Protein quality control modulates the metabolic conservation in antibiotic tolerant *Campylobacter jejuni*

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ABSTRACT
Antibiotic tolerance in bacteria emerges as a phenotypic variant known as persisters and has been
implicated in recurrent bacterial infections. This tolerance manifests as suppressed metabolism. We
demonstrate that *Campylobacter jejuni* readily forms persisters in response to both ampicillin and
ciprofloxacin. Persisters induced by these two antibiotics with different mechanisms of actions
experience consistent metabolic reprogramming, characterized by suppressed respiration and energy
metabolism while conserving core metabolic processes. We reveal that the coordination of protein
homeostasis underlies the metabolic reprogramming involved in persister formation. Mutating the
caseinolytic protease gene *clpP*, a major component of the protein quality control system, compromises
persister formation *in vitro* and impairs bacterial colonization in mouse. However, the deletion of *lon*,
another component of the protein quality control system, or pre-activation of *clpP* by expressing
artificial disordered protein fragments does not affect the antibiotic tolerance. This suggests that specific
targets of ClpP rather than the entire quality control system are critical for persister formation. Our
results reveal a convergent metabolic reprogramming in persisters, highlighting the potential to limit the
emergence of antibiotic tolerance by counteracting adaptive metabolism elicited by antibiotic treatment.
42
43 **Keywords:** Persister, antibiotic tolerance, *Campylobacter*, metabolism
44

INTRODUCTION

Antibiotics are fundamental for treating bacterial infections across various medical disciplines. Beyond their clinical use, antibiotics also play a crucial role in other areas important to public health, such as food production and sanitation[1]. However, the effectiveness of antibiotics has been diminished, with the antibiotic failure has been largely attributed to the genetically-encoded antimicrobial resistance[1]. More recent studies indicated that many other factors significantly contribute to antibiotic failure, such as immunocompromised patients, biofilm-associated infections, and antibiotic persistence[2]. Within a population of antibiotic susceptible bacteria, certain subpopulation can survive under antibiotic treatment by acquiring transient tolerance, and the survived fractions are recognized as persister cells[3]. Persister cells are genetically identical to their antibiotic-susceptible counterparts and highly clinically relevant. This phenomenon is known to be present in various bacterial species and have evolved as a general environmental stress response in bacteria. An increasing number of studies have associated persisters with the recalcitrance and relapse of bacterial infections[4].

Campylobacter is the leading bacterial cause of human gastroenteritis worldwide. A recent clinical study reported a patient suffering from relapsing infections due to long-term *C. jejuni* colonization despite being prescribed antibiotics. Notably, this strain remained antibiotic sensitive[5]. Besides the transiently increased antibiotic tolerance, the presence of persisters has been linked to the emergence of antibiotic resistance in some studies when infections are treated with antibiotics[6]. In recent years, significant effort has been devoted to understanding the mechanisms behind persister formation. Persister cells were initially thought to be produced stochastically due to fluctuations in gene expression, but recent studies suggested that the formation of persisters could be genetically controlled and induced in response to antibiotics and environmental stresses. Numerous recent studies have demonstrated that bacterial persistence can be induced by different factors including carbon-source transition, starvation, oxidative stress, macrophage, DNA damage, pH, indole signalling, but not solely antibiotics[7]. Thus, this capability has likely evolved as a general environmental stress response rather than antibiotic tolerance alone.

In addition to slow growth and replication arrest, antibiotic tolerance has also been inherently linked to bacterial metabolism[8-9]. Bactericidal antibiotics, particularly gyrase inhibitors from the fluoroquinolone class, have been proposed to induce ATP bursts and subsequent oxidative damage under oxygen-rich conditions due to elevated production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) associated with increased aerobic respiratory activity[10]. Recent studies indicated that three major classes of bactericidal antibiotics promote the production of ROS, which play a critical role in most, if not all, killing process[11-13]. As ROS in bacteria are considered as toxic metabolic byproducts, their production is highly related to energy-consuming processes in bacteria[14]. Upon antibiotic exposure, stresses and damages in bacterial cells can initiate various energy-dependent biosynthesis processes, and certain metabolic activities might also increase to compensate for the loss of function of the antibiotic targets[14]. The surge in metabolism in bacterial cells results in the increased production and accumulation of ROS, exacerbating the cell damage, and this cycle continues until cell death. Therefore, bacteria exhibiting repressed metabolism show reduced production of ROS and increased tolerance of bactericidal antibiotic treatment[14]. In this ROS-lethality theory, interactions between antibiotics and their primary targets trigger stress and damage-mediated cellular processes and increased bacterial metabolism. This, in turn, causes oxidative damage and dysfunction of ROS-sensitive enzymes, contributing to cell death[14]. A more recent study indicated that antibiotic efficacy is strongly associated with bacterial metabolism, and combination of strong and weak metabolic dependent antibiotics can eliminate bacterial persisters more effectively[15]. However, inconsistent results were reported in another study, which showed that ofloxacin, a

91 bactericidal fluoroquinolone antibiotic primarily targeting on bacterial DNA gyrase, could achieve
92 effective killing without excessive accumulation of intracellular ROS[16]. Several other studies also
93 challenged the ROS-lethality theory, demonstrating that antibiotic treatment and the presence of ROS
94 are independently linked to bacterial killing. These studies found no significant difference in the survival
95 of bacteria grown aerobically or anaerobically when treated with antibiotics[17-18].
96
While the association between metabolic states and antibiotic tolerance is generally recognized, specific
targets to either enhance or prevent persister formation have not been fully identified and remain under
debate. Several studies have attributed antibiotic tolerance to the suppression of bacterial metabolism,
including deficiencies in energy metabolism, arrested protein synthesis, and reduced activity of the
respiratory and tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle[19-21]. However, in *Salmonella enteric* serovar
Typhimurium, an ATP synthase deficient mutant (strain with *atp* operon deletion) with low levels of
ATP production were shown to be more sensitive than wild-type to killing by ciprofloxacin[22]. Therefore,
despite the increased studies and hypothesized mechanisms of antibiotic persistence, much of the
molecular mechanisms underlying the increased antibiotic tolerance in persisters remains to be
determined.
107
In the current study, our objective was to elucidate how downstream cellular processes related to
antibiotic exposure and alterations in bacterial metabolism contribute to the development of tolerance to
antibiotics that rely heavily on metabolic processes. We demonstrated that *C. jejuni* could develop
tolerance to antibiotics with strong metabolic dependencies (*i.e.*, ampicillin and ciprofloxacin)
concurrently with metabolic reprogramming. This reprogramming was facilitated by the regulatory
activation of caseinolytic protease ClpP, which suppressed core metabolism. The metabolic suppression
involved inhibiting ATP synthesis and redirecting carbon fluxes from the TCA cycle to the pentose
phosphate pathway and S-adenosylmethionine cycle. Deleting *clpP* heightened sensitivity to oxidative
stress, eliminated antibiotic tolerance, and reduced both *in vitro* and *in vivo* survival of *C. jejuni*. These
findings unveiled a critical mechanism of antibiotic tolerance involving interactive metabolic
reprogramming, orchestrated through *clpP*-mediated protein quality control. This understanding forms
the foundation for developing additional robust strategies to combat bacterial antibiotic tolerance.
120
MATERIALS AND METHODS
Bacterial strains and growth conditions
C. jejuni strain F38011 is a representative clinical isolate obtained from a fecal sample from a human
with bloody diarrhea, and was used in the current study[23]. Additionally, another three *C. jejuni* strains
81116, 87-95, and 11168 were used in antibiotic killing assay. The bacteria were routinely cultivated
either on Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) or in Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) supplemented with selective
antibiotics (chloramphenicol or kanamycin) at 37°C under microaerobic condition.
128
Construction of *C. jejuni* mutants and complementation
The mutants of *C. jejuni* F38011 were generated by replacing the genomic coding region of the targeted
gene with a drug resistance gene using homologous recombination. The sequences of the primers are
listed in **Table S1**. The *lon* deletion mutant was generated by homologous recombination and insertion
of a chloramphenicol resistance cassette (Cm^R). The upstream and downstream regions flanking *lon*
(*lon^{up}, lon^{down}*) were PCR-amplified using the primer pairs OLU182/OLU183 and OLU186/OLU187,
respectively. The Cm^R gene was amplified from the plasmid pACYC184 using the primer pairs
OLU184/OLU185. The above three PCR fragments were purified using the Gel/PCR purification kit

