Defining the importance of the arginine loop region of protegrin-1 for antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae*.

Christina DeBarro[a], Sofia Assent[a], Hannah Makhecha[a], Noor Radde[ghij], Rakesh Krishnan[bcde], Justin Randalf, Cesar de la Fuente-Nunez[bcde], and Renee M. Fleeman[a]*

[a] Division of Immunity and Pathogenesis, Burnett School of Biomedical Sciences, College of Medicine, University of Central Florida. Orlando, FL 32837

[b] Machine Biology Group, Departments of Psychiatry and Microbiology, Institute for Biomedical Informatics, Institute for Translational Medicine and Therapeutics, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

[c] Departments of Bioengineering and Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, School of Engineering and Applied Science, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

[d] Penn Institute for Computational Science, University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

[e] Department of Chemistry, School of Arts and Sciences, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA.

[f] Department of Biological and Biomedical Systems, University of Missouri-Kansas City. Kansas City, MO 64110, USA.

[g] Harvard University, Ragon Institute MGH, Cambridge, MA 02139, USA

[h] Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, 02139, USA

[i] Harvard University, Boston, MA, 02115, USA

[j] Harvard University, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, 02115, USA

*Correspondence: Renee.Fleeman@ucf.edu

ORCID account = https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7103-461X

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Summary

Carbapenem resistant Klebsiella pneumoniae extreme drug resistance has warranted the use of colistin

as a last-resort antibiotic but these isolates are now displaying increasing rates of colistin resistance.

This is in large part due to the modifications made to the lipid A by the PhoPQ two component system.

Host defense peptides (HDPs) are like colistin in that they are both positively charged and display

amphipathic character, however are not impacted by lipid A modifications to the extent of colistin. To

understand how HDPs can penetrate colistin resistant membranes we performed a deep mutational

scanning analysis of protegrin-1 and revealed that amino acids mutations that resulted in alteration of

peptide structure had more impact on antimicrobial activity than a reduction in charge. Probing single

and double amino acid variants using membrane analysis and molecular modeling revealed the loss of

antimicrobial activity correlated with decreased inner membrane leakage and pore modeling predicting

decreased pore size.

Introduction

Multidrug-resistant *Klebsiella pneumoniae* is responsible for a wide array of healthcare-associated infections throughout the globe [1-8]. More specifically, as of 2024, the World Health organization has declared carbapenem-resistant *K. pneumoniae* the top priority pathogen [9]. Colistin, a last resort antibiotic, has been used in place of carbapenems to treat carbapenem-resistant *K. pneumoniae* [2, 3, 7, 10-12]. The two *K. pneumoniae* clonal groups most associated with global carbapenem resistance are CG258 and CG15 [3, 13, 14]. While CG15 is more commonly associated with resistance to third-generation cephalosporins, as of 2017 CG258 was responsible for approximately 70% of carbapenem-resistant infections, with cases documented globally [3, 8]. Within this clonal group consists of three sequence types, ST258, ST512, and ST11. Of these sequence types, ST258 has been associated with the majority of carbapenem resistant outbreaks as well as global dissemination of carbapenemases [8, 13, 15, 16]. Importantly, we are now finding an increase in colistin resistance with ST258 clinical isolates [7, 17-20].

Polymyxin B and E (colistin) are cationic cyclic lipopeptides with a charge of +5 that bind to the lipopolysaccharides on the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria [10, 21-24]. More specifically, the positively charged diaminobutyric acid residues of colistin bind to the negatively charged phosphate groups on the lipid A portion of a lipopolysaccharide molecule (LPS), displacing the divalent cations already present. This allows the hydrophobic tail of colistin to penetrate the outer membrane, resulting in local membrane curvature. Eventually, colistin will form aggregates within the outer membrane, resulting in structural instabilities. These instabilities allow colistin to cross the lipid bilayer and access the inner membrane. At the inner membrane colistin will cause membrane thinning that will result in cytosolic leakage and bacterial cell death [10, 21-24]. Colistin resistance in *K. pneumoniae* has been largely attributed to the modifications on the outer membrane that alter the charge or structure of the lipid A portion its lipopolysaccharides (LPS) [10, 21-24]. The overall charge of the bacterial membrane can be increased by the replacement of negatively charged phosphates on the lipid A molecule by

positively charged chemical groups such as phosphoethanolamine (PEtN) and 4-amino-4-deoxy-L-

arabinose (L-Ara4N) [10, 21-24]. This will reduce colistin's affinity for the bacterial cell due to the

disruption of the initial electrostatic interaction. Furthermore, the acyl chains of a lipid a molecule can be

altered to increase the rigidity of the bacterial membrane, resulting in the mechanistic expulsion of

colistin and thereby resistance [22, 25]. The PhoPQ two-component system has been shown to be a

global regulator implicated in colistin resistance in Gram-negative bacteria, including *K. pneumoniae*

[26-29]

Host defense peptides are not equally affected by the modifications to the LPS that cause resistance to

polymyxins [30-32]. Compared to colistin that directly targets lipid A to displace the stabilizing cations

[10, 21-24], host defense peptides interact more generally with the LPS having multiple mechanisms of

membrane disruption. These include the 'detergent like' carpet model or the formation of pores through

the torodial pore and barrel-stave models [33-36]. Previous work describing host defense peptide

antimicrobial activity towards *K. pneumoniae* revealed that peptides with increased backbone steric

hinderance had improved activity, in particular towards colistin-resistant ST-258 *K. pneumoniae* strain

MKP103 [37, 38]. This suggests that not all host defense peptides are affected equally by the

modifications providing colistin resistance and there are important physiochemical properties that allow

them to retain antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant Gram-negative pathogens.

Here we describe the investigation into the strong antimicrobial activity of protegrin-1 towards colistin-

resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 through a multi-level analysis (**Figure 1**)*.* Deep mutational peptide

scanning revealed specific positions necessary for antimicrobial activity in protegrin-1. Furthermore, we

found intricate changes to secondary structure could impact antimicrobial activity, while comparatively

larger changes to the positive charge of the peptide were needed to impact activity. Specifically, within

the triple arginine motif of protegrin-1 a proline mutation decreases antimicrobial activity at position 9

but not at position 11. Mutation of a second arginine residue within this region, regardless of the

position of the proline resulted in complete loss of antimicrobial activity. Investigation into the peptide

variants membrane interactions demonstrated changes in cytosolic leakage, which corresponded to the

respective activity of our proline peptide variants. Moreover, despite a loss of activity we found an

increase in outer membrane disruption with our inactive double mutation peptide variants. Molecular

modeling revealed a distinct reduction in diameter and overall pore collapse of the modeled beta-sheet

variant octameric pores as well as the rapid loss of beta-sheet character in the variants' monomeric

models. These findings challenge the currently set precedent of colistin resistance being largely

attributed to differences in charge, where we see with protegrin-1 even with the cysteine bonds in

place, intricate changes in structure can impact pore formation in colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae*.

Results
Host defense peptides do not equally bypass *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 PhoP acquired polymyxin

resistance

An increasing number of *K. pneumoniae* isolates are becoming resistant to the last resort antibiotic

colistin [7, 17-20]. Colistin is positively charged and displays amphipathic structure, characteristics

shared by host defense peptides [21, 39-41]. Host defense peptides are a stressor that is responded to

by the PhoPQ two-component system, although the modifications to the LPS causing colistin resistance

does not equally apply to all host defense peptides [30-32, 42]. To expand on our understanding of the

varying impact of PhoPQ mediated colistin resistance on different host defense peptides first we

validated *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 resistance to polymyxins was mediated by upregulation *phoP* and

tested the impact of this resistance to antimicrobial activity of different classes of host defense peptides.

To validate PhoPQ mediated polymyxin resistance in *K. pneumoniae* MKP103, we first identified the

minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of polymyxin B and colistin (polymyxin E) next to other well

published *K. pneumoniae* strains. We found minimal polymyxin resistance with hypervirulent *K.*

pneumoniae NTUH [43] and KPPR1S [44], drug-resistant *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 700603 [45], and type

strain *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 13883 [46] (MICs < 1 µmol L^{-1}) when compared to *K. pneumoniae*

MKP103, a genetically modified ST-258 strain used for the creation of a transposon library (MIC 27

µmol L^{-1}) [47, 48] (**Table S1, Figure 2A**). We then determined the baseline expression levels of

response regulator *phoP* with RT-qPCR to compare to their respective polymyxin resistance [49, 50]

and found high levels of *phoP* expression correlated with colistin resistance in *K. pneumoniae* MKP103

(**Figure 2A,Figure S1**). Therefore, we determined *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 to be the ideal screening

candidate for our investigation into PhoPQ mediated colistin resistance.

