in S1 SA1 and S3

SA2 based on strain typing results provided in S22 Tables SC2.

Phylogenetic diversity

Phylogenetic diversity scores of SET-F and SET-R were computed with PDA v.1.0.3 [125]

using the options *-k=234:3027* and *-if=handpicked.list* based on the ML tree of SET-F. 25 low

quality assemblies were pruned prior to this analysis to avoid overestimation because of

long branches resulting from sequencing errors. A detailed description of the quality

assessment is provided in S2 Suppl. Text: Taxon Set Construction.

Average Nucleotide Identity

All genome sequences within Set-R were pair-wise aligned with Nucmer v3 [126], and the

Average Nucleotide Identities (ANIm) were calculated with the script

average_nucleotide_identity.py from the Python package pyani v0.2.7 [127] using the

following options: *-i ./genomes -o ./output/ -m ANIm -g --gmethod seaborn –maxmatch*.

Ortholog Search

674 All against all orthology searches were performed with OMA standalone v.2.2.0 [45] and

675 default parameter settings, except for decreasing the minimum length threshold for

676 sequences considered (MinLen) to 40 residues. Targeted ortholog searches were performed

677 with fDOG [128] using the OMA orthologous groups from SET-R to train the profile hidden

678 Markov models.

Inference of the pan and core gene sets (SET-R)

The pan-genome size was calculated as the sum of the number of OGs and number of strain

specific proteins (i.e. proteins without orthologs). For the rarefaction analysis, we identified

the number of new orthologs and singletons per added genome in Set-R. The core genome

was defined as the subset of OGs where each taxon of Set-R contributed exactly one

ortholog. However, the strict definition of the core genome, yielded very small core genome

estimates due to qualitative differences and incomplete draft genomes (S2 Suppl. Text:

Table 1). We therefore relaxed the core genome definition and allowed a core-gene to be

absent in 1% of the genomes (max. 3 out of the 232) in Set-R (see S2 for further details). To

obtain these values as a function of the number of genomes considered, we simulated a

sequential inclusion of genomes in SET-R. Following the approach from Tettelin et al. [129],

Pan- and core genome sizes were extrapolated by fitting the power law function $y_P = \kappa_P n^{\gamma} + c$

$+ c$ and an exponential decaying function $y_c = \kappa_c \exp[-n * \tau_c] + \Omega$, respectively, with

nonlinear least-squares (Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm). Given the large taxon set in our

study, we limited the simulation to 100 random permutations of a sequential inclusion.

Phylogenetic tree reconstruction

SET-R: Multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) for each orthologous group were generated

with MAFFT-LiNSI [130] (v7.394, default parameters). Next, each protein's CDS was obtained

and PAL2NAL v14 [131] with the option *-codontable 11* was employed to infer protein

sequence guided nucleotide MSAs. Supermatrices built from concatenated MSAs served as

input for the maximum likelihood (ML) tree reconstruction. The best fitting substitution

model (GTR + empirical base frequencies + free rate heterogeneity with 10 categories) was

determined using IQ-Tree v1.6.8 [132] using the option *-m TEST*, and the following

parameters were used for the ML tree reconstruction with IQ-Tree: *-m GTR+F+R10 -nt 6*

AUTO -bb 1000 -alrt 1000. Additionally, statistical branch supports were assessed with 1000

repetitions of UF bootstraps and SH-aLR branch tests. Trees were outgroup-rooted with

Moraxella catarrhalis (strains BBH18 and FDAARGOS_213) and *Alkanindiges illinoisensis* DSM

15370.

SET-F: The phylogenetic tree reconstruction of SET-F followed the same general work flow as

described for Set-R. However, to decrease the computational burden, trees were computed

on the amino acid sequence alignments. MAFFT was run with the '--auto' parameter.

Supermatrices of resulting protein MSAs were used as input for ML tree reconstruction with

IQ-TREE ('-alrt 1000 -bb 1000 -nt 8 -m LG+I+G+').

Majority-rule consensus trees were computed with SplitsTree v4.14.4 [133].

Inference of hierarchical orthologous groups and reconstruction of last common ancestor

dispensable and core gene sets

Hierarchical orthologous groups (HOGs) for the Set-R were inferred from the pairwise OMA

orthology relations and the consensus ML species tree using the GETHOG algorithm [134] as

implemented in OMA stand-alone v. 2.2.0. The Set-R pan genome was stratified by assigning

each HOG to the internal node of the tree that represents the last common ancestor (LCA) of

the two most distantly related taxa in the HOG. Clade-specific losses of a gene were inferred

when all members of a clade lacked an ortholog that was assigned to an evolutionarily older

node. On this basis, we reconstructed the pan-genomes for each internal node of the tree as

following: We united all genes assigned to internal nodes on the path from the root to the

node under study and removed the union of genes that have been lost on this path.

