Genome-wide phage susceptibility analysis in *Acinetobacter baumannii* reveals capsule

modulation strategies that determine phage infectivity

Jinna Bai[a], Nicole Raustad[a], Jason Denoncourt[a], Tim van Opijnen[b], Edward Geisinger[a]#

[a]Department of Biology, Northeastern University, Boston, Massachusetts, USA

[b]Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, CISID, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA

#To whom correspondence should be addressed (e.geisinger@northeastern.edu)

Abstract

Phage have gained renewed interest as an adjunctive treatment for life-threatening infections with the resistant nosocomial pathogen *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Our understanding of how *A. baumannii* defends against phage remains limited, although this information could lead to improved antimicrobial therapies. To address this problem, we identified genome-wide determinants of phage susceptibility in *A. baumannii* using Tn-seq. These studies focused on the lytic phage Loki, which targets *Acinetobacter* by unknown mechanisms. We identified 41 candidate loci that increase susceptibility to Loki when disrupted, and 10 that decrease susceptibility. Combined with spontaneous resistance mapping, our results support the model that Loki uses the K3 capsule as an essential receptor, and that capsule modulation provides *A. baumannii* with strategies to control vulnerability to phage. A key center of this control is transcriptional regulation of capsule synthesis and phage virulence by the global regulator BfmRS. Mutations hyperactivating BfmRS simultaneously increase capsule levels, Loki replication, and host killing, while BfmRS-inactivating mutations have the opposite effect, reducing capsule and blocking Loki infection. We identified novel BfmRS-activating mutations, including knockouts of a T2 RNase protein and the disulfide formation enzyme DsbA, that hypersensitize bacteria to phage challenge. We further found that mutation of a glycosyltransferase known to alter capsule structure and bacterial virulence can also cause complete phage resistance. Finally, additional factors including lipooligosaccharide and Lon protease act independently of capsule modulation to interfere with Loki infection. This work demonstrates that regulatory and structural modulation of capsule, known to alter *A. baumannii* virulence, is also a major determinant of susceptibility to phage.

Author Summary

Antibiotic-resistant infections with *Acinetobacter baumannii* are a major problem in critical care

units and have increased in frequency during the COVID-19 pandemic. The virulence of these

infections depends on a polysaccharide capsule surrounding the bacterium. Phage, or viruses that

kill bacteria, represent a promising alternative therapy against highly antibiotic-resistant *A.*

baumannii infections, and *A. baumannii*-specific phage often target the capsule. Here, we use

high-throughput genetics to analyze how *A. baumannii* defends against phage and identify ways

to potentiate their killing activity. We found that stressing the bacteria in ways that cause

augmented production of capsule also causes hyper-susceptibility to phage. By contrast, turning

off the stress response, or mutating the capsule structure, causes complete phage resistance.

Altering another surface structure, lipooligosaccharide, or an intracellular protease also enhances

phage attack. Modulating the amounts or makeup of capsular polysaccharide is known to

influence virulence in *A. baumannii*. This work thus uncovers a connection between phage

pressure and the evolution of virulence in *A. baumannii*, and it identifies control mechanisms that

may be leveraged for improving future phage-based antimicrobial therapies.

Introduction

The antibiotic-resistant, Gram-negative pathogen *Acinetobacter baumannii* is notorious for causing recalcitrant diseases in healthcare settings including sepsis and ventilator-associated pneumonia [1, 2]. Rates of *A. baumannii* infections resistant to last-line antibiotic treatments have increased during the COVID-19 pandemic [3, 4], and pan-resistant isolates have emerged [5, 6]. Therapy with lytic phages (viruses that infect and kill bacterial hosts) has gained renewed attention as an additional line of attack against infections with pathogens such as *A. baumannii* that are refractory to standard antibiotics. Phages have the benefit of having high host specificity, allowing selective targeting of pathogens without broad damage to the microbiome. Administration of anti-*A. baumannii* lytic phages in animal infection models has been efficacious in conferring protection from disease [4, 7-12]. Moreover, recent successes in the clinic have shown the promise of phage therapy as an adjunct to antibiotics for treating severe, progressive multidrug-resistant *A. baumannii* infections in critically ill patients [13-15]. Phage may also contribute to measures to block transmission of the pathogen in hospital environments [16].

Despite its potential, a drawback to phage therapy is the inevitable emergence of bacteria resistant to phage attack [17]. In the case of *A. baumannii*, this drawback may be mitigated by tradeoffs associated with phage resistance, such as lowered *in vivo* fitness/virulence, enhanced antibiotic sensitivity, or both [12, 17-19]. These costs likely emerge due to the *A. baumannii* capsule frequently serving as a requisite receptor for initiating phage infection [20-23].

Capsular polysaccharide is one of the most important virulence factors of *A. baumannii* [24-26]. Acapsular escape mutants isolated after phage treatment in animal models show dramatic attenuation similar to that documented for engineered capsule-null strains [12, 17, 18]. Although almost all *A. baumannii* patient isolates produce a capsule, the sugar compositions and

structures of the capsular polysaccharide have diversified greatly across strains [27, 28]. These

differences are in large part based on substitution of multiple genes within the highly variable K

locus, which determines subunit sugar synthesis, polymerization, and export of the capsular

polysaccharide [29, 30]. In some cases, structural changes can also manifest from variation in a

single gene in the K locus [26, 31]. Different capsule structures may influence the interface with

the host innate immune system, resulting in differences in how the capsule promotes

pathogenicity [26, 32-34]. In addition to interstrain structural variation, *A. baumannii* varies the

amount of capsule produced through regulatory networks. These capsule control networks

include those that sense and respond to antimicrobial stress [35, 36] or that stochastically switch

bacteria between two distinct phenotypic states [37-39], and each may contribute to how bacteria

adjust to changing host or environmental conditions. The degree to which modulation of capsule

levels affects susceptibility to phage attack is not known. Similarly, whether low-cost mutations

modifying (rather than eliminating) capsule can provide avenues to phage resistance is also

unclear. More broadly, functional characterization of *A. baumannii* determinants that facilitate or

impede phage infection is largely lacking. Knowledge of these features could lead to strategies

for improving the efficacy of anti-*A. baumannii* phage therapy and could enhance our

understanding of the physiology and resilience of the organism.

Here, we use a functional genomic approach to investigate determinants of *A. baumannii*-

phage interactions. We use Loki (vB_AbaS_Loki), a lytic phage of the *Siphoviridae* family that

was isolated from activated sludge using *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 [40]. Analysis of the Loki

dsDNA genome has shown that it contains gene modules for virion morphogenesis, DNA

replication, and lysis, as well as an uncharacterized MazG-family protein of unknown function

[40]. The phage displays a narrow host range, infecting only 17978 among a panel of 40 diverse

isolates, suggesting the use of a strain-specific receptor of unknown identity [40]. A component

of the lipooligosaccharide (LOS) was suggested as the receptor, based on lack of Loki adsorption

to an *lpxA* mutant [40]. In the present study, we have identified the primary Loki host receptor as

the K3 capsule, and revealed pathways associated with capsule modulation that dramatically

alter bacterial sensitivity to phage attack. This work has implications for phage therapy against *A.*

baumannii and for understanding alteration of virulence in the pathogen.

Results

High-throughput identification of phage susceptibility determinants in *A. baumannii*.

Loki infection of *A. baumannii* 17978 results in small, turbid plaques on solid medium

and partial growth inhibition in liquid culture when using an initial multiplicity of infection

(MOI) of 1 or 10 (Fig 1A) [40]. These features show that Loki has low virulence with 17978. We

hypothesized that host mechanisms exist determining this outcome. To test this prediction and

investigate genome-wide bacterial determinants of phage susceptibility, we used Tn-seq, taking

advantage of our established strategies for identifying genetic determinants of antibiotic

susceptibility in 17978 [41, 42]. Ten independent *Mariner* insertion pools each having about

20,000 individual insertions [43] (~100,000 separate insertion sites in total) were grown for ~8

doublings in parallel in broth containing Loki at different initial MOIs (1 to 1.5, or 10 to 15), or

no phage (uninfected control). DNA was extracted from samples before (t_1) and after (t_2) the

outgrowth of each pool. Massively parallel sequencing was used to measure the frequency of

every transposon mutant in the population at each time point and calculate relative fitness (W)

[41, 42] (see Materials and Methods). We then aggregated all the mutant fitness values (across

all pools) associated with each gene to determine average, gene-level fitness scores (S1 Dataset).

Genes were identified that had decreased or increased Tn-seq fitness during phage challenge

compared to control, based on established criteria [fitness value derived from $n \geq 3$ independent

insertion mutants, fitness difference $\geq 10\%$, and false-discovery rate (FDR) ≤ 0.05 [41, 42]] (see

Materials and Methods). These genes and their products are referred to as candidate phage

susceptibility determinants, and those associated with decreased fitness upon phage challenge

when mutated as candidate phage hypersusceptibility determinants.

124   Challenge with Loki at the lower MOI (1 to 1.5) resulted in 14 candidate phage

hypersusceptibility determinants (Fig 1B and S1 Dataset). The hits comprised numerous proteins

involved in biosynthesis and control of the bacterial cell envelope. These included *bfmS*, the

receptor of the BfmRS two-component system (TCS), which regulates capsule production,

virulence, and resistance in response to signals that are yet to be defined [35, 36, 44]; LOS core

oligosaccharide biosynthesis genes (*gtrOC2*, *gtrOC3*, *pda1*, *gtrOC4*, and *lpsB*) [29, 41]; and the

dsbA dithiol oxidase [45] critical for forming protein disulfide bonds in the Gram-negative

periplasm [46] (S1 Data Set). Additional hits were ACX60_RS02390 (referred to hereafter as

rnaA), encoding a predicted periplasmic RNase T2 homolog; the *lon* protease; and the *dksA*

transcription factor known to affect lytic phage infection in *E. coli* [47, 48].

