1	Chlamydial clinical isolates show subtle differences in persistence phenotypes and growth
2	in vitro
3	
4	Mark Thomas ^{1,2} , Amba Lawrence ² , Samuel Kroon ¹ , Lenka A Vodstrcil ^{3, 4,5} , Samuel Phillips ⁶ ,
5	Jane S Hocking ⁵ , Peter Timms ⁷ , Wilhelmina M Huston ^{1,2*}
6	
7	¹ School of Life Sciences, Faculty of Science, University of Technology Sydney, Ultimo, NSW,
8	Australia
9	² Institute of Health and Biomedical Innovation, Faculty of Health, Queensland University of
10	Technology, Kelvin Grove, Queensland, Australia (previously located here for this work)
11	³ Central Clinical School, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
12	⁴ Melbourne Sexual Health Centre, Alfred Hospital, Carlton, Victoria, Australia
13	⁵ Centre for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Melbourne School of Population and Global Health,
14	University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia
15	⁶ Murdoch Childrens Research Institute, Parkville 3052, Victoria, Australia
16	⁷ Faculty of Science, Health, Education and Engineering, University of the Sunshine Coast, Sippy
17	Downs, Queensland, Australia
18	*corresponding author: Wilhelmina.Huston@uts.edu.au
19	Keywords: Chlamydia trachomatis, persistence, clinical isolates, iron, penicillin.
20	

21 Abstract

22 Urogenital Chlamydia trachomatis infection is the most common sexually transmitted bacterial 23 infection throughout the world. While progress has been made to better understand how type 24 strains develop and respond to environmental stress *in vitro*, very few studies have examined 25 how clinical isolates behave under similar conditions. Here, we examined the development and 26 persistence phenotypes of several clinical isolates, to determine how similar they are to each 27 other, and the type strain C. trachomatis D/UW-3/Cx. The type strain was shown to produce 28 infectious progeny at a higher magnitude than each of the clinical isolates, in each of the six 29 tested cell lines. All chlamydial strains produced the highest number of infectious progeny at 44 30 h PI in the McCoy B murine fibroblast cell line, yet showed higher levels of infectivity in the 31 MCF-7 human epithelial cell line. The clinical isolates were shown to be more susceptible than 32 the type strain to the effects of penicillin and iron deprivation persistence models in the MCF-7 33 cell line. While subtle differences between clinical isolates were observed throughout the 34 experiments conducted, no significant differences were identified. This study reinforces the 35 importance of examining clinical isolates when trying to relate *in vitro* data to clinical outcomes, 36 as well as the importance of considering the adaptations many type strains have to being cultured 37 in vitro.

39 Introduction

40 Chlamydia trachomatis is an obligate intracellular pathogen and is the most common bacterial 41 sexually transmitted infection (STI) worldwide. There are more than 83,000 Chlamydia 42 infections recorded in Australia each year (1). The pathology and sequelae associated with 43 chlamydial diseases are thought to be associated with the infected individual's inflammatory 44 response and potentially influenced by a number of important host factors (2). In women, 45 chlamydial disease ranges from mild cases of cervicitis, endometritis and salpingitis, to more 46 serious cases of pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), tubal infertility, and life-threatening ectopic 47 pregnancy (3-5).

48 Cases of urogenital *Chlamydia* are treated with either azithromycin or doxycycline. While 49 evidence suggests doxycycline (usually 7 day regimen) is slightly more effective at clearing 50 infection, 1g single-dose azithromycin is often prescribed for its simple one-off treatment dose 51 (6, 7). Azithromycin is a broad-spectrum macrolide antibiotic with a relatively long half-life (40 52 - 68 h), high lipid solubility, and accumulates within macrophages migrating to the site of 53 infection (8, 9). Despite its high efficacy, instances do occur in which monitored women remain 54 infected after treatment. The reasons for this remain unclear, but potential explanations include; 55 reinfection from an untreated partner, chlamydial gastrointestinal colonization and auto-56 inoculation of the cervical site or treatment failure (10, 11). Direct macrolide resistance is 57 generally not considered a probable cause due to the antibiotic's mechanism of action, and the 58 scarcity of clinical isolates with validated genotypic or phenotypic resistance to azithromycin 59 (12-16). Furthermore, mutants created *in vitro* with single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in 60 their 23S rRNA and L4 protein-encoding genes show poor biological fitness and viability (17-61 20), further supporting their emergence in the population is likely to be rare.

62 When combined, *in vitro* and clinical evidence suggests that C. trachomatis rarely survives 63 treatment, which likely reflect both the pathogen and its intracellular niche. One candidate 64 mechanism is chlamydial persistence, which is believed to be a positive and beneficial adaptation 65 unique to the genus *Chlamydia* (21, 22). The persistence phenotype is characterised by several 66 reversible morphological, transcriptional and metabolic changes (23-27). The collective profiles 67 of these changes vary depending on the inducer of persistence; however, the morphologically-68 aberrant chlamydial cells observed during persistence, altered inclusion sizes and the reversible loss of both cultivability and replicative capacity are the universal hallmarks of chlamydial 69 70 persistence (reviewed (28)).

71 Several environmental conditions and exogenous stimuli have been demonstrated to induce 72 chlamydial persistence in vitro (29). Penicillin and IFN-y are two of the most extensively studied 73 of these stimuli, and have both been used to characterise different aspects of the persistence 74 phenotype, as reviewed by Wyrick (30). Use of the iron-chelating agent deferoxamine mesylate 75 has shown that iron restriction not only induces persistence in C. trachomatis, but also alters the 76 pathogen's signaling pathways that modulate host-cell apoptosis (31, 32). Interestingly, IFN- γ 77 also decreases cellular levels of iron in infected cells by downregulating their transferrin receptor 78 expression (33).

Previous investigations into chlamydial persistence have established that type strains have variations in their degree of responsiveness to certain stimuli, and have altered susceptibilities to antibiotics while in the persistent state (34-37). In the present study, we examined the *in vitro* phenotypes of selected clinical isolates of *C. trachomatis* isolated during the Australian *Chlamydia* Treatment Study (ACTS)(11). Their relative abilities to infect and develop in different cell lines were measured, as were their responses to two widely used and 85 physiologically relevant models of *in vitro* chlamydial persistence. Their susceptibility to

86 azithromycin during persistence was also investigated, to better understand whether persistence

87 has implications for treatment with frontline antibiotics when analysed on recent clinical isolates.

