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TESE

Proteômica global de *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC11168 sob diferentes condições de pH

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Pelotas, 2022

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Proteômica global de *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC11168 sob diferentes condições de pH

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos da Universidade Federal de Pelotas, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Doutor em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos (área de conhecimento: Microbiologia de Alimentos).

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80	Dedico
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82	além de sempre ter me ensinado que o conhecimento é a única coisa que
83	ninguém nunca irá tirar de nós

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RESUMO

Ramires, Tassiana. Proteômica global de *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC11168
 sob diferentes condições de pH. 2022. 81f. Tese (Doutorado) - Programa de
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Campylobacter termofílico é um subgrupo dentro do gênero Campylobacter, 159 formado pelas espécies C. jejuni, C. coli, C. lari e C. upsaliensis, sendo assim 160 denominado devido a sua temperatura ótima de multiplicação oscilar entre 42 161 Campylobacter termofílicos são, atualmente, as principais bactérias °C. 162 causadoras de doencas transmitidas por alimentos em todo o mundo, além de 163 estarem entre as guatro principais causas globais de doenças diarreicas. Dentre 164 Campylobacter termofílicos. espécies de a mais relacionada 165 as à campilobacteriose é C. jejuni, seguida por C. coli. O principal reservatório de C. 166 *jejuni* são as aves, principalmente os frangos, possivelmente pela temperatura 167 corporal desses animais ser similar à temperatura ótima para a sua 168 multiplicação. Apesar da importância desse patógeno para a saúde pública, 169 pouco ainda se sabe sobre os mecanismos de sobrevivência e de infecção de 170 C. jejuni. Com isso, o objetivo desse estudo foi avaliar a proteômica global de C. 171 *jejuni* NCTC11168 guando submetido a diferentes condições de pH, simulando 172 barreiras encontradas no organismo humano e em cortes cárneos de frango. 173 Para isso, a cepa padrão C. jejuni NCTC 11168 foi submetida a diferentes 174 valores de pH, a fim de tornar o ambiente in vitro semelhante ao pH gástrico (pH 175 176 4,0- o mais ácido no qual houve multiplicação microbiana em testes prévios), ao pH médio de cortes cárneos de frango (pH 5,8) e ao pH intestinal humano (pH 177 8,0). As proteínas foram extraídas pela técnica single spot (SP3) e a separação, 178 179 identificação e quantificação das proteínas, foi realizada por cromatografia líquida acoplada à espectrometria de massas. Observou-se que houve diferença 180 significativa na síntese de proteínas, nas diferentes condições de pH testadas. 181 182 Foi constatado que o pH 5,8 foi o que mais favoreceu a síntese de proteínas relacionadas aos mecanismos de defesa de C. jejuni, sendo esse um achado 183 interessante visto que é o pH encontrado nos cortes cárneos, podendo ser um 184 fator que beneficie a sobrevivência do patógeno e consequentemente 185 proporcione a disseminação da campilobacteriose. Além disso, foi identificado 186 aumento na abundância de duas proteínas responsáveis pela geração de 187 energia via respiração anaeróbica (NapA e FrdA) guando em pH 8.0, sugerindo 188 que o pH intestinal induz ao aumento da atividade da cadeia transportadora de 189 elétrons, provavelmente a fim de garantir a homeostase citoplasmática de C. 190 jejuni. A partir dos resultados obtidos no presente estudo, foi possível comprovar 191 que de alguma forma as proteínas de resposta ao estresse (térmico e oxidativo) 192 também estão envolvidas na resposta ao estresse ácido de C. jejuni. Além disso, 193 foi possível verificar que dentre os pH avaliados, o pH 5,8 foi o mais expressivo 194 em termos de respostas ao estresse ácido, sendo uma boa condição a ser 195 trabalhada em pesquisas futuras, a fim de se ter um melhor conhecimento sobre 196 a interferência do pH na patogênese de C. jejuni. 197

Palavras-chave: Campylobacter termofílicos, estresse ácido, pH intestinal,
 campilobacteriose, cortes cárneos de frango.

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ABSTRACT

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Thermophilic Campylobacter is a subgroup within the genus Campylobacter, 211 formed by the species C. jejuni, C. coli, C. lari and C. upsaliensis, being so named 212 because of its optimal multiplication temperature oscillating between 42 °C. 213 214 Thermophilic Campylobacter are currently the leading foodborne diseasecausing bacteria worldwide, as well as being among the top four global causes 215 of diarrheal disease. Among the thermophilic Campylobacter species, the most 216 217 related to campylobacteriosis is C. jejuni, followed by C. coli. The main reservoir of C. jejuni are birds, mainly poultry, possibly because the body temperature of 218 these animals is similar to the optimal temperature for their multiplication. Despite 219 the importance of this pathogen for public health, little is known about the survival 220 and infection mechanisms of C. jejuni. Thus, the objective of this study was to 221 evaluate the global proteomics of C. jejuni NCTC11168 when subjected to 222 different pH conditions, simulating the barriers found in the human organism and 223 224 in chicken meat cuts. For this, the standard strain C. jejuni NCTC 11168 was submitted to different pH values, in order to make the in vitro environment similar 225 to gastric pH (pH 4.0 - the most acidic in which there was microbial multiplication 226 227 in previous tests), to the average pH of chicken meat cuts (pH 5.8) and to the 228 human intestinal pH (pH 8.0). Proteins were extracted by the single spot technique (SP3) and the separation, identification and quantification of proteins 229 230 was performed by liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry. It was observed that there was a significant difference in the synthesis of proteins, in 231 the different pH conditions tested. It was found that pH 5.8 was the one that most 232 favored the synthesis of proteins related to the defense mechanisms of *C. ieiuni*. 233 which is an interesting finding since it is the pH found in chicken meat cuts, which 234 may be a factor that benefits the pathogen survival and consequently provide the 235 campylobacteriosis spread. In addition, increase in the abundance of two 236 proteins responsible for energy generation via anaerobic respiration (NapA and 237 FrdA) was identified when at pH 8.0, suggesting that intestinal pH induces an 238 239 increase in the activity of the electron transport chain, probably in order to to guarantee the cytoplasmic homeostasis of C. jejuni. From the results obtained in 240 the present study, it was possible to prove that somehow the stress response 241 proteins (thermal and oxidative) are also involved in the C. jejuni acid stress 242 243 response. In addition, it was possible to verify that among the evaluated pH, pH 5.8 was the most expressive in terms of responses to acid stress, being a good 244 condition to be worked on in future research, in order to have a better knowledge 245 about of the interference of pH in the C. jejuni pathogenesis. 246

247 **Keywords:** Thermophilic *Campylobacter*, acid stress, intestinal pH, 248 campylobacteriosis, chicken meat cuts.

249	SUMÁRIO	
250		
251		
252	1. Introdução	11
253	2. Objetivos	15
254	2.1 Objetivo Geral	15
255	2.2 Objetivos Específicos	15
256	3. Capítulo I	16
257 258 259	3.1 Manuscrito 1- Response of <i>Campylobacter jejuni</i> NCTC 11168 to a and alkaline stress when in the stationary growth phase as revealed to targeted proteomics	acidic cy 16
260	4 Capítulo II	47
261 262	4.1 Manuscrito 2- Alternative methods for control of thermophilic <i>Campylobacter</i> in poultry	47
263	5. Perspectivas Futuras	71
264 265	5.1 Expressão gênica de isolados de <i>Campylobacter jejuni</i> representa da cadeia produtiva de frangos de corte do sul do Rio Grande do Sul	tivos 71
266	5.1.1 Seleção dos isolados	71
267	5.1.2 Expressão Gênica	72
268	6. Considerações Finais	73
269	Referências Bibliográficas	74
270		
271		
272		
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286 **1. Introdução**

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Atualmente, existem 57 espécies que pertencem ao gênero Campylobacter 288 (http://www.bacterio.net/campylobacter.html acesso em 13/07/2022). 289 Campylobacter jejuni, C. coli, C. lari e C. upsaliensis representam o grupo 290 denominado termofílico, devido à sua temperatura ótima de multiplicação oscilar 291 entre 42 °C e 43 °C (Lopes et al., 2021; Ramires et al., 2020a; Scheik et al., 292 2021). Dentre os representantes deste grupo, C. jejuni e C. coli, são de maior 293 importância em saúde pública, sendo C. jejuni a espécie mais envolvida em 294 casos de infecções humanas e também a mais prevalente em aves. 295 Campylobacter termofílicos não são formadores de esporos e, ao contrário de 296 outros patógenos transmitidos por alimentos, como Salmonella spp. e Shigella 297 spp., são fastidiosos e requerem um ambiente de microaerofilia, apresentando 298 multiplicação máxima em atmosfera contendo aproximadamente 5% de O₂, 10% 299 de CO₂ e 85% de N₂ (Garénaux et al., 2008; Levin, 2007; Silva et al., 2011; Yan 300 301 et al., 2005).

Desde 2005, esses patógenos têm sido apontados como os principais 302 agentes zoonóticos responsáveis por gastroenterites em humanos na União 303 Europeia, registrando mais de 120 mil casos em 2020 (EFSA and ECDC, 2021). 304 No Brasil, assim como em outros países em desenvolvimento, poucos casos de 305 doenças de origem alimentar são atribuídos a essa bactéria, principalmente 306 307 devido a falhas no processo de notificação e por não existirem programas 308 nacionais de vigilância destinados ao acompanhamento de campilobacteriose. Segundo a Organização Mundial da Saúde (WHO, 2020) a enfermidade é 309 normalmente manifestada após 2 a 5 dias do início da infecção, mas pode variar 310 de 1 a 10 dias. Os sintomas clínicos mais comuns dessa doença incluem diarreia 311 (frequentemente sanguinolenta), dor abdominal, febre, dor de cabeça, náuseas 312 e / ou vômitos, os quais geralmente duram de 3 a 6 dias. Algumas complicações 313 pós-infecção podem incluir artrite reativa (inflamação dolorosa das articulações 314 que pode durar vários meses) e a síndrome de Guillain-Barré, que resulta em 315 paralisia muscular, podendo ocasionar disfunção respiratória ou morte 316 encefálica. 317

As aves são os reservatórios primários de C. jejuni, possivelmente por 318 propiciarem uma temperatura ótima de multiplicação para as espécies 319 termofílicas (Hald et al., 2016), sendo a carne de frango, crua ou 320 insuficientemente cozida, a principal fonte de transmissão por C. jejuni, 321 responsáveis por cerca de 80% dos casos de campilobacteriose (EFSA and 322 ECDC, 2010). Além disso, normalmente os frangos são portadores 323 assintomáticos desse patógeno. Ressalta-se que C. jejuni é submetido a 324 diferentes condições de pH durante as etapas da cadeia produtiva de frangos de 325 326 corte: passagem pelo estômago das aves; adesão e colonização do intestino das aves; armazenamento e estocagem dos cortes cárneos; passagem pelo 327 trato gastrointestinal humano; adesão e colonização do intestino humano 328 (Hanning et al., 2008). No entanto, ao contrário de outras bactérias, como 329 Salmonella spp. e Escherichia coli, pouco se sabe sobre os mecanismos de 330 sobrevivência de C. jejuni (Bolton, 2015; Guccione et al., 2017; Lopes et al., 331 2021; Repérant et al., 2016), dificultando a compreensão de como essas 332 bactérias conseguem se manter viáveis ao longo da cadeia produtiva de frangos 333 de corte e durante as etapas de sua patogenia. É importante salientar que as 334 335 reações bioquímicas que ocorrem em um organismo são extremamente sensíveis a mudanças na acidez ou alcalinidade (Tortora, Funke, & Case, 2012) 336 sendo interessante ter o conhecimento sobre a resposta em nível proteíco que 337 é gerada frente a essas oscilações. 338

Uma forma de compreender o processo de patogenia e como o patógeno 339 responde frente às diferentes condições as quais é submetido, é analisando a 340 síntese global de proteínas (Karlsson et al., 2015). Inicialmente, é preciso 341 conhecer qual a função das diferentes proteínas sintetizadas por um micro-342 organismo e como elas variam em abundância em função das condições 343 ambientais, para então se ter um melhor entendimento dos mecanismos de 344 345 virulência e posterior tratamento e/ou prevenção da doença. O termo proteoma significa o conjunto de proteínas codificadas pelo genoma de um organismo, já 346 proteômica é definida como a compreensão da estrutura, função e interações 347 das proteínas (Haynes & Yates, 2000). Técnicas de proteômica têm sido 348 aplicadas a C. jejuni para entender melhor como as mudanças na composição 349 genética, limitação de nutrientes e mudança ambiental afetam esses patógenos 350 em nível proteico (Cain et al., 2019; Taheri et al., 2019). O desenvolvimento 351

destas técnicas está trazendo um melhor entendimento das vias bioquímicas eos papéis de interações das proteínas.