134   Challenge with Loki at higher MOI (10 to 15) had two effects on the set of candidate

susceptibility determinants identified. First, the number of phage hypersusceptibility

determinants increased to 39 (Fig 1B and S1 Dataset). These hits included almost all (13/14)

those identified using MOI 1-1.5, as well as additional enzymes belonging to the above

functional categories (e.g., disulfide bond formation*, dsbC*, *dsbD*; LOS synthesis*, gtrOC8*; and

the protease *clpA*) and to new functional categories (e.g., the DNA adenine methyltransferase,

aamA [49]). Second, challenge with higher Loki MOI enabled detection of hits that had

increased fitness (i.e., decreased susceptibility) compared to controls (Fig 1B and S1 Dataset).

The strongest of these (showing greatest fitness increase and lowest q value) was *gne1*, which is

a K locus gene required for generating precursors for capsule biosynthesis [29]. Loss of Gne1

completely prevents capsule production [50]. Mutations in an additional K locus gene, *gtr9*,

which are also linked to capsule loss [19], also caused increased fitness during Loki challenge

(S1 Dataset). The other hits were extrinsic to the K locus, but several had annotations related to

polysaccharide production. The Tn-seq screen thus reveals a variety of candidate factors that

increase or decrease *A. baumannii* vulnerability to phage attack.

Targeted deletion and complementation analyses validate the phage hypersusceptibility

phenotypes predicted by Tn-seq.

We confirmed the Tn-seq results using individual mutant strains, focusing first on

candidate phage susceptibility determinants from different functional categories showing lower

Tn-seq fitness with Loki challenge (Fig 2A). Strains carrying in-frame deletions of *rnaA*, *dsbA*,

gtrOC3/4, and *lon* were constructed (Materials and Methods). To enable *trans* complementation

analysis, plasmids harboring an IPTG-inducible WT allele, or a control plasmid lacking the gene,

were introduced into the respective mutant strains (S1 Table). In the case of *bfmS*, in lieu of

complementation analysis we took advantage of multiple different mutants we previously

isolated in the *bfmRS* locus. This includes two *bfmS* mutants—a deletion with *aacC1*

replacement (referred to as Δ*bfmS*), and the frame-shift G467Dfs*19 [35] (referred to as

*bfmS**)—as well as additional mutants affecting *bfmR* as will be explained in a subsequent

section. Susceptibility to Loki was assessed by liquid challenge and plaque formation assays

(Materials and Methods). During liquid phage challenge, the *rnaA*, *dsbA*, and *bfmS* mutants all

showed complete block of growth immediately after exposure to Loki, unlike the WT, which

showed only partial growth inhibition after about 5 hours (Fig 2B and C). Different kinetics were

seen with Loki challenge of the other mutants. With the Δ*gtrOC3* and Δ*gtrOC4* mutants exposed

to phage, bacteria grew for an initial ~2.5 hours before collapse (Fig 2B). With Δ*lon*, by contrast,

Loki inhibited bacterial growth until ~4 hours, at which point rapid growth resumed (Fig 2B).

Reintroduction of the respective WT genes reversed the Loki hypersusceptibility phenotypes of

rnaA, dsbA, *gtrOC3, gtrOC4*, and *lon* mutants. In some cases, leaky expression without IPTG

was sufficient for partial (*dsbA*, *gtrOC4*) or full (*gtrOC3, lon*) complementation (Fig 2B).

Addition of IPTG at 0.1 mM allowed reversal of the Loki hypersusceptibility phenotype of all

strains, although a partial growth delay defect remained with the *rnaA* reintroduction strain

exposed to phage (Fig 2B). Raising the level of *rnaA* induction with 1 mM IPTG completely

eliminated this defect and had the added effect of rendering the strain even less susceptible to

Loki than the WT control (S1A Fig).

Results from plaque formation assays mirrored the findings from the liquid challenge

experiments. In contrast to the small, turbid plaques caused by Loki with control bacteria, the

same phage caused large, clear plaques with each candidate hypersusceptibility mutant (Fig 2D

and E). Plaques appeared to be larger with *rnaA, dsbA*, and *bfmS* mutants compared to *gtrOC3*

and *gtrOC4*, echoing the susceptibility differences seen with Loki challenge in broth (Fig 2,

compare D, E to B, C). Expressing the respective genes *in trans* with 1 mM IPTG reversed the

enhanced plaque phenotypes in all cases (Fig 2D). In particular, *rnaA* overexpression greatly

lowered the plaque formation efficiency of Δ*rnaA* beyond the level of the WT control, similar to

its effect during liquid challenge (Fig 2D and S1A Fig, compare Δ*rnaA*/*rnaA* to the WT control).

We note that the gene directly upstream of *rnaA*, ACX60_RS02385 (*slt* [36]), was also

identified as a candidate susceptibility determinant associated with modestly decreased fitness

during Loki challenge (S1 Dataset). Exposure of an in-frame Δ*slt* mutant to Loki recapitulated

the modest hypersusceptibility defect (S2A, B Fig). Analysis of the *slt* Tn-seq mutant fitness

values revealed a potentially biased distribution, with insertions causing major Loki

hypersusceptibility defects having an apparent bias toward the 3' end of the locus that is

proximal to *rnaA* (Fig 2A). The Δ*slt* mutant also showed slightly reduced levels of *rnaA*

expression (S2C Fig). Since phage susceptibility appears sensitive to *rnaA* expression level (Fig

2B, D, E), we cannot rule out a polar effect on *rnaA* in the altered phage susceptibility of the *slt*

mutant, and this mutant was not pursued further. These results underscore that candidate Loki

hypersusceptibility loci identified through Tn-seq show the predicted susceptibility phenotypes

when analyzed independently using engineered mutant strains.

Analysis of Loki resistance mutations reveals capsular polysaccharide as phage receptor.

Given the identification of capsule production genes as sites of mutations that increase fitness

during phage challenge (S1 Dataset), we tested the hypothesis that the capsule is essential to the

infective cycle of Loki by serving as a host receptor. To this end, we examined the Tn-seq data

associated with the entire K locus of 17978 (KL3) and additional genes involved in capsule

production. Gene-level Tn-seq fitness scores were available for 9 out of 20 KL3 genes. The other

11 were represented by too few transposon mutants, as observed previously, likely due to their

essential involvement in late steps of capsule biosynthesis that may cause dead-end intermediates

when blocked [43]. For most of the 9 permissive KL3 genes, transposon disruption led to higher

fitness during Loki exposure relative to untreated control (with 5 having non-FDR $P < 0.05$; Fig

3A). Disruption of *wzi*, an additional permissive gene outside the K locus that encodes the lectin

required for efficient surface binding of capsular polysaccharide [51], also increased Tn-seq

fitness during Loki challenge compared to control, albeit without passing statistical cut-offs (P =

0.15). Since a subset of the glycan building blocks encoded by the K locus are used for protein

glycosylation by PglL [52], we also examined the *pglL* Tn-seq phenotypes. In contrast to the

capsule synthesis genes, transposon insertions in *pglL* showed slightly decreased fitness during

Loki challenge (Fig 3A). These findings indicate that lesions leading to capsule deficiency are

associated with enhanced fitness in the face of Loki challenge, while the opposite is true for *pglL*

mutations, which are known to eliminate protein O-glycans but preserve capsule [52].

Building on these observations, we determined the requirement of capsule for Loki

infection by examining (1) targeted capsule mutants, (2) additional clinical isolates of diverse

capsule types, and (3) spontaneous phage-resistant mutants. First, we analyzed deletions in

17978 of two critical capsule synthesis genes: *itrA*, the initiating transferase required for use of

phosphosugars in both capsule synthesis and protein O-glycosylation and *wzc*, essential to

assembly and export of high-molecular weight capsular polysaccharide [29, 35, 52]. Δ*itrA* causes

loss of both capsule and protein O-glycans, while Δ*wzc* blocks capsule specifically. We note that

unlike *itrA*, *wzc* is essential in 17978 [35, 43]. Δ*wzc* could be analyzed, however, by the parallel

use of EGA106-27, which is a viable 17978 Δ*wzc* isolate harboring extragenic compensatory

mutations, and EGA260, its isogenic *wzc*-repaired derivative obtained by marker rescue [35]. As

predicted by Tn-seq, deletion of *itrA* led to increased growth during Loki challenge in liquid

(S3A Fig) and completely blocked plaque formation (Fig 3B). Reintroduction of *itrA* reversed

this defect, with the resulting susceptibility to Loki dependent on the level of *itrA* induction (Fig

3B; S3A Fig). Loki was also completely unable to form plaques on EGA106-27 (Wzc$^-$), but

readily infected EGA260 (Wzc$^+$) (Fig. 3B). The plaques on EGA260 were larger and clearer than

that seen with the WT control, presumably a consequence of the compensatory mutations

rendering it hypersensitive to phage. The Loki non-susceptibility of ItrA-deficient (capsule$^-$

/protein O-glycan$^-$) and Wzc-deficient (capsule$^-$/protein O-glycan$^+$) strains, and the

hypersusceptibility detected with *pglL* transposon mutants (capsule$^+$/protein O-glycan$^-$), points to

capsular polysaccharide as essential for phage infection.