88

89 Methods

90 Cell culture and cultivation of *Chlamydia*

91 McCoy B, MCF-7, CACO-2, HeLa, SiHa, and ARPE-19 cell lines (details in Table 1) were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10 % vol vol⁻¹ fetal 92 93 calf serum (FCS; Sigma), 4 mM analyl-glutamine (Sigma), 100 µg ml⁻¹ streptomycin (Life 94 Technologies) and 50 µg ml⁻¹ gentamicin (Life Technologies). A range of cell types available to 95 the study were selected to profile any possible differences in the clinical isolates. All cell lines 96 were incubated at 37 °C in a humid environment containing 5% CO₂. All cell lines were 97 regularly confirmed to be free of *Mycoplasma* contamination using either an in-house PCR, or 98 the MycoalertTM Plus Mycoplasma Detection Kit assay (Lonza). All six clinical isolates used 99 were obtained from the Australian *Chlamydia* Treatment Study (ACTS). This was a cohort study 100 of women diagnosed with and treated for genital Chlamydia (11) to examine factors associated 101 with repeat chlamydia infection. In one case, two isolates from one participant after a repeat 102 positive event were included in the study in the event that they prove to have some detectable 103 difference in persistence phenotypes to analysed here. Isolates were collected from infected 104 women using swabs stored in a 2 ml cryovial tube containing a sucrose-phosphate glutamate 105 (SPG) buffer, at -80°C, and couriered on dry ice. A unique code has been generated to identify 106 each isolate purely for the purposes of this paper.

112	7.4. The five clinical isolates used in this study are shown in Table 2 .
111	consisted of 5 mM glutamic acid, 10 mM sodium phosphate, 250 mM sucrose balanced to pH
110	Stocks were stored and propagated from sucrose phosphate glutamate (SPG) buffer which
109	steps to attain sufficient culture for these experiments (6 to12 passages depending on the isolate).
108	Isolates were cultured from the original cervical swabs from women using a series of culture

Table 1. Mammalian cell lines used in this study						
Name	Cell Type	Origin	ATCC® Code (TM)			
McCoy B	Fibroblast	Fibroblast from Mus musculus	CRL-1696			
MCF-7	Epithelial	Human mammary epithelium	HTB-22			
CACO-2	Epithelial	Human colorectal adenocarcinoma	HTB-37			
HeLa	Epithelial	Human cervical carcinoma	CRM-CCL-2			
SiHa	Epithelial	Human cervical squamous cell carcinoma	HTB-35			
ARPE-19	Epithelial	Human adult retinal pigmented epithelium	CRL-2302			

Table 2. Identification and details of the clinical isolates used in this study.

ACTS code	ompA	Clinical outcome		
(code)	genotype			
600 (1)	K	Repeat infection, first detection		
600 (13)	Κ	Repeat infection, second detection		

620 (1)	D	No repeat infection
628 (1)	E	No repeat infection
649 (1)	Κ	No repeat infection, genotypically close to 600 (1)

115 Infectivity and determination of viable progeny

116 McCoy B, MCF-7, CACO-2, HeLa, SiHa and ARPE-19 cells were cultured in 96-well plates, in 117 triplicates for each condition and experimental analysis conducted. Cells were infected with each 118 of the five clinical isolates and type strain D/UW-3/Cx at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.5. Cultures were immediately centrifuged at $500 \times g$ and 37° C for 30 minutes, then incubated 119 120 under standard conditions (37° C, 5% CO₂). At 4 hours post infection (h PI), the infectious media 121 in each well was replaced with complete DMEM supplemented with 1 µg ml⁻¹ cycloheximide 122 before further incubation. To determine the infectivity of the isolates in each cell line cultures 123 were fixed with 100% methanol at 30 h PI for evaluation by immunofluorescence and 124 microscopy. Infectious progeny counts (inclusion forming units) of each isolate was determined 125 from cultures harvested at 44 and 54-hour time points of infection. Inclusion forming units were 126 determined by serially dilutions of stocks from each of the harvested cultures onto fresh cultures 127 of McCoy B cells, which were fixed at 30 h PI for evaluation by immunocytochemistry.

128 *ompA* genotyping

DNA was extracted from the original swab samples collected (as per the ACTS study protocol) were swirled in 500 µl of PBS solution. A 200 µl aliquot of the swab/PBS homogenate was extracted using the MagNA Pure 96 (Roche Applied Science, Germany) automated system, according to the manufacturer's instructions and utilizing the MagNA Pure 96 DNA and Viral NA Small Volume Kit, and eluted in 100µl in MagNA Pure 96 elution buffer(11).

All *C. trachomatis* genotype determinations utilized a 5µl aliquot of PBS swab homogenate
elution, utilizing a series of qPCR amplification assays targeting the *ompA* gene of *C. trachomatis*as described previously (38).

137

138 Penicillin and iron deprivation persistence models

Persistence models were conducted in MCF-7 cells. 2.5×10^4 MCF-7 cell monolayers cultured 139 140 for 24 h were infected at multiplicity of infection (MOI) 0.8 (slighly higher than the previous 141 cultures due to expected loss of some organisms in the persistence model). Cultures were 142 immediately centrifuged at $500 \times g$ and 37° C for 30 minutes, then incubated under standard 143 conditions (37° C, 5% CO₂, 95% air). At 4 h post infection (h PI), the infectious media in each 144 well was replaced with complete DMEM supplemented with 1 µg ml⁻¹ cycloheximide as well as 145 0, 0.02, 0.05, or 1.0 U ml⁻¹ benzylpenicillin (Pen G). 2,2'-Bipyridyl (Bpdl) was used in 146 accordance with the methods previously outlined by Thomson and Carabeo (doses of -400µM) 147 (39). Cultures were incubated until 44 h PI, where they were harvested stocked in SPG for 148 analysis of inclusion forming units, or washed and media replaced with fresh media without the 149 penicillin or supplemented with FeCl₃ until 96 or 110 h PI of culture and stocked in SPG. The 150 infectious yield of all cultures at each of the time points was determined by infecting serial 151 dilutions of stored stocks into monolayers of McCoy B cells using the standard protocol and 152 cultures were fixed with methanol at approximately 30 h PI, before immunocytochemistry and 153 visualisation by fluorescence microscopy. Cultures for infectivity yields were routinely 154 conducted in 96 or 48 well plates, replicate cultures were conducted in 24 well plates on top of 155 1.5mm coverslips for the cases where fixing, immunocytochemistry and imaging by microscopy 156 to eludicate phenotype was part of the experiment. Azithromycin treatment was conducted to

determine each isolates MICs using the methodology previously outlined (40), each isolates MIC
dose was then used to treat the isolate during and in the absence of the persistence inducing
conditions to evaluate if the isolate's capacity to survive the antibiotic treatment at the MIC
changed by being in persistence.