(Froggabio, CA) and inserted into EcoRI/XbaI-digested pUC19 using the NEBuilder® HiFi DNA
Assembly Cloning Kit. The plasmid pUC19-lon^{up}-Cm^{R}-lon^{down} was introduced into *C. jejuni* strain
F38011 via natural transformation. Transformants were selected on MHB supplemented with 2 µg/mL
Cm (MHBCm2) and streaked on the MHBCm8 agar to confirm Cm resistance. Deletion of *lon* was
confirmed by PCR.
142
The *clpP* deletion mutant of *C. jejuni* was generated using the similar protocol as described above.
Briefly, upstream and downstream regions flanking *clpP* ($clpP^{up}$, $clpP^{down}$) were PCR-amplified using
the primer pairs OUL196/OLU197 and OLU200/OLU201, respectively. The Cm^{R} gene was amplified
from pACYC184 using the primer pair OLU198/OLU199. The engineered plasmid pUC19-$clpP^{up}$-Cm^{R}-
$clpP^{down}$ was transformed into *C. jejuni* strain F38011, followed by selection on the MHBCm2 and
MHBCm8 agar, subsequently. Deletion of *clpP* was confirmed by PCR.
149
The complementary plasmids were derived from pRY107 (Kan resistance) vector (a gift from Dr.
Konkel at Washington State University). The full *lon* gene including the coding region and ~500 bp
upstream of the start codon was PCR-amplified using primers OLU228/OLU229. The PCR products
were ligated with EcoRI/XbaI-digested pRY107 using the NEBuilder® HiFi DNA Assembly Cloning
Kit. The complementary plasmid pRY107-*lon* was transformed into *C. jejuni Δlon* strain and the
complementary transformants were selected on the MHBKan20 agar. To construct the complementary
plasmid of *clpP*, the full *clpP* gene including the coding region and ~400 bp upstream of the start codon
was PCR-amplified using the primers OLU230/231 and cloned into pRY107 subsequently. The
complementary plasmid pRY107-*clpP* was transformed into *C. jejuni ΔclpP* strain and the
complementary transformants were selected on the MHBKan20 agar.
160
The *spoT* mutant of *C. jejuni* was generated using the similar technique above. Briefly, upstream and
downstream regions flanking *spoT* ($spoT^{up}$, $spoT^{down}$) were PCR-amplified using the primer pairs *spoT*-
FF/*spoT*-FR and *sopT*-RF/*sopT*-RR, respectively. The Kan^{R} gene was amplified from pUC18K2 using
the primer pair *kan*-F/*kan*-R. The engineered plasmid pUC19-$spoT^{up}$-Kan^{R}-$spoT^{down}$ was transformed
into *C. jejuni* strain F38011, followed by selection on *kan* (50 µg/mL) agar, subsequently. Deletion of
spoT was confirmed by PCR.
167
The *recA* deletion mutant of *C. jejuni* was generated using the similar protocol as described above.
Briefly, upstream and downstream regions flanking *recA* ($recA^{up}$, $recA^{down}$) were PCR-amplified using
the primer pairs *recA*-FF/*recA*-FR and *recA*-RF/*recA*-RR, respectively. The Cm^{R} gene was amplified
from pRY111 using the primer pair *cm*-F/*cm*-R. The engineered plasmid pUC19-$recA^{up}$-Cm^{R}- $recA^{down}$
was transformed into *C. jejuni* strain F38011, followed by selection on the MHBkan50 agar
subsequently. Deletion of *recA* was confirmed by PCR.
174
Antibiotic killing and isolation of persister cells
Overnight *C. jejuni* culture was diluted to ~log 8 CFU/mL in MHB with specific antibiotic at final
concentration: ampicillin 100 µg/mL or ciprofloxacin 1 µg/mL. The bacterial culture was kept with
shaking at 37□ in a microaerobic condition. At indicated time points, aliquots of bacterial culture were
collected, centrifuged, washed with PBS, and plated on MHA. After incubation for 24 hr, 10-100
colonies were enumerated for each data point unless further noted. Along with antibiotic exposure,
development of a biphasic killing curve could confirm the formation of *C. jejuni* persister cells.
182

Determination of antibiotic MIC

Antibiotic MIC was determined using the micro-titration method. Overnight bacterial culture was diluted to ~log7 CFU/mL in MHB and added into 96-well flat-bottom clear polypropylene plates (Corning) with two-fold dilutions of antibiotic for a total volume of 100 µL. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hr and then each absorbance at OD_{600} was measured using a Spectramax M3 microplate reader.

Lipid peroxidation

Lipid peroxidation of *C. jejuni* cells was determined using the BODIPY™581/591 C11 sensor kit (Invitrogen™) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly, overnight *C. jejuni* F38011 wild-type and mutants were stained with dye in dark for 1 hr and then added to 96-well black microplates (~log 8 cells per well). Hydrogen peroxide (100 µM), ampicillin (100 µg/mL), and ciprofloxacin (1 µg/mL) treatment was separately conducted for 2 hr. Lipid peroxidation level was evaluated as the relative increase of fluorescence emission at 525 nm due to the treatment.

Determination of metabolism dependence

Metabolism dependence of *C. jejuni* persister cells was determined by supplementing 6-diazo-5-oxo-L-norleucine, glutamate, serine, aspartate, ferrous sulfate, or ferric chloride to the final concentration of 10 mM during antibiotic treatment. Metabolism dependence of persister cells were evaluated as variations on the survival rates after 4 hr of antibiotic treatment.