Second, we found that the K3 capsule type correlates with the ability of diverse clinical

isolates to be targeted by Loki. To determine Loki host range we used strains 17978, 17961 and

19606, which all have KL3; BAA-1790 [53], which has KL22 (identical to KL3 but with one

extra gene; Fig. 3D); and AB5075, which has the unrelated KL25 cluster. Note that both KL3

and KL22 biosynthetic gene clusters yield the same capsular polysaccharide, type K3 [27, 54],

while the K25 capsule generated from KL25 has a completely different structure [55]. Loki

formed plaques on all four K3 strains, but not the K25 strain (Fig. 3C). Ability to infect was

independent of the type of LOS outer core biosynthesis locus (OCL) in the host strains (Fig. 3C).

These results are consistent with the K3 capsule, and not LOS outer core, providing a specific

host receptor for Loki infection.

Third, analysis of spontaneous Loki-resistant mutants supported the model that capsule

provides an essential, specific receptor for Loki. Three independent 17978 mutants forming

colonies within zones of confluent lysis were isolated and their genomes were sequenced

(Materials and Methods). Each strain had a single, slipped-strand mispairing mutation within

homopolymeric sites in the K locus (Fig 3D). Two were identical mutations (440A$_{9 \to 8}$) in *gtr6*,

encoding a glycosyltransferase that adds a single sugar side-chain to the capsule repeat unit [26]

(S2 Table), and the third was in the *wzx* polysaccharide flippase (377T$_{9 \to 10}$) [29]. Each mutation

caused a frameshift and premature translation termination. While deficiency of Wzx is expected

to result in complete capsule loss, Gtr6 deficiency is known to preserve capsule but cause an

altered structure lacking the side chain sugar [26]. Intriguingly, *gtr6* deletion was recently shown

to amplify 17978 virulence during bloodstream infection in mice, and a naturally occurring *gtr6*

mutation (1008::IS*Aba13*) was found to drive hypervirulence in another K3 isolate, HUMC1

[26]. We confirmed that 17978 *gtr6*440A$_{9\rightarrow8}$ resists Loki plaque formation, a phenotype reversed

by reintroduction of WT *gtr6* (Fig 3E) and recapitulated by an in-frame *gtr6* deletion (S3B Fig).

Consistent with previous findings that loss of Gtr6 alters capsule structure but not amount [26],

*gtr6*440A$_{9\rightarrow8}$ and $\Delta gtr6$ caused no change to overall capsule levels (S4A Fig). Search of public

databases revealed that the 440A$_{9\rightarrow8}$ allele is present in a variety of KL3 and KL22 *A. baumannii*

clinical isolates (S2 Table and ref. [56]), consistent with this site as a mutational hotspot in *gtr6*.

We also examined *gtr6* within two strains harboring KL22 from our sequenced *A. baumannii*

clinical isolate collection, EGA10 and EGA65. We found that both strains have a novel IS*Aba13*

insertion near 440A (425::IS*Aba*13), resembling the situation with HUMC1 [26]. EGA10 and

EGA65 were both Loki-resistant, but introducing WT *gtr6* from 17978 had the dramatic effect of

conferring Loki susceptibility with efficient plaque formation (Fig 3E). These results further

support the K3 capsule as a specific Loki receptor, and suggest that *gtr6* is a hub for mutations

linking phage evasion to the evolution of *A. baumannii* virulence.

Finally, we examined the effect of *itrA*, *gtr6*, and *wzc* mutations on phage adsorption

(Materials and Methods). Each mutation resulted in loss of Loki attachment, as indicated by high

fractions of phage remaining in suspension after mixture with bacteria (Fig 4A). Together these

results support the conclusion that Loki uses the K3 capsule as an essential receptor.

BfmRS activity controls phage susceptibility.

Loki-hypersensitizing *bfmS* mutations lead to capsule hyperproduction by increasing

transcription of capsule biosynthesis genes [35], likely through enhanced activity of the cognate

transcription factor BfmR [44]. Controlling BfmR activity and capsule production could thereby

also allow control of *A. baumannii* susceptibility to phage. We tested this model by analyzing

mutations in *bfmR*, which cause phenotypes opposite those of *bfmS* mutants including decreased

capsule production [35]. *bfmR* mutants are thus predicted to be less susceptible to capsule-

targeting phage. In the Tn-seq screen, *bfmR* transposon mutants indeed had increased fitness

during Loki challenge relative to controls, particularly at the higher MOIs, in stark contrast to the

dramatic hypersusceptibility of *bfmS* mutants (Fig 5A). To confirm the altered phage

susceptibility phenotype associated with *bfmR*, we used a knockout of the entire TCS (Δ*bfmRS*),

which phenocopies a single *bfmR* deletion [35, 36, 44] and shows reduced capsule levels

compared to WT and the hyper-encapsulated *bfmS** mutant (Fig 5B). As predicted by Tn-seq,

Δ*bfmRS* is impervious to Loki in both liquid challenge and plaque assays (Fig 5C, D). Given this

non-susceptibility and the epistatic relationship of *bfmR* to *bfmS*, we predicted that spontaneous

phage-resistance mutations in the hypersusceptible *bfmS** strain would map to *bfmR*. To test this

prediction, mutants of *bfmS** forming colonies within zones of lysis by Loki were isolated and

analyzed by whole-genome sequencing. In two mutants, the resistance mutations were indeed in

bfmR, causing amino acid substitutions G100D and T85I. Each mutation completely prevented

Loki infection in either liquid (Fig 5C) or plaque (Fig 5D) assays, despite the hypersusceptibility

of the parent strain. G100 and T85 are highly conserved residues near the BfmR dimerization

interface and the predicted site of phosphorylation, respectively, based on the published crystal

structure [57, 58]. T85 also aligns with the "switch" residue of *E. coli* CheY (T87), in which a

similar mutation to isoleucine blocks phosphorylation-induced conformational changes and

activation [59]. G100D and T85I are thus predicted to inactivate BfmR. Consistent with

inactivation, both substitutions greatly reduced the phosphorylated (predicted active [44])

fraction of the protein (BfmR~P, Fig 5E) as well as total BfmR amounts (S5A Fig), as analyzed

in phosphate affinity shift gels (Materials and Methods). The BfmR substitutions also reduced

capsule synthesis to levels seen with $\Delta bfmRS$ (Fig 5B). We note that in other Loki-escape

derivatives of $bfmS^*$, $gtr6$ was again a site of mutations, including two independent $440A_{9\rightarrow8}$

mutations and another, novel slipped-strand mispairing mutation within a different poly-A tract

($384A_{8\rightarrow7}$) (Fig 3D, S2 Table).

The opposing effects on capsule and Loki susceptibility of $bfmR$ (low capsule, low

infectivity) and $bfmS$ (high capsule, high infectivity) mutants are consistent with regulation of the

capsule receptor contributing to the differential sensitivity to Loki in each strain. In agreement

with this model, compared to WT, Loki showed reduced adsorption to $\Delta bfmRS$ and dramatically

increased adsorption to $bfmS^*$ (slow vs rapid decline in the fraction of free phage, respectively,

Fig 4B). The increased adsorption and infectivity of Loki conferred by $bfmS$ mutation depended

on the K3 capsule, based on two lines of evidence. First, deleting $itrA$ or $gtr6$ in 17978 $bfmS$

mutants blocked Loki adsorption (S6A Fig) and killing (S6B Fig). Second, $bfmS$ mutation

greatly enhanced Loki plaque formation in 19606 (K3), but had no effect on Loki susceptibility

in AB5075 (K25) (S6C Fig). These data thereby further support the notion that the BfmRS-

dependent boost in Loki susceptibility depends on capsule.

Defects in RnaA and DsbA control capsule and phage susceptibility through BfmRS

We reasoned that additional lesions uncovered in our genome-wide screen may owe their

altered Loki susceptibility to modulation of the capsule receptor. We found that knockouts of

rnaA and *dsbA* in 17978, which hypersensitize the bacteria to Loki, also each increased capsule

production (by ~50%, Fig 6A) and phage surface adsorption (Fig 4B), similar to the

enhancements caused by *bfmS* mutation. As expected, augmented capsule production was

reversed by expressing each WT allele in trans (S1B Fig).

To determine if the link between capsule biosynthesis, phage susceptibility, and *rnaA* and

dsbA applies to a different K3 strain, we also deleted the genes in BAA-1790. Similar to their

effects in 17978, each deletion caused BAA-1790 to hyperproduce capsule (Fig. 6C) and

increase susceptibility to Loki (S7A Fig). Because the BAA-1790 WT parent showed complete

resistance to Loki in the liquid challenge assay, we also tested a mutant derivative of Loki

(Loki*, Materials and Methods) with increased virulence against WT strains (S7B Fig and Fig.

6D, WT). Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* each caused BAA-1790 to be completely inhibited by Loki* under

conditions in which the WT showed minimal inhibition (Fig. 6D). RnaA and DsbA lesions thus

amplify capsule and phage susceptibility in both a laboratory strain carrying KL3 as well as a

more recent, carbapenem-resistant clinical isolate carrying KL22, suggesting that the proteins act

through a conserved envelope modulation pathway.

Given the highly similar capsule and phage susceptibility phenotypes shared by *rnaA*,

dsbA, and *bfmS* mutants, and the ability of the BfmRS regulatory system activity to control these

phenotypes, we considered the possibility that *rnaA* and *dsbA* mutations act through BfmRS. We

thus defined the epistatic relationship of the TCS to *rnaA* and *dsbA* in 17978. We found that

combining Δ*rnaA* or Δ*dsbA* with Δ*bfmRS* led to low capsule levels (Fig 6A) and complete

resistance to phage attack in both liquid challenge (Fig 6B) and plaque formation assays (S1C

Fig), mirroring the Δ*bfmRS* single mutant phenotypes. In addition, we examined how *rnaA*

overexpression interacts with the TCS, taking advantage of the above observation that

overexpression of *rnaA*, but not *dsbA*, not only complements the corresponding deletion but also

lowers capsule and Loki susceptibility below WT levels (Fig 2D; S1A,B Fig). We predicted that

these decreases would depend on BfmRS. We found that overexpressing *rnaA* in trans in WT led

to lower levels of capsule compared to uninduced control (Fig 6E), and completely prevented

Loki plaque formation (Fig 6F). Both of these effects were blocked when *rnaA* induction

occurred in a *bfmS** strain harboring the inactive version of the BfmS receptor (Fig 6E, F). In

contrast to the results with *rnaA* and as predicted from Fig 2D, overexpressing *dsbA* in WT did

not inhibit plaque formation (S1D Fig). Together, these results are consistent with the model that

RnaA and DsbA defects act through BfmRS to modulate capsule and Loki infectivity, with the

TCS sensing relative levels of RnaA and presence/absence of DsbA function.