161 Immunofluorescence microscopy

162 Cultures were fixed with methanol, permeabilized with triton X-100 (0.5%) in Dulbecco's 163 phosphate-buffered saline (dPBS) and blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in dPBS 164 overnight. Once blocked, cultures were then further incubated with dPBS containing 4',6-165 diamino-2-phenyindole (DAPI; 1/40,000) and rabbit sera (1/500) containing antibodies raised 166 against the C. trachomatis high-temperature requirement A (HtrA) protein for 1 h at room 167 temperature (antibody and protocol previously described (41, 42)). Following this, cultures were 168 washed four times with dPBS containing 0.2% tween 20, and then incubated with dPBS 169 containing an Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated goat anti-rabbit antibody (1/600; Thermo Fisher 170 Scientific) for 45 minutes at room temperature. The stained cultures were then washed five times 171 more with the dPBS tween solution. Cultures on 13 mm (No. 1.5) coverslips were stained and 172 labelled using the same process, with the addition of a mouse anti- α -tubulin (1/500; Thermo 173 Fisher Scientific) in the first antibody incubation, and an Alexa Fluor 546-conjugated goat anti-174 mouse antibody (1/600; Thermo Fisher Scientific) in the second incubation. Stained coverslips 175 were mounted to clear glass slides using *n*-propyl gallate (NPG) and sealed using clear varnish 176 around the edge of the coverslip. Stained and labelled plate cultures were visualized and imaged 177 using the Nikon Eclipse Ti-S fluorescent microscope or the GE InCell 3000 high-throughput 178 fluorescent microscope. Coverslips were visualized and imaged using the Nikon Eclipse Ti-E 179 confocal microscope.

180 Data analysis and graphing

181 Raw data was compiled using Microsoft Excel 2010 before being transferred into GraphPad
182 Prism version 8.0.0 for Windows for statistical analysis and graphing with each value and any
183 applicable statistical testing described in the respective figure legends.

184

185 **Results**

186 Clinical isolates differed in infectivity and growth more profoundly than the differences 187 caused by the cell lines

188 Six cell lines were selected, to compare how susceptible they were to infection by four of the 189 clinical isolates, and type strain D/UW-3/Cx (Fig 1.). The human mammary epithelial cell line 190 (MCF-7) was found to result in the highest cell infection levels after exposure to the chlamydial 191 strains for each of the four clinical isolates, with 35-40% of all counted cells becoming infected. 192 Both the retinal cell line (ARPE-19) and cervical carcinoma cell line (SiHa) were observed to 193 have the lowest percentage of infectivity (5-10%) for all four clinical isolates, while the type 194 strain was observed to still have produced inclusions in 25-30% in both these lines. The proposed 195 0.5 infectivity or MOI was calculated from an ifu/ml yield in McCoy B cells. While the type 196 strain showed a similar level of infectivity across the McCoy B, MCF-7, HeLa and SiHa lines, it 197 did show slightly lower levels in CACO-2 and ARPE-19. The same six cell lines used for the 198 infectivity assay were infected and harvested at two timepoints, to determine the number of 199 infectious progeny that had been produced during the developmental period. All four isolates produced the most infectious progeny (IFU ml⁻¹) in the McCoy B cell line (**Fig. 1**). For example, 200 clinical isolate 600(1) grown in McCoy B cells yielded 1.2x10⁶ at 44 h PI, while in HeLa cells, it 201

202	yielded 3.7x10 ⁴ IFU ml ⁻¹ . Similarly, the type strain produced higher levels of progeny in the
203	McCoy B cells (9.8x10 ⁶), in CACO-2 (9.4x10 ⁶), and HeLa cells (7.1x10 ⁶), compared to MCF-7
204	$(1.1x10^6)$, SiHa $(1.9x10^6)$ cells, and ~100-fold fewer in ARPE-19 cells $(5.9x10^4)$. The ARPE-19
205	cell line was also shown to produce the least number of infectious progeny for clinical isolates,
206	with all four showing no detectable progeny. Less variation in the infectivity and infectious
207	progeny production from each of the clinical isolates was observed in the SiHa cell lines
208	compared to the other cell lines (Fig. 1).





212	Figure 1. Infectivity and infectious progeny yield in different cell types for the clinical
213	isolates. The figure shows the inclusion forming units yielded (left y axis) from each isolate
214	(orange indicates yields at 44 h PI and blue indicates yields at 54 h PI) and the % infectivity at 30
215	h PI (right y axis, green bar). Each cell line analysed includes A: McCoy B, B: Hela, C: MCF-7,
216	D: SiHa, E: APRE-19, and F: CACO2. The bars for IFU ml ⁻¹ include a total of n=27
217	representative images to determine the mean of a minimum of n=3 separate experimental
218	replicates, shown with standard deviation. The bars for % infectivity are representative of $n=9$
219	experimental replicates. The data is shown from a single experiment, and is consistent with other
220	attempts at the experiment.
221	

Clinical isolates show similar susceptibilities to conditions of iron deprivation at lower doses than type strain D/UW-3/Cx

224 In order to more closely examine if persistence phenotypes were impacted by *ompA* genotypes, 225 and the known outcomes in participants in the ACTS trial an additional isolate was included in 226 these persistence experiments to have a close genotype to the isolate from a participant that 227 experienced repeat infection. Five clinical isolates and the type strain were cultivated in MCF-7 228 cells, treated with 100, 200 (D/UW-3/Cx only) and 400 μ M bipyridal (Bpdl) ± 100 μ M iron as 229 FeCl₃, with infectious progeny determined at 96 h PI. As seen in Fig. 2A, the type strain was able to recover from up to 100 μ M of Bpdl (7.1x10⁴ IFU ml⁻¹ before recovery) with the 230 supplementation of FeCl₃ into culture $(3.1 \times 10^8 \text{ IFU ml}^{-1} \text{ after recovery})$. The five clinical isolates 231 232 showed lower recovery, even from at lowest dose of Bpdl, as seen in Fig. 2. For example (Fig. **2C**), at the 100 μ M dose of Bpdl with and without recovery, 600(13) yielded 3.1×10^3 and 7.0×10^2 233 IFU ml⁻¹ (near the limit of detection for this assay) respectively. All five isolates produced 234

- 235 infectious progeny in a manner that was dose-dependent, with slightly lower levels of infectious
- 236 progeny present in cultures treated with 400 μ M than those treated with 100 μ M.