RNA-seq analysis

Total RNA of both untreated *C. jejuni* cells and persister cells were extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). Ribosomal RNA was removed by the RiboMinus Transcriptome Isolation Kit (Invitrogen) and mRNA was then purified using the RNeasy Mini Spin columns (Qiagen). The resulting transcriptome RNA was used for the construction of RNA-seq library using NEB Next mRNA Library Prep Reagent set from Illumina (NEB) according to the manufacturer's protocol. These constructed libraries were sequenced by Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform by paired-end chemistry. Sequence reads processing, mapping to *C. jejuni* NCTC 11168 genome (NC_002163), and quantification of differential expression (RPKM) were conducted using CLC genomic workbench. The functional annotation of genes was conducted in the Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes (KEGG) database. Statistical significance is referred to as absolute log 2-fold change >1 and *p*-value <0.5.

Quantitative PCR analysis

C. jejuni cells were collected from both untreated group and treated group with exposure to antibiotics for 4 hr at which time most population entered the persistent state. RNA extraction was performed using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol. Total RNA concentration and purity were determined using a Nanodrop 2000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). The cDNA was produced via SuperScript™ II Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen). The qPCR was performed using cDNA from bacterial samples with Power SYBR green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, United Kingdom) on an ABI Prism 7000 Fast instrument (Life Technologies). The primers used for qPCR validation are listed in **Table S1**. Housekeeping genes *gyrA* and *rpoA* in *Campylobacter* were used as the internal controls. A total of 7 genes that were detected as differentially expressed in the RNA-seq results were selected as the targets for validation.

Label-free quantitative proteomics by LC-MS/MS

C. jejuni persister cells were collected and cell pellets were suspended in ammonium bicarbonate (100
mM) and lysed by bead beating on ice. The lysates were diluted and digested with trypsin. Digested
peptides were desalted, and their concentration was determined by the bicinchoninic acid protein assay.
The sample was then analyzed by LC-MS/MS using a Waters nanoACQUITY UPLC® system (Milford,
United States) coupled with a Q Exactive HF hybrid quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo
Scientific, San Jose, United States). Raw mass spectrometry data were processed using the MaxQuant
proteomics platform[24]. The false discovery rate was set at 0.01 at the peptide and protein levels. Proteins
were identified with at least 2 peptides of a minimum length of 6 amino acids in Uniprot database using
C. jejuni NTCT 11168 proteome (UP000031762). Protein relative abundance was quantified using the
MaxQuant-LFQ algorithm[25]. The sample with a measured LFQ intensity in at least two out of the three
samples was subjected to quantification. Statistical significance is referred to as absolute log 2-fold
change>1 and *p*-value for two-tailed t-test <0.05.
241
242 **COG category annotation**
243 PSI-BLAST (version 2.2.31+) was used to categorize proteins of *C. jejuni* F38011 according to the
244 COG database with default cut-off value[25]. Top PSI-BLAST hits were manually cured.
245
Metabolomics
Both untreated and persister cells were subjected to dual extraction for both hydrophilic metabolomics
and hydrophobic lipidomics. Briefly, 10 µL of ^{13}C labeled hydrophilic metabolites and 10 µL of odd
chain lipid molecules were added into bacterial samples as the internal standards. Then, 270 µL of ice-
cold methanol (kept at -20°C) was added to quench cell metabolism. The metabolites of *C. jejuni* cells
were released by three freeze-thaw cycles including flash freezing in liquid nitrogen for 1 min and
sonication in ice water for 15 min. After adding 900 µL of methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE), the samples
were sonicated in ice water for 30 min to extract hydrophobic molecules. Next, the samples were mixed
with 315 µL of cold H_2O and centrifuged at 20,817 $\times g$ and 10°C for 2 min to achieve a clear phase
separation between the hydrophilic methanol-H_2O layer (bottom) and the hydrophobic MTBE layer
(top). The MTBE layer was collected, speed vacuum dried, reconstituted with 100 µL of isopropanol
alcohol/acetonitrile (1:1, v/v), and stored at -80°C for further lipidomic analysis. The methanol-H_2O
layer of the samples was kept at -20°C for 2 hr to precipitate the proteins. After centrifugation at 20,817
$\times g$ and 4°C for 15 min, the supernatant was collected. This aqueous solution was dried in speed vacuum
drier, reconstituted using 100 µL of acetonitrile/H_2O (1:1, v/v), and stored at -80°C for further
metabolomic analysis. Quality control samples for both metabolomics and lipidomics were prepared by
mixing 10 µL of each sample. One method-blank sample (*i.e.* an empty tube subjected to the overall
extraction procedure) and two solvent-blank samples (*i.e.* reconstitution solvent) were prepared as the
negative controls.
265
Metabolomic (positive and negative) and lipidomic (negative) analyses of the samples were conducted
using an Agilent 1290 infinite UHPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA) coupled with a
Bruker Impact II quadrupole-time-of-flight (QTOF) mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen,
Germany). For hydrophilic metabolomic analysis, samples were separated on a SeQuant ZIC-pHILIC
column (2.1 × 150 mm, 3.5 µm, 100 Å). Mobile phase A contained 5 mM NH_4Ac in 95% H_2O and 5%
acetonitrile and mobile phase B constituted of 5 mM NH_4Ac in 5% H_2O and 95% acetonitrile. The pH of
mobile phase A was adjusted to 5 for positive mass spectral collection and the pH was maintained at 9.8
for negative mass spectral collection. Sample elution was achieved using a linear gradient at 30°C with a
flow rate of 200 µL/min. Specifically, the gradient started with 95% B for the first 3 min, decreased to

75% B over 4 min, then to 25% B at 12 min, again to 5% B at 14 min, and finally maintained at 5% for
4 min. The column was then equilibrated at 95% B for 18 min before the injection of the next sample.
Sample injection volume was optimized using quality control sample to maximize spectral intensity and
avoid signal saturation.
279
For lipidomic negative analysis, samples were separated on a Waters Acquity UPLC BEH C_{18} column (1
$\times$ 100 mm, 1.7 μm, 130 Å). The mobile phases for the separation were A: 5 mM ammonium formate in
acetonitrile/H_2O (6:4 v/v) and B: 5 mM ammonium formate in isopropanol alcohol/acetonitrile (9:1, v/v).
The gradient sample elution program started with 5% B, increased to 40% B at 8 min, again to 70% B at
14 min, finally reached 95% B at 20 min, and maintained for 3 min. The column was then equilibrated at
5% B for 9 min before the next injection. The column was maintained at 25°C with a flow rate of 150
μL/min. Sample injection volume was optimized using the same approach as that for metabolomic
analysis. An electrospray ionization source was used to ionize metabolites for MS detection and spectral
information was recorded using the data-dependent MS/MS approach (auto MS/MS). The spectra for
auto MS/MS were collected using a spectral rate of 8 Hz and m/z range of 50 to 1,200. For the auto
MS/MS method, the MS/MS spectra were acquired using a stepping collision energy of 40 eV to 120 eV,
an intensity threshold of 300, a cycle time of 3 s, a smart exclusion after two spectra, and a precursor
reconsideration for intensity difference >1.8. The data-dependent LC-MS/MS results were normalized to
total protein content according to the Bradford assay and processed using MS-DIAL (RIKEN, version
3.52). All the metabolic features with MS/MS spectra were manually confirmed using the MS-Finder
(RIKEN, version 3.20), METLIN (Scripps Research), or an in-house metabolic library with an m/z
tolerance of 5 ppm. Significantly regulated metabolic features were defined as absolute log 2-fold >2
and p-value for two-tailed t-test <0.05.
298

