Pervasive *Listeria monocytogenes* are common in Norwegian food chains and associated with increased prevalence of stress survival and resistance determinants

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Keywords: *Listeria*; *L. monocytogenes*; *Listeria monocytogenes*; whole genome sequencing; WGS; food processing environment; food safety; meat industry; salmon industry; meat processing; salmon processing; plasmids; stress resistance; stress survival; antibiotic resistance; persistence; pervasive; pervasion; *inlA*

Running title: Pervasive *L. monocytogenes* in Norwegian food industry

Abstract

To investigate the diversity, distribution, persistence, and stress resistome of *Listeria monocytogenes* clones dominating in food processing environments in Norway, genome sequences from 769 *L. monocytogenes* isolates from food industry environments, foods, and raw materials (of which 512 were sequenced in the present study) were subjected to wgMLST, SNP, and comparative genomic analyses. The dataset comprised isolates from nine meat and six salmon processing facilities in Norway collected over a period of three decades. The most prevalent clonal complex (CC) was CC121, found in ten factories, followed by CC7, CC8, and CC9, found in seven factories each. Overall, 72% of the isolates were classified as persistent, showing 20 or fewer wgMLST allelic differences towards an isolate found in the same factory in a different calendar year. Moreover, over half of the isolates (56%) showed this level of genetic similarity towards an isolate collected from a different food processing facility. These were designated as pervasive strains, defined as clusters with the same level of genetic similarity as persistent strains but isolated from different factories. The prevalence of genetic determinants associated with increased survival in food processing environments, including heavy metal and biocide resistance determinants, stress response genes and *inlA* truncation mutations, showed a highly significant increase among pervasive isolates, but not among persistent isolates. Furthermore, these genes were significantly more prevalent among the isolates from food processing environments compared to in isolates from natural and rural environments (n=218) and clinical isolates (n=111) from Norway.

Importance

Listeria monocytogenes can persist in food processing environments for months to decades and

spread through food chains by e.g., contaminated raw materials. Knowledge about the

distribution and diversity of *L. monocytogenes* is of importance in outbreak investigations and

essential to effectively track and control this pathogen in the food chain. The current study

presents a comprehensive overview of the prevalence of persistent clones and of the diversity of

L. monocytogenes in Norwegian food processing facilities. The results demonstrate extensive

spread of highly similar strains throughout Norwegian food chains, in that 56% of the 769

collected isolates from food processing factories belonged to clusters of *L. monocytogenes*

identified in more than one facility. These strains were associated with an overall increase in the

prevalence of plasmids and determinants of heavy metal and biocide resistance as well as other

genetic elements associated with stress survival mechanisms and persistence.

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is a foodborne pathogen responsible for the deadly disease listeriosis.

Cross-contamination of food products with *L. monocytogenes* during processing is a major

concern, especially with regard to ready-to-eat (RTE) products that support growth of the

pathogen prior to consumption. As the pathogen is widespread in natural and urban

environments (1, 2) and able to form biofilms and withstand various stresses such as disinfection

agents, high and low pH, and low temperatures (3, 4), it is very difficult to eliminate *L.*

monocytogenes from food processing environments. Clonal populations of *L. monocytogenes* that

survive in the processing environment over an extended time-period (months or years) are

referred to as persistent *L. monocytogenes*. In contrast, transient *L. monocytogenes* enter the

processing environment but are eliminated through cleaning and disinfection (5, 6). Some authors

also define a category of "persistent transient" *L. monocytogenes* contamination which is a

consequence of continual introduction of one or more subtypes into the processing environment

from outside reservoirs combined with a failure to apply sufficient *Listeria* control measures (7).

The concept of pervasive bacterial strains is sometimes used to describe subpopulations of

bacteria with enhanced ability to spread or migrate to new geographical locations or ecological

habitats (8, 9). This term has not previously been used to describe subpopulations of *L.*

monocytogenes, although the dissemination of persistent strains to more than one food

processing facility is a well-documented phenomenon (10-18).

In a phylogenetic context, *L. monocytogenes* comprises four separate deep-branching lineages,

which are further subdivided into sequence types (STs) and clonal complexes (CCs or clones) by

multilocus sequence typing (MLST) (19). Certain clones such as CC1 and CC4 belonging to lineage

I are commonly associated with clinical disease while others, often belonging to lineage II (e.g.,

CC9, CC121), are frequently found in food processing environments and food, but rarely among

clinical cases (19-21). The underlying causes behind these differences are not fully understood,

but thought to be linked to differences in virulence potential and the ability to survive and

multiply in food processing environments (11, 22-29). An increased capacity for biofilm formation

can contribute to the survival and persistence of *L. monocytogenes* in both natural and food

processing environments (3, 30-32). Resistance to stressors encountered in food processing

environments, e.g., biocides and alkaline pH, may also contribute to survival. Associated stress

resistance determinants can be spread through mobile genetic elements such as plasmids,

prophages and transposons (21, 33-37). For example, it has been shown that the presence of

bcrABC or *qacH* (located on plasmids and transposon Tn*6188*, respectively) results in tolerance to

low concentrations of quaternary ammonium compounds (QAC), biocides commonly used in the

food industry (26, 36, 38-40). Another genetic determinant associated with CCs commonly found

in food processing plants is premature stop codon (PMSC) truncation mutations in *inlA* encoding

the virulence factor internalin A (41, 42). Although the ecological significance of *inlA* PMSC

mutations is not fully understood, some studies indicate that they mediate increased adhesion

and biofilm formation (43-45) and increased tolerance to desiccation (27).