To determine a candidate host defense peptide for our deep mutational scanning, we used the parental

MKP103 and its *ΔphoP* transposon mutant (KPNIH1_10030-701::T30) and compared MICs of different

structural classes of antimicrobial peptides (**Table 1**). As shown with previous studies on colistin

resistance [30-32], we found that PhoP mediated polymyxin resistance does not extend equally to host

defense peptides compared to polymyxin B and E, which had a 256-fold change between the parental

strain and *ΔphoP* mutant (**Figure S1, Figure 2B**). Specifically, the largest fold change in MIC between

the parental strain and *ΔphoP* mutant was with indolicidin (16-fold), an extended host defense peptide

with a random coil structure (**Figure 2B**). Furthermore, when testing alpha-helical peptides, we saw LL-

37 and melittin (8-fold change MIC) were similarly affected by PhoP mediated resistance while cecropin

A was slightly less affected (4-fold change MIC). When testing beta-sheet peptides, protegrin-1 and

arenicin both had a 4-fold change in MIC between the parental strain and *ΔphoP* mutant. Finally, as

expected due to its internal mechanism of killing [51], the polyproline peptide bac7 (1-35) had only 2-

fold change in MIC between the MKP103 parental strain and *ΔphoP* mutant. For a comparison of the

peptide backbone steric hindrance of the tested host defense peptides following up on previously

observed finding [37], we created Ramachandran plots of the host defense peptides displaying the

dihedral rotation angles of each amino acid residue. The alpha helical host defense peptides (ll-37,

cecropin, and melittin) plotted within the right-handed alpha-helical region of the Ramachandran plot

(**Figure 2C**) revealing the precise angles needed to form a helical protein [52-54] due to the flexibility of

the peptide backbone. The beta-sheet peptides (protegrin-1 and arenicin) and extended peptides (bac7

(1-35) and indolicidin) plotted within the beta-sheet/collagen triple helix region of the Ramachandran

plot (**Figure 2D, and 2E**), a region known for being the most restrictive for amide bond rotation [54].

Although indolicidin localized within this region, the individual amino acids displayed a range of

flexibility, shown by the spread on the Ramachandran plot. Collectively, host defense peptides that had

tight localization to the beta-sheet/collagen triple helix region of the Ramachandran plot were less

impacted by *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 PhoP mediated colistin resistance. Protegrin-1, along with having

a low fold change between parental MKP103 and *ΔphoP* mutant, also has a well characterized

structure and mechanism of action [55-57]. Furthermore, this peptide's two disulfide bonds, which are

responsible for protegrin-1's tightly constraint structure, are ideal for molecular dynamic simulations

[58]. For these reasons we chose this peptide as our candidate for deep mutational scanning to

investigate the ability of this host-defense peptides to bypass *K. pneumoniae* colistin resistance.

Protegrin-1 deep mutational scanning library shows reveals charge and structure are important

for antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103

To understand the importance of individual amino acids to the antimicrobial activity of beta-sheet

peptide towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* we next aimed to perform deep mutational scanning

analysis of the beta-sheet peptide protegrin-1. For this we utilized the Surface Localized Antimicrobial

Display (SLAY) system that was designed to display antimicrobial peptides on the surface of Gram-

negative bacteria to capitalize on the high-throughput advantages of next-generation sequencing [59].

Further optimization of this platform led to the development of deep mutational scanning with SLAY

(dmSLAY), using this tool to assess protegrin-1 and describe features driving membrane selectivity

between bacteria and mammalian cells [60]. As previously described, the creation of the protegrin-1

dmSLAY ensured a high level of conservation was given to the mixed base primer sequence (**Table**

S2, Figure S2), with the possibility of 7-12 changes at each amino acid residue, resulting in 1-9

mutations per peptide variant. We aimed to expand on this impactful study by testing the protegrin-1

dmSLAY library in colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103.

We collected the plasmid-based library from colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 following growth

for four hours with and without plasmid induction with isopropyl β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG). To predict

antimicrobial activity of the peptide variants in our library, we used next generation sequencing to

quantify the plasmids from the induced versus the uninduced population **(Table S3)**. Sequences that

express for an active peptide variant are removed from the population of plasmids following induction

resulting in a negative log2 fold change in reads. With the goal to understand what amino acids were

implicated in retaining the antimicrobial activity of protegrin-1, we looked for retention within the

population of peptide variants rather than removal and used a log2 fold change value of 0 or higher is

indicative of lack of antimicrobial activity. Overall, we identified approximately 1700 peptide sequence

variants lacking activity against *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 **(Figure 3A; Supplemental data file 1).** To

determine which specific amino acid residues were necessary to bypass colistin resistance, we chose

to investigate individual mutations that occurred most often in our inactive peptide variant population,

rather than testing peptide variants from the screen **(Table S4)**. We had some individual amino acid

mutations that occurred only ≤20 peptide variants. However, we were intrigued to find several amino

acid mutations that were in the majority of peptide variants retained in the population **(Table 2, Figure**

3B). We chose not to investigate mutations with less than 25 occurrences, those that did not involve an

amino acid class change, and those that impacted disulfide bonds, as literature has already shown their

importance for protegrin-1's antimicrobial activity [61, 62]. This resulted in the selection of five individual

mutations in different structural regions of protegrin-1 to investigate their effects alone on the surface

display system (**Figure 3B**). Specifically, the glycine at position to mutated to an arginine (G2R)

increasing the charge of the unstructured tail region was found 316 times within the population of

peptide variants that had a log2 fold change >0. A leucine mutation to an isoleucine (L5I) and

phenylalanine to leucine (F12L) within the beta-sheet region were found in 218 and 834 of peptide

variants retained in the population, respectively. Finally, we found mutations in 2 arginine residues of

the triple arginine loop region (R9P and R10L) times 295 and 299 within the population of peptide

variants retained in the population, respectively and these variants most often occurred together.

To test the selected individual mutations using the SLAY platform, we cloned the single amino acid

variants of protegrin-1 into the genetic screening system **(Table S5, S6)** and induced the plasmid in

colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 over a four-hour period enumerating CFU mL^{-1}. When testing

the parental peptide displayed on the surface with 1 mM IPTG induction we found there was a 5-log

reduction in CFU mL^{-1} when compared to an uninduced plasmid control, and bacteria harboring the

system with a tandem influenza hemagglutinin peptide (2xHA) as a negative control **(Figure 3C)**.

Testing the individual amino acid mutations next to the parental peptide, we found the mutation of an

arginine to leucine (R10L), glycine to arginine (G2R), leucine to isoleucine (L5I), and phenylalanine to

leucine (F12L) mutations displayed minimal change in CFU mL^{-1} compared to the surface display of the

parental peptide (**Figure 3D).** However, when introducing a proline mutation at position 9 (R9P), we

saw this single mutation could reduce the activity of the peptide towards colistin-resistant *K.*

pneumoniae MKP103 by 2-fold compared to our parental peptide**.** Intriguingly, we found the arginine to

proline mutation in our next-generation sequencing occurred approximately 89% of the time with an

arginine to leucine mutation at position 10 (R9P, R10L). Therefore, we also tested these amino acid

mutations together using SLAY and found the complete loss of activity of the peptide with two arginine

amino acid residues mutated within the triple arginine motif (**Figure 3D**). Overall, our deep mutational

scanning of protegrin-1 identified candidate amino acids that are important for antimicrobial activity

towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae.* Although many of these mutations needed additional

mutations for a reduction in antimicrobial potential, we identified a single arginine to proline mutation at

position 9 within the beta-sheet to turn transition region of the triple arginine motif that alone could

impact antimicrobial activity and the complete loss of activity when this was accompanied by a second

mutation within this region.

The arginine to proline mutation impedes antimicrobial activity only in the beta-sheet to turn

transition region of the protegrin-1 arginine loop

With the intriguing findings from our deep mutational scanning of protegrin-1 arginine loop beta-sheet to

turn transition region*,* we had the single (R9P and R10L) and double (R9P, R10L) protegrin-1 variants

synthesized to test their antimicrobial activity towards of *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 parental strain next to

the *ΔphoP* mutant, mutants downstream of PhoP regulon, and a panel *K. pneumoniae* clinical isolates.

In addition to testing amino acids discovered in our dmSLAY analysis, we also synthesized a single and

double variant with a proline mutation at position 11 (R11P and R10L, R11P). This placed the proline

amino acid substitution within the peptide's turn region rather than its beta-sheet to turn transition

region **(Table 3)** and test the importance of the changes to peptide positive charge versus the

secondary structure that were introduced by the R9P mutation. Furthermore, in order to investigate the

position itself rather than the amino acid mutation found in that position, we also synthesized alanine

and lysine single peptide variants at positions 9 (R9A and R9K) and 11 (R11A and R11K).