A preparação de amostras de proteínas para análise de proteoma depende 354 da exploração das propriedades químicas específicas das proteínas, ou de 355 outros fatores, como a localização celular. Todas as análises abrangentes de 356 proteoma requerem várias estratégias para a preparação de amostras devido à 357 grande variedade de propriedades físico-químicas das proteínas. Duas 358 considerações devem ser observadas ao escolher qualquer técnica de extração 359 360 de proteínas: em primeiro lugar, o uso de agentes químicos específicos durante a preparação da amostra pode limitar as etapas de separação e análise; a 361 segunda consideração, é a minimização de compostos contaminantes dentro da 362 mistura de proteínas, como DNA, polissacarídeos, sais e proteínas não 363 derivadas de C. jejuni. Se a remoção de tais contaminantes for possível, por 364 meio de tratamento enzimático, diálise ou precipitação de proteínas, poderão ser 365 gerados resultados aprimorados, mas também deve ser observado que cada 366 367 etapa adicional da preparação pode estar associada a algumas perdas proteicas (Scott & Cordwell, 2009). 368

369 Atendendo a essas necessidades, a tecnologia de preparação de amostras aprimorada em fase sólida de pote único (SP3 - single spot) é uma abordagem 370 baseada em esferas paramagnéticas para processamento rápido, robusto e 371 eficiente de amostras de proteínas para análise proteômica. A SP3 usa um 372 mecanismo de interação hidrofílica para troca ou remoção de componentes que 373 são comumente usados para facilitar a lise de células, solubilização de proteínas 374 e digestão enzimática, antes da análise de proteômica (Figura 1). A SP3 fornece 375 uma plataforma simplificada para o processamento de amostras de proteínas 376 antes da análise proteômica. A finalidade é realizar a purificação da amostra, a 377 fim de remover contaminantes indesejados de uma mistura de proteínas. As 378 379 proteínas são ligadas às esferas magnéticas por meio de um mecanismo de interação hidrofílica. Em contraste com abordagens alternativas, o SP3 combina 380 compatibilidade com uma coleção de aditivos de solução com recuperação 381 praticamente sem perdas de proteínas, independentemente da quantidade de 382 entrada, tudo em um protocolo simplificado, em um único microtubo (Hughes et 383 al., 2019). 384

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- Figura 1. Fluxo do SP3 na purificação das amostras de proteínas, removendo
 possíveis contaminantes indesejáveis. Fonte: Hughes et al. (2019).
- 403 Existem estudos em que foi avaliada a síntese global de proteínas por C. 404 jejuni, levando em consideração a atmosfera (Rodrigues et al., 2016), a temperatura (Taheri et al., 2019) ou simplesmente o mapeamento geral da 405 proteômica desse patógeno (Shi et al., 2014). No entanto, são necessários 406 407 estudos avaliando a proteômica de C. jejuni guando submetido a diferentes valores de pH aos quais esse micro-organismo é exposto, desde o seu 408 estabelecimento nas aves, permanecendo viável nos cortes cárneos 409 comercializados, e transpondo os obstáculos no organismo humano, para assim, 410 compreendermos qual a relação entre o pH e a patogenia de C. jejuni. 411
- Desta forma, este estudo teve o objetivo de avaliar a proteômica de *C. jejuni* NCTC11168 submetido a diferentes condições de pH (4, 5.8 e 8). Os resultados deste estudo contribuirão para um melhor entendimento do potencial de virulência e do mecanismo de patogenicidade de *C. jejuni*.
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420	2. Objetivos
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422	2.1 Objetivo Geral
423	Avaliar a proteômica de C. jejuni NCTC11168 submetido a diferentes
424	condições de pH.
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426	2.2 Objetivos Específicos
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428	Objetivo 1. Realizar a padronização e a extração de proteínas de C. jejuni
429	NCTC 11168, utilizando o protocolo SP3.
430	Objetivo 2. Determinar o perfil proteico de C. jejuni NCTC 11168 simulando
431	as condições de pH encontradas em cortes cárneos de frangos e no estômago
432	e intestino humanos.
433	Objetivo 3. Separar, identificar e quantificar as proteínas através da
434	cromatografia líquida acoplada à espectrometria de massas.
435	Objetivo 4. Analisar e comparar o perfil proteico, caracterizando o proteoma
436	obtido nas diferentes condições de pH avaliadas.
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450 3. Capítulo I

3.1 Manuscrito 1- Response of *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC 11168 to acidic
and alkaline stress when in the stationary growth phase as revealed by targeted
proteomics

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- 455 Manuscrito a ser submetido ao periódico *Food Research International* Fator de Impacto
- 456 7.425 e Qualis A1 na Área de Ciência de Alimentos

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- 458
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470 **ABSTRACT**

Campylobacter jejuni is one of the major causes of food-borne infections 471 world-wide. The species is strictly host associated and tolerates acidity and 472 alkalinity. The ability to survive pH challenges is one of the key aspects of the 473 ability of C. jejuni to survive in food, stomach transit and enables host 474 gastrointestinal tract colonisation. In this study we exposed C. jejuni reference 475 476 strain NCTC 11168 to growth permissive pH stress (growth at pH 5.8 and 8.0) and exposure to pH 4.0 shock, relative to a pH 7.0 control. Cells were grown to 477 478 early stationary growth phase before being exposed to acid shock and harvested for proteomic analysis. Proteins extracted from biomass were quantified using a 479 targeted data dependent acquisition label-free based approach. This was done 480 to identify pH dependent proteins that respond in a growth phase independent 481 manner. It was discovered that gluconate 2-dehydrogenase (Cj0414, Cj0415), 482 NssR-regulated haemoglobin-like proteins Cgb and Ctb and uncharacterised 483 protein Cj0761, a cytochrome c (Cj0037), and phosphate-binding transporter 484 protein PstB all show acid pH dependent abundance increases but are not 485 activated by acid shock. We did not discover any proteins that definitively showed 486 abundance increases in an alkaline pH dependent manner. Protein abundances 487 otherwise increased only for small sets of proteins specific to the given pH 488 treatment. These responses mainly seem to be oriented to bolstering respiration 489 for acid pH treatments while for pH 8.0 treatments the observed changes 490 potentially act to maintain intracytoplasmic pH homeostasis. Global protein 491 abundance reduction of proteins linked to growth and survival also occurred for 492 all treatments and could be associated with energy conservation, linked to the 493

494 physiological environment, and in the case of acid stress also when abrupt pH495 reduction occurs.

496

497 Introduction

Campylobacter jejuni is an animal host associated bacterial species of the 498 phylum Campylobacterota. The species is a major foodborne pathogen world-499 500 wide and causes most of the human disease, termed campylobacteriosis, in both developing and developed nations (Kaakoush et al. 2015). Campylobacteriosis 501 502 is mainly acquired during preparation and consumption of poultry meat. This is due to the high population of C. jejuni in poultry caeca. C. jejuni can also colonise 503 the huma GI tract creating asymptomatic carriers. In Brazil stricter regulations 504 placed on poultry farms and meat processing facilities was able to reduce the 505 incidence of disease (Melo et al. 2019) indicating that preventing colonisation of 506 C. jejuni in food animals is key to controlling campylobacteriosis (Fodda et al. 507 2021). 508

C. jejuni strains has, like its relatives, a stream-lined genome of about 1.7 509 megabases coding for approximately 1600 proteins. This streamlining reduces 510 the adaptability of the species both in terms of environmental survival and ability 511 to dominate a given econiche. The ability of *C. jejuni* to cause disease mainly 512 relates to survival on poultry carcasses and the ability to survive sanitation 513 occurring after slaughter. It was found *C. jejuni* can survive peracetic acid (PAA) 514 disinfectant during processing. PAA is both an oxidising and acidic solution. PAA 515 exposure survival was higher following scalding as compared to direct chilling 516 and PAA exposure (Chen et al. 2020). This is despite other findings that report 517 C. jejuni does not acquire stress cross-protection from either heat or cold stress 518

(Iohanni et al. 2013). Quantitative proteomics analysis suggested the main
response to a sub-lethal 45 minute PAA exposure was a "peroxide shock"
response (Chen et al. 2022) but no obvious response could be linked to acidity,
even though the PAA solution was pH 4.3.

C. jejuni appears to only initiate a primitive acid tolerance response (Murphy 523 et al. 2003) compared to the elaborate responses found in other food-borne 524 525 pathogens such as Listeria monocytogenes (Bowman et al. 2012). Acid exposure has been shown to activate the PerR peroxide regulator (Pesci et al. 1994), which 526 527 also controls iron homeostasis. It is likely an acidic PAA solution disturbs the redox homeostasis of the cytoplasm and survival is linked to the ability in coping 528 with peroxide ion influx. The effect of a concomitant H⁺ flux seems to be dealt 529 with simultaneously though the exact mechanisms used are not clear. 530

Campylobacter jejuni strains can grow between pH 5 to pH 9 at the optimal 531 temperature for growth of 42°C and survive acidic shock (Reid et al. 2008a). In 532 addition the species can manage oxidative stress by a range of conserved and 533 strain-dependent regulatory processes (Kim et al., 2015; Gundogdu et al. 2016) 534 and as mentioned above oxidative stress protective proteins can be induced, 535 such as by PAA. The species, however, lacks tolerance to osmotic stress and 536 low temperature conditions due to the inability to synthesise de novo compatible 537 solutes as well as lacking dedicated transport systems for such (Cameron et al. 538 2012). C. jejuni strains also lack master regulators and specific enzymatic 539 540 processes (such as the glutamate decarboxylase system) that can buffer the intracytoplasmic pH against acidity as found in other food-borne pathogens (Horn 541 542 & Bhunia 2018). Mechanisms found to be important with acid stress survival by C. jejuni, especially when considering a host content are likely linked to 543

management of physiology, in particular catabolic and respiration-based energy
generation (Reid et al. 2008b).

The goal of the research presented here is to assess responses of *C. jejuni* reference strain NCTC 11168 to pH stress, both alkaline and acidic. Both alkaline and acidic conditions are relevant to food and the GI tract environment. Many foods and stomach transit require the ability to tolerate acidic stress, caused either by mineral acids or by organic acids. Furthermore, alkaline stress can be encountered in the lower parts of the small intestine due to secretion of bile and accumulation of bicarbonate ions (Fallingborg 1999).

To investigate the responses of *C. jejuni* to pH stress label free proteomics 553 was utilised. Since the proteome of C. jejuni NCTC 11168 is available a targeted 554 data dependent acquisition approach was used to quantify proteins. The 555 proteomic based quantitation was applied to cells grown at pH 8.0, pH 5.8 and 556 pH 7.0 to early stationary growth phase. Having the cells in this phase specifically 557 targets pH-dependent responses since growth rate reduction due to pH may 558 invoke more global cross-protective responses. In addition an acid shock at pH 559 4.0 for 1 hour was performed to determine if protein responses are similar to that 560 of growth at pH 5.8 which in effect involves some level of possible acid 561 habituation even though the ATR is not very prominent in C. jejuni. The 562 hypothesis is presented that growth at either acid or alkaline pH involves proteins 563 that are pH-dependent, that could provide beneficial functions to cells when 564 encountering sub-optimal pH conditions. Another goal was to determine if acid 565 shock affects the abundances of the same proteins as found when growing C. 566 *jejuni* under either acid or alkaline stress 567

569 Materials and Methods

570 Sample preparation

Protein concentrations were estimated using the E-Z Quant assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and aliquots of 50 mg protein were sequentially reduced and alkylated using standard methods. Protein samples were digested using the SP3 method (Hughes et al, 2019) and peptide samples were desalted using ZipTips (Merck Millipore) according to manufacturer's instructions.