GO annotation and GO term enrichment analysis

All 502,095 unique protein accessions represented in SET-R were mapped to uniprotKB

identifiers (UniProt accessed 9th of Febr. 2018) to obtain the annotated gene ontology (GO)

terms [135]. Significantly enriched GO terms were identified using a two-tailed Fischer's

exact test at a significance level of 0.05. Multiple test correction was done by computing the

false discovery rate for each term and considering only terms with an FDR < 0.05. For GO

term enrichment analyses at the individual internal nodes of the tree, we used the LCA pan

gene sets as background sets (population) and the set of genes assigned to this node as test

(study) set. Both sets were limited to include only genes for which orthologs are represented

in at least 50% of the taxa descending from this node (analysis without this cutoff is included

in S10 Table SD1.3). Information about the GO terms were pulled from

http://purl.obolibrary.org/obo/go/go-basic.obo (accessed 22nd of June 2018). Visualization

of tree maps were performed with REVIGO [136].

Prediction of Secreted Proteins

Unless the subcellular localization of a protein was provided by uniprot, we prediceted

Its subcellular localization with Psortb v3.06 [137] and ngLOC v1.0 [138]. All proteins

classified as 'Extracellular' or 'OuterMembrane' by either tool were combined into a set of

secreted and accessible proteins. Conflicting predictions or cases where Psortb labeled the

localization of a protein as 'unknown' were resolved in favor of the ngLOC classification as it

demonstrated higher precision for these classes when we benchmarked both against a test-

set of experimentally verified proteins published by Shen et al. [139].

Annotation of Protein Function

For each protein, we considered, where available, its functional annotation provided in RefSeq, in the uniprot database, and the assigned GO terms. Additionally, we annotated the proteins with KEGG Orthology (KO) identifiers [47] using GhostKoala v2.2 [140]. Eventually, for proteins with reciprocal best blast hit orthologs in *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978, we transferred the functional annotation provided by the COG database [46] (accessed in May 21st 2020).

Virulence Factor Identification

HOGs representing known virulence factors were identified via blastp searches (v2.10.1) [141] against a custom database of virulence factors. To compile this database, we united entries of PATRIC [21] and VFDB [48] (both accessed September 23rd 2020). Subsequently, we clustered the proteins at 95% sequence similarity with cd-hit v4.6.4 [142] using the options *-G -al 0.95 -s 0.9 -c 0.95* to reduce redundancy. A HOG represents a virulence factor if any of the subsumed orthologs has a hit with >50% alignment coverage and an e-value <0.01. For all such instance the best hit's annotation was transferred.

Identification of Evolutionarily Stable Gene Clusters (ESGC)

Using the genome of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 as a reference, we identified clusters of consecutive genes with highly similar phyletic profiles. For this purpose, each protein-coding gene's corresponding HOG and its profile were analyzed to obtain an 8-dimensional feature vector comprised of the following values: (i-vi) clade-specific fractions of total taxa in *A. baumannii* (B), *A. calcoaceticus* (CA), *A. haemolyticus* (HA), *A. baylyi* (BA), *A. lwoffii* (LW), *A. brisouii* (BR), and *A. qingfengensis* (QI), (vii) the fraction of the total phylogenetic diversity of the ACB clade covered, and (viii) the label of the inner node the HOG was assigned to (cf. Fig. 3). Four genes were excluded from the orthology search due to their short length. For these,

we imputed the values using the mean values of the two flanking genes. Based on these

vector representations, we computed a pairwise dissimilarity matrix, using the Gower

dissimilarity index [143]. We then arranged the genes in a graph, where a vertex between a

gene and its downstream neighbor was drawn, if a) their pairwise dissimilarities is smaller

than the 5th percentile of the gene's dissimilarity distribution across the full gene set or b) if

the condition a is met by the two genes flanking the gene. The resulting set of connected

components were then extracted as candidate evolutionary units.

Candidate ESGC Abundance Statistics

For each gene in a candidate ESGC, we computed its retention difference (RD) as the

difference in the fraction of taxa within the ACB clade subtracted by the fraction of taxa

outside the ACB clade harboring an ortholog. The candidate ESGCs were then ranked by the

median of the RD across all genes in the cluster. As a further measure, we devised the

cluster-conservation score difference (CCD), which is calculated similar to the RD score, but

this time assessing presence of the cluster rather than that of an individual gene. A cluster

was considered present only if at least 80% of its genes (orthologs) were identified and at

least 25% of the gene order was conserved in the genome. Here, we treated the cluster as a

set of ordered and oriented (considering direction of transcription) two-element tuples.

Clusters with a CCD below 0.25 were not further considered. For each of the resulting top

150 ranked clusters, we inspected cluster conservation across the taxa in Set-R and Set-F

using Vicinator v0.32 (https://github.com/BIONF/Vicinator). Cluster boundaries of an ESGC

were manually curated, when the Vicinator analysis indicated a miss due to an individually

bloated abundance profile (false-positive orthologs or paralogs).