Gene set enrichment analysis
Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was conducted using the Java (GSEA 3.0)-based graphical user
interface with a pre-ranked list of the classic enrichment statistics[26-27]. GSEA involves determining
whether a pre-defined set of genes/proteins is significantly different between the two groups, namely
persister cells and untreated *C. jejuni* cells. The entire list of genes/proteins was ranked according to the
expression difference in persister cells compared to that of untreated cells. The cumulative distribution
function was constructed by performing 1000 random gene set membership assignments.
306

Visualization of the enrichment map
308 The significantly enriched terms in transcriptome and proteome analysis were visualized in Cytoscape
309 3.7.1[28]. Enrichment maps were built with stringent pathway similarity scores (Jaccard and overlap
310 combined coefficient 0.6) and manually curated for the most representative groups of similar pathways
311 and biological processes.
312

RESULTS
clpP **is critical to achieve antibiotic tolerance of** *C. jejuni*
Bacterial antibiotic persistence is often depicted by the biphasic killing curve, which unveils the
presence of subpopulations that are killed at different rates under the same antibiotic treatment[7]. The
amount of persisters within a bacterial population can vary, influenced by various genetic and
environmental factors associated with different upstream and downstream events upon antibiotic
treatment[29-31]. Although different classes of bactericidal antibiotics induce some common lethal events in
cells, such as metabolic perturbations and accumulation of ROS, the interaction of antibiotics with their

primary targets can induce antibiotic-specific physiological changes and initiate different stress
responses[32-34]. To evaluate the antibiotic tolerance of *C. jejuni* against two bactericidal antibiotics that
interact with different primary targets, we used four representative *C. jejuni* strains with slightly varying
genetic features. Through time-killing assays conducted with bactericidal concentrations of these
antibiotics, we observed the heterogeneity within the *C. jejuni* population. Although most cells were
susceptible and rapidly eliminated, a small fraction exhibited tolerance, manifesting a significantly
slower killing rate (**Figure 1AB**). This biphasic killing pattern was consistent across all four tested
strains. To avoid the possibility of transient modes of resistance leading to a slower killing rate, we
repeated tolerance tests four times using the surviving bacterial population. No antibiotic resistance was
detected as evidenced by the constant minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) value (data not shown).
Additionally, we ruled out the possibility of decreased killing rates due to antibiotic degradation over
time by pre-incubating the antibiotics under the same conditions as the killing assay for 6 hr (data not
shown). The MIC remained unchanged when the antibiotics were administered to *C. jejuni* strains.
Therefore, the antibiotic tolerance observed in the subpopulation of *C. jejuni* was not a result of
acquiring resistance mutations but rather a consequence of metabolism regulation.
336
The regulation of metabolic processes impacts the effectiveness of antibiotics that rely heavily on
metabolic states[31]. Antibiotic-induced lesions can trigger bacterial stress responses, interfere with the
toxin/antitoxin balance, and damage cell structures[12, 35-36]. The primary targets of ampicillin (*β*-lactams
class) and ciprofloxacin (fluoroquinolone class) are penicillin-binding proteins and DNA topoisomerase
II (DNA gyrase) and IV, respectively[34]. A previous study indicated that ampicillin at sub-MIC promotes
amino acid depletion in *E. coli* and induces stringent responses[37], while ampicillin at concentrations
above MIC interrupts peptidoglycan biosynthesis, resulting in altered proteostasis, membrane bulging,
and cell lysis[38]. Ciprofloxacin binding to DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV causes double-stranded
breaks in DNA, trigging SOS responses. In addition to SOS responses, ciprofloxacin has been reported
to induce cytoplasmic condensation and disrupt cellular homeostasis[16, 38]. In *C. jejuni*, *spoT* is associated
with the stringent response and *recA* is associated with the SOS response[39-40], while *lon* and *clpP* encode
ATP☐dependent proteases crucial for intracellular proteolysis and protein quality control that are vital
for maintaining protein homeostasis[41]. To characterize the molecular mechanisms underlying ampicillin
and ciprofloxacin tolerance, we first assessed the survival of mutants deficient in the stringent response
(Δ*spoT*), SOS response (Δ*recA*), and proteases (Δ*lon*, and Δ*clpP*) under antibiotic treatment (**Figure
1CD**). Deletion of *spoT* and *recA* did not affect the tolerance of *Campylobacter* to ampicillin.
Compromised tolerance was observed only in the *recA* deletion mutant of *C. jejuni* when exposed to
ciprofloxacin. Deletion of *lon* or *clpP* was expected to disrupt intracellular protein quality control and
proteostasis. Surprisingly, mutations in *lon* and *clpP* had distinct effects on the antibiotic tolerance of *C.
jejuni*. In bacteria, ClpP is considered a more selective protease that recognizes specific regions of
substrates, whereas Lon is a more general protease that recognizes hydrophobic residues of substrates[42].
To confirm the role of *clpP* in ampicillin and ciprofloxacin tolerance, the antibiotic tolerance of *clpP*
complemented mutant, Δ*clpP*::*clpP*, was assessed. Antibiotic tolerance of *C. jejuni* was reinstated by
reintroducing the *clpP* gene into the *clpP* deletion mutant, confirming that the absence of *clpP* is
responsible for the loss of antibiotic tolerance. Importantly, all these mutants exhibited similar MIC
values compared to those of the wild-type strains and showed no significant growth defects (data not
shown).
364
365 To further characterize this tolerant phenotype and elucidate the regulatory mechanisms underlying these
366 tolerant cells, we performed the transcriptomic sequencing. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)

conducted on the transcriptome of the antibiotic tolerance fraction of *C. jejuni* F38011 against two
antibiotics with distinct mechanisms of actions revealed consistent regulatory patterns. These included
the over-representation of pathways related to protein catabolism and quality control, SOS/stringent
stress response, peptidoglycan synthesis, and RNA processing. Interestingly, the TCA cycle/respiration
electron transport pathway was the sole under-represented pathway (**Figure 1F**). The reduced
effectiveness of metabolic-dependent antibiotics, such as ampicillin (*β*-lactam class) and ciprofloxacin
(quinolone class), has been linked to a decline in bacterial metabolic activity[31]. While bacterial
metabolic activity typically correlates with growth and various biological processes, it can become
uncoupled with growth and certain cellular process under specific conditions[31, 43]. Therefore, cellular
processes that are commonly overrepresented in actively growing cells, particularly energy-dependent
processes, could also be critical for persister cells that are in a metabolically suppressed state. Hence, we
hypothesize that the pathways showing overrepresentation are crucial for antibiotic tolerance of *C. jejuni*.
Using a genetic interaction network obtained from the STRING database (**Figure S2**), we identified
clpP as the hub gene within the overrepresented pathways, validating the significance of these pathways.
These findings collectively suggest that *clpP*-mediated protein quality control plays a pivotal role in the
antibiotic tolerance phenotype of *C. jejuni* towards the tested antibiotics.