576 LC/MS analysis

577 Aliquots of peptides equivalent to 1 mg were first concentrated on a 20 mm x 75 µm PepMap 100 trapping column (3 µm C18) (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 5 578 minutes then separated on a 250 mm x 75 µm PepMap 100 RSLC column (2µm 579 C18) held at 45 °C using a flow rate of 300 nL/min. Peptides were eluted over a 580 70- minute segmented gradient from 98% mobile phase A (0.1% formic acid in 581 water) to 45% mobile phase B, (0.08% formic acid in 80% acetonitrile and 20 % 582 water) followed a column wash in 95% B (5 min) and re-equilibration in 2% B (15 583 min). The RSLCnano system was coupled to a Q-Exactive HF mass 584 spectrometer equipped with nanospray Flex ion source (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 585 MA, USA) and controlled using Xcalibur 4.1 software. Spray voltage was set to 586 2.0 kV, heated capillary temperature set at 250 °C and S-lens RF level set to 50. 587 MS1 scans (370-1500 m/z) were acquired at 60,000 resolution with an AGC 588 target of 3 x 10e6 and a maximum fill time of 100 ms. MS2 scans (200-2000 m/z) 589 were acquired at 15,000 resolution in data-dependent mode using a Top15 590 method, with an AGC target of 2 x 10e5 and a maximum fill time of 28 ms. An 591 isolation width of 1.4 m/z was used, and normalized collision energy for HCD set 592 to 27eV. 593

594 **Database searching and protein quantitation**

data files imported into MaxQuant version Raw were 1.6.5.0 595 (http://maxguant.org/) (Cox & Mann, 2008) and MS2 spectra were searched 596 using the Andromeda search engine against protein database for *Campvlobacter* 597 jejuni NCTC 11168 comprising 1625 entries (downloaded from UniProt on 598 5/11/2018). Default settings for protein identification by Orbitrap MS/MS were 599 600 used, with the match-between-runs function enabled. Mass error tolerances were set to 20 ppm then 4.5 ppm for initial and main peptide searches, respectively, 601 602 and 0.5 Da tolerance was used for fragment ions. Carbamidomethyl modification of cysteine, variable methionine oxidation and a maximum of two missed 603 cleavages were allowed. A false discovery rate of 0.01 was used for both peptide-604 spectrum matches and protein identification. The MaxQuant proteinGroups.txt 605 output file is presented in Supplemental Table XXX. The mass spectrometry 606 proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via 607 the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier XXXXXXX. [Reviewer 608 account details: reviewerXXXXXX@ebi.ac.uk; password] 609

610 Statistical analysis

Spectronaut protein quantitation data, uniport protein designations and NCBI 611 accession numbers, were uploaded into Perseus software version 1.6.14.0 612 (Tyanova et al 2016) for further data processing and statistical analysis. Label-613 free quantitative (LFQ) protein values were first log2(x) transformed then protein 614 groups were filtered to include proteins detected in a minimum of 70% of the 615 samples, with remaining missing values imputed from the normal distribution of 616 LFQ values according to Perseus default settings. ANOVA was conducted with 617 an S0 of 0.1 and an FDR of 0.05, to select for proteins that were significantly 618

different between treatment groups. Differences between treatment groups were assessed using principal component ordination analysis (PCO) in Primer 7 software (Primer-E, Auckland, New Zealand). For this the intensity values for individual proteins across the replicates were deployed in a matrix and Euclidean distances calculated. Venn diagrams were generated using InteractiVenn (Heberle et al. 2016).

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626

627 **Results**

Campylobacter jejuni NCTC 11168 grown to early stationary growth phase 628 and under O₂ limitation was assessed for pH tolerance-associated responses 629 using proteome analysis. The incubation time used for biomass generation place 630 the cells in the early stationary growth phase as a result responses measured 631 here mostly link to pH stress and the consequences of physiological adjustments 632 above and beyond that obtained already by stationary growth adaptation. A total 633 of 885 proteins were utilised for further analysis (Table S1). This represented 634 56% of the total potential proteome of strain NCTC 11168. The protein 635 abundance dynamic range achieved was approximately 10⁴. From calculations 636 (Wiśniewski et al. 2014) based on the ratios of the MS spectral intensities the 637 limit of detection in the study was 15-25 proteins per cell assuming cell volumes 638 were on average 1 μ m³ and protein content was 17%. 639

The abundances of proteins provide a conceptualisation of NCTC 11168 energy and carbon acquisition, expressed levels of stress responsive mechanisms and virulence proteins. These are all relevant for survival in extremes of pH and for host colonisation and survival. The data suggests multiple

energy acquisition approaches are active simultaneously, including in particular 644 catabolism of L-aspartate (AspA) and to a lesser extent L-glutamate, L-glutamine, 645 L-serine and acetate. Besides microaerobic respiration, reduction of fumarate to 646 succinate; and nitrate reduction are also possibly operating simultaneously. 647 Based on the protein abundances respiration is coupled to a range of donors 648 including mainly H₂ (hydrogenase complex), 2-oxoglutarate (OorABC), and 649 650 gluconate (via gluconate 2-dehydrogenase Cj0415/416) though enzymes for other utilisable donors are all relatively abundant i.e. succinate, lactate, malate, 651 652 and formate (van der Stel & Wösten, 2019). The protein abundances also indicate motility seems active due to high presence of flagellin FlaA while 653 oxidative growth is supported by several protective and peroxide remediative 654 proteins including Tpx, Rbr, Dps, CosR, SodB, DnaK, and PEB4. Most virulence 655 proteins are detectable regardless of the pH treatment. 656

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658 **Proteomic landscape of** *C. jejuni* NCTC 11168 grown under alkaline 659 conditions.

The proteome level responses of C. jejuni NCTC 11168 between biomass 660 samples cultured under growth permissive alkaline stress of pH 8.0 versus pH 661 7.0 were examined. An overall comparison of proteomes using PCO analysis(Fig. 662 1) suggests the pH 8.0 proteome has some responses distinctive to acid stress 663 (Fig. 1, PCO2 - 21.3%) though the individual biological replicates show some 664 dispersion suggesting a degree of physiological variation within the early stages 665 of stationary growth phase for some proteins. Most of the variance (PCO1 - 42%) 666 occurs between the proteome datasets occurs for the pH 7.0 and acid stressed 667 proteomes (Fig. 1). 668





Figure 2. Venn diagram showing the number of common and different differentially abundant proteins (>1.5 fold, p<0.05, FDR) from the early stationary growth phase of *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC 11168 grown at pH 5.8 and 8.0 and also exposed to pH 4.0 for 1 h compared to cells harvested from media at pH 7.0. The top Venn diagram shows proteins that have significant (p<0.05, FDR) increases in abundance while the bottom Venn diagram shows the number of shared and unshared proteins that have significantly reduced protein abundance.

It was discerned 15 proteins had >1.5 fold increases (FDR, p<0.05). By 720 comparison 70 proteins show >1.5-fold reduction in abundance. Of the proteins 721 showing increased abundance (Table 1) two proteins are involved in respiration 722 (HydA2, NapL) while subunits of methylmenaquinol:fumarate reductase MfrABC 723 (Cj0437-439) also exhibited overall greater abundance. Furthermore, several 724 725 amino synthesis enzymes became more abundant including those for glutamate (GltDB), glutamine (GlnA) and methionine (MetE and both the N-terminal and C-726 727 terminal regions of MetC). Most other responding proteins have unknown function though PurB (adenylosuccinase) and a RecG-like regulator MloB 728 (Cj1552c) both showed some abundance increase. The lion's share of reduced 729 protein abundance responses are linked to critical functions required for rapid 730 growth and fitness including respiration, catabolism, the TCA cycle, cytoplasmic 731 homeostasis and proteostasis, trace metal and phosphorous compound uptake, 732

signalling, motility, adhesion and virulence (Table 1).

734

735 Comparison of acid habituation (growth at pH 5.8) versus acid shock (pH
736 4.0).

The results suggest acid habituation and acid shock, which was established by growth at pH 5.8 and by exposure to media set at pH 4.0, respectively, lead to relatively similar proteomes as shown in the PCO plot (Fig. 1). Most of this similarity was related to proteins with decreased abundance between the two treatments (Fig. 2, Table 1)

When grown at pH 5.8 NCTC11168 exhibited 2.3-2.7-fold increases in the abundance of the two subunits of gluconate 2-dehydrogenase (Cj0415, Cj0416),

however this change was not observed in the acid shock proteome. This highly 744 abundant enzyme enables gluconate to be an electron donor during respiration. 745 Other proteins that also showed greater abundances (1.6 to 2.1-fold) included 746 phosphate uptake subunit proteins PstB and PstS; hydrogenase carbamoyl 747 dehydrogenase HypF required for hydrogenase enzyme maturation (Rowlett et 748 al. 2012), methionine aminopeptidase Map and nitric oxide-inducible globin Cgb. 749 750 Of these only HypF was found to be significantly more abundant in acid shocked cells. Two putative periplasmic proteins of unknown function Cj0425 and Cj1169c 751 752 increased in abundance 2.6 and 3.1-fold in acid shocked cells, respectively. Nether of these proteins showed substantial changes in the pH 5.8 treatment. 753 Cj1169c expression has been previously associated with pH stress (both acidic 754 and alkaline) and is at maximal levels in the logarithmic phase at 42°C (Soumeya 755 et al. 2016). As found with pH 8.0 grown cells proteins showing reduced 756 abundance are linked mainly to catabolic, synthetic and survival processes 757 needed to achieve rapid growth rate and biomass accumulation (in a host 758 759 context).

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Proteins showing opposing responses between alkaline and acidic
 stress.

The comparisons made above highlighted proteins showing opposite trends in differential abundances between growth at pH 5.8 and pH 8.0 relative to pH 7.0 controls. These proteins included gluconate 2-dehydrogenase, cytochrome c protein Cj0037c, cupin family protein Cj0761, NO-inducible globins Cgb and Ctb, and phosphate transport protein PstB. As shown in Fig. 3 the abundance patterns of these proteins suggests these proteins are acid pH-dependent but at the same time are not induced by acid shock for cells in the stationary growth phase.
Alkaline pH dependent proteins which have significantly greater expression at pH
8.0 and also exhibited reduced expression at pH 5.8 compared to pH 7.0 were
not detected

773

774 Discussion

The pH treatments applied in this study had a minor reductive to no effect on cyclopropane-fatty-acyl-phospholipid synthase (Cfa, Cj1183c). This simply could mean the conversion has reached a maximum in stationary growth phase and is not pH stress dependent. Cfa converts C_{18} fatty acids to the cyclopropane form, which are then located within lysophospholipid and other polar lipids. Lysophospholipids containing cyclopropane fatty acids are required by *C. jejuni* for optimal motility under low O₂ conditions (Cao et al. 2020).



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Figure 3. A comparison of the MS intensities of proteins exhibiting an acid pH dependent response in Campylobacter jejuni NCTC 11168 grown to the stationary phase in media adjusted to different pH and also exposed to acid shock. The data is based on 4 biological replicates. Error bars are standard deviations. A membrane rich in cyclopropane fatty acids may naturally impede proton diffusion into cells but have been shown to protect against multiple external stressors (Poger and Mark, 2015) and the protection could be more focused on preventing toxic metabolites (such as solvents, organic acids) entering the cytoplasm than protons (Pini et al. 2009). Further analysis is needed to determine to what extent cyclopropane fatty acids aids *C. jejuni* survival against either pH stress or toxic compound stresses.