Kynurenine (Kyn) cluster deletion mutant and growth experiments with *A. baumannii* Ab04

Ab04 mutant with deletion of the locus of ESGC$_{ACB}$-0452 (Ab04 Δkyn) were constructed as

described previously [144]. Briefly, a FRT site-flanked apramycin resistance cassette was

amplified from a variant of pKD4 [145] with primers harboring 18-25 nucleotides matching in

sequence the flanking regions of the locus of ESGC$_{ACB}$-0452 (see S20 Table SF8). Also,

upstream and downstream regions of ESGC$_{ACB}$-0452 were amplified and the obtained

fragments were assembled by overlap extension PCR. The PCR product was electroporated

into *A. baumannii* Ab04 electrocompetent cells carrying pAT04, which expresses the RecAB

recombinase induced with 2mM IPTG [1]. Mutants were selected with apramycin and

integration of the resistance marker was verified by PCR. To remove the resistance cassette,

electrocompetent mutants were transformed with pAT03 plasmid (which expresses the FLP

recombinase) and apramycin-sensitive clones of unmarked deletion mutants were obtained.

Finally, the mutant strains were confirmed by antibiotic resistance profile, PCR and genome

sequencing.

Ab04 WT and Ab04 Δkyn mutant strains were grown in lysogeny broth (LB) liquid medium

under shaking conditions (200 rpm) at 37°C. Overnight cultures were washed three times

with PBS and diluted to an OD$_{600}$ of 0.01 in 150 μl of M9 minimal medium supplemented

with 0.2% casamino acids (M9CAA), 2.5 mM L-kynurenine (Sigma, A8625) or 2.5 mM

anthranilic acid (Sigma, A89855) in 96-well plates, followed by incubation at 37°C under

shaking conditions in a BioTek microplate spectrophotometer. The OD$_{600}$ values were

measured every 30 min for 16h. Three independent experiments were performed with three

wells per assay for each strain and condition.

Growth Experiments for Carnitine, Malate, and Glucarate

A. baumannii, A. baylyi and *A. calcoaceticus* strains were grown at 37 °C (*A. baumannii*) or

30 °C (*A. baylyi* and *A. calcoaceticus*) in mineral medium (MM) that consists of 50 mM

phosphate buffer, pH 6.8, and different salts (1 g NH_4Cl, 580 mg $MgSO_4 \times 7$ H2O, 100 mg

KNO_3, 67 mg $CaCl_2 \times 2$ H_2O, 2 mg $(NH_4)_6Mo_7O_{24} \times 4$ H_2O, 1 ml SL9 (per liter: 12.8 g Titriplex, 2

g $FeSO_4 \times 7$ H_2O, 190 mg $CoCl_2 \times 6$ H_2O, 122 mg $MnCl_2 \times 4$ H_2O, 70 mg $ZnCl_2$, 36 mg $MoNa_2O_4$

$\times 2$ H_2O, 24 mg $NiCl_2 \times 6$ H_2O, 6 mg H_3BO_3, 2 mg $CuCl_2 \times H_2O$ per l medium; pH 6.5) [146] and

20 mM of the given carbon source. Precultures were grown in MM with 20 mM Na-acetate

as carbon source. Each value is the mean of +/- S.E.M. of at least three independent

measurements. Growth curves were fitted manually.

Figure 1: Aci-Dash – An interactive web-application to explore phylogenetic abundance patterns and accessory annotations for the Set-R pan-genome. For each of the 232 strains, Aci-Dash provides further details about year and site of sampling. The interactive scatter plot reveals, for each gene of the selected strain, the abundance of orthologs in a user-defined in- and outgroup. For each gene individually, the ortholog abundance can be resolved on a clade level (cf. Fig. 2), and further information including functional annotation transfer from KEGG and COG as well as known virulence factors is displayed.

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Figure 2: The phylogeny of the genus Acinetobacter. A) *Majority-rule consensus phylogeny of 232 Acinetobacter strains*
represented in SET-R. Solid branches are supported by all, and hatched branches by two out of three trees. B) The maximum
likelihood tree for all 3052 taxa in Set-F. Colored clades represent the same clades as in A). A high-resolution image of this
tree is provided in S21 Fig. SB3. C) The evolutionary backbone of the Acinetobacter genus with exemplarily chosen strains as
clade representatives. The color scheme resembles that of Fig. 2A. The pictograms next to the leaf labels indicate the
sampling source of the particular strain. Red pictograms signal a strain that was isolated from an infected patient.