Several additional lines of evidence support the model that BfmRS responds to RnaA and

DsbA defects. First, Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* mutants increased the transcription of capsule

biosynthesis genes (*wza* and *gnaA*, Fig 7A) and the activity of a BfmRS-dependent promoter

fused to GFP (18040p-GFP, Fig 7B), mirroring the effects of *bfmS* mutation on the same

phenotypes [36]. Similar increases were not seen with a BfmRS-independent reporter construct

(*adc*p-GFP [36], Fig 7B), or with 18040p-GFP when Δ*rnaA* or Δ*dsbA* were combined with

Δ*bfmRS* (Fig 7C). The reporter results indicate that transcriptional enhancement by RnaA and

DsbA deficiency is specific and dependent on BfmRS. Second, Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* each increased

the fraction of BfmR~P by approximately 3-fold (Fig 7D) and appeared to increase total BfmR

levels as well (S5B Fig), similar to the effects of *bfmS* deletion. Third, analysis of previous

genome-wide fitness datasets [41] revealed that *rnaA*, *dsbA,* and *bfmS* mutants have highly

correlated antibiotic susceptibility profiles (phenotypic signatures), which are likely to reflect

functional connectivity between the genes (Fig 7E and S1E Fig, r = 0.58-0.67, p < 0.0005). The

bfmS, *rnaA*, and *dsbA* signatures also positively correlated with those of other *A. baumannii* Dsb

system homologs (DsbB, DsbD, and at least one of 3 DsbC paralogs, ACX60_RS16880),

suggesting that disulfide bond formation in general is linked to the functions of BfmS and RnaA.

Mutations in *dsbB*, *dsbD* and the same *dsbC* paralog (RS16880) also showed decreased Tn-seq

fitness during Loki challenge, albeit not to the degree seen with *dsbA* (Fig 7F). Fourth, our

previous RNA-seq data [36] showed that expression of several *dsb* genes as well as *rnaA* is

under the control of BfmRS, with *bfmR* and *bfmS* mutants having differential effects on their

transcription (S1F Fig). Finally, while the Δ*rnaA*, Δ*dsbA*, and Δ*bfmRS* individual mutants and the

Δ*rnaA* Δ*bfmRS* combined mutant do not show substantially impaired growth at 37°C, we found

that combining Δ*dsbA* and Δ*bfmRS* results in a synthetic growth defect (Fig 7G). This result

implies that BfmRS protects *A. baumannii* from DsbA deficiency and the consequent defects in

periplasmic protein disulfide bonds, consistent with a toxicity-stress response relationship.

Sequence analysis of RnaA, an RNase-domain protein, sheds light on its connection to

DsbA and BfmRS. RnaA contains a signal peptide as well as eight cysteine residues (S8 Fig).

These features potentially place RnaA in the periplasm where internal disulfide bonds could be

formed by DsbA, as occurs with its *E. coli* ortholog, RNase I [60]. Unlike RNase I, however,

RnaA and its close orthologs within *Acinetobacter* and *Psychrobacter* completely lack the

catalytic histidines and other key residues in its two conserved active sites (CAS) critical for

RNase activity (S8 Fig) [61], as previously noted with the *A. baumannii* RnaA sequence [62].

These findings suggest that RnaA may be a pseudoenzyme, whose levels and/or folding may

influence BfmS signaling and phage susceptibility.

Factors influencing phage infection independent of capsule modulation

While modulation of capsule is a major feature of altered Loki susceptibility, we found

that other hypersusceptibility determinants—including *gtrOC3*, *gtrOC4*, and *lon*—affect

vulnerability to Loki independently of regulating the capsule receptor. Deletions of these genes

resulted in growth defects during phage challenge in liquid medium that were characterized by

different kinetics compared to those of the hypo-encapsulated *rnaA*, *dsbA*, and *bfmS* mutants (Fig

2B, C), consistent with an alternate mechanism underlying their susceptibility defects.

Deletions of *gtrOC3* and *gtrOC4*, which encode predicted LOS outer core

glycosyltransferases [29], resulted in the expected enrichment of truncated forms of LOS without

lowering the overall amount of LOS produced (Fig 8A). The deletions also showed no change to

the levels or size distribution of capsular polysaccharide compared to the WT control (S4B Fig).

Despite having WT levels of the capsule receptor, the Δ*gtrOC3* and Δ*gtrOC4* mutants both

showed similar enhancements to Loki adsorption, particularly at the later 10 and 20 minute time

points (Fig 4B). As noted above, mutating other LOS outer core synthesis genes also decreased

fitness during Loki challenge compared to controls, albeit to a lesser extent than *gtrOC3* and

gtrOC4 (Fig 8B, S1 Dataset). This suggests that a range of outer core defects can affect Loki

susceptibility. By combining additional mutations with Δ*gtrOC3*, we found that its enhanced

Loki attachment and susceptibility phenotypes still depended on initial binding to capsule. A

Δ*gtrOC3* Δ*itrA* double mutant showed complete lack of Loki adsorption (S6D Fig), and

Δ*gtrOC3* Δ*itrA* and Δ*gtrOC3* Δ*gtr6* double mutants showed full phage resistance in solid and

liquid media (Fig 8C, D). The full-length LOS outer core thus functions to inhibit the ability of

Loki to efficiently adhere to and infect *A. baumannii*, likely after the initial requisite interaction

with capsule.

Deleting *lon* caused no significant change to capsular polysaccharide levels (S4C Fig),

consistent with previous observations [63], and had no effect on LOS quantity or banding pattern

(S9C Fig). As predicted from the lack of major changes to the key surface components, Loki

adsorption was not significantly enhanced with the Δ*lon* mutant vs WT; rather, adsorption

appeared lowered at the early 5-min time point compared to WT (Fig 4C). Lon protease may

thus be affecting susceptibility to Loki by influencing a lytic cycle step occurring after surface

interactions.

We considered the possibility that the altered Loki susceptibility of mutants showing

altered capsule production could also involve alterations to LOS. We therefore examined LOS

from the *bfmRS*, *bfmS*, *rnaA* and *dsbA* deletion mutants. LOS from Δ*bfmRS*, Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA*

showed no differences in banding pattern or total levels compared to LOS from WT (S9A,B

Fig). While overall amounts of LOS from Δ*bfmS* were not significantly altered, we observed the

appearance of a single, novel band migrating slightly faster than the full-length LOS (S9A Fig,

arrowhead). This band may represent an LOS intermediate, although it is slower migrating and

much less abundant than the major intermediate band enriched in Δ*gtrOC3* and Δ*gtrOC4*

mutants. Thus, while altered capsule receptor abundance is a key feature of the enhanced Loki

susceptibility of BfmRS-hyperactive bacteria, a contribution of altered LOS to the dramatic

hypersusceptibility of *bfmS* mutants cannot yet be ruled out.

Enhanced phage multiplication caused by BfmRS hyperactivity and Lon deficiency.

To examine how phage hypersusceptibility loci affect Loki intracellular replication, we performed one-step phage growth analysis (Materials and Methods). The results of these experiments are shown in Table 1 and S10 Fig. Infection of WT bacteria resulted in a burst size of ~20 plaque-forming units (PFU) per infective center and an eclipse period of ~40 minutes. Compared to this control, *bfmS** led to a dramatic amplification in phage replication, increasing burst size >10-fold and shortening the eclipse by half. BfmRS-hyperactive Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* mutations had similar effects, increasing the burst 3-5-fold and halving the eclipse period. These results indicate that the BfmRS pathway shapes phage susceptibility not only by affecting adsorption but also by controlling intracellular phage replication. Δ*lon* also increased Loki burst size (by 7-fold) and shortened the eclipse phase by ~10min, consistent with the above idea that Lon primarily influences post-adsorption phage growth. By contrast, Δ*gtrOC3* showed no change in the magnitude of phage replication, indicating that LOS outer core synthesis mainly affects phage adsorption.

Table 1. Results from one-step growth experiments.