Extrusion of H⁺ at the expense of ATP is a common mechanism to maintain 795 796 intracytoplasmic pH homeostasis. Lacking ATP leads to more rapid inactivation by non-thermal stress, especially at higher growth temperatures (Ross et al. 797 2008). Acid stress increases the abundance of the ATPase protein complex in 798 some food-borne pathogens, such as Listeria monocytogenes (Bowman et al. 799 2012). However in this study, growth permissive acid stress reduced the levels 800 of ATP subunits or had no effect suggesting ATPase extrusion is not being 801 activated further in stationary growth phase. Reversal of hydrogenase can like 802 ATPase extrude H⁺ out of the cells. Acid shock was shown to stimulate 803 hydrogenase gene expression transiently in-vitro and in-vivo in C. jejuni NCTC 804 11168 (Reid et al. 2008a). However, in this study the catalytic subunits HydAB 805 showed no change in expression and indeed are highly abundant under all 806 growth conditions. Again this suggest that hydrogenase levels are not further 807 enhanced in stationary growth phase. Some hydrogenase maturation proteins 808 were reduced under acid conditions. HypF and HydA2 did become more 809 abundant (1.7-fold) at ph5.8/pH4.0 shock and pH 8.0, respectively. No evidence 810 exists that hydrogenase assists Campylobacter in maintaining intracytoplasmic 811 pH stability further in stationary growth phase. The increased abundance of HypF 812

and HydA2 is potentially only compensatory, maintaining overall hydrogenaseactivity in cells.

Many genes are transiently expressed in exponentially growing C. jejuni when 815 exposed to sudden acid shock (Reid et al. 2008a). It is likely most of these 816 responses are not acid stress specific but more a response to ATP draw down 817 due to the pH change affecting the chemiosmotic gradient and thus electron 818 819 transport activity. Few genes seem specifically linked to acid stress survival in C. jejuni. Reid et al. (2008b) found only gluconate 2-dehydrogenase Cj0414 and 820 821 Cj0415 transposon mutants had reduced growth over a range of acidic pH (pH 5.0, 5.5, 6.5). Other mutants only generated non-specific responses. It is 822 probable many proteins make indirect contributions to low pH growth fitness and 823 are either expressed constitutively while others attain maximum expression in the 824 early stationary growth phase. 825

Specifically, gluconate 2-dehydrogenase allows C. jejuni to use gluconate as 826 an electron donor during respiration and is necessary for good chicken 827 colonisation (Panjaniappan et al. 2008) possibly by enabling good growth under 828 hypoxic conditions. Cells under hypoxia utilising O₂ likely also use or are at least 829 in a readied state to use nitrate, fumarate, nitrite and other available compounds 830 as electron acceptors. Though the level of O₂ does not seem to affect gluconate 831 dehydrogenase abundance (Guccione et al. 2017) greater expression occurs at 832 42°C (compared to 37°C) and it is also observed to be induced when cells are 833 exposed to poultry and human digesta extracts (Liu et al. 2018). This study 834 confirms a strong acid pH dependent response occurs for Cj0415 and Cj0416 835 protein with abundance about 7.5-fold lower at pH 8.0 as compared to pH 5.8 836 (Figure 3, Table 2). There was no evidence of acid shock affecting abundance 837

levels suggesting the regulatory pathway for Cj0414 and Cj0415 genes is 838 potentially responding to a signal separate to acidity. Other proteins showing acid 839 dependent responses detected in this study could be also relevant but remain to 840 be linked. The haemoglobin-like proteins Cgb and Ctb, both regulated by NssR 841 (Elvers et al. 2005), were found here to have an acid pH dependent expression. 842 Cgb is known to provide nitrosative stress protection converting NO to nitrate 843 844 (Shepherd et al. 2010). The role of Ctb remains less clear and functionality could be impaired due it being truncated; the abundance of Cgb protein was 10.5-fold 845 846 higher at pH 5.8 and 8-fold higher pH 7.0. These proteins were also found to be more abundant in C. jejuni cells exposed to the oxidising sanitiser peroxyacetic 847 acid (Chen et al. 2022) suggesting they may help manage NO and bind O2 848 simultaneously improving fitness at low pH under hypoxia where O₂ may have to 849 be concentrated to better conserve energy via respiration. Interestingly, the 850 regulator NssR was at near detection limits and did not show a pH dependent 851 response suggesting Cqb and Ctb expression could be influenced by other 852 regulatory units. Another member of the NssR regulon, Cj0761, a cupin_RmIC 853 family protein, was also found to have acid pH-dependent expression however 854 other potential members of the NssR regulon were not detected. Cj0761 remains 855 uncharacterised. The Helicobacter pylori homolog HP0902 to Cj0761 has been 856 shown to be linked to host colonisation success (Sim et al. 2016) though specific 857 functionality in *H. pylori* also remains to be determined. All of the non-detected 858 proteins are membrane proteins including two of unknown function (Cj0830 and 859 Ci0851c) while the other is the nickel ion permease NikX (Ci01582c, Howlett et 860 al. 2012). NikZ (Cj1584c), the cognate nickel binding protein also has an acid-pH 861 dependency that is statistically significant though the change is small (p<0.01, 862

FDR; 1.27-fold increase at pH 5.0, 0.67-fold change at pH 8.). Since the *nik* operon is immediately adjacent to Cgb a possible regulatory and/or function connection is possible. Other potentially acid pH-dependent proteins (Table 2) were found but the degree of difference between treatments was smaller and more uncertain.

Though intestinal pH can be relatively alkaline (up to pH 8.5), alkaline pH 868 869 adaptation has not been studied specifically in Campylobacter (Kim et al. 2020). The classic active mechanisms for protecting intracytoplasmic pH from 870 871 increasing to growth preventative levels includes: 1) ATPase proton uptake, 2) synthesis and/or uptake of acidic metabolites especially organic acids and acidic 872 amino acids, and 3) proton uptake via an exchange antiporter typically with export 873 of small ions such as Na⁺, K⁺, Li⁺ or Ca²⁺ (Padan et al. 2005). In this study there 874 was no observed increases of ATPase subunit proteins at pH 8.0. Again this may 875 simply suggest the ATPase complex has reached a maximum abundance in 876 stationary growth phase and H⁺ uptake could be actually occurring. NhaA 877 homologs (Cj1654c, Cj1655c), which is used in E. coli as a rapid response 878 against alkaline shock, were instead undetectable. There was no evidence 879 transporters taking up acidic organic solutes, L-glutamate or L-aspartate were 880 more abundant, several were below detection limits, for example DcuA and 881 DcuB. Several amino acid uptake systems were decreased at pH 8.0 (Table 1). 882 It was determined L-glutamate (GltDB), L-glutamine (GlnA) and L-methionine 883 (MetE, MetC') synthesis enzymes had a 1.7-2.0-fold increased expression in 884 cells grown at pH 8.0. Under alkaline conditions the production of sulfide is also 885 enhanced in Campylobacter hyointestinalis (Ma et al. 2007), possibly due to 886 MetE/MetC activity. Whether the same occurs in C. jejuni requires confirmation 887

but this activity could also reduce intracytoplasmic pH due to sulfide being a weak 888 acid (pKa 7.0). Glutamate accumulation may offset consumption of L-aspartate 889 since AspA is highly abundant and would result in production of ammonia while 890 the other product fumarate could be accumulated before being respired and 891 converted to succinate and other acidic metabolites in the TCA cycle. There was 892 an observed modest increase in the abundance of HvdA2 (1.8-fold) an alternative 893 894 small subunit for hydrogenase. It is possible this increase is compensatory for the overall hydrogenase activity but increased conversion of molecular hydrogen 895 896 to protons could also offset encroaching alkalinity, especially in locations such as the human small intestine where hydrogen-producing (and consuming) bacteria 897 are common (Smith et al. 2018). Hydrogenase abundance is very high so may 898 act in a capacity like that of ATPase. Further analysis of a range of alkaline 899 conditions relevant to host systems seems warranted to deepen knowledge of 900 how C. jejuni survives long term in avian and mammalian GI tracts. 901

902

903 Conclusions

The results obtained confirmed the presence of a set of proteins that respond 904 specifically to acidic stress in C. jejuni NCTC 11168. Though alkaline stress 905 responses seem limited further research, especially focusing on the metabolism 906 of C. jejuni, including what amino acids and organic acids are preferentially 907 accumulated and degraded would be useful in better understanding responses 908 to alkaline pH. This was suggested by the possible adjustments to amino acid 909 accumulation and fumarate respiration associated with growth at pH 8.0. Under 910 growth permissive acidic stress proteins in the NssR regulon may help bolster 911 access to O₂ in hypoxic conditions and guard against host defences in particular 912

NO, thus promoting GI tract colonisation. Gluconate also appears to be an 913 important potential electron donor in the GI tract due to acid pH- and growth-914 dependent expression of gluconate 2-hydrogenase. Gluconate has been 915 suggested as a prebiotic, either added directly (Tsukahara et al. 2002) or 916 indirectly (Zhao et al. 2022) but there is the potential increased levels of gluconate 917 availability may promote C. jejuni survival and colonisation. Further work is 918 needed to link gluconate availability and C. jejuni in vivo survival and determine 919 whether this connection can be exploited to reduce C. jejuni populations in 920 921 poultry.

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1058

pН рΗ pН 4.0 5.8 **Protein description Function** 8.0 Locus shock Fold change (log 2):^a Glutamate synthase (NADPH) Ci0007 +0.84glutamate synthesis large subunit GltD DUF262 domain-containing +1.16^b Ci0008 protein Cj0008 unknown Glutamate synthase (NADPH) Cj0009 +1.01 small subunit GltD glutamate synthesis cytochrome C-type haembinding periplasmic protein Cj0265c +0.56Cj0265c electron transport/respiration Putative cytochrome C551 defence. resist peroxide-Cj0358 +0.59peroxidase Cj0358 induced cellular stress Putative periplasmic protein Cj0425 +1.79Cj0425 unknown Methylmenaquinol:fumarate electron transport/respiration; Cj0437 +0.96reductase MfrA fumarate reduction Methylmenaquinol:fumarate electron transport/respiration; Cj0438 +0.61iron sulfur subunit MfrB fumarate reduction electron transport/respiration: Methylmenaquinol:fumarate Cj0439 +1.08reductase subunit MfrC fumarate reduction ABC-type phosphate Cj0613 substrate binding protein PstS +0.76phosphate uptake electron transport/respiration, Cj0622 +0.85+0.87Carbamoyltransferase HypF hydrogenase +0.75 Cj0699c glutamine synthesis Glutamine synthetase GInA Ribosome maturation factor ribosome maintenance/assembly/maturation Cj0712 +0.64RimM Putative ArsC family protein Cj0717 +0.70Cj0717 detoxification Putative periplasmic protein electron transport/respiration, Ci0784 +0.76 NapL nitrate reduction Putative periplasmic protein Cj0879c +0.55+0.52Cj0879c unknown membrane bound ATPase Cj1005c Cj1005c +0.92unknown Putative periplasmic protein Ci1169c unknown +1.63Cj1169c cobalamin-independent Cj1201 +0.61 methionine synthase MetE methionine synthesis Putative iron-binding protein Cj1224 Cj1224 iron uptake/carrier +0.54RHH_3 domain-containing Cj1225 +0.63 +1.15protein Cj1225 unknown **DNA-directed** RNA RNA polymerase, Cj1273 +0.77polymerase subunit omega RpoZ transcription Putative periplasmic protein +0.55 Cj1372 +0.59Cj1372c unknown cystathionine beta-lyase, N-Cj1392 +0.96 terminus MetC methionine synthesis cystathionine beta-lyase, C-Cj1393 +1.08terminus MetC methionine synthesis Cj1394 +0.90Adenylosuccinate lyase PurB purine synthesis Ni/Fe-hydrogenase electron transport/respiration, small +0.84 Cj1399c subunit HydA2 hvdrogenase LOS, capsule, flagella-related Putative carbohydrate synthesis: O-methyl methyltransferase +0.70Cj1419c +0.66phosphoramidate synthesis Cj1419c Uncharacterized protein Cj1514c +0.78 Ci1514c unknown uncharacterized RecG-like Cj1552c +0.60 transcriptional regulator MIoB regulator, role unknown aminopeptidase metabolism, Methionine peptide <u>+0</u>.85 Cj1651c Map methionine provision

Table 1. Differentially abundant proteins of *Campylobacter jejuni* NCTC 11168 determined to have differential abundances between cultures grown (or exposed) to acidic or alkaline pH relative to neutral pH (pH 7.0) controls.