When testing antimicrobial activity towards the colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 used for

screening, both the R9P and R10L variant displayed a reduction of activity compared to protegrin-1

(MIC 15.23 and 15.11 µmol L^{-1}, respectively) **(Table 4)**. We observed that despite a reduction in charge

(charge +5), the R11P variant retained the same level of antimicrobial activity toward our colistin-

resistant isolate as protegrin-1 (charge +6) (MICs 3.8 µmol L^{-1} respectively). When testing the double

mutant variants (R9P, R10L and R10L, R11P) (charge +4), we found they both lost activity towards *K.*

pneumoniae MKP103 (MIC >30 µmol L^{-1}). Interestingly, when substituting either position 9 or 11 with an

alanine (R9A or R11A) we found the similar antimicrobial activity to the R9P peptide variant (MICs

15.41,15.41, 15.23 µmol L^{-1}, respectively). However, when substituting position 9 and 11 with a lysine

(R9K or R11K) we have smaller changes in activity, indicating charge retention at these positions has

variable impacts on antimicrobial activity (MICs 3.75 and 7.50 µmol L^{-1}, respectively).

To broaden the impact of our findings beyond *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 we selected colistin-resistant

clinical isolates from the Mult-drug-Resistant Organism Repository and Surveillance Network (MRSN)

K. pneumoniae diversity panel to test the peptide variants against [63]. We found although the majority

of isolates (64 MRSN isolates) were colistin sensitive (MIC ≤ 0.87 µmol L^{-1}), there were 31 isolates that

displayed moderate colistin resistance (MIC 1.73-6.92 µmol L^{-1}), and 5 isolates (MRSN 13768, 430414,

430405, 560539, and 728987) that displayed elevated colistin resistance (MICs >13 µmol L^{-1}) (**Table**

S7). Of note, two isolates, MRSN 13768 and 430414, had colistin MICs comparable to that of *K.*

pneumoniae MKP103 (27.69 µmol L^{-1}). However, when assessing our protegrin-1 peptide variants

towards these clinical isolates, we found that majority our MICs were relatively similar to the parental

peptide protegrin-1, with the R9P single variant displaying the least antimicrobial activity (3.81 µmol L^{-1})

(**Figure 4A**). When testing the double mutant variants (R9P, R10L and R10L, R11P) we found they lost

antimicrobial activity towards 3 of the 5 colistin resistant MRSN clinical isolates. Specifically, MRSN

430405 (colistin MIC 27.69 µmol L^{-1}), was completely resistant to the beta turn double mutant peptide

variant (R10P, R11L MIC 31.09 µmol L^{-1}) but not the beta sheet double variant (R9P, R10L MIC 7.77

µmol L^{-1}). Furthermore, MRSN 560539 (colistin MIC 13.85 µmol L^{-1}) displayed the same level of

resistance to both beta sheet and beta turn double variants (MICs 15.54 and 15.55 µmol L^{-1},

respectively) and MRSN 728987 (colistin MIC 13.85 µmol L^{-1}) was slightly more sensitive to the double

mutant peptide variants (MIC 7.77 µmol L^{-1}).

When assessing the changes in MIC in the absence of PhoP regulon induction using the *ΔphoP*

mutant, we found the beta sheet peptide variants (R9P and R9P, R10L) had a larger fold-change in

antimicrobial activity between the mutant and parental *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 than the beta turn

variants (R11P and R10L, R11P) (**Figure 4B)**. Of note, when comparing this the parental peptide

protegrin-1, we found the beta sheet peptide variants (R9P and R9P,R10L) displayed the same 32-fold

decrease in MIC toward the *ΔphoP* mutant as protegrin-1, whereas the beta turn peptide variants

(R10L, R11P, and R10L, R11P) only displayed an 8-, 4-, and 8-fold decrease in MIC towards the

ΔphoP mutant, respectively. Furthermore, we tested *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 transposon mutants of

downstream genes within the PhoP regulon, involved in modifying either the rigidity or charge of the

LPS [25, 42]. Specifically, PagP transfers a palmitate group to a lipid A molecule and PagL removes an

acyl group, altering the membrane's fluidity and permeability [25, 64], while ArnT and PmrB are

involved in the addition of a 4-amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose (L-Ara4N) on lipid A, increasing the positive

charge of the outer membrane [25]. We found no difference between the MICs of parental protegrin-1,

the beta sheet peptide variants (R9P and R9P, R10L), indicating a combination of LPS modifications

are necessary for the sensitivity displayed by the *ΔphoP* mutant (**Figure 4B**). Interestingly, although the

beta turn peptide variants did not show as much of a fold-change in MICs with the *ΔphoP* mutant as the

beta sheet peptide variants and parental peptide protegrin-1, we found a slight fold-change increase in

MIC between the downstream PhoP regulon mutants compared to the parental *K. pneumoniae*

MKP103. Specifically, when testing the R11P variant, the *ΔpagL and ΔpagP* transposon mutants

(KPNIH1_07455-208::T30 and KPNIH1_13050-101::T30, respectively) displayed 4-fold decrease in

MIC (MIC 0.96 µmol L^{-1}) **(Table S5)** compared to *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 (MIC 3.81 µmol L^{-1}), while

the *ΔarnT and ΔpmrB* transposon mutants (KPNIH1_24880-114::T30 and KPNIH1_08200-303::T30)

displayed 2-fold decrease in MIC (MICs 1.90 µmol L^{-1}). Finally, the beta turn double mutant peptide

variant (R10L, R11P) all four PhoP regulon transposon mutants displayed a 2-fold increase in MIC.

Upon investigation of positions 9 (beta sheet) and 11 (beta turn) within protegrin-1 with alanine and

lysine amino acid substitutions, we find much more variability within our colistin resistant clinical

isolates than the mutations that came from the dmSLAY analysis of *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 **(Figure**

4C). Specifically, alanine substitution at position 9 (beta turn) had MICs of 15.42 and 30.84 µmol L^{-1}

towards MRSN 13768 (colistin MIC 27.79 µmol L^{-1}) and MRSN 430505 (colistin MIC 13.85 µmol L^{-1}),

respectively. MRSN 430505 also displayed higher resistance towards the peptide variant with alanine

substituted in the turn region (R11A MIC 15.00 µmol L^{-1}) and lysine substituted in the sheet region (R9K

MIC 15.42 µmol L^{-1}). These peptides also displayed less variability between the antimicrobial activity

towards the parental strain *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 and the PhoPQ regulon transposon mutants.

Contrary to our variants identified from the initial screening, we found increased fold change in activity

between the parental strain and PhoP regulon transposon mutants **(Figure 4D)**. Interestingly, we see

these less bulky substitutions at position 11 variants (R11A, R11K) were more impacted by the

downstream individual PhoP regulated changes than the position 9 variants (R9A, R9K). Specifically,

R11A peptide variant when tested against the *ΔpagP, ΔpagL, and ΔarnT* transposon mutants resulted

in a 16-fold decrease in MIC compared the parental strain, and *ΔpmrB* transposon mutant had an 8-fold

lower MIC. When testing our peptide variants against other Gram-Negative bacteria we find that

regardless of variant, *Burkholderia thailandensis* [65] exhibits complete resistance, while *Acinetobacter*

baumannii [66] and both *Escherichia coli* [60, 67, 68] strains display high sensitivity to all peptide

variants, suggesting these peptide variants identified in this study are unable to bypass Gram-negative

bacteria with high levels of colistin resistance **(Table S8)**. Collectively, we found when proline was

introduced to the turn region (R11P) of the triple arginine motif had less impact on the antimicrobial

activity than when placed in the beta-sheet to turn transition region (R9P) and that removing an

additional arginine from the triple arginine motif regardless of the proline position completely abolished

antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103.

Protegrin-1 double mutant variants with reduced charge display greater disruption of colistin-

resistant outer membrane

We found modifications to the outer membrane LPS by the PhoP regulon increase resistance to our

beta sheet peptide variants more than our beta turn variants, indicating a role in that amino acid in

bypassing colistin resistance LPS modifications. Furthermore, we found a dichotomy between colistin

resistance and peptide variant resistance when testing the MRSN clinical isolates, where the

moderately elevated colistin resistant clinical isolates (MIC 1.73-6.92 µmol L^{-1}), are more resistant to

the double mutant peptide variants compared to the more colistin resistant clinical isolates (MIC 13

µmol L^{-1}). Therefore, when assessing the mechanism of action of the peptide variants compared to the

protegrin-1 parental peptide, we wanted to first probe the outer membrane integrity following treatment

as protegrin-1 must interact and bypass the outer membrane before forming a pore at the inner

membrane. To evaluate changes in outer membrane permeability, we used N-Phenyl-1-naphthylamine

(NPN), a hydrophobic small molecule impermeable to an intact outer membrane that fluoresces weakly

with increased fluorescence observed upon outer membrane disruption [69-71].