There is a consensus that certain *L. monocytogenes* strains are more frequently isolated from

food processing factories because of their increased ability to survive and multiply in niches that

are difficult to keep clean (2, 7, 28, 46). However, there is no consensus on the operational

definition of a persistent strain in terms of the number of independent isolation events or the

time-frame (7, 28). Furthermore, the level of genetic relatedness required to delineate a

persistent clone is defined by the resolution of the employed molecular subtyping technique, and

with increased sensitivity of subtyping methods, the criteria for defining persistent clones have

to be reconsidered. Persistent strains are indistinguishable when characterized with traditional

subtyping techniques such as multi locus variable-number tandem repeat analysis (MLVA) and

pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (PFGE). These methods have limited resolution as they capture

genetic diversity in a small portion of the microbial genome. In contrast, whole genome

sequencing (WGS)-based typing strategies determine the diversity across the entire genome and

can accurately define genetic distances and differentiate between closely related strains (47, 48).

Therefore, WGS-based analysis usually implies setting a threshold of genetic relatedness for

identification of clusters or "strains" from the same contamination source. This threshold

commonly constitutes 7 to 10 core genome MLST (cgMLST) differences (19, 49, 50), 20 single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)(51, 52), or 20 whole genome MLST (wgMLST) differences, as

SNP and wgMLST analyses have similar resolution (10, 53, 54). However, these thresholds must

be used with caution as bacteria continuously diversify through evolutionary processes. Different

outbreak strains and persistent strains will therefore show varying levels of genetic relatedness

(47, 53, 55).

Interpretation of WGS-based typing results should also consider that highly similar isolates may

be found across several food processing facilities (10-18). This may occur due to contamination

from a common source of raw materials or pre-processed product (e.g., slaughtered salmon) or

through transfer of used processing equipment between food processing plants. In addition,

evidence suggests that highly similar *L. monocytogenes* strains may be present in apparently

unassociated locations, at least in natural environments (2). However, there is limited knowledge

regarding the extent to which highly similar genetic clones disseminate or pervade and establish

in multiple separate locations. In case of public investigations of listeriosis outbreaks, it is of

importance both for public health authorities and for food industry representatives to know more

about the prevalence of pervasive strains.

The present study aimed to investigate the diversity, distribution, persistence, and stress

resistome of *L. monocytogenes* clones dominating in food processing environments in Norway.

The analysis comprises 769 *L. monocytogenes* isolates collected during 1990-2020, including 257

L. monocytogenes belonging to ST8 and ST9 subjected to WGS analysis as part of earlier studies

(10, 11). The aims of the study were to (i) assess the genomic diversity of *L. monocytogenes* in

Norwegian food chains, (ii) identify persistence, contamination routes, and cases where the same

strain is present in more than one factory, (iii) evaluate these aspects in light of the presence of

genetic determinants associated with stress survival, antimicrobial resistance and persistence,

and (iv) compare the prevalence of genetic determinants of stress survival in the isolates from

food processing with that found in Norwegian clinical isolates and environmental isolates from

urban and natural locations (2, 56).

Results

Diversity of isolates from the Norwegian food chain

The basis of the current study was a collection of 769 *L. monocytogenes* isolates from the

Norwegian food industry from 1990 to 2020 (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). Of these,

441 were from meat processing factories, 19 were from zones with lower hygienic conditions

associated with meat processing (i.e., animal transport vehicles, animal holding pens, and

slaughter departments), and 306 isolates were from salmon processing factories. Samples were

mainly from the processing environment (floors, drains, and or food processing equipment) and

to a minor degree (n=12) from raw materials and products. All were collected from nine different

meat production plants and six different salmon processing plants (Table S2), except for eight

isolates from other factories and three isolates from other food associated sources (salmon and

cheese product, domestic kitchen). A subset of the isolates belonging to *L. monocytogenes* ST8

and ST9 (5 and 252 isolates, respectively) were previously subjected to WGS analysis as part of

earlier studies (10, 11). The additional 512 isolates were subjected to WGS, *in silico* MLST, and

wgMLST profiling. MLST showed that 13% of the 769 studied isolates belonged to lineage I and

the remaining isolates to lineage II, while lineage III or IV isolates were not detected. The isolates

were assigned to 33 different STs and 28 different CCs (Fig. 1).

Genetic distances obtained from wgMLST analysis were compared with results obtained from a

SNP analysis performed separately for each CC using the CFSAN SNP pipeline (57), with reference

genomes selected from each CC. The average number of SNPs and wgMLST loci detected within

each CC was 126 and 140, respectively. The results show that with default filtering settings,

wgMLST analysis was somewhat more sensitive than SNP analysis (Table 1).