240 Figure 2. Iron deprivation related persistence and recovery of the clinical isolates. The 241 graphs show the infectious progeny produced by type strain D/UW-3/Cx (A) and five clinical 242 isolates (B: 600(1); C: 600(13); D: 1-020(1); E: 628(1); F: 649 (1)) in MCF-7 cells treated with 243 Bpdl \pm 100 μ M iron as FeCl₃ for recovery. Each bar represents the mean of three experimental 244 replicates analysed using n=10 separate fields of view from n=3 experimental replicates with 245 error bars showing the standard error of the mean (SEM). Data was analysed by way of a 3-way 246 ANOVA using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.0 for Windows. Significant differences are indicated 247 by **** p<0.0001. The data is shown from a single experiment, and is consistent with other 248 attempts at the experiment.

Treatment with azithromycin during iron deprivation-induced persistence decreases the number of recoverable infectious progeny among clinical isolates

252 Each of the five clinical isolates and the type strain were cultured in MCF-7 cells treated with 253 Bpdl, subsequently treated with azithromycin (Az), and then recovered with supplementation of 254 iron. The azithromycin dose used was the MIC that had been determined for each isolate. The 255 MICs were as follows: 600 (1): 0.032 µg/ml, 600 (13): 0.125 µg/ml, 620: 0.032 µg/ml, 628: 256 0.064 µg/ml; 649: 0.064 µg/ml, and D/UW-3/Cx: 0.064 µg/ml. All strains showed a significant 257 decrease in infectious progeny at 44 h PI when treated with azithromycin, Bpdl, or both (Fig. 3, 258 p<0001). Compared to the untreated control at 44 h PI (5.4x10⁵ IFU ml¹), D/UW-3/Cx showed 259 an impaired ability to recover from the effects of Bpdl when also treated with azithromycin (2.9x10⁴ IFU ml⁻¹), even with iron supplementation (5.0x10² IFU ml⁻¹). Compared to their 260 261 respective untreated controls at 44 h PI (Fig. 3), all five clinical isolates were found to have only 262 slight differences in their resulting infectious yield when treated with the combinations of

263	azithromycin, Bpdl, and FeCl _{3.} For example, the untreated control $600(13)$ culture produced
264	2.2×10^4 compared to only 1.5×10^3 IFU ml ⁻¹ after treatment and recovery. Analysis of the cultures
265	by confocal microscopy showed morphologies consistent with persistence, as inclusions visible
266	were consistent with persistence after treatment with penicillin; and regular development after
267	allowing for recovery from the drug (Fig. 4, representative images from some isolates).
268	
269	













272	Figure 3.	Iron de	privation	induced	persistence and	recovery (of the chlam	vdial isolates.
,	- gui e e e			maacca	persistence and		or the children	J and isolatest

- 273 Infectious progeny (inclusion forming units, y axis) produced by the type strain D/UW-3/Cx (A)
- and five clinical isolates (B: 600(1); C: 600(13); D: 620 (1); E: 628(1); F: 649(1)) in MCF-7 cells
- treated with Bpdl, Az, $\pm 100 \,\mu$ M iron as FeCl₃ for recovery. Azithromycin dose was the MIC for
- 276 the strain; 600 (1): $0.032 \mu g/ml$, 600 (13): $0.125 \mu g/ml$, 620: $0.032 \mu g/ml$, 628: $0.064 \mu g/ml$;
- 277 649: 0.064 µg/ml, and D/UW-3/Cx: 0.064 µg/ml. Each bar represents the mean of three
- 278 experimental replicates analysed using n=10 separate fields of view from n=3 subsequent
- 279 infectivity (passage) wells with error bars showing the standard error of the mean (SEM). Data
- 280 was analysed by way of a 3-way ANOVA using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.0 for Windows.
- 281 Significant differences are indicated by **** p<0.0001, and * p=0.0138. The data is shown from
- a single experiment, and is consistent with other attempts at the experiment.



286 Figure 4. Confocal microscopy of *Chlamydia* cultures during iron-deprivation persistence.

MCF7 cells infected with 620 (1) (top two rows) or type strain D/UW-3/Cx (bottom two rows) were fixed and visualised using immunofluorescence. Active and persistent inclusions containing chlamydial HtrA appears as green, while the host alpha-tubulin appears as red and the host cell nucleus as blue. This images are representatives of observations for each experimental condition.

```
Clinical isolates entered persistence at lower doses of penicillin compared to the type strain
Several doses of penicillin were used to induce persistence in each strain, which was confirmed
by measuring viability before and after recovery from the drug. The data shown in Fig. 5
demonstrates that compared to the untreated controls at 44 h PI, the addition of 0.02 U ml<sup>-1</sup>
```

penicillin slightly impacted the development of each clinical isolate, while the 0.05 U ml⁻¹ and 296 1.0 U ml⁻¹ doses had rendered them non-cultivable. Conversely, only the 1.0 U ml⁻¹ dose caused 297 298 the type strain to enter persistence, with far less pronounced effects than the clinical isolates prevalent at the lower doses. 600(1) and 600(13) produced 2.1×10^6 and 5.5×10^5 IFU ml⁻¹ in their 299 respective untreated cultures, compared to 6.6×10^5 and 8.7×10^4 IFU ml⁻¹ in the cultures treated 300 301 with the lowest dose of penicillin. The type strain exhibited only slightly impacted growth at both the lower doses $(5.0 \times 10^7 \text{ IFU ml}^{-1} \text{ untreated versus } 4.1 \times 10^6 \text{ and } 9.4 \times 10^4 \text{ at } 0.02 \text{ and } 0.05$. 302 303 respectively), and only became non-cultivable at the 1.0 U ml⁻¹ dose. Each of the five clinical 304 isolates and the type strain were able to produce detectable (after recovery) infectious progeny by 305 110 h PI, all to a similar level, even after treatment with 1 U ml⁻¹ of penicillin. Confocal 306 microscopy examination of the morphology of the cultures confirmed the presence of visible 307 forms consistent with persistent or recovered morphology (Fig. 6). Specifically, at 44 and 110 h 308 PI and in the absence of penicillin, each of the five clinical isolates and the type strain showed 309 typical morphologies consistent with regular development. At the same time point, cultures 310 treated with penicillin showed significantly smaller inclusions with enlarged particles inside, 311 morphologies consistent with persistence. Imaging of the cultures at 110 h PI (66 hours after the 312 removal of penicillin from culture) showed inclusions typical of regular inclusions.