Host strain[a]	eclipse period (min)[b]	Burst size		n
		mean ± SEM (PFU)	adjusted p-value[c]	
WT	40	20.6 ± 1.2		12
bfmS*	20	225.9 ± 17.9	<0.0001	4
Δ*rnaA*	20	61.8 ± 9.9	0.0069	4
Δ*dsbA*	20	94.9 ± 6.0	<0.0001	4
Δ*gtrOC3*	30	27.3 ± 1.8	0.9843	4
Δ*lon*	30	141.2 ± 19.7	<0.0001	4

a. *A. baumannii* 17978 background
b. mode value from experiments using 10-minute sampling intervals
c. from one-way ANOVA with Šídák's multiple comparisons test (comparing each mutant vs WT)

Discussion

Bacteriophage show promise as an alternative therapy against drug-resistant bacteria, but how vulnerability to phage attack can be controlled is poorly understood. In this work we have defined the genome-wide mechanisms of *A. baumannii* susceptibility to killing by phage Loki. Our results support a model in which this susceptibility is determined by numerous major factors affecting the efficiency of phage adsorption and post-adsorption replication (Fig. 9A). We found that capsule type K3 provides the primary Loki receptor. LOS outer core glycans antagonize adsorption likely by impeding access to a secondary binding site, which could be membrane-proximal residues of the capsule or of the LOS molecule (e.g., the conserved LOS inner core). Phage adsorption as well as intracellular phage replication are controlled in dual fashion by the BfmRS regulatory system (Fig. 9A). Activating the TCS augments capsule production and phage growth, while deactivating the TCS lowers capsule and confers complete resistance (Fig. 9B, C). Lon is another defense factor that specifically limits phage multiplication (Fig. 9A, C). How BfmRS and Lon control phage growth dynamics intracellularly remains to be defined. Of note, the hypersusceptibility seen with *A. baumannii* mutants showing capsule overproduction or Lon deficiency stand in contrast to the situation in *E. coli,* in which these features are associated with broad phage resistance [64, 65]. Finally, alteration of capsule structure through naturally occurring glycosyltransferase mutations provides an additional pathway to phage resistance through loss of adsorption (Fig. 9B). The *gtr6* locus appears to be a hotspot for such mutations, related to strand slippage and insertion sequence elements, that could potentially facilitate variation of capsule structure within bacterial populations [66, 67].

A. baumannii phages frequently target specific host capsules [26, 35-38]. That capsule structural modulation mediates phage escape has implications for strategies to control the

evolution of *A. baumannii* phage resistance and virulence. Mutations in *gtr6*, which determines

the addition of N-acetyl-β-D-glucosamine branches on the K3 capsule backbone [26], are known

to amplify virulence [26]. Our findings thus suggest that phage, in the environment or during

therapy, may impose selective pressures facilitating the evolution of altered capsules with the

potential collateral effect of increasing pathogenicity. Notably, a repeat region within another

predicted side-chain glycosyltransferase, *gtr76*, was a site of mutations in phage-resistant K116

A. baumannii isolated from a patient receiving phage therapy [23], although effects on capsule

structure were not determined. Mutational capsule loss is an additional, well-described phage

escape mechanism (Fig. 9B) usually associated with lowered *in vivo* fitness and other trade-offs,

making this form of resistance an appealing target of sequential or combination therapies

exploiting the trade-offs [18, 68]. Our data, and potentially those of [23], argue that capsule-loss

mutations should not be considered a universally predictable path of *A. baumannii* phage

resistance and that capsule-altered mutants maintaining (and possibly enhancing) virulence

should also be considered. This may be particularly relevant when targeting specific capsules

such as K3. Combining phages to target both Gtr6$^+$ and Gtr6$^-$ [56] capsules may allow treatment

of K3 *A. baumannii* infections while blocking the rise of undesired mutants. In sum, these

observations support the notion that prior research into resistance mechanisms can enhance the

predictability of bacterial evolution during phage exposure and may allow improvements to the

therapeutic uses of phage [18, 23, 68].

Controlling the abundance of capsule is also tightly connected to modulation of

virulence, and we show here that this control has the additional effect of modulating phage

susceptibility, with implications for developing phage-drug synergies [68-70] and for

understanding variable capsule production in the pathogen. *A. baumannii* regulates capsule

synthesis through multiple mechanisms, including the BfmRS stress response and stochastic

phenotypic switching systems, and the regulatory states associated with higher capsule

production show increased virulence [35-38]. We show that BfmRS hyperactivity is an Achilles'

heel that can be exploited by capsule-targeting phages, allowing them to bind, multiply, and kill

with enhanced efficiency. It is possible that antimicrobials that increase capsule [35] could

similarly potentiate phage activity, while the opposite may be seen with antagonists of

BfmRS/capsule production. Chemical inhibitors of DsbA [46, 71], which would activate BfmRS

and capsule synthesis while impairing envelope proteins generally, represent an attractive

candidate strategy for small molecule potentiation of phage attack. Regarding the basis of

variable capsule production, our results raise the possibility that environmental phage are among

the putative selective pressures that enrich low-capsule (translucent) variants arising from

stochastic phenotype switching [37].

By examining determinants of Loki susceptibility acting through BfmRS, this work

provides new leads into the signals detected by the virulence-resistance regulator, which have

remained poorly defined. We reveal that changes in DsbA and RnaA generate signals sensed by

the TCS, leading to transcriptional control of capsule and phage infectivity. The finding that

lesions affecting periplasmic disulfide bonds generate a stress-response has a parallel in the *E.*

coli Cpx system [72]. *dsbA* mutants activate Cpx [73], which in turn regulates *dsbA* in a feedback

loop [74, 75]. In *A. baumannii*, expression of *dsb* and oxidative stress response genes is

modulated by BfmRS [36, 44]. These findings reinforce the view that BfmRS has a subset of

activities analogous to those of Cpx [24]. As noted above, several observations connect DsbA to

RnaA. A major substrate of DsbA in *E. coli* is the RnaA ortholog RNase I, a non-essential,

periplasmic, broad-substrate endonuclease [60]. RNase I and RnaA both have eight cysteines,

but RnaA is likely non-catalytic, and its levels serve as a BfmRS signal. A possible interpretation

is that *Acinetobacter* has coopted its RNase T2 family protein to function as a sensor of envelope

disulfide bond defects and/or oxidative damage. It is worth noting that a sensor of disulfide bond

defects has been reported in *E. coli*, NlpE, which transmits signals to Cpx [73]. *A. baumannii* has

an NlpE ortholog but it lacks the domain implicated in disulfide sensing [76]. This suggests that

the pathogen uses a distinct strategy to monitor periplasmic disulfides, with consequences for

vulnerability to phage. Future work will focus on investigating this strategy and defining the

connections between RnaA, oxidative folding stress, and BfmS in protecting and altering the *A.*

baumannii cell envelope.

In addition to capsule control pathways, our data with LOS outer core glycosyltransferase

mutants support an important role for outer core glycans in defending against Loki attack. It is

possible that the outer core hinders phage binding to a more internal secondary receptor. Another

possibility is that Loki's preferred secondary receptor is a truncated form of LOS, whose levels

increase in *gtrOC* mutants, increasing adsorption efficiency. Previous work showed that

mutation of *lpxA*, which completely prevents LOS production, is also reported to block Loki

adsorption [40]. This could be explained by the loss of a putative secondary binding site as noted

above, and/or by loss of capsule when LOS synthesis is completely arrested [77]. Examination of

additional LOS variants should assist in defining the precise mechanisms by which LOS

participates in phage infection and defense.

In conclusion, we have analyzed the genome-wide determinants of susceptibility to

bacteriophage Loki in *A. baumannii* and identified multiple mechanisms that modulate phage

infectivity, including several linked to altered bacterial virulence. Our results expose a

vulnerability in a pathogenic strategy of *A. baumannii*, capsule hyperproduction, that allows

enhanced killing by the capsule-specific phage. Additional work is needed to define the novel

stress sensing mechanisms that impact on phage virulence, how cytoplasmic factors control

intracellular viral multiplication, and how the susceptibility factors identified here affect

infection by additional families of *Acinetobacter* phages. Future studies focusing on

manipulation of phage hypersusceptibility pathways in *A. baumannii* may facilitate the

development of improved phage-based combination therapies targeting the pathogen.

Materials and Methods

Strains and growth conditions. Bacterial strains used in this work are described in S1 Table. *A.*

baumannii strains were derivatives of ATCC 17978 unless otherwise noted. Bacteria were

cultured in Lysogeny Broth (10 g/L tryptone, 5 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L NaCl) (LB). Cultures

were incubated at 37°C in all cases except phage infection experiments, which used 30°C unless

otherwise indicated. LB + 5mM $CaCl_2$ was used as culture medium in all phage infection

experiments. Liquid cultures were aerated with orbital shaking or with rotation via roller drum,

with growth monitored by measuring optical density (OD) as absorbance at 600nm (A_{600}). LB

agar (1.5% w/v) plates were supplemented with antibiotics as needed (tetracycline [Tc] at 10

µg/ml; carbenicillin [Cb] at 50-100 µg/ml, kanamycin [Km] at 10-20 µg/ml, gentamicin [Gm] at

10 µg/ml) or sucrose (10% w/v) (Sigma). Isopropyl β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) (Sigma) was

added to cultures at 0.1-1 mM for induction of P(IPTG)-controlled constructs. Super optimal

broth with catabolite repression (SOC) was used in Tn-seq library preparation. Bacteriophage

Loki (vB_AbaS_Loki)[40] was a gift from Dann Turner. A derivative of Loki (Loki*) was

isolated by purifying phage from a clear plaque forming within a zone of turbid 17978 lysis.

Molecular cloning and strain construction. Oligonucleotide primers and plasmids used in this

study are listed in Table S1. Most sequences were PCR-amplified from the *A. baumannii* 17978

genome and cloned in pUC18 before subcloning to destination plasmids. Clones were verified by

DNA sequencing (Genewiz/Azenta). Gene deletions were constructed in-frame by allele

exchange with cloned ~1kb homology arms using conditionally replicating vectors pSR47S or

pJB4648 and sucrose counterselection as described [35]. Deletion mutants were verified by

verified by colony PCR. An AB5075 *bfmS*::Tn mutant was obtained from the Manoil lab Three-

Allele Transposon Mutant Library and verified by screening for TcR and whole-genome

sequencing. For complementation and overexpression experiments, sequences were subcloned

downstream of the *lacI*^{q}-T5*lac*P module [P(IPTG)] on plasmid pYDE152. Plasmids were

delivered into *A. baumannii* by electroporation.