Presence of plasmids and genetic determinants of stress response and resistance

A BLAST analysis was carried out to detect plasmids and genetic determinants associated with

stress survival and antimicrobial resistance. Overall, plasmids were identified in 58% of the

L. monocytogenes isolates. All were *repA*-family theta-replicating plasmids belonging to either

group 1 (G1) or group 2 (G2) (58), with one exception. Isolate MF6196 belonging to CC7 harbored

a novel RepA group protein, hereby named RepA group 12 (G12), which was 76% identical to

RepA G2 (Table 2). In total, 39% of the isolates harbored *repA* G1 plasmids while 18% harbored

repA G2 plasmids (Table S3). In addition, both G1 and G2 *repA* genes were identified in ten CC5

isolates collected in factory M6 between 2016 and 2019, indicating that they harbored two

plasmids. These isolates were related (13-45 wgMLST differences) to three CC5 isolates containing

repA G1 but not *repA* G2, collected in the same factory during 2010 and 2012, suggesting that this

strain had acquired a second plasmid harboring a *repA* G2 gene during the intervening years.

The search for genetic determinants associated with stress survival, resistance, and persistence

identified 76 core genes that were present in all genomes, and 20 accessory genes, gene loci or

gene variants that were present in a subset of genomes (Fig. 2A and Table S4). The only identified

antibiotic resistance gene, detected by searching the ResFinder database (59), was the fosfomycin

resistance gene (*lmo1702*, *fosX_2*) (60), present in all genomes. The accessory genetic

determinants comprised cadmium resistance (*cadA1C1*, *cadA2C2*, *cadA4C4*, *cadA5C5*) and

arsenic resistance operons (*arsA1D1R1D2R2A2B1B2* on *Listeria* Genomic Island 2 (LGI2) and

arsCBADR on a Tn*554*-like transposon) (61), QAC resistance loci (chromosomally encoded qacH

and plasmid encoded bcrABC (40, 62)), various additional plasmid-associated stress response

genes (*clpL*, *mco*, *npr*, a *gbuC*-like gene, a NiCo riboswitch, and *tmr* (63)), genes located on the

stress survival islets (SSIs) SSI-1 and SSI-2 (64, 65), biofilm associated genes (*bapL* and *inlL* (66,

67)), and PMSC and internal deletion mutations in *inlA* and *inlB* (45). Further details regarding the

identified accessory loci found in food environmental isolates are presented in Text S1 in the

supplemental material and Table 2. The unique combinations of accessory genes are presented

in Fig. 2A and the complete phylogeny is shown in Fig. S1.

For statistical analyses, the accessory stress survival genes were grouped into categories of

cadmium resistance, arsenic resistance, QAC resistance, stress survival islets, biofilm-associated

genes, and *inlA* PMSC mutations (the identified *inlA* 3-codon deletion (3CD) *inlA* mutation

associated with an increased Caco-2 cell invasion phenotype (68, 69) was not included in this

category) (Fig. 2B). The prevalence of plasmids and all tested categories of stress survival genes

was significantly higher in isolates from hygienic zones in meat processing factories than in salmon

processing environments and in low-hygienic zones associated with meat production ($p<0.007$;

Table S5). However, it should be emphasized that the high prevalence among isolates from meat

processing was associated with their high prevalence within CC9 isolates, which constituted the

majority of isolates in this category (n=286; 65%). When CC9 isolates were excluded from the

analysis, the occurrence of cadmium and arsenic resistance loci was significantly higher in isolates

from salmon processing environments than from hygienic zones in meat processing factories

($p \leq 0.001$). In contrast, the occurrence of biofilm-associated genes was significantly higher in

isolates from hygienic zones in meat processing factories than from salmon processing

environments ($p=0.001$) and low-hygienic zones associated with meat production ($p=0.02$) (Fig.

2B and Table S5).

Proportion of food processing plants harbouring the different CCs

As the numbers of sequenced isolates from each plant varied widely, ranging from 4 to 192 for

the meat processing plants and from 2 to 188 for the salmon processing plants (Table S2), the

number of processing plants in which each CC was detected was summarized to assess the

prevalence of different CCs (Fig. 3). Prevalence was not counted as raw number of isolates to

reduce bias due to differing number of isolates included from each plant. The clone detected in

the greatest number of processing plants overall was CC121 (found in 6/9 meat factories and 4/6

salmon factories), followed by CC7, CC8, and CC9. CC9 was detected in the largest number of

meat processing plants (7/9).