313

314

315





318 Figure 5. Enumeration of infectious progeny from penicillin persistence experiments.

319 Inclusion forming units from culture harvested at 44 and 110 h PI are shown on the graph(s). The 320 inclusion forming units per ml (y axis, log scale), and dose of Penicillin (x axis), and recoverable 321 inclusion forming units per ml at 44 h PI (blue bars- during persistence), and 110 h PI (red bars -322 recovery). Data shown represents the mean value of n=3 separate experimental replicates wells 323 with n=10 images analysed from each of n=3 wells, with error bars representative of the SEM. 324 The data is shown from a single experiment and is consistent with other attempts at the 325 experiment. This data was used to select the dose of penicillin G for the next experiments for 326 each isolate and as such was not used for statistical analysis.

327

328





Figure 6. Confocal microscopy of the chlamydial cultures in presence and absence of

332 **penicillin and post recovery.** Active and persistent inclusions containing Chlamydial HtrA

appears as green, while the host alpha-tubulin appears as red and the host cell nucleus as blue.

334 This images are representatives of observations for each experimental condition.

335

336 Clinical isolates treated with azithromycin during penicillin persistence showed a dose-

337 dependent decrease in recoverable infectious progeny

338 To assess whether clinical isolates had altered susceptibilities to azithromycin during persistence,

three clinical isolates and D/UW-3/Cx were cultured in MCF-7 cells and treated with both

340 penicillin and azithromycin. Persistence was induced using 0.05 U ml⁻¹ of penicillin for the three

- 341 clinical isolates and 1.0 U ml⁻¹ for the type strain. At 44 h PI, **Fig 7** shows a complete loss of
- 342 infectious progeny for the penicillin-treated cultures, which was recoverable (albeit reduced) by
- 343 110 h PI. The infectious progeny of the four strains at 44 h PI was also observed to decrease by

up to 100-fold lower when treated with azithromycin alone. In the type strain, this effect was also seen, whereby the recoverable infectious progeny decreased in the presence of azithromycin only, with a complete loss of viability at 44 h PI when both azithromycin and penicillin were added. Although no statistical differences were apparent for any isolates treated with azithromycin during penicillin persistence. It appeared that the recovery of the clinical isolates from persistence was further reduced when treated with azithromycin at the MIC, with two of the isolates (600(13) and 649) appearing to be more impacted by the combination treatment.

351





represents the mean value of n=3 separate experimental replicate wells with an average of n=10 images analysed to input the result for each of n=3 wells, with error bars representative of the SEM. The data is shown from a single experiment, although is consistent with other attempts at the experiment. The p values for the significant different outcomes for the isolates are as follows (left to right): 0.043, 0.099, 0.066, 0.027, 0.0066).

365

366 **Discussion**

367 The susceptibility and growth permissiveness of different cell lines to infection by C. 368 trachomatis enables examination of the host-pathogen relationship (43-46). Such studies 369 frequently find differences between strains in their ability to enter the host cell, and complete 370 their developmental cycle (47). The infectivity of the clinical isolates in the present study was 371 observed to be highest in the MCF-7 cell line, despite the long-standing practice throughout the 372 field of using McCoy or HeLa cells for cultivation and isolation of *C. trachomatis*, especially 373 from clinical samples (48-50). However, the infectious yields were highest in the McCoy B cell 374 line for each of the strains tested. The ARPE-19 cell line was observed to have a very low 375 susceptibility to infection by, and permissiveness of growth to all strains except D/UW-3/Cx, yet 376 was nonetheless able to be infected by each of the strains, even though it is not an epithelial cell 377 type. The inability to detect progeny from this cell line for the clinical isolates may reflect the 378 low yields being below detection of the assay, or that the clinical isolates in these cells are unable 379 to form infectious elementary bodies. Overall, these findings reinforce that there are phenotypic 380 differences between type strains and clinical isolates that likely reflects the adaptation of D/UW-381 3/Cx to growth in vitro (51).

382 Although it has been shown that type strains of C. trachomatis have varying levels of 383 susceptibility to the *in vitro* effects of IFN- γ , fewer studies have examined how different strains 384 respond to penicillin or iron deprivation (52). In this study, we aimed to determine how clinical 385 isolates respond to such conditions. Both were selected on the basis that penicillin has been used 386 widely as a chlamydial persistence model so our findings can be interpreted in light of other 387 studies (37, 53-55); while iron deprivation is potentially a more clinically relevant model when 388 considering the physiology of the female reproductive tract (56-58). Penicillin is known to 389 induce persistence by interacting with chlamydial penicillin-binding proteins (PBPs), while host 390 cell-derived iron is essential for chlamydial development. Both points combined, raise the 391 possibility that genetic variation among infecting strains could result in differing thresholds at 392 which they divert from the regular developmental cycle into persistence. 393 To assess the susceptibility of each strain to penicillin, they were treated with a dose range in 394 MCF-7 cells. None of the clinical strains showed any notable difference in their levels of 395 susceptibility to penicillin persistence, with all entering a viable but non-cultivable state at 0.05 396 U ml⁻¹ of the antibiotic. In contrast, the type strain D/UW-3/Cx remained cultivable up to the 397 maximum dose used, which was 1 U ml⁻¹. A recent study into the effects of beta-lactam antibiotics on C. trachomatis showed that type strain E/UW-3/Cx entered persistence at 0.02 U 398 399 ml⁻¹ of benzylpenicillin (37). Although using different host cells, this suggests there may be

401

400

Similarly, there were no large observed differences in the responses of clinical isolates to the
effects of iron deprivation. In a recent review, Pokorzynski and colleagues postulated a complex

different susceptibilities among type strains.