Phage-challenge Tn-seq. Stocks of *A. baumannii* ATCC 17978 *Mariner* transposon mutants

constructed previously [43] were thawed, revived for 1 hour in LB, and then back diluted to

OD=0.005 (~2.5 × 10^6 CFU/ml) in LB with 5mM CaCl$_2$ containing Loki at MOI 1 (or 1.5), at

MOI of 10 (or 15), or no phage (uninfected control). Cultures were incubated at 37°C until each

reached OD ~1 (about 8 doublings). This took approximately 2 hours for control cultures, with

additional time, usually 15-20 minutes, given to the phage treatment arms as needed to reach the

target OD. 10 banks of ~20,000 mutants per bank were analyzed independently. Genomic DNA

(gDNA) was extracted (Qiagen DNeasy) from samples before and after the 8 doublings,

quantified by a SYBR green I (Invitrogen) microtiter assay, and tagmented (Illumina Nextera).

Transposon-adjacent DNA was then amplified to form Illumina libraries as described [41, 42].

Libraries were size-selected (Pippin HT, 275bp-600bp) and sequenced (single-end 50 bp) using

primer mar512 [41] on a HiSeq 2500 with high output V4 chemistry at the Tufts University

Genomics Core Facility (TUCF-Genomics).

Sequencing read data were processed, mapped to the 17978 chromosome

(NZ_CP012004) and pAB3 (NZ_CP012005), and used to calculate individual transposon mutant

fitness (W) based on mutant vs population-wide expansion in each condition using our published

pipeline and formula [41]. Fitness values were standardized across conditions by normalizing to

the average value of insertions in neutral sites (pseudogenes and endogenous transposon-related

genes) within the genome predicted to have no effects on growth. Gene-level average fitness was

calculated by averaging the fitness values of all individual mutants in a given condition across all

pools having a transposon in the first 90% of the gene. Difference in gene-level fitness between

phage-challenge and control conditions was deemed significant if it had a magnitude >10%,

derived from n ≥ 3 individual mutants, and had q-value <0.05 in unpaired, two-tailed t test with

FDR controlled by the Benjamini, Krieger, and Yekutieli two-stage step-up method (Prism 8).

Fitness values at genomic loci were visualized with Integrative Genomics Viewer [78] after

aggregation across all transposon mutant libraries via the SingleFitness script [79].

Phage susceptibility analysis.

i. Liquid challenge. Bacterial cultures were diluted to OD=0.003 in LB + 5mM $CaCl_2$ and

combined with phage at an MOI=1 or with no phage (uninfected control). Bacterial growth was

monitored during incubation at 30°C in microtiter plates in an Epoch 2 or Synergy H1M plate

reader (Biotek).

ii. Plaque formation assay. Bacterial cultures were diluted to OD=1 in 100μl of LB, combined

with 5ml of top agar (LB with 5mM $CaCl_2$ and 0.4% w/v agar), and poured onto LB agar plates.

10-fold serial dilutions of phage in Saline-magnesium diluent plus gelatin (SMG) buffer (50mM

Tris-HCl, PH=7.5, 100mM NaCl, 8mM MgSO4, 0.01% (W/V) gelatin) [80] were spotted onto

the top agar, and plates were incubated at 30°C for 16 hours. Plaques were imaged with white

light transillumination using a Chemidoc MP (Bio-Rad).

iii. Phage adsorption. Host bacteria were cultured in LB + 5mM $CaCl_2$ at 30°C to OD=0.1. Loki

was added at MOI=0.1 followed by incubation at 30°C. At regular time intervals, 100μl were

sampled and mixed with 100μl SMG buffer saturated with chloroform. After centrifugation

(8000 x g, 5 minutes), unadsorbed phage within supernatants was enumerated by plaque

formation assay. The fraction of free phage was calculated as the number of PFU at each time

point divided by the total input PFU.

iv. *One-step phage growth*. Host bacteria were cultured as in *iii* to OD=0.1. Loki was added at

MOI=0.05 in 1 ml volume and allowed to adsorb for 5 minutes. Mixtures were centrifuged (4000

x g, 2 minutes) and supernatants containing unadsorbed phage were removed and used to

determine unadsorbed PFUs. Pellets were resuspended in sterile LB + 5mM $CaCl_2$ and incubated

at 30°C. 100μl samples were taken immediately (T0) and at 10-minute intervals over 90 minutes.

Samples were combined with 50μl chloroform and used to determine post-adsorption PFUs.

Burst size was calculated by dividing the average PFU from samples at the plateau of phage

growth by the infected cell number. Infected cell number was calculated by subtracting the

unadsorbed PFU from the total input PFU. Data were combined from two independent

experiments, each experiment performed in biological duplicate and with a WT host control arm.

Whole-genome sequencing of spontaneous phage-nonsusceptibility mutants and clinical

isolates. Bacterial mutants (derived from *A. baumannii* 17978 WT, *bfmS**, or Δ*bfmS*) forming

colonies within areas of Loki lysis/plaquing were purified on LB agar. gDNA was extracted and

quantified as above. Illumina libraries were prepared by a modified Nextera method [36] and

sequenced (single-end 100) on a HiSeq 2500 at TUCF-Genomics. Variants were identified from

sequencing reads by Breseq as described [81, 82]. Mutations were verified by PCR amplification

and Sanger sequencing (Genewiz/Azenta). EGA10 and EGA65 genomes were sequenced and

hybrid assembled at SeqCenter using sequencing data from Illumina (NextSeq 2000, 2x151bp)

and Oxford Nanopore platforms. The genome assemblies were used for species confirmation and

MLST strain type determination [83]. K and outer core locus types were determined from

genome sequence data using bioinformatics tools [84, 85].

Capsular polysaccharide analysis. Capsular polysaccharide was extracted from processed cell

lysates and analyzed by alcian blue following described protocols [35]. Samples were collected

from early post-exponential phase cultures (OD 2-3) and centrifuged. Cell pellets were

resuspended with lysis buffer [60mM Tris, pH 8; 10mM $MgCl_2$; 50μM $CaCl_2$; 20μl/ml DNase

(NEB) and RNase cocktail (Amersham); and 3mg/ml lysozyme (Sigma)] and incubated at 37°C

for 1 hour. Samples were further processed by 3 liquid nitrogen/37°C freeze-thaw cycles and

stepwise treatments with additional DNase and RNase (37°C, 30 minutes), 0.5% SDS (37°C, 30

minutes), and Proteinase K (NEB, 60°C, 1 hour). Samples were combined with SDS-PAGE

loading buffer, boiled for 5 minutes, and separated on 4-20% Bio-Rad TGX Tris-glycine gels.

Capsule was stained with Alcian blue (Sigma), imaged via white light transillumination

(ChemiDoc MP), and quantified using Image Lab (Bio-Rad).

LOS analysis. LOS was analyzed via Tricine gel electrophoresis of cell lysates as described

[41]. Log phase bacteria were washed with PBS, resuspended with Novex tricine SDS sample

buffer (Invitrogen, 50μl 1X buffer per 0.5 OD units of bacteria), and boiled for 15 minutes.

Samples were separated on Novex 16% tricine gels (Invitrogen) and stained with Pro-Q Emerald

300 (Invitrogen). Gels were imaged using UV transillumination (ChemiDoc MP). Total protein

detected with subsequent Coomassie Brilliant Blue staining was used for sample normalization.

Relative values were calculated by dividing each normalized LOS value by the total normalized

LOS levels in WT [41].

Gene expression analysis. For RT-qPCR, RNA was extracted from log phase bacteria (Qiagen

RNeasy), DNase treated (Turbo DNA-free kit, Invitrogen), and reverse transcribed (Superscript

II Reverse Transcriptase, Invitrogen). cDNA served as template in qPCR with gene-specific

primers (S1 Table) and SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) using a StepOnePlus

system according to the manufacturer's instructions. The amplification efficiency for each pair

was tested by standard curves using serial diluted cDNA, and found to be > 97% in each case.

Fold change in gene expression was calculated by using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method with *rpoC* as

endogenous control [36]. qPCR was performed in technical duplicate from biological triplicate

samples. Samples lacking reverse transcriptase were used to confirm absence of signal from

residual gDNA. For fluorescence reporter analysis, bacteria were harvested from OD=1 cultures,

resuspended in PBS, and transferred to a black, clear bottom microplate (Corning 3631).

Fluorescence intensity (excitation at 480 nm/emission at 520 nm) and A_{600} were measured with a

Synergy H1M (Biotek). Density-normalized fluorescence units were calculated as fluorescence

intensity/A_{600}.

Analysis of BfmR phosphorylation. Phosphate affinity electrophoresis was performed

following published protocols [86]. 1 OD of mid-log phase bacteria were resuspended in 55µl of

BugBuster reagent with 0.1% (v/v) Lysonase (Novagen). Lysis was assisted by repeated

pipetting. 18µl of 4X SDS sample buffer (200mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 8% SDS, 0.4%

Bromophenol blue, 40% Glycerol) was added, and lysates were electrophoresed in Phos-Tag gels

[12% acrylamide, 50µM Phos-tag acrylamide (Wako Chemicals), and 100 µM $MnCl_2$] at 30mA.