0:4740-	3-isopropylmalate	branched chain amino acid		. 0.55	
Cj1718C	dehydrogenase LeuB	synthesis		+0.55	
	Disulphide bond formation	disulfide bond formation and			
Cj0017c	protein Dbsl	maintenance	-1.43	-1.36	-0.54
Cj0019c	Putative MCP-domain signal transduction protein DocA	signalling, required for caecal colonisation	-1.32	-1.36	
Cj0020c	Cytochrome C551 peroxidase DocB	defence, resist peroxide- induced cellular stress	-0.55		-0.85
Cj0021c	(FAA) hydrolase family protein	unknown			-0.93
Cj0073c	L-lactate dehydrogenase complex protein LldG	aerobic/anaerobic respiration; lactic acid catabolism			-0.64
Cj0074c	L-lactate dehydrogenase iron- sulfur protein LldF	aerobic/anaerobic respiration; lactic acid catabolism			-0.64
Cj0089	Putative lipoprotein Cj0089	unknown	-1.41	-1.23	-0.89
Cj0091	outer membrane lipoprotein	regulation of peptidoglycan synthesis	-1.28	-1.24	-0.57
Ci0102		aerobic/anaerobic respiration;	1 00	1 05	
Cj0103	ATP synthase subunit b AtpF ATP synthase epsilon subunit	aerobic/anaerobic respiration;	-1.00	-1.05	
Cj0108	AtpC	ATP synthesis	-0.59	-0.54	
Cj0113	Peptidoglycan-associated protein Pal	outer membrane, cell division	-0.84	-1.23	
Ci0115	isomerase SlvD	protein folding, protein disaggregation/protein rescue	-0.62		-0.80
Ci0124a	Putative membrane protein		1 20	1 07	0.75
CJ0124C	Outer membrane protein	Unknown	-1.39	-1.27	-0.75
Cj0129c	assembly factor BamA Putative peptidase M23 family	outer membrane assembly	-0.58	-0.72	
Cj0131	protein Cj0131	peptide metabolism	-1.59	-2.27	
	Putative methyl-accepting				
Cj0144	protein Cj0144	signalling, chemotaxis	-1.31	-1.41	-0.70
Ci0147c	Thioredoxin TrxA	disulfide bond formation and maintenance	-0.76		-1.23
Ci0152c	Putative membrane protein			_1 12	
6j01520	Superoxide dismutase Fe-	defence, oxidative stress		-1.12	
Cj0169	type SodB	management			-1.11
Ci0183	Putative integral membrane protein with haemolysin domain	unknown, not associated with	-1 79	-1 27	
0,0100		naemolysis	-1.75	-1.21	
Cj0238	Putative mechanosensitive ion channel family protein Ci0238	osmotic pressure homeostasis	-1.70	-1.86	-0.73
Ci0239c	NifU family iron-sulfur cluster assembly scaffold protein Ci0239c	Fe-S cluster assembly	-0.55		-1.13
Ci0240c	Cysteine desulfurase IscS	Fe-S cluster assembly	-0.54		-1.09
	Putative methyl-accepting				
Ci0262c	chemotaxis signal transduction	signalling chemotavis	-1 63	-1 60	-1 10
0]02020	Putative transmembrane	Signalling, chemotaxis	1.00	1.00	1.10
Cj0268c	protein Cj0268c	unknown	-0.78	-1.02	
Cj0287c	elongation/cleavage factor GreA	transcription related	-0.69	-0.60	-0.91
Cj0289c	Peb3	adhesion/virulence		-0.88	
	ABC-type molybdenum				
Cj0300c	ModC	molybdate uptake	-1.01		-1.26
Ci0303c	ABC-type molybdate	malubdata ustaka			-0 37
Ci03030	Substrate-binding protein ModA		1 66	_1 51	-2.31
6,0310	Fiageliar M-ring protein FilF	thioredoxin-dependent	-1.00	-1.31	-0.08
0:000.4	Alkyl hydroperoxide	peroxiredoxin, oxidative stress	0.00	0.44	4 00
CJ0334	reductase C AhpC	management	-0.80	-0.44	-1.00

	Outer and the second				
Cj0365c	protein CmeC	toxic substance efflux	-1.16	-1.40	
Cj0366c	Efflux pump membrane transporter CmeB	toxic substance efflux	-1.51	-1.47	-0.53
Cj0367c	periplasmic fusion protein CmeA	toxic substance efflux	-1.43	-1.42	-0.72
Cj0371	UPF0323 family lipoprotein Ci0371	regulates chemotaxis by interacting with CheV	-0.85	-1.57	
Ci0393c	Malate:quinone	electron transport/respiration, malate oxidation			-0.77
Cj0396c	Putative lipoprotein Cj0396c	unknown	-0.75	-1.04	•
Ci0397c	Uncharacterized protein Ci0397c	unknown	-0.88	-1.09	
Ci0404	Putative transmembrane	unknown	-0.97	-1 20	
Cj0406c	Putative lipoprotein Cj0406c	unknown	-1.10	-1.28	-0.66
Ci0427	Uncharacterized protein	unknown			-1.05
Cj0441	Acyl carrier protein AcpP	fatty acid synthesis	-0.69		-1.22
Ci0481	Putative dihydrodipicolinate	L-lysine synthesis			-1.48
Ci0483	Putative altronate hydrolase	fucose utilisation?, truncated			_1 49
Ci0495	Putative oxidoreductase			0.56	4.02
Cj0465	CJ0485 Butativa lipopratain Ci0497	fucose utilisation	-1 65	-0.56	-1.92 -0.91
	Putative histidine triad (HIT)		1.00	_1.70	0.01
0:0500	peptidoglycan	unknown	4.00	-1.22	4.00
Cj0508	transglycosylase PbpA Putative periplasmic protein	peptidoglycan synthesis	-1.08	-1.78	-1.30
Cj0515	Cj0515 Isocitrate dehvdrogenase	unknown	-1.24	-1.49	-0.58
Cj0531	[NADP] Icd	TCA cycle			-0.71
Cj0532	Malate dehydrogenase Mdh SuccinateCoA ligase	TCA cycle			-0.54
Cj0533	subunit beta SucC	TCA cycle			-0.87
Cj0534	subunit alpha SucD	TCA cycle			-0.90
Cj0536	2-oxogiutarate:acceptor oxidoreductase OorA	TCA cycle			-0.80
Cj0538	2-oxoglutarate:acceptor oxidoreductase OorC	TCA cycle			-0.65
Cj0547	Flagellar protein FlaG	motility, flagella shaft			-1.14
Cj0554	Uncharacterized protein Cj0554	unknown			-0.77
Cj0556	Putative amidohydrolase family protein Cj0556	unknown			-0.60
Ci0559	thioredoxin reductase	disulfide bond formation and maintenance			-0.64
Ci0612c	Bacterial non-heme ferritin	iron homoostasis	-0 98	-0 84	-0.92
Ci0622	Hydrogenase isoenzymes	electron transport/respiration,	0.00	0.04	_0.02
0;0000	Hydrogenase isoenzymes	electron transport/respiration,			-0.97
Cj0626	formation protein HypE checkpoint GTP-binding	hydrogenase			-0.61
Cj0650	protein EngB DUF3972 domain-containing	cell division			-0.61
Cj0703	protein Cj0703 Magnesium, transport, protein	unknown	-0.68	-0.67	-1.09
Cj0726c	CorA	magnesium uptake	-0.96	-1.04	
	ABC-type amino acid transport substrate binding protein				·
Cj0734c	CjaC Aspartate aminotransferase	amino acid uptake L-aspartate catabolism, L-	-1.20	-1.54	-0.55
Cj0762c	AspB	arginine synthesis			-0.63
0:0770		peroxiredoxin, oxidative stress			0.00
Cj0779	Thiol peroxidase Tpx	management			-0.82

	1				
Ci0817	ABC-type glutamine substrate binding protein GInH	alutamine uptake			-0.56
Cj0835c	Aconitate hydratase B AcnB	TCA cycle			-1.06
Ci0808	Putative histidine triad (HIT)		-0.65		-0.06
Ci0912c	Custaina synthese B CusM	unknown, signalling?	-0.05		-0.90
0,09120	Cysteine synthase B CysM	cysteine synthesis			-0.94
Cj0921c	system substrate-binding protein Peb1A	amino acid uptake; adhesion/virulence			-0.73
	ABC-type amino acid				
Cj0922c	Peb1C	amino acid uptake			-0.72
Cj0950c	Putative lipoprotein Cj0950c	unknown	-0.99	-0.90	
Cj0956c	MnmE	tRNA processing/modification	-0.99	-1.33	-1.17
Ci0982c	ABC-type amino-acid transporter substrate-binding	amino acid untoko	-1 56	-1 49	-0 95
Ci0983			-1 31	-1 11	-0.00
Ci0995	GTP cyclobydroloco II PibA	riboflovin synthesis	-1.51	-1.11	-0.93 -1 03
0,0000	Ycel family periplasmic				-1.00
Cj0998c	protein Cj0998c	unknown	-0.70	-0.71	-0.57
0:4007-	Putative mechanosensitive	osmotic pressure	4 70	4.00	0.74
CJ1007C	ion channel family protein Cj1007c	homeostasis	-1.76	-1.28	-0.74
0:1012-	Putative cytochrome C	electron transport/respiration,	4 40	4.45	
Cj1013C	biogenesis protein Cj1013c	cytochrome C biogenesis	-1.43	-1.15	0.04
CJ1026C	Putative lipoprotein Cj1026c Outer membrane lipoprotein	unknown	-1.30	-1.71	-0.94
Cj1029c	MapA	outer membrane associated	-1.33	-1.74	-1.20
Cj1033	component of efflux system CmeF	unknown substance	-0.69	-0.92	
Ci1093c	Protein translocase subunit SecD	general secretion system	-1.74	-1.17	-0.76
Ci1106	Putative periplasmic	disulfide bond formation and	-1 10	-0 02	-0.67
	ATP-dependent zinc	maintenance	-1.10	-0.52	-0.07
Cj1116C	metalloprotease FtsH UDP-N-acetyl-alpha-D-	cell division LOS, capsule, flagella-related	-1.65	-1.08	-0.50
Cj1120c	glucosamine C6 dehydratase PgIF	carbohydrate synthesis	-1.58	-1.79	-0.90
Cj1170c	kinase CjtK/Omp50	signalling, posttranslational modification	-0.95	-1.44	
Cj1171c	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase Ppi	protein folding	-0.55		-0.84
Ci1176c	Sec-independent protein translocase protein TatA	Twin arginine system protein secretion		-1.16	
0:11020	Cyclopropane-fatty-acyl-				0.50
CJ1183C	phospholipid synthase Cfa	tatty acid synthesis			-0.59
Ci1104-	reductase cytochrome C subunit		_1 12	4 45	0 00
Ci1104C	Petu Outeehrenze h Durb	oxidative phosphorylation	-1.13	-1.10	-0.03
611000	Ubiquinol-cytochrome c	oxidative phosphorylation	-1.41	-1.13	-1.00
Cj1186c	reductase iron-sulfur subunit PetA	oxidative phosphorylation			-0.64
Cj1190c	response protein CetA	signalling, chemotaxis	-1.21	-1.26	
Cj1219c	Putative periplasmic protein Cj1219c	unknown	-1.51	-2.00	-0.60
Ci1250	Major outer membrane porin	adhesion/virulanca	-0.64	-1 07	
01200	Putative peptidase M23 family		0.04	-1.07	
Cj1275C	protein Cj1275c fibronectin-binding lipoprotein	peptide metabolism			-0.55
Cj1279c	FlpA	adhesion/virulence	-1.04	-1.49	
	Biotin carboxyl carrier protein				
Cj1291c	of acetyl-CoA carboxylase AccB	fatty acid synthesis	-0.78		