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834 *Figure 3: A phylogenetic stratification of the Acinetobacter pan-genome.* *(A) Pie charts on the internal nodes indicate*
835 *numbers of genes added (blue) or lost (yellow) from the respective pan-genome where the diameter is proportional to the*
836 *sum of both gained and lost genes. Clades resemble those from Fig. 2. (B) For each node, histograms represent the number*

837 *of descending taxa an added gene is represented in. The minimum value is 2, the maximum value is the number of taxa*
838 *subsumed in the corresponding clade.*

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Figure 4: Phylogenetic strata in the protein-coding gene set of Ab. ATCC 19606. *Each protein-coding gene was assigned to*
one of the nine layers specified in the inlay to the right (cf. Fig. 3). All genes annotated with GO terms that were significantly
enriched in the individual layers are colored in red. Genes assigned to orthologous groups which were ranked within the 10
percent groups with highest retention differences (RD >=0.708, n=355) across the ATCC 19606 gene set are colored in
yellow. Red boxes highlight selected gene loci where neighboring genes contributed to the enrichment of the same GO term
(biological processes).

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Figure 5: Phylogenetic profiles of 44 functionally annotated ESGC$_{ACB}$ across the Set-F. Shown are the selection of ESGC$_{ACB}$
with the highest abundance difference between the ACB clade and non-ACB taxa (RD). Ids refer to the corresponding
connected components provided in S11 Table SE1.3. Gene clusters are ranked by decreasing RD. The CCD (cluster
conservation difference, violet) is calculated as the difference between the relative fractions of ACB-genomes minus non-ACB
genomes where the cluster is present. The heat map informs about the fraction of taxa per clade harboring the ESGC$_{ACB}$
ranging from 0 (white) to 1 (dark blue). The total number of subsumed taxa per clade are given next to the leaf label in the
above tree. IC1-8 represent the cluster abundance in the 8 international clone types of A. baumannii. Clusters associated
with metabolic pathways are highlighted in red. "#" marks an ESGC where we curated cluster boundaries based on literature
evidence and confirmed cluster conservation using microsynteny (cf. Fig. 4B). '*' marks ESGC$_{ACB}$ that encompass additional
genes not covered by the functional annotation. Abbreviations: NRPS = non-ribosomal peptide synthesis; QS = quorum
sensing; 2-AEP =2-aminoethylphosphonate; PNAG = polymeric β-1,6-linked N-acetylglucosamine; NAMPT = nicotinamide
phosphoribosyl transferase; PRPS = 5-phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate synthetase; GABA = gamma-aminobutyric acid; PQQ =
pyrroloquinoline quinone.

Figure 6: Top 10 ESGC_{ACB} with unknown cluster function. *The genes of these clusters are mostly annotated as 'hypothetical" or "DUF-containing protein", i.e. proteins with annotated with a domain of unknown function. Due to their stable microsynteny and high prevalence across the ACB clade, they are highly interesting candidates for further functional characterization. The figure layout follows Fig. 5.*

Figure 7: Three examples for ESGC$_{ACB}$ in the genome of Ab ATCC 19606. Bar plots indicate relative abundance within the
selected taxonomic groups (see legend). The ESGC$_{ACB}$ are embedded into two flanking protein-coding genes on each side
that are not part of the cluster. Cluster boundaries are indicated by a pink background. Genes indicated in yellow have been
either added to or excluded from the automatically generated clusters based on microsynteny analyses across Set-R. A)
ESGC$_{ACB}$ – 0162 unites AbaR and AbaI (quorum sensing) with a non-ribosomal peptide synthetase cluster upstream. B)
ESGC$_{ACB}$ – 0410 encompasses the cluster necessary for the Csu pilus formation. Note the deviating abundance pattern for
CsuC and CsuD, which is due to the presence of prpC and prpD, two paralogous genes from the photoregulated pilus ABCD
(prpABCD), in the respective orthologous groups. Microsynteny analyses confirmed that the entire Csu cluster forms one
evolutionary unit (S15 SE2.0410). C) ESGC$_{ACB}$ – 0624 harbors a catalase, a cytochrome b561. Although the MFS transporter
shares a similar abundance pattern across the taxa of Set-R, this transporter is not evolutionarily stably linked to the other
two genes (S15 SE2.0624).

Figure 8: Abundances of micronutrient acquisition genes/clusters of Ab ATCC 19606 within and outside the ACB clade.
*Absolute abundances were based on cluster-evaluation using micro-synteny. Genes clusters are annotated with the ESGC$_{ACB}$
identifiers in Fig. 5. Genes that are part of a cluster but missed by the initial ESGC compilation share the same color but are
marked as x. Gene clusters at the top right, e.g., feoABC, represent micronutrient acquisition clusters belonging to the
genus' core genome. Gene clusters at the top left, e.g., entAB, are confined to the ACB clade where they are ubiquitously
present.*

Figure 9: Members of the ACB clade have extended their basal carbohydrate metabolism. *The pathway map shows a model integrating four metabolic pathways represented by the ESGC_ACB 0112 (Entner-Doudoroff pathway; yellow), 0497 (biosynthesis of Pyrroloquinoline quinone; magenta), 0568 (glucarate/galactarate catabolism; blue/violet) and 0016*

(carnitine catabolism; green) into the bacterial carbohydrate metabolism (grey boxes). Abbreviations: KDPG - 2-keto-3-

deoxy-6-phosphogluconate; G3P – glycerinealdehyde-3-phosphate. The corresponding gene clusters are shown below the

pathway map with one protein-coding flanking gene on either side that is not part of the cluster. The layout follows Fig. 7.

ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0112: GapD-like – glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase [1.2.1.12]; GntK - gluconokinase [EC:2.7.1.12]; Edd -

phosphogluconate dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.12]); Eda - 2-dehydro-3-deoxyphosphogluconate aldolase / (4S)-4-hydroxy-2-

oxoglutarate aldolase [EC:4.1.2.14 4.1.3.42]; GntP - gluconate permease [E2.7.1.12]. Note, GntP shares high sequence

similarity with a gluconate transporter (H+ symporter) in Escherichia coli (98% coverage, 45% identity). ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0497: pqqA-

F. No abundance profile is shown for pqqA, since its length excluded it from orthology prediction (indicated by an '!'. See

main text for details). ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0568: GarD - galactarate dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.42]; gudD - glucarate dehydratase

[EC:4.2.1.40]; kdgD - 5-dehydro-4-deoxyglucarate dehydratase [EC:4.2.1.41]; aldH - 2,5-dioxopentanoate dehydrogenase

[EC:1.2.1.26]; gudP - MFS transporter, D-glucarate/D-galactarate permease; FadR - Fatty acid metabolism regulator protein.

ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0016: ttuc - D-malate dehydrogenase [EC:1.1.1.83]; Bet-Aci01347 - glycine/betaine transporter Aci01347; ach? –

putative acylcarnitine hydrolase [EC:3.1.1.8]; CntAB – carnitine monooxygenase reductase subunit A and B [EC:1.14.13.239];

MSA-DH – malic semialdehyde dehydrogenase [EC:1.2.1.?]. Further colored pathways represent the clusters ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0627

(2-aminoethylphosphonate metabolism, orange), ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0453 (fructose transport/metabolism, red), ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0064

(trehalose biosynthesis, dark grey), and ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0078 tricarballylate metabolism, brown). Their corresponding genomic

regions are available in S12.

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Figure 10: Evolutionary and functional characterization of the A. baumannii kynurenine pathway. *A) The locus of ESGC_{ACB}*
0452 in A. baumannii ATCC 19606. KynR - Lrp/AsnC family transcriptional regulator; KynU - kynurenine hydrolase; amino
acid (aa) permease (uncharacterized); alpha/beta hydrolase (uncharacterized; putative kynB); serine proteinase. Cluster
layout follows that of Fig. 7. B) The Kynurenine pathway of tryptophan degradation. EC numbers of the enzymes catalyzing
the individual reactions are given in the boxes. KynB is represented in two versions in bacteria (see C), which are represented
by different colors. C) The alpha/beta hydrolase shares a significant sequence similarity and the presence of the
Abhydrolase_3 Pfam domain (PF04199) with the human kynurenine formamidase (KynB or KFA) but not with KynB of P.
aeruginosa, which instead harbors a Cyclase Pfam domain (PF04199) suggesting an independent evolutionary origin. D) The
kynurenine cluster is necessary and sufficient for growth on kynurenine but not on anthranilic acid. Growth of Ab 04 and Ab
04 ∆kyn on minimal medium supplemented with kynurenine (top) and anthranilate (bottom). E) Phylogenetic profile of the
A. baumannii Kyn cluster. Numbers between the corresponding genes in Ab ATCC 19606 and PA01 represent percent
sequence similarity on the amino acid level. KynB of Ab ATCC 19606 and PAO1 are not significantly similar. The Kyn cluster is
shared among many proteobacterial (opportunistic) pathogens where the the Pseudomonas-type KynB is prevalent. The
human-type KynB has homologs e.g., in Serratia (including S. rubideae). KynA is almost always encoded at a distant locus
and entirely absent in Acinetobacter.

Declarations

Availability of data and materials

Genomic data analyzed during the current study are publicly available in the NCBI Reference

Sequence Database (RefSeq) version 87 and 204. For each selected genome, the assembly

accession listed in S1 and S19, respectively. From individual entries, we obtained genome

annotation files (*.gff and *_feature_table.txt), protein sequences and coding sequences

(*.faa and *cds_from_genomic.fna), and genome sequence (*_genomic.fna) files from the

database [ftp://ftp.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/refseq/release/release-catalog/archive/].

In addition, the datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from

the corresponding author on reasonable request.

All data generated or analyzed during this study and necessary for the interpretation are

included in this published article as additional files.

Our custom tool Vicinator is linked (https://github.com/BIONF/Vicinator) and publicly

available under the GNP license 3.0.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contribution

BD and IE conceived the study. BD performed data collection and curation, tool and app

development and performed bioinformatics/statistical analyses. BD and IE together with

GDV, MF, GW, BA and SG interpreted the data. SD and GDV performed and interpreted wild

type and mutant strain growth experiments on kynurenine and anthranilate. JB performed

growth experiments on carnitine, malate and gluconate. MAD developed the CI/CD pipeline

for a containerized deployment of Aci-Dash in a cloud-platform under the supervision of AG.