Regulatory events synchronized with *clpP* expression in *C. jejuni*
clpP plays a critical role in maintaining intracellular hemostasis, particularly proteostasis, by degrading
misfolded proteins[44]. Recent studies have shown that disruption of *clpP* impairs proteostasis and re-
sensitizes antibiotic-tolerant persister cells to strongly metabolism-dependent antibiotics[45-46]. In bacteria,
ClpP functions as an ATP-dependent protease, recognizing and eliminating misfolded proteins.
Moreover, certain antibiotics exert their effects by inducing protein mistranslation and peptidoglycan
cross-linking[47]. Oxidative stress associated with the formation of ROS during antibiotic treatment can
also lead to an increase in damaged and misfolded proteins[11, 48]. Therefore, we hypothesize that the
expression of *clpP* would result in specific signatures on the proteome of antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni*
cells, which exhibit a distinct metabolic state.

Transcriptomic and proteomic profiling were combined to characterize the metabolic changes of
antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells at both transcript and protein levels. GSEA on the proteome of *C. jejuni*
cells confirmed the critical role of protein quality control in antibiotic tolerance, as evidenced by an
overrepresented cluster. However, slight disparities were noted between the transcriptomic and
proteomic profiles. The levels of differently expressed proteins and the abundance of the corresponding
mRNA were not significantly correlated. Certain overrepresented pathways were exclusively identified
at the transcriptomic level (**Figure 1F**). For example, while proteomic results highlighted the
overrepresentation of ion transport-associated pathways in both antibiotic treatments, this phenomenon
was observed only in ciprofloxacin-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells at the transcriptomic level. We also observed
that ciprofloxacin induced more detectable pathway changes than ampicillin. Some consistent changes at
both the transcript and protein levels were identified only in ciprofloxacin-treated *C. jejuni* cells, such as
peptidoglycan synthesis, whereas ampicillin-treated *C. jejuni* cells showed overrepresentation of
peptidoglycan synthesis only at the transcript level. Additionally, tRNA/rRNA processing was
overrepresented at the transcript level but underrepresented at the protein level. Conversely, the protein
folding-associated pathway was overrepresented in both antibiotic treatments, indicating significant
changes under both conditions.

The combined analysis of transcriptomics and proteomics strongly suggests the significant involvement of protein quality control in the tolerance of *C. jejuni* cells to the applied antibiotics. GSEA on the proteome revealed a complex reorientation of protein regulation in antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells rather than a general shutdown. Upon antibiotic exposure, the changes between transcriptomic and proteomic levels were not directly coupled, with some changes being antibiotic-specific. However, the consistent upregulation of the protein folding-associated pathway was well correlated at both the transcript and protein expression levels. This indicates that protein regulation and quality control are necessary in response to both ampicillin and ciprofloxacin treatments despite they are energy-consuming processes. In bacteria, Clp and Lon family proteases are estimated to carry out approximately 80% of cellular proteolysis[49-50]. Previous studies have highlighted the regulatory effects of ClpP-mediated protein quality control on various bacterial cellular processes, including cell growth, virulence, and stress response, achieved by targeting specific protein substrates[8, 51-52]. Moreover, our earlier findings demonstrated that the survival of *C. jejuni* under antibiotic treatments was significantly reduced only upon the deletion of *clpP*, not *lon.* This result aligns with the transcriptomic and proteomic profiling of the antibiotic-tolerant cells, which showed significant upregulation in the protein-folding pathway. This observation led us to hypothesize that *clpP* could serve as an effective focal point for uncovering active regulatory events.

To delve deeper into this hypothesis, we conducted a ClpP protein co-expression network analysis and identified 242 proteins strongly correlated with *clpP*, characterized by absolute Pearson correlation coefficients >0.8 and *p*-value <0.05 (**Table S2**). These proteins were predominately associated with pathways related to 1) energy production and conversion, 2) amino acid transport and metabolism, 3) translation, ribosomal structure, and biogenesis, 4) cell wall, membrane and envelope biogenesis, and 5) post-translational modification, protein turnover, and chaperones (**Figure 1E**). Antibiotic treatment can elevate the rate of translational errors, leading to disruptions in protein translation, accumulation of misfolded proteins, and the formation of protein aggregates[53-54]. A recent study observed a simultaneous occurrence of the emergence of antibiotic-tolerant bacterial cells and the development of protein aggregation[55]. Clp degradation complexes possess a two-component architecture with multiple active sites responsible for recognizing various substrates and hydrolyzing them into short peptides[56]. Within the Clp protease family, ClpP stands out as a barrel-shaped protease core with proteolytic sites, capable of interacting with other Clp family chaperones such as ClpA, ClpC, ClpE, and ClpX[56]. ClpP assembles with different chaperones through a range of assembly pathways to form distinct chaperone-protease complexes, each with distinct functions and activities. Therefore, proteins correlated with ClpP are believed to be actively involved in tagging, recognizing, and processing a wide range of substrates. Protein degradation by Clp proteases not only eliminates misfolded and damaged proteins but also targets short-lived regulatory proteins synthesized under stress conditions[57]. Thus, we hypothesize that to maintain proteostasis, ClpP-correlated proteins must be appropriately expressed, with their expression levels remaining relatively high even under conditions of metabolic suppression.

As anticipated, the relative expression of ClpP-correlated proteins was significantly higher than that of other proteins under both ampicillin and ciprofloxacin treatment (**Figure 2AB**). Protein synthesis is an energy-intensive process, with translation requiring approximately ten times more energy than transcription[58]. Regulatory mechanisms governing the proteome typically follow a cost-effective optimization model[9]. Bacteria react and adapt to environmental changes by reshaping their proteome, particularly by producing necessary products and energy while minimizing the protein burden[59]. Therefore, it is common to observe that the transcriptomic regulation does not always continue at the