404 system by which *C. trachomatis* may be able to both passively and actively acquire ferrous and

405 ferric iron from within the host cytoplasm by modulating the hosts own iron trafficking pathways
406 (59). As with other instances of chlamydial persistence, it is possible that strain differences may
407 in turn result in slight differences in the proteins that conduct these functions.

408 The effects of azithromycin were tested on a selection of clinical isolates during both active and 409 persistent development. We observed no differences in the susceptibilities of active and 410 persistent infections, in any of the clinical strains tested. Previous findings by the Caldwell group 411 demonstrate that during IFN-y-mediated persistence, a serovar D type strain of C. trachomatis is 412 significantly more susceptible to azithromycin (60). However, Wyrick and Knight have shown 413 that a serovar E type strain is less susceptible to the same antibiotic during penicillin-mediated 414 persistence (53). This reinforces previous findings that different inducers of persistence produce 415 different phenotypes (61), which likely reflects the physiological stress the inducer places upon 416 C. trachomatis.

417 Collectively these findings show that clinical isolates respond to the effects of penicillin, iron 418 deprivation, and azithromycin in a similar but more pronounced way than type strain D/UW-419 3/Cx. This is important because these are recent clinical isolates, indicating that persistence may 420 occur more frequently and with lower thresholds in vivo. Here we demonstrated that clinical 421 isolates showed subtle variation in thresholds for persistence that may be more distinct and 422 impactful in the complex in vivo environment. These variations may translate into phenotypes in 423 vivo that could relate to heterogenic survival of antibiotic treatment, or different capacities to 424 survive in different tissue niches (e.g. rectal compared to urogenital) that could be relevant for 425 future investigation of chlamydial variation.

426 **Funding information**

427	This study	y and ACTS has	been funded by	a National	Health and I	Medical 1	Research	Council
-----	------------	----------------	----------------	------------	--------------	-----------	----------	---------

428 project grant (APP1023239), awarded to JH, PT, WH, and others.

429 **Conflict of Interest**

430 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

431 Acknowledgements

- 432
- 433 The ACTS investigators including Marcus Y Chen, Karen Worthington, Ruthy McIver, Sepehr
- 434 N Tabrizi, Basil, Donovan, Christopher Fairley, John Kaldor, Malcolm McConville, Anna
- 435 McNulty, David Regan.

436

437 Author Statements

- 438 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.
- 439 MT: Investigation, Writing, original data preparation, and review and editing
- 440 SK: Investigation, Writing, original data preparation
- 441 AL: Investigation, Writing, original data preparation
- 442 LV: Investigation, Writing, original data preparation
- 443 SP: Investigation, Writing, original data preparation
- 444 JH: Supervision, Investigation, Writing, original data preparation, and review and editing
- 445 PT: Supervision, Investigation, Writing, original data preparation, and review and editing

446 WH: Conceptualisation, Supervision, Investigation, Writing, original data preparation, and

- 447 review and editing
- 448

449 Ethical Approval

- 450 Ethical approval for this study was granted by the Alfred Hospital Ethics Committee (HREC No.
- 451 223/12) and the Southern Eastern Sydney Local Health District Human Research Ethics
- 452 Committee (Southern Sector) (HREC No. 12/143).
- 453
- 454
- 455

456 **References**

458 Craig AP, Bavoil PM, Rank RG, Wilson DP. Biomathematical Modeling of Chlamydia 1. 459 Infection and Disease. Intracellular Pathogens I: Chlamydiales: American Society of Microbiology; 2012. 460 461 2. Menon S, Timms P, Allan JA, Alexander K, Rombauts L, Horner P, et al. Human and 462 Pathogen Factors Associated with Chlamydia trachomatis-Related Infertility in Women. Clinical 463 Microbiology Reviews. 2015;28(4):969-85. 464 Callan T, Debattista J, Berry B, Brown J, Woodcock S, Hocking JS, et al. A retrospective 3. 465 cohort study examining STI testing and perinatal records demonstrates reproductive health 466 burden of chlamydia and gonorrhea. Pathogens and Disease. 2020;78. Reekie J, Donovan B, Guy R, Hocking JS, Kaldor JM, Mak D, et al. Risk of ectopic 467 4. 468 pregnancy and tubal infertility following gonorrhoea and chlamydia infections. Clin Infect Dis. 469 2019. 470 5. Reekie J, Donovan B, Guy R, Hocking JS, Kaldor JM, Mak DB, et al. Risk of Pelvic 471 Inflammatory Disease in Relation to Chlamydia and Gonorrhea Testing, Repeat Testing, and 472 Positivity: A Population-Based Cohort Study. Clin Infect Dis. 2018;66(3):437-43. 473 Geisler WM, Unival A, Lee JY, Lensing SY, Johnson S, Perry RCW, et al. Azithromycin 6. 474 versus Doxycycline for Urogenital Chlamydia trachomatis Infection. New England Journal of 475 Medicine. 2015;373(26):2512-21. 476 Kong FY, Tabrizi SN, Law M, Vodstrcil LA, Chen M, Fairley CK, et al. Azithromycin 7. 477 versus doxycycline for the treatment of genital chlamydia infection: a meta-analysis of 478 randomized controlled trials. Clin Infect Dis. 2014;59(2):193-205. 479 8. Zhanel GG, Dueck M, Hoban DJ, Vercaigne LM, Embil JM, Gin AS, et al. Review of 480 macrolides and ketolides: focus on respiratory tract infections. Drugs. 2001;61(4):443-98. 481 Carlier MB, Garcia-Luque I, Montenez JP, Tulkens PM, Piret J. Accumulation, release 9. 482 and subcellular localization of azithromycin in phagocytic and non-phagocytic cells in culture. 483 International journal of tissue reactions. 1994;16(5-6):211-20. 484 Bavoil PM. What's in a word: the use, misuse, and abuse of the word "persistence" in 10. 485 Chlamydia biology. Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology. 2014;4:27. 486 Hocking JS, Vodstrcil L, Huston WM, Timms P, Chen M, Worthington K, et al. A cohort 11. 487 study of Chlamydia trachomatis treatment failure in women: a study protocol. BMC Infect Dis. 488 2013;13(1):379. 489 12. Weisblum B. Erythromycin resistance by ribosome modification. Antimicrobial Agents 490 and Chemotherapy. 1995;39(3):577-85. 491 Shkarupeta MM, Lazarev VN, Akopian TA, Afrikanova TS, Govorun VM. Analysis of 13. 492 antibiotic resistance markers in *Chlamydia trachomatis* clinical isolates obtained after ineffective 493 antibiotic therapy. Bulletin of Experimental Biology and Medicine. 2007;143(6):713-7. 494 14. Bhengraj AR, Srivastava P, Mittal A. Lack of mutation in macrolide resistance genes in 495 Chlamydia trachomatis clinical isolates with decreased susceptibility to azithromycin. 496 International journal of antimicrobial agents. 2011;38(2):178-9. 497 Hong KC, Schachter J, Moncada J, Zhou Z, House J, Lietman TM. Lack of macrolide 15. 498 resistance in Chlamydia trachomatis after mass azithromycin distributions for trachoma. 499 Emerging infectious diseases. 2009;15(7):1088-90.