When testing the parental strain *K. pneumoniae* MKP103, our single point mutations (R9P, R10L and

R11P) at 31 µmol L^{-1} behave similarly to protegrin-1 but also polymyxin B (MIC 27 µmol L^{-1}) **(Figure

5A).** Unexpectedly, the double mutation variants (R9P, R10L and R10L, R11P) when tested at 31 µmol

L^{-1} display higher fluorescence of NPN than parent protegrin-1, indicating increased disruption of the

outer membrane of colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 **(Figure 5B).** Interestingly, when testing

our *ΔphoP* mutant **(Figure 5C and 5D)** and downstream mutants modifying both charge and fluidity, all

peptide variants display higher fluorescence of NPN **(Figure S3)**. Our beta sheet double peptide variant

in these cases had activity similar to or less than our parent peptide. Comparing the endpoint

fluorescence across isolates we find the least amount of disruption from our single mutant peptide

variants with our *ΔpagL* transposon mutant **(Figure 5E)**. We also find that in every isolate our more

active variant (R11P) is less effective at disrupting the outer membrane compared to our less active

variant (R9P). When observing endpoint fluorescence of our double mutant variants we also see the

least amount of disruption with our *ΔpagL* transposon mutant **(Figure 5F)**. When testing our most

colistin resistant clinical isolates, the peptide variants also display higher fluorescence of NPN **(Figure

S4)**. However, our beta turn double peptide variant (R10L, R11P) disrupts the outer membrane more

effectively than the beta sheet double peptide variant (R9P, R10L) **(Figure S4)**. Overall, we account for

some but not all of the changes in antimicrobial activity towards parental MKP103 with differences in

peptide interactions within the outer membrane.

The arginine to proline mutation in the beta-sheet transition limits cytosolic leakage in single

and double mutation variants

Protegrin-1 has a membrane disruptive mechanism of action and has been described to form pores in

the inner membrane of the bacteria [55, 72]. To assess the peptide variants loss of membrane

disruptive killing, we investigated their ability to depolarize and cause leakage of the inner membrane of

colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103. Depolarization is caused by many host defense peptides

including those that do not form pores [73, 74]. However, predominantly pore forming peptides can

cause leakage of the cytoplasmic components [75, 76]. With the lesser degree of outer membrane

disruption observed with our more active peptide variants, we hypothesize they are penetrating to the

inner membrane but their mechanism of interaction with the inner membrane is variable depending on

the mutations introduced. We evaluated changes in membrane polarity across the inner membrane with

3,3'-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine Iodide (DiSC$_3$) [77]. This cationic dye inserts into polarized inner

membranes quenching its fluorescence and depolarization of the inner membrane results in release of

the dye and an increase in fluorescence. When testing the single mutation variants (R9P, R10L and

R11P) at 31 µmol L^{-1}, only our beta sheet single peptide variant (R9P) depolarized the inner membrane

of resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 to the extent of the parent protegrin-1, while our more active beta

turn variant (R11P) depolarized the inner membrane less than our parent peptide **(Figure 6A)**. Our less

active beta turn variant (R10L) comparatively exhibited the least amount of depolarization toward

MKP103. When testing the double mutation peptide variants (R9P, R10L and R10L, 11P) at 31 µmol L^{-1}

^{1}, both variants depolarized the inner membrane less than the parent protegrin-1 **(Figure 6B)**. Overall,

all peptide variants depolarized the inner membrane greater than the polymyxin B, tested at 31 µmol L^{-1}

^{1}. We continued our investigation of changes in inner membrane polarity with our *ΔphoP* transposon

mutant. We found that unlike our parental isolate, both our R9P and R11P depolarize the inner

membrane to the same extent as parent protegrin-1 **(Figure 6C)**. Our beta turn single variant (R10L)

does continue to have the lowest depolarization ability of all our peptide variants. This trend continues

with our double variants, where both our beta turn and beta sheet double variants exhibit depolarization

on par with our parent peptide **(Figure 6D)** rather than lower depolarization, as seen in our parent

MKP103.

To assess for changes in cytoplasmic leakage, we utilized ortho-nitrophenyl-β-galactoside (ONPG), a

substrate that is hydrolyzed to ortho-nitrophenol (ONP) by cytoplasmic β-galactosidase [78]. When

testing the single mutation peptide variants (R9P and R11P) at 31 µmol L^{-1} , we found although both

variants resulted in leakage similar to the parental protegrin-1, there was a delay in the time to cause

equal leakage (**Figure 7A**). Specifically, the R11P peptide variant matched the ONP levels induced by

the parental protegrin-1 after 25 minutes, while the R9P peptide variant did not match the leakage until

40 minutes. Surprisingly, our beta turn single variant (R10L) resulted in very little inner membrane

leakage, displaying levels less than our inactive polymyxin B. When testing the double mutation

variants (R9P, R10L and R10L, R11P) at 31 µmol L^{-1}, our beta sheet double peptide variant resulted in

a decrease in the ONP levels compared to the parental protegrin-1 and displayed levels similar to the

inactive polymyxin B (**Figure 7B**). The beta turn double peptide variant displayed a delay in

fluorescence compared to the parental protegrin-1 at this concentration **(Figure 7B)**. Investigation with

our *ΔphoP* transposon mutant resulted in an overall inability to effectively disrupt the inner membrane

with all peptide variants **(Figure 7C and D)**. We also find that all peptide variants behave similarly to

parent protegrin-1 regardless of differences in antimicrobial activity. Our beta turn single variant (R10L),

however, still behaves similarly to our inactive polymyxin B. **(Figure 7C)**. Collectively, our results show

that all peptide variants depolarize the inner membrane but changes in cytoplasmic leakage correlate

best with the peptide variants MICs.

Molecular modeling shows octameric pore collapse and loss of beta sheet character in beta sheet peptide variants.

We found the membrane leakage to correspond to the decrease in antimicrobial activity observed with our peptide variants suggesting a deficiency in the pore formation potential of the peptide variants. Alpha helical peptides like ll-37 have been shown to dimerize before insertion into the membrane [79]. However, protegrin-1 has been shown to dimerize within the phospholipid bilayer of the inner membrane ultimately leading to octameric pore formation [55]. Therefore, to provide a full spectrum of the potential of the mutations in the peptide variants we modeled the peptide variants before and after interaction with the bacterial membrane, as well as their octameric pore conformations when fully inserted. We also chose to eliminate our beta turn single peptide variant (R10L) due to its inability to cause any inner membrane leakage.

We modeled our octameric pores utilizing AlphaFold2 with the sequences aligned in the N- to C-termini direction. Images were visualized and diameter distances generated utilizing ChimeraX. Compared to our parent peptide **(Figure 8A)**, our less active single peptide variant (R9P) **(Figure 8B)** exhibits a reduction in diameter in our octameric pore model (~20Å to 11Å, respectively). In contrast, our more active single peptide variant (R11P) **(Figure 8C)** changes the orientation of the hypothetical pore but maintains pore diameter at ~20Å. When comparing our parent peptide to our double peptide variants we find our beta sheet double peptide variant (R9P, R10L) also exhibiting a pore reduction **(Figure 8D)** to ~14-15 Å, and our beta turn double peptide variant (R10L, R11P) **(Figure 8E)** maintained the pore diameter (~ 18Å). This suggests that perhaps the monomeric structures involved in pore formation are differentially impacted by our introduced mutations.

To better understand the peptide variants behavior within the octameric pore, we modeled our peptide

as monomeric subunits and observed how the structure of the peptide became altered in solution. To

do this we utilized GROMACS, a molecular dynamics software that uses different algorithms to model

the behavior of the peptide and its interactions with individual molecules over a span of time. These

mutations were modeled in an environment of 0.15M NaCl at 310K over the course of 100ns to observe

changes in the structural conformation of each peptide mutant [80]. We use Secondary Structure

Predictors (DSSP) to observe changes in beta-sheet character over the simulation period. Compared to

the parent peptide **(Figure 8F)**, the proline mutation at position 9 resulted in a shortened beta-sheet in

its initial structure and an early loss of beta sheet character, at approximately 4000 frames (40 ns) that

was never regained throughout the simulation **(Figure 8G)**. However, at position 11, the initial structure

remained close to that of the parent peptide and the loss of beta character occurred after the halfway

point of the simulation, at approximately 60000 frames (60 ns) (**Figure 8H).** When assessing the double

peptide variants, the beta sheet region variant (R9P, R10L) does display a minor level of beta-sheet

character throughout the simulation, however it is interwoven with regions of disorder. Furthermore, its

initial structure does have shorter beta sheets when compared to the parent peptide **(Figure 8F and**

8I). Finally, our beta turn double peptide variant, (R10L, R11P) results in no changes to its initial

structure when compared to the parent peptide. This double mutation fully loses its beta sheet

character at approximately 60000 frames (60 ns) and regains it at approximately 80000 frames (80 ns),

which may account for its ability to form a correctly oriented pore **(Figure 8E and 8J)**.