proteome level due to yield-cost tradeoffs[60-61]. The transcript changes that subsequently reflect on the
proteome highlight the necessity of redistributing resources to the upregulated pathways among different
cellular processes. The conventional "structure-function paradigm" of proteins proposes that a stable
conformational structure under certain physiological conditions is necessary for their functions.
However, the more recent "disorder-function paradigm" reveals that the flexibility of the three-
dimensional structure of proteins or certain regions of proteins endows them with functional
promiscuity[62]. Studies have identified that the majority of the signaling and regulatory proteins are
intrinsically disordered proteins (IDPs) or contain intrinsically disordered regions, enabling transient
binding and interaction with specific enzymes and involvement in various post-translational
modifications. Although IDPs in prokaryotes are generally less prevalent than in eukaryotes, bacteria are
found to contain higher levels of IDPs than archaea. These IDPs contribute to the regulation of critical
cellular processes, including stress responses, post-transcriptional processing, and cell division[63-65].
470
We then analyzed the disorder tendency of ClpP-correlated proteins using DFLpred[66] and categorized
them into high, medium, and low disorder tendencies (**Table S3**). Surprisingly, proteins with a high
disorder tendency exhibited the highest relative expression level within the ClpP-correlated protein
cluster (**Figure 2CD**). Persister formation often involves stringent responses that downregulate genes
encoding translational machinery and halt translation[67-68]. However, the synthesis of physiologically
essential proteins is tightly controlled, maintaining consistency between transcription and translation[69].
Collective correlation analysis revealed a close dependency between the transcription and translation of
high-disorder tendency proteins within the ClpP-correlated protein cluster (**Figure 2EF**). These findings
highlighted the role of ClpP in regulating proteins with high disorder tendencies and its potential in
regulating critical cellular processes. Based on these observations, high-disorder tendency proteins
within the ClpP-correlated cluster were subject to strict regulation and likely play a critical role in the
antibiotic tolerance of *C. jejuni*. These features were then mapped to KEGG metabolism pathways[70-71]
and annotated with the corresponding regulatory patterns (**Figure 2G**). Pathways such as glycolysis or
gluconeogenesis, the TCA cycle, oxidative phosphorylation, and amino acid metabolism were promoted
to varying degrees, whereas only parts of fatty acid metabolism, biotin synthesis, oxidative
phosphorylation, and histidine, lysine, and glutamate metabolism were suppressed.
487
Metabolic signatures of antibiotic tolerance in *C. jejuni*
Antibiotic persistence is a biological phenotype resulting from a series of complex regulatory events
within bacterial cells. Therefore, systems-level approaches are necessary to map the information flow
across the hierarchical control regimes of the cells, from RNA to molecular representations of cellular
states[72]. Various omic approaches aligned with different stages of the cellular process as outlined in the
"central dogma" provide complementary information. Previous studies have elucidated that bacterial
antibiotic tolerance involves intricate regulation associated with metabolism, particularly in slow and
non-proliferating states[11, 73]. Our findings expand on this knowledge by demonstrating that *C. jejuni*
cells were not merely suppressed in core metabolism but were primed to respond to encountered stresses.
To validate this suspected metabolic trajectory inferred from the transcriptomic and proteomic results,
we conducted metabolomic analyses to observe changes in the abundance of the corresponding
hydrophilic and hydrophobic metabolites (**Figure 3AD**, **Table S4**, and **Table S5**). The collective
metabolomic data revealed a global decrease in the abundance of metabolites associated with core
metabolism. Consistent with the observed regulatory patterns in biotin synthesis and the metabolism
pathways of histidine, lysine and glutamate, the abundance of these metabolites was significantly
downregulated (**Figure 3BC** and **Figure S3**). Importantly, key metabolites in glycolysis, the TCA cycle,

and amino acid metabolism were notably downregulated (**Figure 3BC** and **Figure S3**). However, the abundance of several key metabolites in nucleotide sugar metabolism and the pentose phosphate pathway, such as UDP-xylose, UDP-D-glucose, and UDP-glucuronate, significantly increased in response to both ampicillin and ciprofloxacin treatments. A previous study has demonstrated that sugar metabolism significantly influences bacterial persistence by affecting metabolic flux and proton motive force (PMF)[74]. The abundance of central carbon metabolites is closely linked to the TCA cycle and the electron transport chain, thereby influencing PMF[75]. PMF has been shown to affect the uptake of certain antibiotics by bacterial cells[76-78]. Supplementing central carbon metabolites at various glycolysis stages influences PMF at different levels and exhibits different potentiation effects with different antibiotics[75, 78-79]. Hence, we conclude that the core metabolism of antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* is maintained in a suppressed state, while increased abundance of some metabolites indicates a key metabolic shift in the persister cells. Despite the proposed inhibition of fatty acid synthesis, our lipidomic analysis revealed an accumulation of fatty acids primarily with carbon chain lengths ranging from 14 to 18 (**Figure 3EF**). Conversely, the abundance of fatty acid synthesis co-factor biotin was significantly downregulated (**Figure S3**), suggesting that fatty acids accumulated through catabolism rather than anabolism.

Furthermore, the abundance of lysophospholipids (LPLs) with carbon chain lengths primarily of 16 and 18 was significantly upregulated in antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells upon exposure to antibiotics (**Figure 3EF**). LPLs make up a small fraction (<1%) of the bacterial membrane composition and their accumulation is frequently observed in stressed bacteria[80]. These molecules can be generated through bacterial membrane degradation or phospholipid biosynthesis as metabolic intermediates[80]. The most common LPLs include lysophosphatidic acid, lysophosphatidylcholine, lysophosphatidylethanolamine, lysophosphatidylglycerol, lysophosphatidylinositol, and lysophosphatidylserine[80]. In response to stress, some pathogens activate phospholipase A1 encoded by the *pldA* gene to hydrolyze toxic oxidized phospholipids, producing LPLs and free fatty acids[81-82]. Accumulation of LPLs is considered a hallmark of lipid oxidation. A wide variety of LPLs were detected in *C. jejuni*, and the composition of these LPLs varied depending on environmental conditions. In particular, variations in oxygen levels can alter the composition of LPLs[83]. A previous study has shown that a high amount of LPLs is required for *C. jejuni* to maintain motility under oxygen-limited condition[83]. Although the specific role of LPLs and their related mechanisms in bacterial stress response remain unclear, they are known to contribute to membrane curvature stress and stability, thereby affecting membrane permeability[84-85]. Excessive generation of LPLs can lead to micellization of cell membrane and cause the formation of transient or steady pores[84]. Therefore, the generation of LPLs in bacteria must be tightly regulated. We identified a significant upregulation of *pldA* in antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells (**Table S2**). Although no significant lipid peroxidation was induced by either ampicillin or ciprofloxacin (**Figure S4** and **Figure S5**), oxidized phosphatidylethanolamine intermediates were identified in antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells (**Figure S6** and **Figure S7**), suggesting that antibiotic treatment induced lipid oxidation and the accumulation of oxidized LPLs. Oxidized LPLs are products of hydrolysis of oxidized phospholipids. As both proteostasis and membrane stability significantly contribute to homeostasis, deletion of *clpP* sensitized *C. jejuni* cells to oxidative stress by exacerbating membrane instability and affecting electron transport chain. Consistent with this, our results indicated that lipid peroxidation was elevated in the *clpP* deletion mutant.