Closely related isolates were present over time within individual factories

We next investigated whether persistence of specific strains of *L. monocytogenes* occurred in

processing plants, and whether this was associated with certain CCs or the presence of plasmids

or stress survival genes. In total, 551 isolates (72%), belonging to 15 different CCs, were linked to

persistence. The proportion of persistent isolates was significantly higher in lineage II (74%) than

in lineage I (53%) ($p < 0.001$). A persistent isolate was here defined as an isolate that showed 20

or fewer wgMLST allelic differences towards an isolate collected from the same factory in a

different calendar year. A persistent strain was defined as a clonal population showing this level

of similarity towards at least one other isolate in a cluster found across more than one calendar

year in the same factory. The definition of persistence is irrespective of whether the isolates

originated from e.g., an established house strain, reintroduction from raw materials or external

environment, or from house strains present at a supplier's factory. Clonal clusters of isolates

collected within the same calendar year and thus not designated as persistent included 23 isolates

belonging to CC3 (0-8 wgMLST differences) collected from factory S6 between January and April

of 2020, and 55 CC9 isolates collected during an eight-week period in 2014 at factory M4 in

connection with the previously described event related to installation of a contaminated second-

hand slicer line (10).

Analysis of the prevalence of the examined categories of genes associated with stress survival

showed that QAC resistance genes and biofilm associated genes were more prevalent among

persistent than non-persistent strains (p=0.02 and p=0.04, respectively) (Fig. 4A and Table S6). No

significant differences were identified between persistent or non-persistent isolates with respect

to the presence of plasmids, cadmium and arsenic resistance gene, stress survival islets, or *inlA*

PMCS mutations.

Previous studies show that the most common sites contaminated with persistent *Listeria* were

floors, drains, conveyor belts, slicers, and tables (7). Factories and typical niches where persistent

L. monocytogenes strains were found are summarized in Table 3, showing that these were largely

consistent with previous studies, although isolation of persistent strains on conveyors was only

observed in salmon processing plants. In addition, salmon gutting machines were identified as

common sites for isolation. The results furthermore show that many different CCs can be

associated with persistence. However, some appear to have a greater tendency than others for

becoming persistent, e.g., CC7 and CC8, each identified as persistent in four factories, and CC9

and CC121, each in three factories.

From the salmon slaughterhouses (S1-S6), persistent strains were identified in ten CCs (11 STs;

Table 3). Six of these CCs were present among isolates repeatedly found in S6, where the greatest

number of isolates of the same persistent CC121 strain (n=59) was obtained through sampling in

the period from February 2019 to April 2020. The emergence of CC121 was followed by extensive

sampling in S6 in this period and the CC121 strain was detected in the slaughterhouse processing

equipment, machines and environment. Interestingly, the CC121 strain was also found onboard

a salmon slaughter ship supplying S6 with fresh salmon for further processing and on samples

from fresh salmon. This indicated that fresh slaughtered salmon contaminated with *L.*

monocytogenes was a likely source for the introduction and subsequent persistence of this

particular CC121 strain in the plant. Salmon slaughtered in other slaughterhouses and further

processed in factory S2 was likely the source of a persistent CC1 strain repeatedly and extensively

isolated in samples from production environment and equipment in S2 over a two-year period:

In a cluster of 30 isolates differing by 0-16 wgMLST alleles, eight isolates were obtained from

samples of supplied slaughtered salmon. For salmon processing plant S1, we previously reported

isolation of the same CC8 strain ten years apart (11). This factory also harbored a persistent strain

of CC7 that was repeatedly isolated from the processing environment and equipment throughout

a three-year sampling period. A similar situation was observed in factory S5, with repeated

isolation of a CC177 strain over a two-year sampling period. In factory S2, clonal ST732 isolates

(CC7) sampled eight years apart (2011-2019) were isolated from various surfaces of equipment

and processing environments. These observations indicate that *L. monocytogenes* strains had

persisted in the respective slaughterhouses or were repeatedly reintroduced between sampling

events during the study period.

For the meat processing plants, repeated isolation of the same strain over at least two different

years was observed for nine CCs (Table 3). The dominance and persistence of CC9/ST9 over

several years in meat processing plants M1 and M4 was previously described (10). In the present

study, persistence of a CC9 strain over a two-year period was also confirmed in factory M8. For

factory M1, the CC9 strains were repeatedly isolated from the department producing heat-

treated products (10), while in raw meat departments, persistent strains were identified for CC8,

CC19, CC91 and CC415. Closely related isolates of CC19 and CC415 were also repeatedly isolated

in factory M4, but in contrast to M1, only in the heat-treated department. Persistent CC7 strains

were isolated from floors in poultry processing plants M2 and M6. CC7 was the dominant clonal

group in M2, and the only CC from which the same strain was repeatedly isolated in this factory.

In factory M6, a persistent strain of CC5 was repeatedly isolated in 2012 and during 2016-2019

from floors in a room used for processing of heat-treated products. Closely related CC199 was

isolated three times over an eight-month period from factory M8. Two different clusters of CC121

isolates were identified in drains in factory M4, one consisting of two isolates collected three

years apart and differing by six wgMLST alleles, and another comprising six isolates differing by 0-

6 wgMLST alleles, collected over a period of four years. A cluster of CC121 was also detected in

different sites in factory M6, comprising six isolates differing by 3-23 wgMLST alleles over a two-

year period. Thus, for several CCs, including CC7, CC9, CC19 and CC121, persistent strains were

repeatedly isolated from more than one meat processing factory, while some CCs (e.g., CC5,

CC199) were repeatedly isolated only at single plants.