Protegrin-1 dimerizes before aggregating into an octameric pore inside the inner membrane. To better

assess how our mutations altered peptide structure we assessed changes in its ability to form a dimer.

Once again, we utilized GROMACs and an environment of both 0.15M NaCl at 310K and a general

Gram-Negative inner membrane, over the course of 100ns [80, 81]. Before and after snapshots were

taken to observe changes in the secondary structure of each mutated dimer compared to the parent

(Figure 8K). Parent protegrin-1 does not seem to align itself as a dimer in the salt box at the beginning

or end of the simulation. This is also true in the Gram-Negative inner membrane simulation where it

overlaps at the beta turn region at the beginning and orients across from itself after 100ns. This is

unlike both single peptide variants **(Figure 8L and 8M)**. Both align themselves together at the

beginning of the simulation. Our R9P only aligns one beta sheet at the end of the simulation, however,

it does display a lengthened beta-sheet. This is unlike R11P, which does not display a lengthened beta

sheet at the end of the simulation. Inside the Gram-Negative environment, both single mutant variants

orient very similarly at the beginning of the simulation, however at the end they orient themselves

diagonally in opposing directions. Our beta sheet double peptide variant found in the screen (R9P,

R10L) also aligns with itself at the beginning of the simulation and displays some alignment towards the

end **(Figure 8N)**. Our other beta turn double peptide variant, R10L, R11P also aligned itself at the

beginning of the simulation **(Figure 8O)**. Unlike all the other mutations, however, there is no alignment

at the end of the simulation. In the Gram-negative inner membrane model, both double peptide variants

exhibit diagonal alignment of both of their beta sheets, albeit in opposing directions. Looking at how

each dimer behaves over the course of the simulation, protegrin-1 has a larger and more variable

center of mass than all our point mutations, suggesting a less stable conformation **(Figure S5A)**. Our

mutated peptide variants all behaved similarly, having a lower center of mass compared to the parent

peptide. This suggests less movement and could explain why there was partial alignment of the peptide

variants in the salt environment after 100ns **(Figure 8K-O)**. Furthermore, there were fewer contacts that

existed between the dimers of parent protegrin-1 over the course of the salt box simulation **(Figure

S5B)**. Meaning this set of monomers were not interacting with each other, explaining why there is no

alignment at the end of the simulation **(Figure 8K-O).** Aside from our RR910PL point mutations, all

other mutations have a larger and about the same number of contacts across the simulations. Our

RR910PL mutation had two instances of a higher number of contacts, from approximately 4000 to 6000

ns, and 8000 to 8500 ns. This change in the number of contacts may explain its change in alignment

compared to our other point mutations. Within the context of our Gram-negative inner membrane

simulation our parent peptide also exhibited a large center of mass compared to our peptide variants,

which could explain why at the end of the simulation they look as if on opposing sides of a potential

pore **(Figure 8K, S5C)**. Furthermore, there is a decrease in the number of contacts between each

chain over the course of the simulation **(Figure S5D)**. However, unlike in our salt box there is a much

larger gap in the initial number of contacts. This could be due to how they initially intercalated within the

inner membrane bilayer. Taken together these hypothetical models show our peptide variants with beta

sheet (R9P and R9P, R10L) mutations impact pore formation and our monomeric subunits exhibit a

rapid loss of beta sheet character not seen with our beta turn variants (R11P and R10L, R11P).

Discussion

Carbapenem *K. pneumoniae* resistant isolates are now acquiring resistance to the last resort antibiotic known as polymyxin E or colistin [7, 17-20]. This resistance is attributed to modifications to the LPS by the PhoPQ two component system [26-29]. Here we corroborate previous literature stating that host-defense peptides are not equally affected by these LPS modifications as colistin [30-32,37,38], especially protegrin-1 **(Figure 2B)**. The absence of resistance, combined with its well characterized structure and robust antimicrobial activity [54-56] made protegrin-1 an ideal candidate to investigate colistin resistance in *K. pneumoniae.*

Utilizing our dmSLAY genetic screening platform in combination with quantitative next generation sequencing we found five amino acid mutations that were abundant in the population of plasmids retained following 4-hour induction, indicating they may alter the antimicrobial activity of protegrin-1. First, an arginine substituting a glycine (G2R) in the tail region, potentially altering charge localization of the peptide to the point where it no longer retained activity. An isoleucine substituting a leucine (L5I) in the first beta-sheet potentially adding more bulk to the peptide. A proline in the triple arginine motif within the beta-sheet to turn transition (R9P) that could introduce a kink and potentially disrupting the function of the peptide. Finally, a leucine in both the turn region (R10L) and second beta-sheet (F12L) that would allow for less binding of the peptide when compared to an arginine or phenylalanine, respectively. We also found that our beta sheet proline and beta turn leucine mutations (R9P, R10L) most commonly occurred together in peptide variants retained within the population. To test the effects of these mutations independently without other peptide modifications, we directly cloned them into our surface display genetic platform and performed growth analysis, revealing the beta sheet region arginine to proline (R9P) and beta turn region arginine to leucine (R10L) mutations has the greatest impact on the antimicrobial activity of protegrin-1, and combining these mutations (R9P,R10L) resulted in a complete loss of antimicrobial activity **(Figure 3D)**. Overall, we were surprised that more mutations resulted in possible structural changes rather than changes to charge in the population retained in the

population in the dmSLAY analysis, because charge has been the major factor shown to contribute to

bypassing the Gram-negative membrane [82]. This included those that added arginine residues to the

unstructured tail region (G2R and G3R) increasing the charge of the peptide but not antimicrobial

activity.

We then synthesized peptide variants to validate the surface display system and test our hypothesis

that structure potentially supersedes charge. Specifically, we synthesized R11P and R10L, R11P

peptide variants that placed the proline residue in the turn region of the triple arginine motif rather than

the beta sheet transition region. We found then when testing these variants against MKP103 that our

R11P peptide variant retains antimicrobial activity and our R9P peptide variant loses activity, despite a

charge reduction on +1 in both peptide variants **(Table 4)**. Furthermore, when comparing the activity of

our peptide variants against MKP103 and transposon mutants of genes under the regulation of PhoP,

we find the fold change difference in activity is lower with our variants in the beta turn region versus the

beta sheet region **(Figure 4B)**. These modifications both resulted in a loss of charge but did not equally

lose antimicrobial activity, challenging the paradigm that charge is not necessarily most important

aspect in the ability of host defense peptide ability to overcome colistin resistance. To further test this

hypothesis, we tested the addition of alanine and lysine modifications to positions 9 and 11 on

protegrin-1. Surprisingly, we found these smaller amino acids when substituted at position 11 (R11A

and R11K) resulted in a less antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* and this

activity is rescued when testing mutants of colistin resistance modifying genes. These findings reinforce

our hypothesis that small changes to structure, not just the loss of the cystine residues can impact

antimicrobial acidity of protegrin-1 more than a +1-charge reduction.

To understand the changes in activity observed with the synthesized peptide variants, we investigated

their interactions with the outer and inner bacterial membrane. Outer membrane permeability

accounted for some of our activity changes as both our double variants exhibited higher fluorescence

compared to the parent peptide, suggesting they are getting stuck within the outer membrane **(Figure**

5A). This is in line with what has been shown with polymyxin B nonapeptide lacking the lipid tail that

can still increase penetration through the outer membrane without inner membrane lysis [83]. The

differences in antimicrobial activity between our single proline peptide variants (R9P and R11P)

correlated will with inner membrane permeability. We found R9P peptide variant exhibited a slower

accumulation of inner membrane leakage compared to R11P, which behaved similarly to the parent

peptide **(Figure 7A),** revealing changes in pore formation ability may be the reason for the decrease in

antimicrobial activity with the R9P peptide variant. These findings reveal the small changes to protegrin-

1 structure, not just the major changes observed with cysteine bond removal [62], can impact inner

membrane leakage of the colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* membrane.