Cj1304	Putative acyl carrier protein AcpP3	fatty acid synthesis			-1.07
Cj1308	Putative acyl carrier protein Cj1308	unknown	-1.12	-0.93	-1.52
Cj1357c	Nitrite reductase (cytochrome; ammonia-forming) NrfA	electron transport/respiration, nitrite reduction	-0.77	-1.54	
Cj1358c	Cytochrome c-type protein NrfH	electron transport/respiration, nitrite reduction	-1.12	-1.57	
Cj1382c	Flavodoxin FldA	electron transport/respiration	-0.90		-1.25
Cj1445c	Capsule polysaccharide export system inner membrane protein KpsE	LOS lipid A/sugar core synthesis	-0.78	-0.96	-0.52
Cj1478c	binding protein CadF	adhesion/virulence	-0.81	-1.20	-0.59
Cj1487c	Cbb3-type cytochrome c oxidase subunit CcoP	electron transport/respiration, Cytochrome C oxidase	-1.53	-1.94	-1.25
Cj1489c	Cb-type cytochrome C oxidase subunit II CcoO	electron transport/respiration, Cytochrome C oxidase		-0.62	
Cj1503c	proline dehydrogenase/delta- 1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate dehydrogenase	proline metabolism (and possible catabolism)		-0.68	-1.05
Cj1506c	transduction protein Cj1506c	signalling, chemotaxis	-1.54	-1.41	-0.69
Cj1509c	Formate dehydrogenase, cytochrome B subunit FdhC	aerobic/anaerobic respiration	-1.43	-1.59	-1.15
Cj1523c	CRISPR-associated endonuclease Cas9	foreign DNA defence, CRISPR		-0.73	
Cj1534c	Ferritin-like protein Dps	iron homeostasis	-1.13	-0.77	-0.86
Cj1537c	Acetyl-coenzyme A synthetase Acs	acetate catabolism		-0.66	-1.89
Cj1540	ABC-type tungstate substrate-binding protein TupA	tungsten uptake			-1.20
Cj1541	5-oxoprolinase subunit A PxpA	glutathione metabolism			-1.10
Ci1542	Allophanate hydrolase subunit 1 Ci1542	defence, glutathione metabolism		-0.53	-1.87
Cj1543	Allophanate hydrolase subunit 2 Ci1543	defence, glutathione metabolism			-0.95
Cj1564	Putative methyl-accepting chemotaxis signal transduction protein Cj1564	signalling, chemotaxis	-1.32	-1.38	-0.66
Cj1571c	NADH-quinone oxidoreductase subunit I Nuol	electron transport/respiration, NADH synthesis			-0.57
Cj1584c	ABC-type system nickel binding protein NikZ	nickel uptake			-0.57
Cj1611	30S ribosomal protein S20 RpsT	ribosomal proteins	-1.26	-1.41	-0.84
Cj1626c	Putative periplasmic protein Cj1626c	unknown			-2.21
Cj1639	NifU family protein, putative FeS cluster assembly scaffold protein	Fe-S cluster assembly	-0.81	-0.43	-0.50
Cj1663	Putative ABC-type phosphonate transport ATP- binding protein Cj1663	phosphonate uptake			-0.71
Cj1666c	Putative periplasmic protein Cj1666c	unknown		<u>-1</u> .37	
Cj1680c	Putative periplasmic protein Cj1680c	unknown			-0.87
Cj1682c	Citrate synthase GltA	TCA cycle			-1.25
Cj1694c	30S ribosomal protein S14 type Z RpsZ	ribosomal proteins	-0.82	-0.60	-1.90

^aBlank cells include data that is not significant (p>0.05) and below a 1.5-fold (≤0.52 log 2 ratio) change threshold.

^bValues in bold are significant after false discovery rate adjustment (p<0.05, FDR). Non bold values have not passed FDR assessment.

			рН		
			4.0	рН	рН
locus	Protein description	Function	shock	5.8	8.0
				Fold change	e (log 2):
Cj0037c	Putative cytochrome C Cj0037c	electron transport/respiration		0.54	- 1.42
Cj0414	Gluconate 2-dehydrogenase gamma chain Cj0414	electron transport/respiration, gluconate oxidation		1.43	- 1.45
Cj0415	Gluconate 2-dehydrogenase alpha chain Cj0415	electron transport/respiration, gluconate oxidation		1.26	- 1.65
Cj0465c	Group 3 truncated haemoglobin Ctb	oxygen flux management		0.55	- 0.81
Cj0616	ABC-type phosphate import ATP-binding protein PstB	phosphate uptake		0.67	- 0.96
Cj0761	Uncharacterized protein Cj0761	unknown		1.15	- 0.95
Cj1586	Single domain haemoglobin Cgb	oxygen flux management		1.02	- 1.69

Table 2. Proteins exhibiting acid pH-dependent responses but not induced rapidly by acid shock

4. CAPÍTULO II

4.1 Manuscrito 2- Alternative methods for control of thermophilic *Campylobacter* in poultry

Manuscrito de revisão a ser submetido ao periódico *Food Research International* - Fator de Impacto 7.425 e Qualis A1 na Área de Ciência de Alimentos

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ABSTRACT

In the last decade, *Campylobacter* has been the main pathogen associated with foodborne diseases worldwide. This is a pathogen closely related to poultry, and chicken meat consumption is estimated to be responsible for up to 69% of campylobacteriosis cases, highlighting the need to develop infection control strategies. *Campylobacter* has acquired resistance to major clinically significant antimicrobials in the last years, compromising the effectiveness of antimicrobials treatments. The rise in bacterial resistance and the demand for antibiotic-free products has led to the search to the several alternative pathogen control measures in animal reservoirs. Some of the strategies that have been researched are the use of natural compounds extracted from different plant sources, in addition to some effective measures, such as the use of natural compounds extracted from plants, probiotics and bacteriophages in order to reduce *Campylobacter* loads both pre- and post-harvest. This review analyzed and critically discussed 87 scientific articles on alternative methods of controlling thermophilic *Campylobacter* in poultry, as well as their probable mechanisms of action.

Keywords: *Campylobacter jejuni*; control strategies; antibiotic resistance; bacteriophage; essential oil; probiotics.

Introduction

Campylobacter spp. is the mainly pathogen that cause foodborne gastroenteritis in the world (EFSA, 2021). Human campylobacteriosis is caused by the thermophilic *Campylobacter* species: *C. jejuni, C. coli, C. lari*, and *C. upsaliensis* (Ramires et al., 2020b). This disease is usually associated with eating raw or undercooked chicken meat and with cross-contamination of foods consumed in natura, with chicken meat being the most important source of campylobacteriosis, with an estimated 65–69% of human cases (Ravel et al., 2017). Birds, particularly poultry, are natural reservoirs of these bacteria in their intestines and are often asymptomatic (CDC, 2021; Kleinubing et al., 2021).

Antimicrobial resistance raises concerns around the world (Rodríguez-Baño et al., 2021; Watkins & Bonomo, 2020), and there are increasing reports of antimicrobial resistance in *Campylobacter* (García-Sánchez et al., 2019; Kleinubing et al., 2021; Ramires et al., 2020b; Wieczorek et al., 2020). According to the CDC (2019), drug-resistant *Campylobacter* is classified as a serious threat, highlighting the resistance to ciprofloxacin, which has doubled in the last 20 years (CDC, 2019). Another important fact is the increasing isolation in several countries of *Campylobacter* carrying the *ermB* gene, which represents a major problem as it confers resistance to macrolides, widely used in the treatment of campylobacteriosis (Chen et al., 2018; Florez-Cuadrado et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2014; Y. Wang et al., 2014). Excessive use of antimicrobials in poultry production is bacteria (Kousar et al., 2021). Due to the threat to public health, the use of antimicrobials in poultry production has become more restricted (CDC, 2019). With an increasing demand for antibiotic-free and organic chicken, novel antimicrobial approaches are desired, that are safe, effective, and environmentally friendly.

Natural antimicrobial products are isolated from different sources: animal sources such as lysozyme (egg, milk), lactoperoxidase (milk), lactoferrin (milk), chitosan (crustaceans); plant sources and their essential oils (EOs) and extracts; and microbial sources such as natamycin, nisin, other bacteriocins, fermentation metabolites, protective cultures, bacteriophages (Davidson et al., 2015; Možina et al., 2018). Taking into account the vast potential offered by natural antimicrobial compounds, there is increasing research on the effectiveness of constituents derived from plants and animals, as well as from bacteria and fungi (Silvan et al., 2019). Nonetheless, studies with this approach in *Campylobacter* are scarce and difficult to find in the literature, probably due to the specific requirements needed for work with this pathogen (Silvan et al., 2019).

Since the decrease in *Campylobacter* colonization in poultry is able to reduce human exposure to the pathogen (Richards et al., 2019). It is estimated that it would be possible to reduce the risk of campilobacteriosis in 90% by reducing the load of *Campylobacter* spp. in poultry intestines by 3 logs, and even a 1 log reduction in carcasses would reduce the risk between 50 and 90% (EFSA, 2011). Therefore, this review will emphasize the control of thermophilic *Campylobacter* through natural compounds: EOs and plants extracts, probiotics and bacteriophages.

2. Natural compounds derived from plants with activity to inhibit thermophilic *Campylobacter*

Compounds that act by inhibiting the inflammatory action of pathogens, collaborate to the maintaining of the integrity of the host's intestinal epithelium and downregulating some bacterial virulence factors (Balta et al., 2021). In recent years numerous studies have shown that *Campylobacter* species are susceptible to a wide variety of EOs (Table 1). The potential of antibacterial activity of natural compounds against *Campylobacter* spp. it is not new (Friedman et al., 2002; Smith-Palmer et al., 1998). On the other hand, the knowledge about which stages of the pathogenesis are affected and especially which genes are down regulated is still little known.

Kovács et al. (2019) verified, for the first time, the anti-*Campylobacter* effect of Peppermint Essential Oil (PEO), evaluating 190 *C. jejuni* clinical isolates from humans and four reference strains (NCTC 11168, RM1221, 81-176, 81116). After 24 h of microaerobic incubation, untreated cells showed a turbidity area of 32.67 ± 3.21 mm, while *C. jejuni* cells treated with a sublethal 50 μ g.mL⁻¹ PEO concentration had an area of 13.33 ± 4.04 mm. No swarming was observed in cells inoculated into Soft agar medium containing 150 μ g.mL⁻¹ PEO.

Essential Oils	References
Thyme	Agrimonti et al. (2019); Clemente et al. (2020); Lin et al. (2018); Navarro et al. (2015); Thanissery et al. (2014)
Clove	Kovács et al. (2016); Navarro et al. (2015); Thanissery et al. (2014)
Garlic	Clemente et al. (2020); Navarro et al. (2015)
Lemon	Clemente et al. (2020); Fisher & Phillips (2006); Navarro et al. (2015)
Lemon Grass	Clemente et al. (2020); Navarro et al. (2015)
Lemon Myrtle	Kurekci et al. (2013, 2014)
Cardamom	Mutlu-Ingok (2018)
Onion	Clemente et al. (2020)
Oregano	Agrimonti et al. (2019); Aslim et al. (2007); Clemente et al. (2020); Navarro et al. (2015)
Rosemary	Clemente et al. (2020); Navarro et al. (2015); Piskernik et al. (2011); Thanissery et al. (2014)
Sage	Navarro et al. (2015)
Eugenol	Johny et al. (2008); Navarro et al. (2015); Wagle et al. (2019)
Carvacrol	Johny et al. (2008); Nair et al. (2015); Navarro et al. (2015); Shrestha et al. (2019); Wagle et al. (2019); Windiasti et al. (2019)
Thymol	Epps et al. (2015); Johny et al. (2008); Navarro et al. (2015)
Orange	Fisher & Phillips (2006); Nannapaneni et al. (2009); Thanissery et al. (2014)
Cinnamon	Agrimonti et al. (2019); Ahmed et al. (2018); Cui et al. (2021)
Coriander	Duarte et al. (2016)
Linalool	Duarte et al. (2016)
Bergamot	Fischer & Phillips (2006)

Table 1 . Studies reported in the literature evaluating the use of essential oils to control *Campylobacter* spp.