BD and IE drafted the manuscript, and all authors contributed to the final manuscript. All

authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Supplementary Information

S1 Table SA1: Full list of genomes used in this study.

The set of assemblies represented in Set-F is provided in tabular format as extracted from

NCBI RefSeq. Among other, the table lists RefSeq assembly and sample accessions,

taxonomy ids (on strain and species level if available), species labels, and strain labels,

assembly status, submission date, submission institute, and ftp link to resource.

(.xlsx)

S2: Supplementary Text

Contains supplemental sections covering additional information on the taxon set

compilation, a statistical exploration of all protein-coding genes, genomes and orthologs in

Set-R, details on the method and workflow of the ESGC prediction, and provides additional

results and discussions for the predicted ESGCs$_{ACB}$ including several clusters not discussed in

the main manuscript.

(.docx)

S3 Table SA2: Representative genomes selected with corrections and descriptive statistics.

The subset of assemblies in Set-R is provided in tabular format. The table lists RefSeq

assembly and sample accessions, taxonomy ids, species labels, and corrected labels (see

main text), strain names, clone type assignments (via MLST and literature) sampling site, and

sampling year (where available) of the strains. The table further features the results of our

genome sequence-specific quantitative and qualitative analyses. The descriptive statistics

are described in the documents' sheet 'ColumnLegends'.

(.xlsx)

S4 Fig. SA3: In Set-R there is a significant difference in the number of coding sequences

between the ACB clade members and non-members.

(A) Comparison of the number of coding sequences (CDS) per genome between members

and non-members of ACB clade across *Acinetobacter*. It reveals a significant difference. ACB

clade members, on average, contain 14% more protein coding genes. (B) Correlation matrix

for a range of summary statistics on genome level across SET-R. Colored cells indicate value

of spearman correlation coefficient [-1,1]. The descriptive statistics analyzed are explained in

S3 Table SA2. (C) Phylogenetic diversity of the orthologous groups (OGs) calculated from the

sum of branch lengths of the subtree spanned by the taxa represented in an OG**.** This

distribution contrasts the taxa belonging to the ACB clade vs. the total phylogenetic

diversity. Data points are colored black if the corresponding OG belongs to the set of genus-

wide core genes that were also used for phylogeny reconstruction. OGs represented closer

to the upper left corner are especially interesting as they are approaching ubiquitous

presence within the ACB clade but are rare in the rest of the genus (colored orange for

illustrative purposes).

(.pdf)

S5 Tables SB1: Orthology matrix as calculated from the all vs. all orthology search across

Set-R (OMA orthologous groups)

The column header contains the labels of the NCBI RefSeq assembly accession of each

genome. Row indices refer to the orthologous group identifier. The matrix fields contain the

NCBI RefSeq protein sequence accession if an ortholog was identified and left empty

otherwise. Table SB1.2 lists the identifiers of those orthologous groups constituting the core

genome by our definition. These were used for the tree reconstruction (.xlsx).

S6 Fig. SC5: Majority-rule consensus phylogeny of 232 Acinetobacter strains represented in

SET-R.

A high resolution image of the majority-rule consensus dendrogram of the Set-R taxa as

shown in Figure 2A. Branches supported by only two out of three partition trees are

indicated with dashed lines, branches supported by only one partition are not resolved. Leaf

labels colored in green indicate changed species assignments. Such changes can either (i)

correct (i.e. the original species assignment was at odds with the species assignment based

on phylogenetic and ANI evidences), (ii) newly specify (i.e. the original species assignment

was set to "unknown" (sp.)) or (iii) de-specify (the original species assignment could not be

confirmed by phylogenetic evidences, and no alternative assignment was possible. The

species label was set to "sp.") the species assignments as retrieved from NCBI RefSeq at the

time of download.

(.pdf)

S7 Fig. SC6: Maximum likelihood (ML) tree for Set-F based on partition 1 of the core gene

set (296 proteins).

Branch labels denote percent bootstrap support. The newick strings for the ML trees from all

three partitions are given in S23. A high-resolution figure of the consensus tree is provided in

S24 Fig. SC8.

(.pdf)

S8 Tables SC1: Phylogeny-based taxonomic classifications of the genomes in Set-F into the

defined clades

Consists of 15 sheets in total. Each sheet lists the NCBI RefSeq assembly accession and taxon

label (species and strain label) of the genomes that were phylogenetically classified to

belong to the following clades: B clade (*A. baumannii*), S clade (*A. seifertii*), NO clade (*A.*

nosocomialis), BNS clade (three aforementioned), L clade (*A. lactucae*), PI clade (*A. pittii*), CA

clade (*A. calcoaceticus*), CPL clade (three aforementioned), ACB clade, HA clade, BA clade,

LW clade, BR clade, QI clade, and the outgroup. Genome assignments to *A. baumannii* which

were at odds with its phylogenetic placement in our study are indicated by a blue line. In the

same way, we highlighted assignments to *A. pittii* in light orange and *A. calcoaceticus* in dark

orange.