At the inner membrane protegrin-1 forms octameric pores, which cause cytoplasmic leakage [55].To

understand why our peptide variants behaved differently at the inner membrane we modeled our

variants as octameric pores. The resulting hypothetical models show a reduction in pore diameter and

visual pore collapse in both beta sheet peptide variants (R9P and R9P, R10L) **(Figure 8B and 8D)** but

not with our beta turn peptide variants (R11P and R10L, R11P) **(Figure 8C and 8E)**, where we found

they maintain pore integrity and diameter, only changing in peptide orientation within the pore. To

understand the structural instabilities leading to decreased pore formation we used GROMACs to

observe changes in the secondary structure in physiological salt conditions and within a lipid

environment. When assessing monomeric structural changes within salt conditions, we found the R9P

beta sheet peptide variant loses beta sheet structure early in the simulation while the R11P beta turn

variant can maintain beta sheet structure halfway through the simulation **(Figure 8G and 8H)**. The

R9P, R10L beta sheet peptide variant exhibits a much lower beta sheet character throughout the

entirety of the simulation **(Figure 8I)**, while the R10L, R11P beta turn peptide variant behaves much like

R11P peptide variant **(Figure 8H and 8J)**. These differences in monomeric behavior allowed us to

hypothesize that perhaps pore formation is hindered depending on at what point a variant loses its beta

sheet character. When assessing the dimer formation and stability in both salt and lipid environments

we found overall the orientation of the dimer changes with all variants, where the parental peptide

dimerizes in parallel orientation and the variants in anti-parallel orientation. In all the peptides

maintained structural integrity in the lipid environment more than the salt environment even at the

beginning of the simulation (0 seconds) (**Figure 8K-8O**). Furthermore, we found only the parental

protegrin-1 dimer separated after 100 ns (**Figure 8K**). These factors suggest strong dimerization may

not be as important for pore formation with protegrin-1.

In conclusion, colistin and host defense peptides antimicrobial activity has been largely attributed to

charge, as peptides with a higher positive charge will be more attracted to the negatively charged

membrane. We show that with colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae*, small changes in structure can impact

antimicrobial activity more than decreasing the peptide charge from +6 to +5. This work represents a

step towards understanding how to prevent activity loss due to colistin resistance membrane

modifications when designing therapeutics for *K. pneumoniae*.

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Declaration of Interests

Cesar de la Fuente-Nunez provides consulting services to Invaio Sciences and is a member of the

Scientific Advisory Boards of Nowture S.L. and Phare Bio. The de la Fuente Lab has received research

funding or in-kind donations from United Therapeutics, Strata Manufacturing PJSC, and Procter &

Gamble, none of which were used in support of this work. Cesar de la Fuente-Nunez is on the Advisory

Board of *Cell Reports Physical Science*.

Author Contributions

R.M.F. conceived the idea and designed the experimentation. MRSN colistin MICs performed by H.M.

Initial library creation performed by N.R, J.R, and R.M.F. Library analysis and direct cloning

experiments performed by C.D. Antimicrobial activity assessments and membrane analyses performed

by S.A. and C.D. Molecular Dynamic simulations performed by C.d.l.F.-N. and R.K. Biorender and

AlphaFold images produced by C.D. Text was written by R.M.F and C.D, and edits were discussed with

C.d.l.F.-N., R.K. and J.R.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and peptides.

All bacterial isolates used in this study are listed in **Supplemental Table S1**. The peptides used in this

study are listed in **Table 1** with their molecular weight, length, charge, and secondary structure.

Pretegrin-1 was ordered through Anaspec for the comparison to other host defense peptides in **Figure**

2. Arenicin and Bac7(1-35) were purchased from Novopro because they were unavailable through

Anaspec. For consistency with our synthesized variants, protegrin-1 parent and peptide variants were

ordered from Novopro at >90% purity (https://www.novoprolabs.com) for comparing antimicrobial

614 activity of amino acid substitutions. All peptides were resuspended in ultra-purified water at 10 mg mL^{-1}

615 and stored at -20 °C.

617 **Minimal inhibitory concentration assays**.

618 All minimal inhibitory concentration assays were performed using the broth dilution method in 96-well

619 plates with the peptides tested by serial diluting in 0.2% BSA 0.01% acetic acid solution [84]. Bacteria

620 were synchronized to mid-log phase and standardized to a final optical density 600nm (OD$_{600}$) of 0.001

621 in Mueller Hinton broth to yield ~5x10^5 CFU mL^{-1}. The assay incubated for 20 hours at 37 °C before

622 determining MICs. All MICs were performed in triplicate and repeated on separate days.

624 **RT-qPCR of *phoP* expression levels**

625 Each *K. pneumoniae* strain was grown overnight in LB broth. The following day each strain was

626 synchronized to exponential phase at 37°C for 3 hours. RNA was extracted after bacteria had been

627 synchronized for 3 hours at 37°C. Following hot phenol chloroform extraction previously described [50]

628 samples were resuspended in nuclease free H$_2$0 and quantified by Nanodrop. RNA were aliquoted and

629 stored at -80 for RT-qPCR. Samples were reverse transcribed with SuperScript™ IV VILO™ Master

630 Mix (11756050, Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions. RTqPCR was performed using

631 PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (A25742, Applied Biosystems) following the manufacturer's

632 instructions, and the QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (A28567, Applied Biosystems). Primers

633 were designed using Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc. (IDT)'s PrimerQuest tool (**Table S4**). Relative

634 expression levels were calculated using the 2-ΔΔCt method [49] with *rpoD* as housekeeping control.

635 Triplicate samples were used with error shown as ±SEM.

637 **Alpha Fold Images**

Images were initially prepared using Google Collab and this link

https://colab.research.google.com/github/sokrypton/ColabFold/blob/main/AlphaFold2.ipynb#scrollTo=1

1l8k--10q0C. Each sequence was input, and images were displayed using the ChimeraX visualizer.

Primary and secondary structures were overlayed and mutated amino acids are shown in red.

Ramachandran Plot Generation

Plots were generated by taking previously generated alpha fold files and displaying them with the

visualizing tool from UCSF chimera. Program can be accessed by utilizing this link

https://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/download.html. Plots were recolored and overlayed using Adobe

Photoshop.

dmSLAY protegrin-1 analysis

dmSLAY creations and screening. The protegrin-1 deep mutational library was created as previously

described [60] and inserted into a tetracycline resistant pMMB67EH plasmid. The library was first

electroporated into _E. coli_ C3020 and >150,000 colonies were collected. The library was then

transformed into _E. coli_ SM10 λpir mating strain and >270,000 colonies were collected. Finally,

conjugation was used to introduce the library to _K. pneumoniae_ MKP103 and ~200,000 colonies were

collected. Samples were frozen in glycerol stocks until library screening. Triplicate samples _K._

pneumoniae MKP103 harboring the dmSLAY protegrin-1 library were thawed and back diluted to and

OD_{600} 0.1 and grown for one hour. The samples were then back diluted to OD_{600} 0.01 in 5 mL terrific

broth (tryptone, yeast, potassium phosphate dibasic, and glycerol) and triplicate samples were induced

with 0.05 mM IPTG or uninduced (0mM IPTG) for three hours shaking (220rpm) at 37 °C followed by,

bacterial population collection and subsequent plasmid extraction. Barcoded primers (Table S7) were

used for PCR of the triplicate induced and uninduced plasmid populations for amplification of the 240

bp amplicon for Illumina sequencing. One lane of Illumina MiSeq run was used for amplicon coverage

to allow for quantification and calculation of log2 fold change between the induced and uninduced

samples.

Bioinformatic Analysis. The next generation sequencing reads were process by having their forward

and reverse sequences merged together and adaptor sequences trimmed. For this we used a unique

modification of DESQ2, a package associated with R Studio, typically used to investigate the presence

of genes within a population. More specifically, we merged forward and reverse raw sequences from a

previously made protegrin-1 library, and adaptors were trimmed from both 5' and 3' end of the

sequence. Reads were counted and those occurring less than 50 times within the population were

removed from analysis to allow for the possibility of machine error. Translated DNA sequences were

then compared to the reads of the uninduced and induced populations using the Deseq2 package in R

studio. To allow for analysis of specifically those reads that did not kill the bacteria we eliminated reads

with a log 2-fold change below 0. From this data each amino acid mutation at each position in the total

sequence variants were counted to quantify their occurrence within the population of peptide variants.

Direct Cloning of Peptide Variants

Procedure adapted from previous methods [59]. Briefly, protegrin-1 parent plasmid was used as a

template for cloning via restriction enzymes on the broad host plasmid PMMB67EH with a tetracycline

resistance cassette. Sequences were cloned with peptide variant primers listed in **Table S5** with

homology to the tether sequence on the reverse primer. Restriction digestion was performed using

KpmI and SalI cut sites. Each peptide variant was then transformed into *E.coli C320* (NEB)

electrocompetent cells and sequence variants were confirmed by sanger sequencing. Plasmid was

extracted from *E. coli* using Qiagen mini-prep kit and electroporated into MKP103 for testing of

antimicrobial activity with IPTG induction.