Pervasive strains: The same strain found in more than one food processing plant

Phylogenetic analysis revealed that many isolates were closely related despite being isolated from

different processing plants (Fig. 1). We hereby designate the observation of clonal populations of

L. monocytogenes found in more than one factory as pervasion. The definition does not

differentiate between the mode of dissemination between factories and includes isolates with a

common source and ancestor. In total, 433 of the isolates (56%) were pervasive, showing 20 or

fewer wgMLST allelic differences towards an isolate found in a different factory. A pervasive strain

was defined as the isolates belonging to such a cluster. The proportion of pervasive isolates

differed between food source, with 70% of isolates from meat processing environments

designated as pervasive, in contrast to only 40 % of isolates from salmon processing industry. The

proportion of pervasive isolates was significantly higher in lineage II (59%) than in lineage I (34%)

(p<0.001).

With two exceptions, pervasive strains were either shared between meat processing factories or

between salmon processing factories (Fig. 5A and 5B). Both exceptions involved salmon factory

S1. The first case involved CC7 and a cluster of 14 isolates collected at S1 between 2011 and 2014

and a cluster of 14 isolates from meat factory M6 collected in 2004 and 2011, differing by 15-47

allelic differences (median 22). In the second case, a CC8 isolate from a floor sample in the raw

meat zone in factory M1 collected in 2019 differed by 11-17 wgMLST alleles to a cluster of five

isolates from S1, one from 2001 and four from 2011.

Factories S2 and S6 were the two most heavily sampled salmon slaughterhouses. The two

factories are located in different geographic regions in Norway and belong to different

companies. WGS was performed for 68 isolates collected during 2011-2012 and 2018-2019 from

S2, and for 188 isolates collected between June 2017 and April 2020 from S6. We identified three

different CCs (CC1, CC121, and CC88) in which closely related isolates (≤17 wgMLST allelic

differences) were found in both factories. In the case of CC1, one isolate from a product sample

collected in October 2019 from factory S6 (MF7739) differed by 7-15 wgMLST alleles from the

previously mentioned persistent strain comprising 30 environmental isolates from factory S2, for

which the likely source was slaughtered salmon. These were obtained between July 2018 and

May 2019. Also, one CC121 isolate collected from a drain at factory S2 in 2012 (MF4804) showed

5-11 wgMLST allelic differences towards the previously mentioned cluster of 59 persistent CC121

isolates collected in factory S6 during 2019-2020, which included one isolate collected onboard

the slaughter ship. However, the slaughter ship had not been in operation in 2012 when the S2

isolate was detected. The third case linking these two factories were two isolates separated by

17 wgMLST alleles belonging to CC88, obtained from the boots of a factory worker at S2 in

November 2018 and from salmon from an external supplier at factory S6 one year later, in

November 2019. Genetically similar isolates were also found at factories S2 and S3, where two

CC14 isolates collected in S2 in 2011-2012 showed 12-28 wgMLST allelic differences towards a

cluster of 13 isolates from S3 collected during 2018-2019.

In the meat industry, the majority of isolates from pervasive strains belonged to CC9, for which

we previously described a close genetic relationship between *L. monocytogenes* from four meat

processing plants (M1, M4, M5 and M7) collected during 2009-2017 (10). In the current study, 38

additional CC9 isolates, including representatives from three additional processing plants (M3,

M8, and M9) were sequenced (Fig. 5C). Of particular interest was a group of CC9 isolates collected

in 1998 and 2001 from the raw side of a meat factory (M3) that is no longer in operation (70).

One of the isolates from 1998 differed by only 5-8 wgMLST allelic differences to isolates from five

other processing plants (M1, M4, M5, M7, and M8), suggesting that this CC9 strain has circulated

in Norwegian meat chains for at least two decades.

Pervasion was significantly associated with presence of stress survival genes

In contrast to persistent strains (Fig. 4A), isolates identified as pervaders showed significantly

increased prevalence of plasmids and all examined categories of stress and persistence associated

genes ($p<0.001$) (Fig. 4B and Table S6). The prevalence of individual gene variants (*clpL*, *cadA1C1*,

cadA2C2, *bcrABC*, *qacH,* the *ars* operon on LGI2, *arsCBADR* on Tn*554*, SSI-1, SSI-2, *bapL*, and *inlL*)

was also significantly higher in isolates classified as pervaders compared to non-pervaders

($p≤0.004$) (Table S6).

Of the pervasive isolates, 81% (351/433) were also persistent. The 82 pervaders classified as non-

persistent (11% of the total number of isolates) included the 55 CC9 isolates associated with the

previously described contaminated second-hand slicer line collected from factory M4 during an

eight-week period in 2014 (10). Only 63% (351/551) of the persistent isolates were also

pervaders. If the CC9 isolates were excluded from the analysis, 92% of pervaders were also

persistent, only 51% of persistent isolates were also pervasive, and only 3% of pervasive isolates

were classified as non-persistent.