To track the entire metabolic trajectory, we constructed a core metabolism map illustrating the direction of metabolic flux in *C. jejuni* (**Figure 4A**). This map provided additional insights not fully captured by transcriptomics and proteomics. As shown in **Figure 2G**, reactions involved in glycolysis and

gluconeogenesis exhibited an upregulated pattern. The metabolism map revealed that glycolytic flux
was directed towards nucleotide sugar metabolism, while flux through glycolysis or gluconeogenesis
might not be promoted. Antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* cells displayed a shunted flow in the TCA cycle and
an exhausted glutamate-glutamine cycle. Additionally, there was an increased flux towards the synthesis
of redox-associated metabolites, such as S-adenosylmethionine, riboflavin-5-phosphate, and
menaquinone-6, indicating redox-driven metabolic signatures.
556
Pathogenicity relevance of antibiotic tolerance capacity
The above results have underscored the association between antibiotic tolerance and level of LPLs.
Additionally, our metabolomic results revealed that the deletion of *clpP* not only compromised antibiotic
tolerance but also exacerbated redox-associated lipid peroxidation. A study showed that
lysophosphatidylethanolamine might contribute to *C. jejuni* virulence, demonstrating toxicity to
epithelial cells (human HeLa and Caco-2 cells) and causing hemolysis of red blood cells[86]. Therefore,
oxidative stress induced during pathogen-host interactions and immune reactions can stimulate the
generation of lysophosphatidylethanolamine, resulting in the expression of *C. jejuni* virulence. This may
explain why *C. jejuni* can invade the epithelial barrier and cause bloody diarrhea despite lacking
common virulence factors such as type III secretion system[86-87]. However, lipid oxidation and the
formation of LPLs can be both beneficial and disruptive for bacteria during host-microbe interactions as
they affect membrane stability and cellular homeostasis. We then evaluated whether the disruption of
antibiotic tolerance via compromised *clpP* affected the *in vivo* survival of *C. jejuni*, given that the
antimicrobial response of macrophage is primarily mediated by elevated redox levels[88]. To determine
the pathogenic relevance associated with antibiotic tolerance, we initially compared the survival of the
wild-type and *clpP* mutant strains in RAW 264.7 macrophages. Both strains exhibited similar adherence
levels, approximately 6 CFU/mL at 3 hr post-infection. However, the *clpP* mutant lost its ability to
survive within macrophages, becoming undetectable after 8 hr post-infection. The loss of survival
observed in the *clpP* mutant may be attributed to dysfunction in redox homeostasis.
576
To further validate this mechanism, we used mice deficient in the single IgG IL-1-related receptor
(*sigirr*) to assess *C. jejuni* infection. *SIGIRR* is responsible for activating innate immunity to produce
antimicrobial radicals. Deletion of *sigirr* would impair colonization resistance in mice due to the
disfunction of radical production[89]. We used a reference strain, *C. jejuni* 81-176, to assess the
colonization capacity of *C. jejuni* F38011. Both wild-type strains exhibited similar peak colonization at
7 days post-infection, with bacterial loads of ~8 CFU/g feces (**Figure 4C**). Although the *clpP*-deficient
mutant could colonize the cecum in *sigirr*-/- mice, the colonization load was significantly lower than
that of its wild-type counterpart. Upon examining the localization of *C. jejuni* within *sigirr*-/- tissues, we
observed that clumpy wild-type cells adhered to the intestinal epithelium but were absent within the
crypts (**Figure 4D**). By co-staining *C. jejuni* antigens along with *β*-actin, we observed that *C. jejuni*
F38011 wild-type cells were repelled by the cytoskeleton of the epithelial cells, remaining only on the
surface of the epithelial layer. In contrast, the *clpP* mutant was not clearly observed on the surface of the
epithelial layer, suggesting that even impaired innate immunity could eradicate the *clpP* mutant (**Figure
4E**). These results collectively demonstrated a clear correlation between pathogenicity and antibiotic
tolerance in *C. jejuni*, primarily driven by the function of ClpP.
592
DISCUSSION
Antibiotic persistence was initially perceived as a series of stochastic events[7]. However, recent studies
have unveiled numerous distinct regulatory mechanisms involved in achieving bacterial antibiotic

persistence[8, 55, 58]. The persistence-related genetic loci include but not limit to genes encoding toxin-
antitoxin modules, (p)ppGpp synthetase I SpoT/RelA, and protease Lon[90]. Although there is a consensus
on the association between low metabolism and antibiotic persistence, the full extent of this dependency
remains to be fully investigated[8-9, 55]. Previous studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of
antimicrobials targeting *clpP* in eradicating antibiotic-tolerant persister cells[45-46]. Consistent with these
findings, our current study suggests that the antibiotic persistence of *C. jejuni* is dependent on metabolic
regulations. Although a broad array of metabolic pathways could be implicated in antibiotic persistence,
multi-omics analysis identified protein quality control as a significantly enriched pathway from both
transcriptomic and proteomic perspectives. Further supporting this, antibiotic killing assays showed that
the deletion of *clpP* compromised bacterial antibiotic persistence. ClpP is a major protein quality control
protease in bacteria utilizing ATP to remove damaged and misfolded proteins[91]. Under certain
conditions, it is also responsible for the regulated degradation of regulatory proteins[8, 92]. Other ATP-
dependent proteases, such as Lon, HslUV, and FtsH, also play critical roles in protein quality control,
similar to ClpP-mediated processes[91]. However, the association between antibiotic persistence and
protein quality control has so far been specifically identified and validated only for ClpP.
611
Previous studies have reported distinct substrates of ClpP in different physiological states, indicating its
potential regulatory functions in maintaining the proteostasis of selected proteins[8, 51-52]. Mutation of *clpP*
has been implicated not only in protein folding but also in metabolism. Recent studies have shown that
clpP mutation disrupts central carbon metabolism, energy metabolism, and co-factor synthesis
pathways[93]. A more comprehensive understanding of the cellular pathways associated with the
activation of *clpP* could help decipher the mechanism of bacterial antibiotic tolerance. However, it
remains unclear how *clpP* deletion triggers metabolic repression and antibiotic tolerance, and under
what biological contexts these effects can be observed. One of the most significant findings of our study
is the link between ClpP and lipid oxidation and LPLs, which has not been previously reported. Previous
studies have indicated that the TCA cycle and central carbon metabolites significantly affect antibiotic
persistence, with effects varying depending on species and environmental conditions. This underscores
the dependency of antibiotic persistence on central carbon metabolism, where intermediates vary based
on pathway alterations. In *Campylobacter*, the highly branched respiratory enables the utilization of
diverse electron donors and acceptors[94].
626
Modulation of intracellular redox has been recognized to influence antibiotic susceptibility[96-97]. Previous
studies have demonstrated that bactericidal antibiotics can trigger the generation of reactive oxygen
species *in vitro*, particularly in the presence of elevated levels of transition metals[98]. An *in vivo* study
found that bactericidal antibiotics induce the formation of hydroxyl radicals[11]. Hence, the stability of
redox-related proteins is vital for bacterial survival during antibiotic treatment. For example, a mutation
in respiratory complex I identified during *in vitro* evolution of *E. coli* resulted in cytoplasm
desensitization to oxidation and increased antibiotic tolerance[99]. Antibiotic treatment is also believed to
induce changes in intracellular redox levels, activating cellular stress mechanisms and contributing to
antibiotic-induced cell death[100-101]. In our current study, we revealed an additional association between
redox dynamics and antibiotic efficacy, showing that *clpP* deletion leads to increased sensitivity,
particularly under oxidative conditions. Given the role of ClpP in maintaining the expression of
physiologically essential proteins, we identified relevant proteins through co-expression networks. Our
findings show that antibiotic tolerance mediated by ClpP is dependent on redox, as evidenced by the
accumulation of lysophosphatidylethanolamine and oxidized phosphatidylethanolamine (**Figure S8**).
Deletion of *clpP* may result in improper translation of redox-maintaining proteins, as indicated by the