Ljubin-sternak S, Mestrovic T, Vilibic-cavlek T, Mlinaric-galinovic G, Sviben M, 500 16. 501 Markotic A, et al. In vitro susceptibility of urogenital *Chlamydia trachomatis* strains in a country 502 with high azithromycin consumption rate. Folia Microbiologica. 2013;58(5):361-5. 503 17. Misyurina OY, Chipitsyna EV, Finashutina YP, Lazarev VN, Akopian TA, Savicheva 504 AM, et al. Mutations in a 23S rRNA gene of Chlamydia trachomatis associated with resistance 505 to macrolides. Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy. 2004;48(4):1347-9. 506 Zhu H, Wang HP, Jiang Y, Hou SP, Liu YJ, Liu QZ. Mutations in 23S rRNA and 18. 507 ribosomal protein L4 account for resistance in *Chlamydia trachomatis* strains selected in vitro by 508 macrolide passage. Andrologia. 2010;42(4):274-. 509 19. Binet R, Maurelli AT. Frequency of development and associated physiological cost of 510 azithromycin resistance in Chlamydia psittaci 6BC and C. trachomatis L2. Antimicrobial Agents 511 and Chemotherapy. 2007;51(12):4267-75. 512 Hakynar K, Rantakokko-Jalava K, Hakanen A, Havana M, Mannonen L, Jokela P, et al. 20. 513 The Finnish new variant of *Chlamydia trachomatis* with a single nucleotied polymorphism in the 514 23S rRNA target escapes detection by the Aptima Combo 2 test. Microorganims. 2019;7:227. 515 Bonner CA, Byrne GI, Jensen RA. Chlamydia exploit the mammalian tryptophan-21. 516 depletion defense strategy as a counter-defensive cue to trigger a survival state of persistence. Frontiers in cellular and infection microbiology. 2014;4:17. 517 518 Chacko A, Barker CJ, Beagley KW, Hodson MP, Plan MR, Timms P, et al. Increased 22. 519 sensitivity to tryptophan bioavailability is a positive adaptation by the human strains of 520 Chlamydia pneumoniae. Molecular Microbiology. 2014;93(4):797-813. 521 Beatty WL, Byrne GI, Morrison RP. Morphologic and antigenic characterization of 23. 522 interferon gamma-mediated persistent Chlamydia trachomatis infection in vitro. Proceedings of 523 the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 1993;90(9):3998-4002. 524 Harper A, Pogson CI, Jones ML, Pearce JH. Chlamydial development is adversely 24. 525 affected by minor changes in amino acid supply, blood plasma amino acid levels, and glucose 526 deprivation. Infection and Immunity. 2000;68(3):1457-64. 527 Kokab A, Jennings R, Eley A, Pacey AA, Cross NA. Analysis of modulated gene 25. 528 expression in a model of interferon-gamma-induced persistence of Chlamydia trachomatis in 529 HEp-2 cells. Microbial Pathogenesis. 2010;49(5):217. 530 Matsumoto A, Manire GP. Electron microscopic observations on the effects of penicillin 26. 531 on the morphology of *Chlamydia psittaci*. The Journal of Bacteriology. 1970;101(1):278-85. 532 Belland RJ, Nelson DE, Virok D, Crane DD, Hogan D, Sturdevant D, et al. 27. 533 Transcriptome analysis of chlamydial growth during IFN-gamma-mediated persistence and 534 reactivation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 535 2003;100(26):15971. 536 Wyrick PB. Chlamydia trachomatis persistence in vitro: an overview. Journal of 28. 537 Infectious Diseases. 2010;201 Suppl 2:S88-95. 538 29. Witkin SS, Minis E, Athanasiou A, Leizer J, Linhares IM. Chlamydia trachomatis: the Persistent Pathogen. Clinical and Vaccine Immunology : CVI. 2017;24(10):e00203-17. 539 540 Wyrick PB. Chlamydia trachomatis Persistence In Vitro: An Overview. Journal of 30. 541 Infectious Diseases. 2010;201(Supplement 2):S88-S95. 542 Raulston JE. Response of Chlamydia trachomatis serovar E to iron restriction in vitro and 31. 543 evidence for iron-regulated chlamydial proteins. Infection and Immunity. 1997;65(11):4539-47.