After electrophoresis, gels were incubated for 10 minutes in 1X transfer buffer (50mM Tris,

380mM Glycine, 0.1% SDS, 20% Methanol) with 1mM EDTA to remove manganese, followed

by additional 10 minutes in transfer buffer without EDTA. Proteins were transferred to PVDF

membranes (100V, 1hr). Total protein was detected in the blots with SYPRO Ruby blot stain

(Invitrogen) using the manufacturer's instructions and a GelDoc EZ (Bio-Rad). Blots were

incubated in blocking buffer (5% Milk in TBS-T, 1 hour, room temperature) and probed with

rabbit anti-BfmR antiserum (1:30,000 or 1:90,000 in blocking buffer, overnight at 4C) and goat

anti-rabbit-HRP secondary antibody (Invitrogen, 1:5,000 in blocking buffer, 1 hour at room

temperature). Blots were washed 3x10 minutes in TBS-T before and after incubation with

secondary antibody, and washed 10min in TBS before developing. Signals were detected with

Western Lightning Plus-ECL (Perkin Elmer) and a ChemiDoc MP, and quantified using Image

Lab. Rabbit anti-BfmR antiserum was generated by immunizing a rabbit with purified

recombinant BfmR according to standard protocols (Pocono Rabbit Farm and Laboratory).

Phenotypic signature analysis. Tn-seq phenotypic signatures belonging to *bfmS*, *rnaA*, and *dsb*

paralogs in *A. baumannii* were extracted from previous genome-wide datasets [41]. Hierarchical

clustering was performed by the average linkage method using Qlucore Omics Explorer (3.7).

Pearson correlation analysis was performed using Prism 9.

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1032

Captions

Fig 1. Identification of candidate determinants of susceptibility to Loki using Tn-seq.

(A) Loki infection of *A. baumannii* 17978 causes partial inhibition of bulk culture growth.

Bacteria were seeded in microplates with or without Loki at the indicated MOI and growth was

monitored by OD readings (liquid infection assay). Data points show geometric mean ± s.d.

(shaded bands) from n = 3 independent cultures. Where not visible, s.d. is within the confines of

the symbol. Inset shows small, turbid plaques resulting from Loki infection of the same strain on

solid medium. Plaques imaged with white light transillumination. Scale bar, 1 mm. (B) Tn-seq

analysis of Loki susceptibility determinants in *A. baumannii* 17978. Volcano plots show change

in gene-level fitness resulting from phage treatment at the indicated MOI compared to untreated

control, plotted against inverse p value from parallel t tests. Blue data points are genes that pass

significance criteria (Materials and Methods) and represent candidate Loki susceptibility

determinants. Loci described further in the text are labelled. Grey data points are genes not

passing significance criteria.

1047

Fig 2. Validation of candidate phage hypersusceptibility loci.

(A) Tracks show Tn-seq fitness values (vertical bars) of individual *Mariner* transposon mutants

at candidate Loki hypersusceptibility loci (shaded yellow) across all tested mutant banks using

the indicated MOI. (B-C) Liquid challenge assays with defined mutants. Growth of the indicated

A. baumannii 17978 strains with Loki (MOI 1) or no phage was measured as in Fig 1A (n=3).

"Chr" indicates the chromosomal mutation; "Plasmid" denotes the gene reintroduced under

P(IPTG) control via vector pYDE152; - indicates control plasmid with no reintroduced gene;

*bfmS** refers to *bfmS*-null point mutant EGA127; IPTG "0.1" and "1" refer to mM units. (D-E)

Plaque formation assays. ~10^8 of the indicated bacteria were overlaid on bottom agar, followed

by spotting 10-fold serial dilutions of Loki. Bottom agar in D contained 1mM IPTG. Plaques

were imaged with white-light transillumination after 16 h incubation at 30°C.

1059

Fig 3. Loki resistance mutations map to capsule biosynthesis locus. (A) Tn-seq fitness of

transposon mutants in the capsule synthesis (KL3) and associated loci in the Loki challenge

screen. Plotted are the average gene-level Tn-seq fitness values (*W*) with phage infection (Loki

MOI 10-15) vs uninfected control, analyzed by unpaired t-tests. X indicates essential gene

without a fitness value due to paucity of transposon insertions. Dotted line indicates the genome-

wide average *W* during Loki challenge. (B-C, E) Plaque formation assays showing dependence

on the KL3 capsule for Loki infection. Loki was spotted on the following hosts: (B) acapsular

itrA and *wzc* mutants of 17978; (C) a range of *A. baumannii* clinical isolates harboring the

indicated K and OC locus (K loci producing the K3 capsule type are shaded blue); or (E) strains

with spontaneous *gtr6* mutations (Table S1). Strains in E harbored the indicated pYDE152-based

plasmid and bottom agar contained 1mM IPTG. (D) Diagram of the KL3/KL22 cluster showing

spontaneous Loki resistance mutations (arrowheads). The hotspot within *gtr6* is expanded. KL3

and KL22 share all ORFs except *pgt1* (only present in KL22).

1073

1074 **Fig 4. Results of phage adsorption assays measuring *A. baumannii* binding to Loki.** Loki

1075 adsorption assays were performed with WT 17978 or the indicated mutant. Data points show

1076 geometric mean ± s.d. (n=3), analyzed by unpaired t test (mutant vs WT control). P values: *,

1077 ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, <0.001; ns, not significant.

1078

Fig. 5. Susceptibility to Loki depends on BfmRS activity and correlates with control of

capsule levels.

(A) *bfmS* and *bfmR* transposon mutations have opposing effects on Tn-seq fitness during Loki

challenge. Data points show average gene-level Tn-seq fitness values (*W*) with Loki infection at

indicated MOI vs uninfected control, analyzed by unpaired t-tests. Dotted line indicates the

genome-wide average *W* during Loki challenge (MOI 10-15). (B) Capsule production by

different *bfmRS* mutants. Bars show mean capsule level ± s.d. (n=3), analyzed by one-way

ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (mutant vs WT). A representative gel is

shown above the graph. (C) Liquid challenge and (D) plaque formation assays with Δ*bfmRS* and

bfmR receiver domain point mutants. Liquid challenge data are presented as in Fig 1A (n=3). (E)

BfmR phosphorylation level was analyzed in cell lysates of receiver domain mutants vs the

parent control (*bfmS**) by Phos-tag western blotting. BfmR~P as a fraction of total BfmR was

quantified from n=3 samples. Bars show mean ± s.d., analyzed by one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons test. A representative blot is shown above the graph.

1093

Fig 6. RnaA and DsbA modulate capsule production and Loki susceptibility through

BfmRS and in different clinical isolates.

(A) Capsule levels measured in 17978 derivatives with Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* mutation singly and in

combination with Δ*bfmRS*. A representative gel (top) and quantification from n=3 samples

(bottom; means ± s.d. analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Šídák's multiple comparisons test) are

shown as in Fig 5B. (B) Liquid challenge assays examining susceptibility of strains in A to Loki

attack. Data presented as in Fig 1A (n=6). (C-D) Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* derivatives of carbapenem-

resistant *A. baumannii* strain BAA-1790 show increased capsule and Loki sensitivity. Capsule

levels (C) were analyzed as in A. Bacterial growth during liquid challenge with a virulent Loki

derivative (Loki*) (D) was analyzed as in B. (E-F) *rnaA* overexpression via high-copy plasmid

decreases capsule production and blocks Loki infection in a manner dependent on the BfmS

signal receptor. WT or *bfmS** 17978 bacteria harbored pJE127 (IPTG-dependent *rnaA*) and were

grown in the presence or absence of IPTG. Representative capsule gel (E, top), capsule

quantification from n=3 samples (E, bottom), and Loki plaque assays (F) are shown. Mean

capsule levels ± s.d. were analyzed by unpaired t-tests. P values: *, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***,

<0.001. ns, not significant.

1110

Fig 7. RnaA/DsbA deficiency activates BfmRS.

(A) Transcription levels of capsule biosynthesis genes *wza* (black) and *gnaA* (gray) measured by

qRT-PCR in Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* mutants. Bars show mean fold change vs WT ± s.d. (n=3);

analyzed by unpaired t-tests comparing mutant vs WT. (B-C) Fluorescence reporter assays.

Strains harbored a GFP transcriptional fusion to the noted promoter region and reporter

fluorescence was measured as fluorescence units/A_{600}. (B) Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* activation of a

BfmRS-dependent (*18040*p, black), but not BfmRS-independent (*adc*p, gray) promoter. (C)

Δ*rnaA*/Δ*dsbA* activation of *18040*p requires BfmRS. Bars show mean ± s.d. (n = 3). Means were

analyzed by unpaired t test comparing mutant vs WT (B) or by one-way ANOVA with Šídák's

multiple comparisons test (C). (D) Phos-tag analysis of BfmR phosphorylation. Δ*rnaA* and

Δ*dsbA* increase BfmR~P to a level matching that caused by the hyperactive Δ*bfmS* allele.

Presented as in Fig 5E (n=3). Asterisks show results of one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple

comparisons test (mutant vs WT); comparisons between mutants were not significant. (E) Heat

map shows the Pearson correlation coefficients (r) analyzing relatedness of Tn-seq phenotypic

signatures [41] of *bfmS, rnaA,* and *dsb* genes. (F) Tn-seq fitness of *rnaA* and *dsb* transposon

mutants in the phage challenge screen. Data presented as in Fig 5A. (G) Δ*dsbA* but not Δ*rnaA*

shows a synthetic growth defect with Δ*bfmRS.* Bacteria were incubated in LB at 37°C and

growth measured as in Fig 1A (n=3). P values: *, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, <0.001. ns, not

significant.

1130

Fig 8. The full-length LOS outer core impedes attack by Loki independent of changes to

capsule.

(A) Δ*gtrOC3* and Δ*gtrOC4* cause enrichment of a truncated LOS intermediate. A representative

LOS gel (top) and quantification from triplicate samples (bottom) are shown. Bars indicate mean

normalized LOS levels ± s.d.; one-way ANOVA showed no significant difference in total LOS

levels among strains (P=0.34). (B) Tn-seq fitness of LOS outer core synthesis locus (OCL2)

mutants in the phage challenge screen. Data presented as in Fig 3A. (C-D) Enhancement of Loki

susceptibility in *gtrOC* mutants depends on capsule. (C) Plaque formation assay with Δ*gtrOC3,*

Δ*itrA*, Δ*gtr6*, and double mutants. (D) Liquid challenge assay with strains in C (n = 3). P values:

*, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, <0.001. ns, not significant.