Stress survival determinants in clinical and environmental isolates

To compare the prevalence of plasmids and stress survival genes in isolates from food processing

environments to human clinical isolates and isolates from natural environments in Norway, the

BLAST analysis was also performed for the genomes of 111 Norwegian clinical isolates and 218

isolates from rural, urban, and farm environments in Norway, which were examined in a recent

study (2). The prevalence of plasmids was significantly different between isolates from the three

sources (p<0.001; Table S7), with 26% and 8% of clinical and environmental isolates harbouring

plasmids, respectively, compared to 41% for the isolates from food processing environments

(Table S3). The lowest prevalence of plasmids was found in the 87 isolates from dairy farms (5%).

In addition to *repA* G1 and *repA* G2 plasmids, one *repA* group 4 (G4) plasmid and two small non-

repA plasmids were identified among the clinical isolates (Table 2 and Text S1).

The clinical and natural environment isolates harboured the same core and accessory stress genes

as the isolates from food processing environments with three exceptions: i) one clinical isolate

harboured a chromosomally encoded *tet*(M) tetracycline resistance gene, identified through

search against the ResFinder database (59), ii) one clinical isolate belonging to CC7 harboured the

emrC gene conferring QAC resistance (71), and iii) none of the isolates harboured internal deletion

mutations in *inlB*. All unique combinations of the accessory gene subset for clinical and

environmental isolates are presented in Fig. 6A and 6B and further discussed in Text S1. The

prevalence of all examined categories of stress survival and resistance genes was highest in the

isolates from food processing environments ($p<0.003$; Table S7) (Fig. 6C). Comparison of the

clinical and environmental isolates showed a higher prevalence among clinical isolates in all

categories of stress survival determinants ($p<0.006$), with the exception of biofilm associated

($p=0.688$) and arsenic resistance genes ($p=0.131$). Of note, none of the 218 isolates collected from

rural, urban, and farm environments harbored the *bcrABC* or *qacH* QAC resistance genes or *inlA*

PMSC mutations.

Within the 1098 examined *L. monocytogenes* genomes, the prevalence of *inlA* PMSC truncation

mutations was 9% and 41% in lineages I and II, respectively. In contrast, the 3CD *inlA* genotype

associated with increased invasion (68, 69) showed an occurrence of 14% in lineage I, but was

detected only once among the lineage II isolates (in CC89) (Fig. 2A and Fig. 6AB).

Discussion

To gain a better understanding of the population structure and genomic diversity of *L.*

monocytogenes in Norwegian food chains, genome sequences from 769 *L. monocytogenes*

isolates from the Norwegian food industry collected over three decades from 15 food processing

factories were characterized using WGS-based comparative genomic analyses. The study showed

that 56% of isolates were closely related (2-20 wgMLST allelic differences) to an isolate collected

from a different factory. These isolates were designated as *pervasive*, a term which has previously

been used to describe subpopulations of bacteria with enhanced ability to spread or migrate to

new geographical locations (8, 9). Several other studies have similarly reported that *L.*

monocytogenes isolates from geographically and temporally unrelated sources were separated

by equally short genetic distances (2, 12-18). WGS analyses are increasingly used in epidemiology

and have in recent years been essential for solving several European foodborne listeriosis

outbreaks (72-75). However, as we know from the use of DNA as forensic evidence in criminal

trials, the apparent certainty of DNA evidence can be deceptive, and there is a danger that the

statistical significance of a DNA match can be overstated (76, 77). This is particularly likely in the

case of bacteria which reproduce using binary fission and especially for *L. monocytogenes* which

has an extremely low evolutionary rate (16, 19). Indeed, in one case described by Lüth *et al*. (18),

the same *L. monocytogenes* strain identified in two different processing plants matched the same

CC5 outbreak cluster. There is a risk that authorities could mistakenly consider a WGS match

between two bacterial isolates as proof of identification of a contamination source, also in cases

lacking other epidemiological evidence. It is therefore of crucial importance to consider the

possibility of highly similar isolates being found in multiple factories when WGS analyses of *L.*

monocytogenes are performed, both for outbreak investigations and for food safety risk-based

decisions and risk assessment in food industry. The high prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* isolates

identified in more than one processing plant in the current study suggests that the occurrence of

pervasive strains in the Norwegian food industry – particularly in the meat distribution chain

where 70% of isolates were pervasive – may be significantly higher than in other countries. This

possibly reflects a particularly complex and interconnected Norwegian meat supply chain.

Regardless, mistaken identification of an outbreak source can have enormous economic impacts

and cause significant food waste due to unnecessary recalls. Examples include the German 2011

outbreak of enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (EHEC) where initially cucumbers imported from

Spain were erroneously implicated as the source of the infections (78, 79), and the Norwegian

2006 EHEC outbreak caused by contaminated traditional cured sausage ("morrpølse"), in which

minced meat was initially indicated as the source (80).