(.xlsx)

S9 Fig. SC3: Hierarchically clustered ANIm heatmap across Set-R combined with

phylogenetic information reveals unknown species diversity within the ACB clade.

The figure shows the color-graded average nucleotide identity (ANIm, all vs all) of the

genomes across SET-R (both axes). Strains with high genomic identity generate clusters of

high sequence identity (>95%: increasingly saturated red; 95%: white, <95%: saturating blue)

along the diagonal. These clusters and cutoffs are typically used for bacterial species

delineation. In the ACB clade, we observe a large and distinct cluster with 98-100% sequence

identity (rounded) for the *A. baumannii* species (top left). Following the diagonal to the

bottom right corner, the strains of *A. seifertii* (2, n=2) and *A. nosocomialis* (3, n=5) are

clustered similarly. The percent identities decrease, for the following two clusters of

genomes with mainly *A. calcoaceticus* species assignments (4 and 5). Specifically, only three

pairs in cluster 4 and one pair in cluster 5 reach the species threshold ANI. Next to putatively

misidentified *A. calcoaceticus*, cluster 5 features a strain of the tentative species *A.*

oleivorans (strain CIP 110421) as well as the unassigned *A.* sp. WC-141 and *A.* sp. NIPH 817

suggesting the existence of undescribed species in the ACB clade. Two further genomes,

here located between cluster 5 and cluster 6 are putatively mislabeled strains *A. baumannii*

strain 573719 and *A. pittii* ANC 4050. These strains again potentially represent undescribed

species in the ACB clade. Clusters 6 and 7 comprise the strains from *A. lactucae* and from *A.*

pittii, respectively. S25 Table SC4 contains the full matrix of pairwise ANIm in a tabulated

format.

(.png)

S10 Tables SD1: Results of consecutive GO term enrichment analysis

Table SD1.1 shows the significantly enriched GO terms ($p_{adjusted} < 0.001$) for proteins in those

HOGs at a node where an ortholog was detected in at least 50% of the subsumed taxa. If

genes of the same HOG are the source for multiple enriched terms, only the most specific

term (highest depth) was kept for the final results. The raw results of the GO term

enrichment analysis are presented in Table SD1.2. The results of the GO term enrichment

analyses considering all HOGs at a node are provided in Table SD1.3. Detailed explanations

of the column headers are placed in the sheet 'ColumnLegends'. The test results from SD1.3

were extracted to generate input tables for REVIGO (sheets SD1.4-8). The resulting treemaps

are shown in S26 Figures SD2.1-5.

(.xlsx)

S11 Tables SE1: ESGC identification and underlying data.

This file gives detailed information about the ESGC identification and provides the underlying

data. Table SE1.1 gives for each gene along the genome of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606 the

number of taxa per clade (and per international clone type) that harbor an ortholog. Table

SE1.2 gives, for each gene, the input vector used for the dissimilarity calculations, the

individual thresholds (5th percentile) and, as an example, the calculated dissimilarity

between each gene and the gene immediately upstream. The full matrix containing all

pairwise dissimilarity calculations for the prediction of clusters is deposited on figshare

[10.6084/m9.figshare.16910974, https://figshare.com/s/caa9a6680bc90e004365 (temporary

private link)]. Table SE1.3 lists the identified graph components along with abundance

statistics (median of the proteins in a component) across the clades (both absolute and

relative), retention difference between ACB vs. non-ACB (RD), and CCD scores. Table SE1.4

lists detailed contextual information for the components including all functional annotations

from various sources. Detailed explanations of the column headers for all tables are placed

in the sheet 'ColumnLegends'.

(.xlsx)

S12 Figures SE3: Genomic regions of all ESGC along the genome of ATCC 19606.

Graphical representations of the genomic regions for each ESGC with RD > 0 (see Methods)

along the genome of ATCC 19606 with abbreviated abundance profiles and functional

annotations.

(.pdf)

S13 Fig. SF6: Growth of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606, *A. calcoaceticus* DSM 30006 and *A.*

***baylyi* on different carbon source.**

A. baumannii ATCC 19606 ($\triangle$), *A. calcoaceticus* ($\square$) and *A. baylyi* ADP1 ($\circ$) were grown in

mineral medium with 20 mM carnitine (A), gluconate (B) or D-malate (C) as carbon source.

Each value is the mean of +/- S. E.M. of at least three independent measurements.

(.pdf)

S14 Table SF2: Summary statistics of collected experimental evidence found in the

literature for the assimilation of >100 potential carbon sources for *A. baumannii*.

(.xlsx)

S15 Files SE2: Phylogenetic profiles and micro-synteny plots in html format for the curated

top 150 ESGCs$_{ACB}$ across Set-F as provided by the Vicinator analysis.