1141

Fig. 9. Model for modulation of phage infection by multiple susceptibility factors in *A.*

baumannii. Vulnerability factors that act to enhance Loki infection are shown in blue; defense

factors that antagonize Loki infection are shown in red. Additional candidate defense factors,

including the methyltransferase AamA or transcription factor DksA, were identified through

screening but require confirmation and are not shown. (A) Loki infection of WT bacteria. Loki

adsorbs in two steps: (1) interaction with the primary adsorption receptor, capsular

polysaccharide of type K3, and (2) interaction with an LOS-associated secondary site. This site

may be the conserved LOS inner core, or LOS-proximal capsule residues, and access is

antagonized by the LOS outer core. BfmRS enhances Loki infection by positively regulating

both the capsule receptor (via transcriptional activation of capsule biosynthesis) and intracellular

phage replication (by unknown mechanisms). Lon protease negatively regulates intracellular

phage replication, by unknown mechanisms. (B) Loki resistance arises from capsule receptor

down-regulation (BfmRS deficiency), structural alteration (via mutation of hotspot gene *gtr6*), or

complete loss (mutation of a core biosynthesis gene, e.g. *itrA* or *wzx*), blocking phage adsorption.

BfmRS deficiency may also reduce phage intracellular replication. (C) By contrast, Loki

hypersusceptibility arises from hyperactivity of vulnerability factors or loss of defense factors.

Hyperactivation of BfmRS, defined by increased BfmR~P (yellow halo), results from *bfmS*,

dsbA, or *rnaA* mutations and may also be triggered by external stresses related to oxidative

protein folding. BfmRS hyperactivity increases the level of the capsule receptor, enhancing

phage adsorption, while also stimulating phage intracellular multiplication. Loss of LOS OC

sugars increases binding of Loki to surface sites without altering its intracellular multiplication.

Loss of Lon increases phage multiplication without increasing adsorption.

1164

Supporting information captions

S1 Fig. Analysis of phenotypes connected to *rnaA* and DSB genes. (A) Liquid Loki challenge

assays show that overexpression of reintroduced *rnaA* by a high inducer concentration (1mM

IPTG) not only reverses the Δ*rnaA* phage susceptibility defect, but causes complete non-

susceptibility to the phage. "Chr" indicates the chromosomal mutation; "Plasmid" denotes the

gene reintroduced under P(IPTG) control via vector pYDE152; - indicates vector with no

reintroduced gene. Bacteria were cultured with or without Loki (MOI 1) and IPTG (1mM) as

indicated. Data are presented as in Fig. 1A (n=3). (B) Complementation analysis showing

reversibility of capsule deficiency in Δ*rnaA* and Δ*dsbA* strains. Capsular polysaccharide levels

were analyzed by SDS-PAGE/Alcian Blue after growth with the noted amount of IPTG to induce

the reintroduced gene. (C-D) Plaque formation assays. Loki was spotted onto bottom agar

containing WT bacteria with the indicated genotype. In D, bacteria harbored pJE101 (IPTG-

dependent *dsbA*), and plates contained 0 or 1mM IPTG. (E) Cluster analysis of Tn-seq

phenotypic signatures of *bfmS*, *rnaA*, and *dsb* genes. Heat map shows normalized Tn-seq fitness

in z-score units for transposon mutants in each gene (rows) grown in different conditions

(columns) [41]. Dendrogram at left shows relationship between signatures based on hierarchical

clustering. (F) Heat map shows change in RNA-seq transcript levels in the indicated BfmRS

mutant compared to WT control. Data were extracted from previous datasets [35] and log2 fold

change values displayed as heat map using Prism 9. P values: *, ≤0.05; **, ≤0.01; ***, <0.001.

1184

1185   **S2 Fig. Analysis of Δ*slt* phenotypes.** (A) Liquid challenge assay with WT or Δ*slt* bacteria

1186   cultured with or without Loki (MOI 1). Data are presented as in Fig. 1A (n=3). (B) Plaque

1187   formation assay with Loki spotted onto bottom agar with WT and Δ*slt* bacteria. (C)

1188   Measurement of *rnaA* transcript levels in WT vs Δ*slt* via qRT-PCR. Bars show mean fold change

1189   vs WT ± s.d. (n = 3); analyzed by unpaired t-test. *, P ≤ 0.05.

1190

1191   **S3 Fig. Reintroduction of *itrA* in Δ*itrA* mutant restores Loki susceptibility in the liquid**

1192   **challenge assay, and degree of susceptibility increases with increasing *itrA* induction.** (A)

1193   Bacteria of the noted genotype were cultured with the indicated level of IPTG with or without

1194 Loki at initial MOI of 1. Growth was measured as in Fig 1A (n = 3). (B) Plaque formation assay

1195 with Loki spotted on 17978 WT and isogenic Δ*gtr6* mutant.

1196

1197 **S4 Fig. *gtr6*, *gtrOC*, and *lon* mutations do not affect production of capsular polysaccharide.**

1198 Bars show mean capsule levels ± s.d. (n=3). Lanes from representative gels are shown above

1199 each graph. No significant difference among means by one-way ANOVA (A, P = 0.797; B, P =

1200 0.963) or by t test (C, P = 0.531).

1201

S5 Fig. Analysis of total BfmR levels in mutant strains. Total BfmR levels were quantified

from anti-BfmR Phos-tag western blots by combining the signal from phosphorylated and

unphosphorylated forms of BfmR, and normalizing to total protein in the sample as determined

by SYPRO Ruby staining. (A) Graph corresponds to the blot shown in Fig. 5E. (B) Graph

corresponds to the blot shown in Fig. 7D. Bars show mean capsule level ± s.d. (n=3), analyzed

by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (mutant vs WT). *, P value ≤

0.05.

1209

S6 Fig. *bfmS* and *gtrOC* mutant hypersusceptibility to Loki depends on capsule

biosynthesis. (A, D) Phage adsorption assays showing that enhancement of Loki adsorption by

bfmS (A) or *gtrOC3* (D) mutations depends on capsule. Data presented as in Fig. 4 (n=3). (B)

Liquid challenge assays. The indicated bacteria were cultured with or without Loki (MOI 1).

Data are presented as in Fig 1A (n=3). (C) Plaque formation assays with Loki spotted on *A.*

baumannii strains, and their corresponding *bfmS*-null derivative, harboring the indicated K locus.

1216

1217 **S7 Fig. Liquid phage challenge assays using *A. baumannii* strains BAA-1790 and 17978 and**

1218 **phages Loki or Loki*.** (A) The indicated BAA-1790 mutant, or WT control, was challenged

1219 with Loki. (B) 17978 WT was challenged with Loki, virulent Loki* derivative, or no phage

1220 control. Data points show geometric mean ± s.d. (n=3).

1221

S8 Fig. *A. baumannii* RnaA lacks catalytic residues defining the RNase T2 family.

Diagram shows analysis of conserved domains on RnaA. RNase_T2 domain, CAS motifs, and

active site positions were identified using the NCBI Conserved Domain Database [87]. Signal

peptide was identified using SignalP [88]. Vertical green lines represent conserved cysteine

residues within the RNase_T2 domain. Alignment shows RNase T2 family homologs across

diverse bacterial species. Within the conserved active site motifs (CAS-I and CAS-II), the active

sites are indicated by #, and the most commonly found residues at these sites are highlighted.

1229

S9 Fig. Analysis of LOS production in altered phage susceptibility mutants bearing

mutations in capsule-control loci or *lon*. LOS production in cell lysates of mutants in *bfmRS*

(A), *rnaA* and *dsbA* (B), and *lon* (C) was analyzed in comparison with WT control via Pro-Q 300

emerald staining. Representative gels are shown in top panels. Arrowhead indicates location of

novel intermediate band associated with Δ*bfmS* (A). Quantification is shown in bottom panels.

Bars show mean ± s.d. (n=3). Within each set of strains, no significant difference (P > 0.05)

observed in total LOS levels by one-way ANOVA (A, B) or unpaired t-test (C).

1237

1238 **S10 Fig. One-step growth curves showing enhanced Loki multiplication in phage**

1239 **hypersensitive mutant hosts.** Data points show geometric mean PFU/ml ± s.d. (n=4). Infected

1240 cell number (used in burst size calculations) was approximately 1-1.5 x 10^4 per ml.

1241

1242 **S1 Table. Strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study.**

1243

1244 **S2 Table. Spontaneous *gtr6* mutations conferring phage Loki resistance.**

1245

1246 **S1 Dataset. Loki challenge Tn-seq data.**

A

Fitness (*W*)

- ● no phage
- △ Loki MOI 1-1.5
- □ Loki MOI 10-15

bfmS *bfmR*

B Capsule (Alcian Blue)

250 kDa

Capsule level relative to WT

WT Δ*bfmRS* *bfmS** *bfmR*(G100D) *bfmS** *bfmR*(T85I) *bfmS**

C

- ■ no phage
- ● + Loki

A_{600}

WT   Δ*bfmRS*   *bfmS**   *bfmR*(G100D) *bfmS**   *bfmR*(T85I) *bfmS**

Time (h)

D Loki

WT

Δ*bfmRS*

*bfmS**

bfmR(G100D) *bfmS**

bfmR(T85I) *bfmS**

E Phos-tag (anti-BfmR)

kDa
37
BfmR~P
BfmR
25

Phosphorylated fraction (BfmR~P)

*bfmS** *bfmR*(G100D) *bfmS** *bfmR*(T85I) *bfmS**