Surface display validation of mutations identified in library screen

Growth curve procedure was adapted from previous methods [59]. Each *K. pneumoniae* strain with

plasmids harboring peptide variants and control plasmids listed in **Table S6**. were grown overnight in

LB broth and 1% glucose solution supplemented with 20μg/mL of tetracycline. The following day each

strain was synchronized to exponential phase at 37°C for 3 hours. At that time the strains were

standardized to an OD_{600} of 0.02. Bacterial strains were then added to culture tubes containing 2 mL

LB, 0.5 mM IPTG, and 20 μg mL^{-1} tetracycline and grown shaking (220rpm) at 37°C over the course of

4 hours. At 0, 1, 2, and 4 hours 100 μL was removed from each culture tube and added to 900μL of

1XPBS for 1:10 serial dilutions that were then plated on LB agar with 50 μg/mL tetracycline. All

experiments were plated in triplicate and incubated overnight at 37°C, and colony forming units per mL

(CFU mL^{-1}) was calculated with error reported as ±SEM.

Outer Membrane Permeability

Procedure adapted from previous methods [69-71] Each *K. pneumoniae* strain was grown overnight in

LB broth. The following day each strain was synchronized to exponential phase at 37°C for 3 hours.

The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3434 rcf for 10 min) washed twice with buffer A (5mM

HEPES, 5mM glucose, pH 7.2) and resuspended in buffer A to an OD_{600} = 0.1. Then 100 μL Buffer A

with 20 μM NPN was added to 1000 μL washed cells in a clear-bottom black walled 96-well plate.

Peptide was added to a final concentration of 64 μg/mL and fluorescence was monitored at an

excitation of 350nm and emission of 420nm for 30 minutes at 3-minute intervals. The read form the no

cell control wells were removed from each treated well to normalize for background. All assays were

performed in triplicate with error reported as ±SEM.

Membrane Depolarization

The procedure used was adapted from a previous method [77]. Briefly, each *K. pneumoniae* strain was

grown overnight in LB broth. The following day each strain was synchronized to exponential phase at

37°C for 3 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3434 rcf for 10 min) washed twice with

buffer A (5mM HEPES, 5mM glucose, pH 7.2) and resuspended in buffer A and 100mM KCl to an

OD_{600} = 0.1, along with 20mM DiSC3 dye. Bacteria was added to clear-bottom black walled 96-well

plate and standardized for 30 minutes monitoring the florescence changes using a Biotech Synergy H1

plate reader with fluorescence kinetic reads set with excitation of 622nm and emission of 670nm for 30

minutes at 2-minute intervals. Peptide was then added to a final concentration of 64 µg mL^{-1} and

fluorescence changes were monitored for 30 minutes at 2-minute intervals using excitation of 622nm

and emission of 670nm. All assays were performed in triplicate with error reported as $\pm$SEM.

Inner Membrane Leakage

The procedure used was adapted from a previous method [77, 78]. Each *K. pneumoniae* strain was

grown overnight in LB broth. The following day each strain was synchronized to exponential phase at

37°C for 3 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3434 rcf for 10 min) washed once with

0.1M sodium phosphate buffer (26mM NaH_2PO_4, 77mM Na2HPO4, pH 7.4) and resuspended in 0.1M

sodium phosphate buffer to an OD_{600} = 0.1 along with 10mM ONPG. The peptide were then serially

diluted in sodium phosphate buffer in a clear-bottom walled black 96-well plate, bacteria were added,

and absorbance was read using a Biotech Synergy H1 plate reader at 410nm for 45 minutes with reads

set at 3-minute intervals.

Molecular Dynamics Simulations

GROMACs version 2025.0 located https://www.gromacs.org/index.html was used to perform the

analysis of the peptide variant monomers as well as dimers in both a saline medium (ionic strength:

0.15 M NaCl) and a general Gram-negative inner membrane environment located https://charmm-

gui.org/?doc=archive&lib=biomembrane. This analysis analyzed changes in peptide secondary

structure as well as fluctuations in center of mass and residue contacts with peptide variant dimers.

Snapshots of the peptide monomers were taken at 0ns, and peptide dimers were taken at 0 and 100ns

to all for visualization of structural changes in each subunit.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Multi-level analysis used to investigate how protegrin-1 can bypass colistin resistance. Our initial determination of MKP103 to have colistin-resistance yet has variable susceptibility to peptides of different structural class was used to inform our deep mutation scanning utilizing a genetic screening platform (bottom). We then investigate peptide variants mutated in different regions of the triple arginine motif for changes in antimicrobial activity, disruption to both the outer and inner membrane (middle). We ultimately use molecular modeling of peptides and octameric pores and combine this with molecular dynamic simulations to assess peptide structure stability (top). Octameric, dimeric and monomeric models were generated using Alpha Fold and Biorender was used for both vector production and for the creation of the final figure.

Figure 2. Host defense peptides do not equally bypass *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 PhoP acquired polymyxin resistance. This figure shows bacteria and peptide screening to determine ideal candidates to investigate colistin resistance. Colistin and polymyxin B MICs against drug-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103, hypervirulent *K. pneumoniae* NTUH and KPPR1S, drug-resistant *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 700603, and type strain *K. pneumoniae* ATCC 13883 (bars) overlayed with the baseline *phoP* expression in exponential growth phase, normalized to housekeeping gene *rpoD* and graphed in triplicate with error shown as $\pm$SEM (**Figure 2A**). Fold change in MICs between the *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 parental isolate and a *ΔphoP* transposon mutant (KPNIH1_10030-701::T30) of polymyxin B (Poly-B), indolicidin (Indo), Melittin (Mel), Arenicin (Are), protegrin-1 (PG-1), and CecropinA (Cec A) (**Figure 2B**). MIC assays were performed in triplicate for the data shown. **Figures 2C-2E** show the Ramachandran plots depicting the psi and phi angles of alpha helical peptides, beta sheet peptides, and extended/polyproline peptides, respectively.

Figure 3. Protegrin-1 deep mutational scanning library shows reveals charge and structure are

important for antimicrobial activity towards colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae* MKP103. This figure

shows the results of the initial SLAY screening as well as validation with direct cloning. **Figure 3A** is a

heat Map of SLAY library analysis showing the number of occurrences of the amino acid mutations in

our Illumina sequencing populations retained with induction with the parent peptide sequence on the y

axis and possible mutations on the x axis. White boxes denote mutations outside of the defined

maximum range of the heat map (20 occurrences). **Figure 3B** shows the Alpha Fold representation of

protegrin-1 peptide with the mutations identified from the screen as outside of the defined maxima show

with their location highlighted in red and amino acid position number in parentheses. The amino acid

mutations denoted in blue text were cloned in the surface display system for validation by enumeration

of CFU mL^{-1} following IPTG plasmid induction over four hours with display of eighth the parent peptide

protegrin-1, uninduced plasmid control, and negative control 2xHA (**Figure 3C**) and peptide variants

(**Figure 3D**) identified in the screen. The surface display validation assays were performed in triplicate

with error shown.as as $\pm$SEM.

Figure 4. The arginine to proline mutation impedes antimicrobial activity only in the beta-sheet

to turn transition region of the protegrin-1 arginine loop. The figures show MICs (μmol L^{-1}) of

synthesized peptide variants and fold-change in MICs between colistin-resistant *K. pneumoniae*

MKP103 and transposon mutants lacking important LPS modifying genes. **Figure 4A** shows

synthesized peptide variants were tested against five colistin resistant clinical isolates. **Figure 4B**

shows the fold change of peptide MICs between the parental MKP103 and the *ΔphoP, ΔpagP, ΔpagL,*

ΔarnT, and *ΔpmrB* transposon mutants (mut/WT). Figure 4C and 4D shows the alanine and lysine

peptide variants MICs against the five colistin resistant clinical isolates and the fold change MICs

between the parental MKP103 and transposon mutants. Lines are drawn on figures 4B and 4C follow

the protegrin-1 parental peptide fold-change in MIC for *ΔphoP* (blue) and downstream genetic mutants

(red). Peptides were all tested at a maximum concentration of 31 µmol L^{-1}. MIC assays were performed

in triplicate for the data shown.