accumulation of anabolic lipid peroxidation under oxidative conditions (**Figure S4** and **Figure S5**). This funding suggests that the level of lysophosphatidylethanolamine, a novel virulence factor recently identified in *C. jejuni*[86], is also related to ClpP. A previous study proposed that *C. jejuni* mutants unable to produce lysophosphatidylethanolamine exhibit low cytotoxicity[94]. Additionally, our results suggested that dysfunction of ClpP can lead to excessive accumulation of LPLs, affecting the colonization and cytotoxicity of *C. jejuni* both *in vitro* and *vivo*. Overall, our study observed consistent persistence dependent on metabolism in *C. jejuni* treated with antibiotics with different mechanisms of actions. While persistence is typically associated with a low metabolic state, persistence-conferring reprogramming of metabolism in certain pathways actively contributes to the survival of bacterial persisters.

In conclusion, as we strive to eradicate bacterial antibiotic persistence, targeting the associated metabolic reprogramming presents a promising strategy[14, 102]. This study demonstrated that disrupting or constraining critical pathways related to proteostasis and oxidative stress can limit the ability of bacteria to withstand antibiotics, with ClpP identified as one of the critical targets. The disruption of this protease, which is vital for *C. jejuni* to maintain proteostasis and homeostasis, significantly reduced the survival of *C. jejuni* both *in vitro* and in *vivo*. We have uncovered comprehensive metabolic reprogramming events that can inform the development of counter or synergic strategies to inactivate antibiotic-tolerant *C. jejuni* persister cells. Our findings shed light on the metabolic landscape of antibiotic persistence and propose potential solutions to control this challenging and heterogeneous bacterial population.

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FIGURES

Figure 1. *clpP* is critical for *Campylobacter jejuni* persisters to tolerate ampicillin (AMP) and ciprofloxacin (CIP). (A and B) Time-killing curves of AMP and CIP against four *C. jejuni* strains, namely 81116 (dark yellow line with solid square), 87-95 (red line with solid triangle), 11168 (green line with solid inverted triangle), and F38011 (black line with solid circle). Bacterial culture of each strain was grown to optical density of 0.3 and then diluted to ~log 8 CFU/mL in MH broth with specific antibiotic at final concentration of ampicillin 100 µg/mL or ciprofloxacin 1 µg/mL. (C and D) Time-killing curves of AMP and CIP against the wild-type F38011 (black line with solid circle), Δ*lon* mutant (dark yellow line with solid square), Δ*clpP* mutant (red line with solid inverted triangle), Δ*spoT* mutant (orange line with hollow circle), Δ*recA* mutant (green line with hollow triangle), and Δ*clpP* complemented mutant Δ*clpP*::*clpP* (red line with hollow inverted triangle). (E) Cluster of orthologous groups (COG) analysis of genes strongly correlated with *clpP*. A total of 242 proteins that strongly correlated with *clpP* were identified by absolute Pearson correlation coefficients >0.8 (absolute correlation value >0.95, *p*-value <0.05). COG function analysis of the *clpP*-correlated proteins showed 19 different functional classifications, and the number of genes annotated within each classification was shown in the parenthesis. (F) Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of transcriptomics and proteomics of *C. jejuni* persisters. GSEA Java (GSEA 3.0)-based graphical user interface using with a pre-ranked list of all genes or proteins based on their different expressions in antibiotic-selected persister cells and untreated cells. The cumulative distribution function was constructed by performing 1000 random gene

set membership assignments. The significantly enriched terms in transcriptome and proteome analysis were visualized in Cytoscape 3.7.1. Enrichment maps were built with stringent pathway similarity scores (Jaccard and overlap combined coefficient 0.6) and manually curated for the most representative groups of similar pathways and biological processes (GO BP). Node size corresponds to gene set size and color designates enrichment in antibiotic-selected persister cells (i.e. up-regulation after antibiotic treatment), whereas blue represents enrichment in untreated cells (i.e. down-regulation after antibiotic treatment). The thickness of lines connecting the gene-set nodes represents the degree of gene overlap between the two sets. Experiments were performed on independently grown cultures at least three times and data were presented as mean ± SD.

Figure 2. Metabolically active events of *C. jejuni* were *clpP*-expression dependent. (A, B, C, D)
Distribution of protein abundance in *C. jejuni* F38011 persisters. Proteins were categorized into four
groups based on their abundance correlation with *clpP* expression and their disorder tendency. The
abundance correlation between protein and *clpP* expression was determined using Pearson's correlation
coefficient analysis. Correlated features were determined as absolute coefficiency *clpP* >0.8 and *p*-value
<0.05. Non-correlated features were determined as absolute coefficiency <0.2 and *p*-value <0.05.
Protein disorder tendencies were predicted based on the fractions of disordered flexible linker regions in
protein sequences using DFLpred. High disorder proteins were determined as disordered flexible linker
residues accounting for >30% of the total sequences. Non-disorder proteins were determined as
disordered flexible linker residues accounting for <10% of the total sequences. (E) Correlation analysis
of *clpP* corr/high-dis features (protein-to-RNA) in *C. jejuni* F38011 persisters. (F) Gene-wise correlation
of concordant changes in RNA and protein. Differentially expressed genes at the RNA level and
differentially expressed proteins were compared across all pairwise comparisons. (G) Global metabolic
map. Visualization of regulated biological pathway is derived from *clpP* correlated/high-disorder
features. Red is denoted as promoted activity while blue is denoted as inhibited activity.
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Figure 3. *C. jejuni* **F38011 persisters exhibited distinct metabolomic and lipidomic features**
compared to normal growing cells. (A) Volcano plot of relative abundance change of metabolites in
persister cells selected by AMP and CIP, respectively. (B) Ranked relative abundance of amino acids in
persister cells. (C) Ranked relative abundance of TCA metabolites in persister cells. (D) Volcano plot of
relative abundance change of lipids in persister cells selected by AMP and CIP, respectively. (E) Ranked
relative abundance of fatty acids in *C. jejuni* persister cells. (F) Ranked relative abundance of
lysophospholipids in *C. jejuni* persister cells.

Figure 4. (A) Metabolic reprogramming of core metabolism in *C. jejuni* persister cells compared to that of normal growing cells shown as relative abundance change of metabolites (red number in parenthesis represent log$_2$ increase and green number in parenthesis represent log$_2$ decrease). (B, C) Survival of wild type and persistence-compromised *clpP* mutant *C. jejuni* F38011 in macrophage cells and sigirr$^{-/-}$ mice model. (D, E) Localization of wild type and persistence-compromised *clpP* mutant *C. jejuni* F38011 in the cecum of sigirr$^{-/-}$ mice.