544 32. Dill BD, Dessus-Babus S, Raulston JE. Identification of iron-responsive proteins 545 expressed by *Chlamydia trachomatis* reticulate bodies during intracellular growth. Microbiology. 546 2009;155(Pt 1):210-9. 547 33. Nairz M, Fritsche G, Brunner P, Talasz H, Hantke K, Weiss G. Interferon-gamma limits 548 the availability of iron for intramacrophage Salmonella typhimurium. European journal of 549 immunology. 2008;38(7):1923-36. 550 34. Shima K, Klinger M, Solbach W, Rupp J. Activities of first-choice antimicrobials against 551 gamma interferon-treated Chlamydia trachomatis differ in hypoxia. Antimicrob Agents 552 Chemother. 2013;57(6):2828-30. 553 Reveneau N, Crane DD, Fischer E, Caldwell HD. Bactericidal activity of first-choice 35. 554 antibiotics against gamma interferon-induced persistent infection of human epithelial cells by 555 Chlamydia trachomatis. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2005;49(5):1787-93. 556 Perry LL, Su H, Feilzer K, Messer R, Hughes S, Whitmire W, et al. Differential 36. 557 sensitivity of distinct Chlamydia trachomatis isolates to IFN-gamma-mediated inhibition. Journal 558 of immunology (Baltimore, Md : 1950). 1999;162(6):3541-8. 559 Kintner J, Lajoie D, Hall J, Whittimore J, Schoborg RV. Commonly prescribed beta-37. 560 lactam antibiotics induce C. trachomatis persistence/stress in culture at physiologically relevant 561 concentrations. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2014;4:44. 562 Stevens MP, Twin J, Fairley CK, Donovan B, Tan SE, Yu J, et al. Development and 38. 563 evaluation of an ompA quantitative real-time PCR assay for Chlamydia trachomatis serovar determination. J Clin Micro. 2010;48:2060-8. 564 565 Thompson CC, Carabeo RA. An optimal method of iron starvation of the obligate 39. intracellular pathogen, Chlamydia trachomatis. Front Microbiol. 2011;2:20. 566 Suchland RJ, Geisler WM, Stamm WE. Methodologies and cell lines used for 567 40. antimicrobial susceptibility testing of Chlamydia spp. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 568 569 2003;47(2):636-42. 570 Huston WM, Swedberg JE, Harris JM, Walsh TP, Mathews SA, Timms P. The 41. 571 temperature activated HtrA protease from pathogen Chlamydia trachomatis acts as both a 572 chaperone and protease at 37 degrees C. Febs Letters. 2007;581(18):3382-6. 573 Huston WM, Theodoropoulos C, Mathews SA, Timms P. Chlamydia trachomatis 42. 574 responds to heat shock, penicillin induced persistence, and IFN-gamma persistence by altering 575 levels of the extracytoplasmic stress response protease HtrA. BMC Microbiol. 2008;8:190. 576 43. Fudyk T, Olinger L, Stephens RS. Selection of Mutant Cell Lines Resistant to Infection 577 by Chlamydia trachomatis and Chlamydia pneumoniae. Infection and immunity. 578 2002;70(11):6444-7. 579 Kägebein D, Gutjahr M, Große C, Vogel AB, Rödel J, Knittler MR. Chlamydia 44. 580 trachomatis-Infected Epithelial Cells and Fibroblasts Retain the Ability To Express Surface-581 Presented Major Histocompatibility Complex Class I Molecules. Infection and immunity. 582 2014;82(3):993-1006. 583 Rota TR. Chlamydia trachomatis in cell culture. II. Susceptibility of seven established 45. 584 mammalian cell types in vitro. Adaptation of trachoma organisms to McCoy and BHK-21 cells. 585 In vitro. 1977;13(5):280-92. 586 46. Croy TR, Kuo CC, Wang SP. Comparative susceptibility of eleven mammalian cell lines

to infection with trachoma organisms. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1975;1(5):434-9.

- 588 47. Chen JC, Stephens RS. Trachoma and LGV biovars of *Chlamydia trachomatis* share the
 589 same glycosaminoglycan-dependent mechanism for infection of eukaryotic cells. Molecular
 590 microbiology. 1994;11(3):501-7.
- 48. Sompolinsky D, Richmond S. Growth of Chlamydia trachomatis in McCoy Cells Treated
 with Cytochalasin B. Applied Microbiology. 1974;28(6):912-4.
- 593 49. Ripa KT, Mardh PA. Cultivation of *Chlamydia trachomatis* in cycloheximide-treated 594 mccoy cells. Journal of clinical microbiology. 1977;6(4):328-31.
- 595 50. Sabet SF, Simmons J, Caldwell HD. Enhancement of Chlamydia trachomatis infectious 596 progeny by cultivation of HeLa 229 cells treated with DEAE-dextran and cycloheximide. Journal 597 of clinical microbiology. 1984;20(2):217-22.
- 598 51. Borges V, Ferreira R, Nunes A, Sousa-Uva M, Abreu M, Borrego MJ, et al. Effect of
- 599 long-term laboratory propagation on *Chlamydia trachomatis* genome dynamics. Infection,
- 600 genetics and evolution : journal of molecular epidemiology and evolutionary genetics in 601 infectious diseases. 2013;17:23-32.
- Morrison RP. Differential Sensitivities of *Chlamydia trachomatis* Strains to Inhibitory
 Effects of Gamma Interferon. Infection and immunity. 2000;68(10):6038-40.
- 53. Wyrick PB, Knight ST. Pre-exposure of infected human endometrial epithelial cells to
 penicillin in vitro renders Chlamydia trachomatis refractory to azithromycin. J Antimicrob
 Chemother. 2004;54(1):79-85.
- 54. Lambden PR, Pickett MA, Clarke IN. The effect of penicillin on Chlamydia trachomatis
 DNA replication. Microbiology. 2006;152(9):2573-8.
- 609 55. Carrasco JA, Tan C, Rank RG, Hsia R-c, Bavoil PM. Altered developmental expression
- of polymorphic membrane proteins in penicillin-stressed Chlamydia trachomatis. Cellular
 microbiology. 2011;13(7):1014-25.
- 612 56. LaRue RW, Dill BD, Giles DK, Whittimore JD, Raulston JE. Chlamydial Hsp60-2 Is
- 613 Iron Responsive in Chlamydia trachomatis Serovar E-Infected Human Endometrial Epithelial 614 Colls In Vitro, Infection and immunity, 2007;75(5):2374,80
- 614 Cells *In Vitro*. Infection and immunity. 2007;75(5):2374-80.
- 615 57. Thompson CC, Carabeo RA. An Optimal Method of Iron Starvation of the Obligate
- 616 Intracellular Pathogen, *Chlamydia Trachomatis*. Frontiers in Microbiology. 2011;2:20.
- 617 58. Al-Younes HM, Rudel T, Brinkmann V, Szczepek AJ, Meyer TF. Low iron availability
- modulates the course of Chlamydia pneumoniae infection. Cell Microbiol. 2001;3(6):427-37.
- 619 59. Pokorzynski ND, Thompson CC, Carabeo RA. Ironing Out the Unconventional
- 620 Mechanisms of Iron Acquisition and Gene Regulation in Chlamydia. Frontiers in Cellular and
- 621 Infection Microbiology. 2017;7:394.
- 622 60. Reveneau N, Crane DD, Fischer E, Caldwell HD. Bactericidal Activity of First-Choice
- Antibiotics against Gamma Interferon-Induced Persistent Infection of Human Epithelial Cells by
- 624 Chlamydia trachomatis. Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy. 2005;49(5):1787-93.
- 625 61. Mpiga P, Ravaoarinoro M. *Chlamydia trachomatis* persistence: An update.
- 626 Microbiological Research. 2006;161(1):9-19.

628