Figure 5. Protegrin-1 double mutant variants with reduced charge display greater disruption of

colistin-resistant outer membrane. Outer membrane fluorescence was monitored over 30 minutes

with peptide variants and controls carbenicillin and polymyxin B. **Figure 5A** shows *K. pneumoniae*

MKP103 normalized NPN fluorescence after treatment with single peptide variants and Figure 5B

shows the double peptide variants. The NPN fluorescence for the *ΔphoP* transposon mutant is shown

for peptide variants in **Figures 5C and 5D**. Endpoint fluorescence reads with single peptide variant

mutants with top five colistin resistant MRSN isolates, parental MKP103, *ΔphoP, ΔpagP, ΔpagL, ΔarnT,*

and ΔpmrB transposon mutants is shown on **Figure 5E**, and double peptide variant mutants on **Figure**

5F. All peptides and controls were tested in triplicate at a concentration of 31 µmol L^{-1} with error shown

as ±SEM.

Figure 6. The arginine to proline mutation in the beta-sheet transition shows increased

membrane depolarization. Membrane depolarization shows less active single peptide variant (R9P)

depolarizing more effectively than our more active single peptide variant (R11P). *K. pneumoniae*

MKP103 tested with single peptide variants (A) and double peptide variants (B). *ΔphoP* transposon

mutant tested against single peptide variants (C) and double peptide variants (D). Peptides were tested

at a concentration of 31 µmol L^{-1} with error shown as ±SEM.

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Figure 7. The arginine to proline mutation in the beta-sheet transition limits cytosolic leakage in single and double mutation variants. Inner membrane leakage shows more active single peptide variant (R11P) disrupting more effectively than our less active single peptide variants (R9P, R10L). *K. pneumoniae* MKP103 tested with single peptide variants (A) and double peptide variants (B). *ΔphoP* transposon mutant tested against single peptide variants (C) and double peptide variants (D). Peptides were tested at a concentration of 31 μmol L^{-1} with error shown as ±SEM.

Figure 8. Molecular modeling shows octameric pore collapse and loss of beta sheet character in beta sheet peptide variants. Peptide variants are shown modeled as octameric pores in **Figure 8A-8E** using AlphaFold2 and visualized using ChimeraX for parent protegrin-1 (**A**), R9P (**B**), R11P (**C**), RR910PL (**D**) and RR1011LP (**E**). Amino acid sequences were aligned in the N to C termini direction. **Figures 8F-8J** show monomeric peptide variants simulated using GROMACs and observed for changes in secondary structure parent protegrin-1 (**F**), R9P (**G**), R11P (b), R9P, R10L (**I**) and R10L, R11P (**J**). The heat map labels show the color coding for B = Beta Bridge, T =Turn, E = Extended Conformation, C = Coil peptide structural components. **Figures 8K-8O** show dimeric peptide variants simulated using GROMACs in both a salt box (0.15M NaCl at 310K) (top) and a general Gram-negative inner membrane (bottom). Snapshots are shown for parent protegrin-1 (**K**), R9P (**L**), R11P (**M**), R9P, R10L (**N**) and R10L, R11P (**O**) at 0 and 100ns for both simulated environments.

833 **Tables.**

834 **Table 1. Host defense peptides tested for antimicrobial activity towards *K. pneumoniae* MKP103**
835 **and MKP103 *ΔphoP* mutant.**
836

Name	AA sequence	MW (g/mol)	Charge	Secondary structure
Il-37[a]	LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLVPRTES	4492.34	+6	Alpha helix
Indolicidin[a]	ILPWKWPWWPWRR - NH2	1906.28	+4	extended
Protegrin-1[a]	RGGRLCYCRRRFCVCVGR - NH2	2003.48	+6	Beta sheet
Arenicin[b]	RWCVYAYVRVRGVLVRYRRCW-OH	2758.2	+6	Beta sheet
Cecropin[a]	KWKLFKKIEKVGQNIRDGIIKAGPAVAVVGQATQIAK-NH2	4004.10	+7	Alpha helix
Melittin[a]	GIGAVLKVLTTGLPALISWIKRKRQQ-NH2	2846.7	+6	Alpha helix
Bac7 (1-35)[b]	RRIRPRPPRLPRPRPRPLPFPRPGPRPIPRPLPFP-NH2	4206.16	+11	polyproline

837
838 [a] Peptide ordered from Anaspec
839 [b] Peptide ordered from Novopro

840 **Table 2. Occurrence of amino acid mutations in the peptide variant sequences lacking**
841 **antimicrobial activity.**
842

Amino Acid Mutation	Amino Acid Class Change	Number of Occurrences
F12L	non-polar to non-polar	834
G2R	non-polar to positive-charge	316
R10L*	positive-charge to non-polar	299
R9P*	positive-charge to non-polar	295
L5I	non-polar to non-polar	218
C6S	non-polar to polar	35
C13S	non-polar to polar	27
C15R	non-polar to positive-charge	22
G3R	non-polar to positive-charge	21
F12Y	non-polar to polar	21

843 *Amino acid mutations found together in 89% occurrences
844
845

846   **Table 3. Synthesized Peptide Variants.**

Name	Amino Acid Sequence	MW (g/mol)	Charge
PG-1 parent	RGGRLCYCRRRFCVCVGR	2160.63	+6
R9P	RGGRLCYCPRRFCVCVGR	2101.56	+5
R10L	RGGRLCYCRLRFCVCVGR	2117.60	+5
R11P	RGGRLCYCRRPFCVCVGR	2101.56	+5
RR910PL	RGGRLCYCPLRFCVCVGR	2058.53	+4
RR1011LP	RGGRLCYCRLPFCVCVGR	2058.53	+4
R9A	RGGRLCYCARRFCVCVGR	2075.52	+5
R11A	RGGRLCYCRRAFCVCVGR	2075.52	+5
R9K	RGGRLCYCKRRFCVCVGR	2132.62	+6
R11K	RGGRLCYCRRKFCVCVGR	2132.62	+6

847
848
849

850 **Table 4. Minimum inhibitory concentration of protegrin-1 and peptide variants towards _K._**
851 **_pneumoniae_ MKP103 and transposon mutants.**
852

Peptide Variant	MIC (µmol L^{-1} / µg mL^{-1})					
	MKP103 WT	_ΔphoP_	_ΔpagP_	_ΔpagL_	_ΔarnT_	_ΔpmrB_
PG-1 parent	3.70/8	0.12/0.25	3.70/8	3.70/8	3.70/8	3.70/8
R9P	15.23/32	0.48/1	15.23/32	15.23/32	15.23/32	15.23/32
R10L	15.11/32	1.89/4	15.11/32	15.11/32	7.56/16	7.56/16
R11P	3.81/8	0.95/2	0.95/2	0.95/2	1.90/4	1.90/4
RR1011LP	31.09/64	0.97/2	15.55/32	15.55/32	15.55/32	15.55/32
RR910PL	31.09/64	3.89/8	31.09/64	31.09/64	31.09/64	31.09/64
R9A	15.41/32	0.96/2	1.93/4	3.85/8	1.93/4	3.85/8
R11A	15.41/32	0.48/1	0.96/2	0.96/2	0.96/2	1.93/4
R9K	3.75/8	0.47/1	0.94/2	0.94/2	0.94/2	0.94/2
R11K	7.50/16	0.47/1	0.94/2	0.94/2	0.94/2	0.94/2

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Molecular Dynamics

Antimicrobial Activity

Protegrin-1

Increasing Drug

Membrane Interactions

Peptide Screening

Peptides

RGGRLCYCRRRFVCVCGR

Plasmid

tet Promoter

TcR

Peptide

2x-Tether

OmpA Transmembrane Domains

nr-2X_tether

Ptac1 Promoter

Lpp

OmpA

C Terminal Peptide

Lpp Sequence

Protegrin-1

Colistin Resistance

Deep Mutational Scanning

A PolyB MIC [μmol L⁻¹] / *phoP* (2^−ΔΔCT) vs *K. pneumoniae* Strain — Colistin, Polymyxin B; strains MKP103, 700603, 13883, KPPR1S, NTUH

B Fold Change MIC vs Host Defense Peptide — Poly-B, Indo, Il-37, Mel, Are, PG-1, Cec A, Bac7

C Alpha-Helical Ramachandran — Cecropin A, Melittin, LL-37

D Beta-Sheet Ramachandran — Arenicin, Protegrin-1

E Extended and Polyproline Ramachandran — Bac7(1-35), Indolicidin

A WT NonKilling Peptide Sequences

Parent Sequence (top to bottom): R, G, G, R, L, C, Y, C, R, R, F, C, V, C, V, G, R

Possible Mutations (x-axis): A, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, W, Y

B
(10) Arg
(12) Phe
(9) Arg
(13) Cys
(6) Cys
(15) Cys
(5) Leu
(3) Gly
(2) Gly

C Surface Display System

CFU / mL vs Time (Hours)

- Uninduced
- 2xHA
- PG-1

D Peptide Variants

CFU/mL vs Time (Hours)

- G2R
- L5I
- F12L
- Parent
- R9P
- R10L
- RR910PL