Files can also be downloaded in zip-format via figshare:

https://figshare.com/s/caa9a6680bc90e004365 (temporary private link).

(.zip)

S16 Fig. SF3: Ortholog abundance profiles and functional characterizations of *gdhA* and

***gdhB*.**

(.pdf)

S17 Table SF7: List of all non-ACB genomes across Set-R that harbor ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0016 including

meta information regarding sampling and isolation.

(.pdf)

S18 Files SF5: Phylogenetic profiles and micro-synteny plots in html format for ESGC$_{ACB}$-

0452 and the kynurenine pathway cluster in *P. aeruginosa* across a sample of all

***Proteobacteria*.**

Files can also be downloaded in zip-format via figshare:

https://figshare.com/s/caa9a6680bc90e004365 (temporary private link).

(.zip)

S19 Table SF4: Assembly accession and species/strain labels for the Proteobacteria sample

(n=1363).

(.xlsx)

S20 Table SF8: List of primers used for Ab04 mutant deletions Δkyn mutant strains.

(.xlsx)

S21 Fig. SB3: Numbers of HOG innovations and losses at each node of the majority-rule

consensus tree of Set-R.

A consensus tree representation of Set-R with each inner node of the tree annotated with

the number of HOGs associated to it as well as the number of lost HOGs in the subsumed

clade according to the rules of Dollo (+) Parsimony (see Methods). All HOGs are provided in

S28 Table SB2. The nodes are labeled with an incremental id. On the lineage of *A. baumannii*

we used the following replacements in the manuscript: NODE_1 = "ACB+BR", NODE_8 =

"ACB+LW", NODE_9 = "ACB+BA", NODE_10 = "ACB+HA", NODE_11 = "ACB", NODE_12 =

"BNS", NODE_13 = "B". Tip labels are represented as NCBI RefSeq Identifiers. Tip labels also

show unique assembly accession and, if applicable either clone type assignment or

(corrected) species assignment in form of the first four letters of the species names.

(.pdf)

S22 Tables SC2: In silico MLST classifications of the genomes in Set-F.

Results are shown in Tables SC2.1 (Oxford-scheme) and SC2.2 (Pasteur-scheme). Tables

SC2.3 – SC2.10 list NCBI RefSeq assembly accession and strain labels for all genomes in the *A.*

baumannii clade where the MLST classification allowed a mapping to one of the 8

international clone types.

(.xlsx)

S23 Files SC7: ML trees for all three partitions in newick format including support values.

Files can also be downloaded in zip-format via figshare:

https://figshare.com/s/caa9a6680bc90e004365 (temporary private link).

(.zip)

S24 Fig. SC8: Majority-rule consensus tree (dendrogram) for Set-F summarizing the

information in the maximum likelihood trees based on the three partitions of the core

gene set.

(.pdf)

S25 Table SC4: Raw values of the paiwrise ANIm comparisons shown in S9.

(.xlsx)

S26: Figures SD2: Treemaps (SD2.1-5) of enrichment biological processes as generated by

REVIGO (*cf.* S10).

(.pdf)

S27 Table SF1: Results of BLAST search for homologues of the QS cluster against non-

***Acinetobacter* genomes.**

(.xlsx).

S28 Table SB2: Hierarchical orthology matrix as calculated from the all vs. all orthology

search across Set-R along the phylogenetic tree (OMA hierarchical orthologous groups,

HOGs).

The column header contains the labels of the NCBI RefSeq assembly accession of each

genome. The second column (LCA) indicates the associated inner node of the HOG in the

reconstructed phylogenetic tree. The values either refer to the node label on the lineage of

A. baumannii or, if the node is not on lineage, an incremental node id. The corresponding

nodes together with summary statistics are provided in S31. Row indices refer to the

hierarchical orthologous group ID. The matrix fields contain the NCBI RefSeq protein

sequence accession if an ortholog was identified otherwise they are left empty. Table SB1.2

lists the identifiers of HOGs with prevalence in at least 231 genomes. These were used for

the definition of core components during cluster identification

(.xlsx)

1757

Figure 6

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10

Figure 1 (lowqual)

Figure 2

Figure 3

GO:0071705
nitrogen transport; *cnt*

gene
highly distinctive for the ACB clade
function is sign. enriched

GO:0009372
quorum sensing; *aba*

GO:0008610
protein transport; *exb*

GO:0019290
siderophore biosynthesis; *bfn*

GO:0019439
anthranilate catabolism; *ant*

GO:0018189
PQQ biosynthesis; *pqq*

A. baumannii
ATCC 19606

NZ_KL810966.1: 3.9 Mbp
NZ_KL810967.1: 16.3 kbp

QS

GO:0019556/7
histidine catabolic process; *hut*

GO:0008610
lipid biosynthesis; *cfa*

1000 kb

Root
ACB+BR
ACB+LW
ACB+BA
ACB+HA
ACB
NO+B
B
strain-specific

GC%
GC-skew

41%
37%
0

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 7