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

microsynteny 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). 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 S1 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 S2 Table. Members of the

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

(students t-test - $p<0.001$; S1 Fig 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 S1 Fig B for further information). The

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

proteins remained singletons (see S1 Fig C for a graphical representation). Rarefaction

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

baumannii are open (S1 Text: Pan-genome reconstruction). 889 genes represent the core

genome of *Acinetobacter* (S3 Table; S1 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/](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; Set-F – Fig 2B; for higher resolution

versions see S2 Fig and S3 Fig, respectively) 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 S4 Table 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. S4 Fig). 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 (Fig 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; S5 Table). 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

[1] The full list of enriched terms is provided in S5 Table 1.

[2] corrected p-value

[3] Ratio of genes with term in test set of that node ($\times 10^{-3}$)

[4] Ratio of genes in background set of that node ($\times 10^{-4}$)

[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 (S6 Table 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 S1 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 S1 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 S1 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 (Fig 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] (Fig 7B) together with a transcriptional regulator of

the TetR/AcrR family (TFTRs) (S5 Fig id: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. Fig 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 (Fig 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. calcoaceticus*, 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 (Fig 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 (Fig 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 (Fig 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. Fig 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* (S5 Fig id: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 (Fig 5, in red font, and see Fig 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 S6 Fig C and S7 Table). 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 (Fig 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. S1 Data id: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 (S7 Fig, S6 Table 1, id: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. Fig 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 (Fig 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.* Fig 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 Fig 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. Fig 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 (S6 Fig B), 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. Fig 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. S8 Table). 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. S1 Text: $ESGC_{ACB}$-0016).

 Novel carbon sources

The functional annotations of the ESGC$_{ACB}$ in Fig 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 S1 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 (Fig 10A)

harbors the kynurenine hydrolase KynU, which catalyzes the cleavage of kynurenine to

anthranilic acid and alanine (Fig 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 (Fig 10D). A deletion of the Kyn-cluster

abolished growth on kynurenine but not on anthranilate, the product of KynU (Fig 10D). In a

last step, we investigated the phylogenetic profile of the Kyn-cluster in greater detail (Fig 10E

and S2 Data). 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 S9 Table 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 Table]. 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. S1 Text: Taxon Set Construction). An

overview of Set-R is provided in S2 Table.

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 Table and

S2 Table based on strain typing results provided in S11 Table.

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 S1 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

Ortholog Search

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

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

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

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

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 (S1 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 S1 Text 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 $yP = \kappa Pn$

$^\gamma + c$ and an exponential decaying function $yc = \kappa c \exp[-n*\tau c] + \Omega$, 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 S5 Table 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 S10 Table). 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.

Fig 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.*

Fig 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 S8 Fig. **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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831 **Fig 3. A phylogenetic stratification of the Acinetobacter pan-genome**. *(A) Pie charts on the internal nodes indicate numbers*
832 *of genes added (blue) or lost (yellow) from the respective pan-genome where the diameter is proportional to the sum of*
833 *both gained and lost genes. Clades resemble those from Fig 2. (B) For each node, histograms represent the number of*

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

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Fig 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).

Fig 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 S6 Table 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.*

Fig 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.*

Fig 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 (S1 Data id: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 (S1 Data id:0624).

Fig 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 microsynteny. 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.

Fig 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 S5 Fig.

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Fig 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 Δkyn 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 Table and S9 Table, 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 supplementary information.

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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1546   **Supplementary Information**

1547

S1 Text. 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)

S1 Fig. 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

S2 Table. (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)

S2 Fig. 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 Fig 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)

S3 Fig. 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 S3 Data. A high-resolution figure of the consensus tree is

provided in S9 Fig.

(PDF)

S4 Fig. 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. S12 Table contains the full matrix of pairwise ANIm in a tabulated format.

(PNG)

S5 Fig. 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)

S6 Fig. Growth of *A. baumannii* ATCC 19606, *A. calcoaceticus* DSM 30006 and *A. baylyi* on

different carbon source.

A. baumannii ATCC 19606 (△), *A. calcoaceticus* (□) and *A. baylyi* ADP1 (○) 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)

S7 Fig. Ortholog abundance profiles and functional characterizations of *gdhA* and *gdhB*.

(PDF)

S8 Fig. 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

S13 Table. 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)

S9 Fig. 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)

S10 Fig. Treemaps (1-5) of enrichment biological processes as generated by REVIGO (*cf.* S5

Table).

(PDF)

S1 Data. Phylogenetic profiles and microsynteny plots in html format for the curated top

150 ESGCs$_{ACB}$ across Set-F as produced by the Vicinator tool.

Files can also be downloaded in zip-format via figshare:

https://figshare.com/s/caa9a6680bc90e004365 (temporary private link).

(ZIP)

S2 Data. Phylogenetic profiles and microsynteny 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)

S3 Data. 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)

S1 Table. 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 Table. 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)

S3 Table. Orthology matrix as calculated from the all vs. all orthology search across Set-R

(OMA orthologous groups)

(1) 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. (2) List of orthologous groups identifiers constituting the core genome by our

definition. These were used for the tree reconstruction

(XLSX)

S4 Table. 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)

S5 Table: Results of consecutive GO term enrichment analysis

(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 (2). The results of the GO term enrichment analyses considering all HOGs at a

node are provided in (3). Detailed explanations of the column headers are placed in the

sheet 'ColumnLegends'. The test results from (3) were extracted to generate input tables for

REVIGO (sheets 4-8). The resulting treemaps are shown in S10 Fig 1-5.

(XLSX)

S6 Table. ESGC identification and underlying data.

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

data. (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. (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)]. (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. (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)

S7 Table. Summary statistics of collected experimental evidence found in the literature for

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

(XLSX)

S8 Table. List of all non-ACB genomes across Set-R that harbor ESGC$_{ACB}$ 0016 including

meta information regarding sampling and isolation.

(PDF)

S9 Table. Assembly accessions and species/strain labels for the *Proteobacteria* sample

(n=1363).

(XLSX)

S10 Table. List of primers used for Ab04 mutant deletions Δkyn mutant strains.

(XLSX)

S11 Table. In silico MLST classifications of the genomes in Set-F.

(1) Results are in of Oxford-scheme and (2) of Pasteur-scheme typing. Sheets (3-10) 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)

S12 Table. Raw values of the pairwise ANIm comparisons shown in S4 Fig.

(XLSX)

S13 Table. 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 S8 Fig. 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. (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)

S14 Table. Results of BLAST search for homologues of the QS cluster against non-

***Acinetobacter* genomes.**

(XLSX).

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