The bacterial adhesion process in *Campylobacter* spp. play a fundamental role in the colonization and maintenance of the pathogen in the environment, through the production

of biofilm (Klančnik et al., 2018). A recent study showed the potential of using bioactive juniper extracts as a new antimicrobial and anti-adhesion alternative against *C. jejuni* (Klančnik et al., 2018). It is noteworthy that the juniper fruit crude extract was very effective in inhibiting *C. jejuni* adhesion at concentrations that do not affect *C. jejuni* growth. These authors report that this may limit the *C. jejuni* biofilm formation, its persistence in food processing areas and its transmission through the food chain. Klančnik et al. (2018) also still demonstrated the potential activity of the juniper fruit crude extract in reducing the adhesion of *C. jejuni* in co-cultures with *Listeria monocytogenes*, another important foodborne pathogen.

An interesting study evaluated the potential for inhibiting the adhesion and invasion of *C. jejuni* by a wild strain of *Lactobacillus casei* and a genetically modified *L. casei* strain (LC^{+mcra}) , which produced large amounts of conjugated linoleic acid (CLA). In addition, the authors evaluated the interference of adding a prebiotic (peanut flour) (Tabashsum et al., 2018). *Lactobacillus casei* with peanut flour or LC^{+mcra} alone significantly reduced the *C. jejuni* adhesion and invasion capacity in both cell lines evaluated, HD-11 and HeLa.

Salaheen et al. (2014), evaluated the interference of peanut fractions (prebiotic) on the growth of *L. casei* in co-culture with *C. jejuni*. The author described that, probably, the high content of oleic acid found in peanuts stimulated the growth of *L. casei* causing the probiotic to competitively exclude adhesion of *C. jejuni* to INT407 cells. The decrease in the adesion rates of *C. jejuni* was significant when the ratio of *L. casei* and *C. jejuni* was 1:1 in the co-infection assay. The authors suggest that this reduction in the adhesion capacity of *C. jejuni* to INT407 cells occurs by competition for fibronectin receptors, present on the surface of the host cells, since both *L. casei* and *C. jejuni* express proteins on the surface of their cells membranes, capable of binding to fibronectin.

Oregano EO has shown potential as an antimicrobial against *C. jejuni*. Clemente et al. (2020) evaluated nine EOS and verified that the oregano EO showed the highest inhibitory activity (MIC 62.5 μ g/mL). In the agar disk-diffusion test, the oregano EO promoted complete inhibition of growth of all four *C. jejuni* strains tested (Clemente et al., 2020). A similar result was obtained by Navarro et al. (2015), with the oregano EO showing the best anti-*Campylobacter* activity. Clemente et al. (2020) also studied the effect of the combination between oregano EO and pulsed electric fields (PEF), however, no synergic effect was observed with this association. Another study tested the ability of oregano EO to inhibit ciprofloxacin-resistant *Campylobacter* isolates (*C. jejuni*, *C. coli* and *C.lari*), with MIC results varying among the isolates (MIC ranging from 7.8 to 800 μ g/mL) (Aslim & Yucel, 2008) emphasizing the anti-*Campylobacter* action of oregano EO.

The anti-*Campylobacter* activity of thyme EO was evaluated by Navarro et al. (2015), which presented MIC values of 0.006%. Clemente et al. (2020) had tested the thyme EO action against *Campylobacter* strains evaluating the MIC, MBC and the agar diffusion assay. The results obtained by Clemente et al. (2020) indicate the anti-*Campylobacter* potential of thyme EO, with MIC (for the four *C. jejuni* tested in the study) of 250 μ g/mL, MBC of 250 μ g/mL (for three *C. jejuni* isolates) and 500 μ g/mL (for only one strain tested). The results were in agreement with those obtained in the agar diffusion assay, where there was 100% inhibition of *Campylobacter* growth for all strains tested.

It is important to emphasize that not always when there is a reduction in the capacity of adhesion and invasion in vitro, there will necessarily be a reduction in the expression of genes involved in these processes. In a study that assessed the capacity of blackberry and blueberry pomace extract to inhibit the adhesion and invasion of *C. jejuni* in cell lines, it was observed that the reduction in the ability of *C. jejuni* to invade DF1 cells was >75% and >30%, respectively. In INT407 cells, the invasion ability of *C. jejuni* was also reduced

similarly, nearly 79% in the presence of blackberry, and nearly 52% in the presence of blueberry pomace extracts.

2.1 Mode of action of essential oils and plant extracts against thermophilic *Campylobacter*

The use of EOs as an alternative to synthetic antimicrobials is an increasing trend nowadays. Plant EOs are aromatic oily liquids which can be obtained by expression, fermentation, enfleurage, extraction, or steam distillation from different parts of plants (Burt, 2004). It has been reported that the antimicrobial activity of EOs is generally due to phenolic and terpenoid as well as aliphatic compounds (Bendiabdellah et al., 2013; Lv et al., 2011). It is generally believed that EOs act mainly against the microbial cytoplasmic cell membrane. The hydrophobicity is an important characteristic of EOs and their components which enables them to accumulate in cell membrane, disturbing the structures and causing an increase in permeability. Leakage of intracellular constituents and impairment of microbial enzyme systems can then occur (Bajpai et al., 2013), and extensive loss of cellular content will cause microbial cell death (Lv et al., 2011).

The increase in relative conductivity demonstrate that the bacterial cell membrane became permeable at different levels after treatment with EOs, indicating a complete release of electrolytes out of the cell by cellular leakage. Likewise, a significant increase in optical density at 260 nm is observed when cellular constituents are released, revealing loss of cell membrane integrity. Irreversible damage to cytoplasmic membranes is indicated by detecting cellular constituents, like proteins and some essential molecules (Lv et al., 2011; Mutlu-Ingok et al., 2019).

ATP is used for many cell functions including transport of substances across cell membranes. The increase in extracellular ATP levels after treatment with OEs indicates that these compounds released ATP out of cells, probably due to damage to the cellular envelope induced by Eos (Turgis et al., 2009). Depletion of ATP levels causes impairment of essential processes in the cell, which can lead to cell death, as ATP has several cellular functions that are necessary for growth, replication, and survival in living organisms (Mutlu-Ingok & Karbancioglu-Guler, 2017).

Kovács et al. (2019) verified that when *C. jejuni* was exposed to PEO, the stress response that was generated was more similar to a general stress response rather than an oxidative stress response, suggesting that cytoplasmic membrane disruption and leakage were not the major antibacterial mode of action of this EO. The response observed was an impaired ability to swarm, downregulation of certain virulence-associated genes, and elongated cell morphology, in contrast to the rounded cell morphology typically observed under oxidative stress conditions.

In addition to the use of EOs, active components of EOs have also been studied. For example, carvacrol is the active component of oregano oil. A recent study in vitro aiming to verify the mechanism of action of carvacrol against *C. jejuni*, demonstrated that this compound attenuates *C. jejuni* by decreasing motility, attachment, quorum sensing, and tolerance to stress. In addition, liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry analysis revealed modulation of selected proteins that could potentially contribute to impaired colonization factor function in *C. jejuni* (Wagle et al., 2020).

The antimicrobial effect of plant extracts depends on several variables such as extract composition, concentration of bioactive compounds, and the solvent used in the extraction process. The mechanisms of action have been mainly associated to membrane damage and enzymatic inhibition, i.e., ATP synthase activity, provoking the inhibition of energy metabolism (Bezek et al., 2016; Silvan et al., 2017, 2019). The antibacterial activity of a grape seed extract (GSE) was evaluated against different *Campylobacter*

strains, demonstrating the strong capacity of the GSE to inhibit *Campylobacter* growth. The phenolic profile of GSE mainly consisted on flavonols, phenolic acids, catechins, proanthocyanidins, and anthocyanins. The analysis of the antibacterial activity of the collected fractions against *C. jejuni* showed that phenolic acids, catechins and proanthocyanidins were the main responsible for the antimicrobial activity (Silván et al., 2013). Blackberry and blueberry pomace extracts significantly reduced the growth of *C. jejuni* and altered the bacterial physicochemical properties such as cell surface hydrophobicity and auto-aggregation capacity of this bacterial pathogen (Salaheen et al., 2014). There are several studies evaluating the anti-*Campylobacter* activity of EOs and plant extracts, however more studies on their mechanism of action are required to understand how these compounds work and their potential use for the control of *Campylobacter* spp. by the food industry.

3. Probiotics for the control of thermophilic Campylobacter in poultry

Probiotics, especially lactic acid bacteria (LAB), are important in reducing zoonotic bacterial pathogens from the gastrointestinal tract of poultry and may also improve overall health and prevent disease in these animals (Abd El-Hack et al., 2022)(Abd El-Hack et al., 2022). The main mechanisms against colonization and infections by pathogen are to stimulate host immune responses and to secrete peptides, proteins and other metabolites, as well as to competitively block receptor-mediated attachment of pathogens to the epithelial cell surface (Tabashsum et al., 2018). Therefore, the aim of many studies is to reduce the infectious load in chickens, thus also decreasing the pathogens load, and consequently, reducing the impact on consumers health (Baffoni et al., 2017). Most research focuses on the action of probiotic bacteria as competitors of *Campylobacter* (Baffoni et al., 2017; Mortada et al., 2020; Saint-Cyr et al., 2017; Smialek et al., 2018; C.

Wang et al., 2020), preventing the adhesion, and consecutively the invasion of these pathogens.

The inhibitory effect of six Lactobacillus spp. against C. jejuni was studied in vitro by Taha-Abdelaziz et al. (2019). Both the neutralized cell-free supernatant and Lactobacilli spp. cell culture inhibited the growth of C. jejuni. Additional experiments demonstrated that when C. jejuni was exposed to Lactobacilli spp. exhibited down-regulation of genes responsible for motility (flaA, flaB and flhA) and invasion (ciaB), as well as reduced production of quorum sensing detection molecule AI-2. However, one species, L. reuteri, was ineffective in down-regulating the C. jejuni virulence genes, showing that not all Lactobacilli spp. act in the same way. Baffoni et al. (2017), evaluated the administration of Bifidobacterium longum subsp. longum PCB133 combined with a prebiotic (xylooligosaccharide) in an in vivo broiler experiment, with two different administration times: starting from the first day of life and from the 14th day of life of the broilers. These authors concluded that the administration of probiotic+prebiotic was able to reduce cecal colonization of Campylobacter spp.. Furthermore, they found that the earlier the administration, the more effective it is. The most controversial issue concerns the economic aspect, as lifetime supplementation is undoubtedly more expensive, and farmers may be discouraged from using these additives. On the other hand, Saint-Cyr et al. (2017), artificially contaminated 30 broilers with C. jejuni by oral gavage added with a bacterial suspension of Lactobacillus salivarius SMXD51, at 14 and 35 days of age. On day 14, the comparison between the control and treated groups showed a significant reduction of 0.82 log in *Campylobacter* loads, while after 35 days, a significant reduction of 2.81 log was obtained.

Smialek et al. (2018) evaluated the feasibility of reducing the infection rate of *Campylobacter* spp. in broilers by the addition of multispecies probiotics (*Lactococcus*

lactis, *Carnobacterium divergens*, *Lactobacillus casei*, *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Saccharomyces cerevisae*) to the broilers feed. The authors observed that the multispecies probiotic product was able to reduce the extent of invasion of the intestinal tract of broilers by *Campylobacter* spp. and, consequently, reduce the level of contamination in the environment of the broilers, which ended up contributing to the improvement of the hygienic parameters of the carcasses of the analyzed broilers.