The prevalence of genetic determinants associated with stress survival, metal and biocide

resistance and biofilm formation, as well as PMSC mutations in *inlA*, was higher in isolates

collected from food processing environments than among clinical isolates and isolates from

natural environments, thus supporting previous studies suggesting that these factors are involved

in the adaptation to food processing environments (21, 35, 39, 64, 69, 81, 82). Notably, none of

the 218 isolates from natural environments contained biocide resistance genes *qacH*, *bcrABC*, or

inlA PMSC mutations. This concurs with a recent study of *L. monocytogenes* collected from surface

waters in California (83), in which *qacH* and *bcrABC* were detected in zero and 18 isolates

respectively, while *inlA* PMSC mutations were present in only four of 1248 examined isolates. In

contrast, we identified *qacH* or *bcrABC* genes in 45% and *inlA* PMSC mutations in 51% of isolates

from food processing environments. These values coincide with data from numerous previous

studies (26, 28, 68, 81, 82). Antibiotic resistance determinants present on mobile genetic

elements appear to have low prevalence in *L. monocytogenes* isolated in Norway, as only one

such antibiotic resistance gene was detected among the 1098 examined genomes (a *tet*(M)

tetracycline resistance gene in a clinical isolate). This is lower than that recently reported among

isolates from other countries (84-89).

It is acknowledged that the distribution and abundance of *L. monocytogenes* CCs varies between

different environments, such as humans, animals, soil, water, plants, and various types of food,

and that this is likely driven by selective adaptation (2, 22, 24, 29, 90-93). However, the same is

not always true when comparing persistent and transient isolates from food processing

environments, although it is highly likely that inheritable genetic traits are responsible also for

the ability to survive long-term in food processing facilities. It is frequently reported that certain

CCs have been identified as persistent in food processing environments, notably CC9 and CC121,

however, persistent strains have been detected in many CCs including CC5, CC7, CC8, CC31,

CC155, and CC321 (14, 16, 18, 21, 26, 94-99). This largely corresponds with observations from the

current study, in which CC7, CC8, CC9 and CC121 were identified as persistent in the greatest

number of processing plants. Nevertheless, persistent strains were identified within 15 of the 25

CCs represented by more than one isolate (60%), including in three lineage I CCs and 12 lineage II

CCs.

It is likely that the genetic basis behind increased prevalence of certain *L. monocytogenes* in food

processing environments aligns with the genetic basis behind persistence in the ecological sense

of the word, i.e., an increased ability to survive long-term in food processing environments (5, 6).

There is some evidence of association of persistence with the presence of the *bcrABC* cassette

conferring resistance to QAC disinfection agents (26, 39, 100) and perhaps also biofilm formation

capacity (30, 99). However, several studies have failed to identify any phenotypic or genotypic

differences between persistent and transient *L. monocytogenes* (6, 95, 101, 102) or failed to

associate persistent strains with differences in stress response, sanitizer resistance, or adhesion

properties (16, 25, 32, 70, 102-104). In line with these reports, the current study showed a

relatively weak statistically significant association ($p≤0.04$) between persistence and QAC

resistance determinants and biofilm-associated genes, and none between persistence and

plasmids, heavy metal resistance genes, SSIs, or *inlA* PMSC mutations. In contrast, we found that

pervasive isolates, belonging to strains present in more than one factory, showed strong

statistically significant association ($p<0.001$) with all examined categories of stress survival and

persistence genes, as well as towards plasmids and several individual genes or gene loci. Pervasive

strains were identified in eight CCs: one belonging to lineage I and seven belonging to lineage II.

Notably, only a small proportion of pervaders were classified as non-persistent (i.e., transient). It

thus appeared that strains that occurred at several factories and were repeatedly isolated over

time in one or more of these facilities were more likely to show problematic properties, i.e., carry

genetic determinants that enable them to establish as house strains and disperse to new

environments. Our results furthermore support the hypothesis that there is not one single genetic

determinant responsible for survival in food processing environments, but rather an

accumulation of stress resistance genes, biofilm associated genes, and *inlA* PMSC mutations.

The identity of the isolates classified as non-persistent pervaders in the current study exemplify

one of the difficulties in separating between "true" persistent and "true" transient isolates using

operational definitions. These included 82 isolates of which 55 were from the previously

described contaminated second-hand slicer line isolated from factory M4 (10). These were not

defined as persistent, as the contamination was only detected during an eight-week period in

2014 in which the slicer line was installed in the factory. However, from an ecological viewpoint,

they obviously belonged to a house strain established in a difficult to clean niche (5, 6). Another

challenge with operational definitions of persistence is that strains without any specific adaptive

features responsible for increased survival in processing environments may survive there under

permissive conditions, e.g., in a period with higher temperatures or inadequate cleaning and

sanitation, or alternatively, reoccurrence can be due to repeated introduction from an outside

reservoir (7, 46). Therefore, even when using a sampling method targeted towards house strains,

including sampling after cleaning and disinfection and detection of reoccurrence over a longer

time-period, the obtained isolates may not carry specific genetic determinants for survival in the

factory environment. The results from the current study suggest that the operational definition

of pervasion is superior to those used to define persistence in identifying strains that carry

adaptations responsible for increased ability to survive and multiply in food processing

environments.