In another study, Mortada et al. (2020) performed in vitro and in vivo experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of commercial feed additives based on probiotics and organic acids (OA) for the reduction of *C. coli*. Probiotic strains (*Lactobacillus reuteri, Pediococcus acidilactici, Bifidobacterium animalis,* and *Enterococcus faecium*) significantly inhibited the growth of *C. coli* in vitro, while in vivo there was no significant reduction (Mortada et al., 2020). More research are needed on *Campylobacter* spp. and control strategies using probiotics still need to be thoroughly studied and standardized. The use of probiotics is a potential alternative to reduce the infectious load of thermophilic *Campylobacter* in poultry, having applications in different production conditions and diets, as well as providing some benefits for alternative poultry management results (Jeni et al., 2021).

3.1 Mode of action of probiotics against thermophilic *Campylobacter* in poultry

Probiotics are beneficial microorganisms that have many health-promoting functions for a host (Tang & Lu, 2019). One of the strategies aimed at reducing the carriage of *Campylobacter* spp. among poultries includes the use of probiotic microorganisms that compete with pathogenic bacteria for colonization of the gut. The administration of probiotics is advantageous as compared to other strategies that aim to eliminate unwanted microbiota (e.g., vaccination, antimicrobial treatment, or chemical disinfection), as they are easy to administer and inexpensive to produce, as well as because they may persist in the animal (Nowaczek et al., 2019).

Probiotic may eliminate unfavorable microbiota by several possible mechanisms, including production of inhibitory substances, such as organic acids, bacteriocins, blocking of adhesion sites on intestinal epithelial surfaces, competition for nutrients, and stimulation of immunity. These beneficial properties are largely dependent on their prolonged residence in the gastrointestinal tract and are dictated by their adherence to the intestinal mucosa (Lebeer et al., 2008).

The lactic acid disrupts the membrane of *C. jejuni* and is responsible for inhibiting the growth of these bacteria *in vitro* and for reducing their intestinal colonization in chickens (Bratz et al., 2015; Neal-McKinney et al., 2012; Nowaczek et al., 2019; Y. Wang et al., 2014). Some probiotics are known to produce bacteriocins that act antagonistically against intestinal pathogens. Bacteriocins are small peptides of bacterial origin that exhibit anti-bacterial activities by disrupting bacterial membrane.

Anti-*Campylobacter* bacteriocin treatment could be an effective strategy to reduce the *C. jejuni* load in broilers. Probiotic bacteria isolated from intestinal tract of poultry have already shown an inhibitory effect against thermophilic *Campylobacter*, some of which had their bacteriocins purified and characterized, among them *Lactobacillus salivarius* SMXD51 (Messaoudi et al., 2012), *L. salivarius* NRRL B-30514 (Stern et al., 2006; Stern et al., 2008), and *L. curvatus* DN317 (Zommiti et al., 2016).

The control of *Campylobacter* by probiotic strains depends not only on production of antimicrobial substances, but also on the ability of these strains to adhere to the intestinal epithelium. The adhesion mechanism involves passive forces, electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions, as well as specific bindings dependent on bacterial surface adhesins. Several studies have reported a positive correlation between hydrophobicity of probiotic strains and their adhesion to epithelial cells, as well as the reduction of adhesion and invasion efficacy of *C. jejuni* in these cells (Baffoni et al., 2017; Mortada et al., 2020; Nowaczek et al., 2019; Tabashsum et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2014).

Research shows that probiotics are usually administered in broilers in order to colonize the intestine and maintain intestinal microbial balance promoting a competitive exclusion of pathogenic bacteria, through competition by attachment sites and nutrients, causing reduction and inhibition of *Campylobacter* growth (Baffoni et al., 2017; Mortada et al., 2020; Smialek et al., 2018). Different *Lactobacillus* strains can modulate the immune system by increasing serum pro-inflammatory cytokine levels, antibodies and chicken macrophage phagocytosis (Brisbin et al., 2015; Saint-Cyr et al., 2017). Saint-Cyr et al. (2017) administered *L. salivarius* SMXD51 in 30 broilers artificially contaminated with *C. jejuni* by oral gavage and verified slight effects on the gene expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the cecal tonsils of these animals. These authors showed that a 4 h treatment with *L. salivarius* SMXD51 enhanced IL-8 and K60 gene expression in avian LMH cells. The application of probiotics in anti-*Campylobacter* therapy in the poultry production system is a promising and growing field capable of reducing food contamination by this important pathogen.

4. Bacteriophages as a control of thermophilic Campylobacter in poultry

Due to the rising concern with antimicrobial resistance, phage therapy has attracted renewed attention as a potential therapy to combat pathogens including *Campylobacter* species (Kittler et al., 2013; Nafarrate et al., 2021; Richards et al., 2019). It is known that phage isolation is more efficient in samples where the host bacterium is incident, and the broiler production chain and the broilers themselves are the most suitable type of sample for phage isolation against thermophilic *Campylobacter*, because there is high level of

contamination of this pathogen (Furuta et al., 2017). Phage cocktail is the name for a mixture of several phages and has the advantage of broadening the general range of bacteria susceptible to phage infection (Haines et al., 2021; Steffan et al., 2022). There is still a need for research and advances in the characterization and selection of Campylobacter phages, because there is no active phages against all Campylobacter spp. strains. The use of phage cocktails is necessary for effective control of thermophilic Campylobacter in poultry and consequently in food and its derivatives. It is known that the combination of phage cocktails prevents bacterial resistance to phages, increasing the range of susceptible Campylobacter strains (Furuta et al., 2017; Steffan et al., 2022). Besides, Kittler et al. (2013) showed the positive effects of phage administration to broilers via drinking water 1 to 4 days before slaughter. This treatment led to a reduction of Campylobacter spp. counts up to 3.2 log CFU in cecal content compared to the control. In another study, a reduction of 1.68 log CFU/g of C. jejuni in samples of artificially contaminated chicken meat was obtained, after 48 h of storage at refrigeration temperature (4 °C), suggesting that bacteriophages also can be used as a postharvest biocontrol agent (Thung et al., 2020). Richards et al. (2019), used a mixture of two Campylobacter phages to treat chickens experimentally infected with C. jejuni and observed considerable reduction in Campylobacter counts in the intestinal tract throughout the 5-day treatment period, however the most obvious difference was seen 2 days after starting treatment. The use of bacteriophages against *Campylobacter* spp. is an effective alternative, due to its specificity and promising results, since a number of commercial phage-based products are now available to apply on animal products and ready-to-eat foods (Richards et al., 2019).

4.1 Mode of action of Bacteriophages against thermophilic *Campylobacter* in poultry

Bacteriophages (phages) are bacterial viruses that can infect and lyse bacterial cells. Phages depend on bacteria to replicate, so it is essential that they survive in the environment until they find their bacterial host. The mechanism of action of bacteriophages against *Campylobacter* is common to all bacterial cells, however, it is noteworthy that bacterial phage infection is determined by specific receptors on bacterial surfaces (Janež & Loc-Carrillo, 2013).

Campylobacter phages specifically infect *Campylobacter* strains and do not affect the natural intestinal microbiota of poultry (Richards et al., 2019). Most *Campylobacter* phages have a contractile tail and belong to the *Myoviridae* family (Nowaczek et al., 2019). Based on DNA sequence analysis *Campylobacter* phages are further subdivided into the genera *Firehammerviruses* and *Fletcherviruses* (Javed et al., 2014). Phages belonging to the genus *Firehammerviruses* infect *C. coli* and *C. jejuni* and recognize their hosts through the flagellum, while phages of the genus *Fletcherviruses* infect only *C. jejuni* and bind to the host's capsular polysaccharides (Zampara et al., 2017). According to Carvalho et al. (2010), when the aim is to control thermophilic *Campylobacter* in general, without identifying the species (*C. jejuni* or *C. coli*), the use of a phage cocktail containing both genera is considered the best choice. Steffan et al. (2022), showed that a mixture of phages from the two genera is better for practical applications against *C. coli* and *C. jejuni* than using only just one phage genus.

After finding the bacterial host, the absorption phase begins, which occurs initially by a reversible binding, followed by irreversible bacteriophage binding and transfer of the bacteriophage genome to the host, which typically take place rapidly after collision between a bacteriophage particle and a bacteriophage-susceptible bacterium. Bacteriophage replication within the bacterial cell and release of bacteriophage progeny, are dependent on the metabolic status of the bacterial cell (EFSA, 2009).

Conclusion

It is evident the importance of controlling thermophilic *Campylobacter* in the broiler production chain in order to obtain a significant reduction in cases of human campylobacteriosis. The use of natural compounds is a potential tool for this control and also to combat one of the biggest concerns worldwide, which is bacterial resistance to antimicrobials. Despite the existence of a wide range of studies that prove the effectiveness of natural compounds against thermophilic *Campylobacter*, more studies are still needed in order to better understand how these compounds actually act to inhibit the growth of the pathogen. In addition, it is also necessary to invest in improvements for the use of these compounds in the control not only in broiler production systems, but also in the steps of food processing.

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5. Perspectivas Futuras

Em função dos resultados obtidos na proteômica, observou-se a importância de se avaliar a expressão de alguns genes relacionados à virulência de *C. jejuni*, sob diferentes condições de estresse ácido. Os resultados referentes a esses experimentos ainda não foram concluídos e analisados, muito em função da pandemia de Covid-19, que dificultou o acesso aos laboratórios e atrasou o andamento dos experimentos. Após a análise e interpretação criteriosa dos resultados obtidos, o manuscrito será submetido a um periódico de alto fator de impacto na área de Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos.

5.1 Expressão gênica de isolados de *Campylobacter jejuni* representativos da cadeia produtiva de frangos de corte do sul do Rio Grande do Sul

5.1.1 Seleção dos isolados

No total, a bacterioteca do Laboratório de Microbiologia de Alimentos da FAEM/UFPel, conta com 29 isolados de *C. jejuni*, distintos genotipicamente, provenientes de diferentes etapas da cadeira produtiva de frangos de corte. A fim de se obter um isolado representativo de cada etapa da cadeia produtiva (granja, abatedouro e cortes cárneos de frango), foram realizados experimentos para verificar quais isolados suportariam melhor o estresse ácido. Os isolados selecionados constam na Tabela 2.

Isolado	Etapa da Cadeia		
100	Cortes cárneos de frango		
198	Abatedouro		
230	Granja		

Tabela 1. Identificação dos isolados de *Campylobacter jejuni* utilizados nos experimentos de estresse ácido

5.1.2 Expressão Gênica

Os experimentos visam avaliar a transcrição dos genes *ciaB*, *cdtA*, *cdtB* e *cdtC*, sob interferência de diferentes valores de pH ácido. O RNA dos três isolados selecionados e da cepa *C. jejuni* ATCC 33291 foi extraído e quantificado. No total, obteve-se o RNA para sintetizar o cDNA (*cdtC*) de 16 amostras (3 isolados + ATCC, submetidos a 4 valores de pH), os quais foram submetidos à qPCR e os dados relativos a esse gene estão prontos para serem analisados (Figura 2).



Figura 2. Gráficos gerados após a reação em cadeia da polimerase em tempo real, relativos às 16 amostras (3 isolados + controle, submetidos a 4 valores de pH), referentes à amplificação dos genes ciaB (A), cdtA (B), cdtB (C) e cdtC (D)
6. Considerações Finais

Os resultados obtidos no presente estudo confirmam a presença de um conjunto de proteínas que respondem especificamente ao estresse ácido em *C. jejuni* NCTC 11168. Embora as respostas ao estresse alcalino pareçam limitadas, pesquisas futuras, especialmente com foco no metabolismo de *C. jejuni*, incluindo quais aminoácidos e ácidos orgânicos são preferencialmente acumulados e degradados seria útil para entender melhor as respostas ao pH alcalino. De acordo com os dados obtidos na literatura, fica evidente o potencial antimicrobiano de óleos essenciais frente a *Campylobacter* termofílicos, sendo necessários mais estudos em busca de aplicações para o controle do patógeno ao longo da cadeia produtiva de frangos de corte.

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