Material and methods

Source of isolates

The isolates from food processing environment, raw materials and processed foods included in

the study are listed in Table S1 and were from the *L. monocytogenes* strain collection at Nofima,

Norway. A total of 305 isolates from both meat and salmon industry were collected during 2011-

2015 as part of a previous study (38). The majority of these were isolated after sanitation, and

before start of production. Most of the isolates obtained after 2016 were from the factories' own

sampling programs, and for these, sampling was mainly performed during production. A subset

of 252 isolates belonging to CC8 and CC9 has been described in previous studies (10, 11).

WGS and genome assembly

Bacteria were grown on BHI agar overnight at 37 °C before a loopful of cells was suspended in 500 µl 2x Tris-EDTA buffer with 1.2 % Triton X-100. Cells were lysed using lysing matrix B and a FastPrep instrument (both MP Biomedicals), and genomic DNA was isolated using the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen). Libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT DNA sample preparation kit or the Nextera DNA Flex Library prep kit (both Illumina) and sequenced on a MiSeq platform with 300-bp paired-end reads. Raw reads were filtered on q15 and trimmed of adaptors before *de novo* genome assembly was performed using SPAdes v3.10.0 or v.3.13.0 (105) with the careful option and six k-mer sizes (21, 33, 55, 77, 99, and 127). Contigs with sizes of <500 bp and *k*-mer coverage of <5 were removed from the assemblies (a coverage cutoff 15 was used for MF7896). The average coverage for the genome assemblies was calculated using BBmap v36.92 (106). The quality of all assemblies was evaluated using QUAST v5.0.2 (107).

MLST analyses

Classical MLST analysis followed the MLST scheme described by Ragon *et al*. (42) and the database maintained at the Institute Pasteur's *L. monocytogenes* online MLST repository (http://bigsdb.web.pasteur.fr/listeria/listeria.html). CC14 and CC91 were defined as previously described (2). The wgMLST analysis was performed using a whole-genome scheme containing 4797 coding loci from the *L. monocytogenes* pan-genome and the assembly-based BLAST approach, implemented in BioNumerics 7.6 (http://www.applied-maths.com/news/listeria-monocytogenes-whole-genome-sequence-typing).

Minimum spanning trees were constructed using BioNumerics based on the categorical

differences in the allelic wgMLST profiles for each isolate. Loci with no allele calls were not

considered in the pairwise comparison between two genomes. The number of allelic differences

between isolates was read from genetic distance matrices computed from the absolute number

of categorical differences between genomes.

Calculation of pairwise wgMLST distances for Neighbor-Joining (NJ) trees was performed using

the daisy function (108) from the cluster package v2.1.1 (109) in R and selection of the gower

metric. NJ trees were generated using an improved version of the NJ algorithm (BION) (110)

implemented in the ape package v5.4-1 (111) in R v4.0.4 (112) as function bionjs. Interactive Tree

Of Life (iTOL) v6.5.2 (113) was used for visualization.

SNP analysis

Read mapping based SNP analysis was performed separately for each CC. An internal reference

genome was selected from each CC (listed in Table S1) using the following criteria: Centrally

positioned in CC clusters by wgMLST analysis, from larger sub-clusters if more than one cluster

was present in a CC, older isolates preferred to more recent isolates, higher quality assemblies

(high coverage, few contigs) preferred. The reference based SNP analysis was performed using

the CFSAN SNP pipeline v2.1.1 (57) and default filtering settings, except that regions of high-

density SNPs were defined for each sample individually instead of filtering a dense region found

in any genome from all genomes. The default filtering removes SNPs located closer than 500 bp

to the end of a contig on the reference genome, SNPs where there are more than 3 SNPs in a

1000 base window, more than 2 SNPs in a 125 base window, and more than 1 SNP in a 15 base

window, reads with map quality below than 30, reads with a base quality of at least 15 at a given

position, SNPs where less than 90% of the calls agree, and SNPs with a read coverage of less than

5. Results were read from the output matrix of pairwise SNP distances.

BLAST analyses

The selection of plasmids included in the current analysis was based on a study by Chmielowska

et al. (58), which included 113 unique completely sequenced plasmid replicons from *Listeria* spp.

strains, of which 63 were assigned to 19 groups (different only by point mutations or small indels

of size <1 kb). In the current analysis, one plasmid each from the 19 groups (selecting the largest

plasmid in each group) and the 50 plasmids that did not belong to a group were included, in total

69 different plasmids (Table S8). All contigs >2000 bp from the *L. monocytogenes* genomes were

used as queries in a BLAST search (blastn v2.10.0+) against a local nucleotide BLAST database

created for the 69 *Listeria* spp. plasmids. A contig was viewed as a plasmid contig if the query

coverage (qcov) was ≥85%, and the percentage identity of the best alignment was >90%. Hits

were inspected manually.

A BLAST search for plasmid replication genes was carried out using one *repA* gene selected from

each of the eleven RepA groups (G1-G11) identified by Chmielowska *et al*. (58) as queries (Table

S9), against a local nucleotide BLAST database created for the *L. monocytogenes* genomes. The

same analysis was also performed using as queries the nine plasmid-encoded/associated genetic

elements involved in stress response identified by Schmitz-Esser *et al*. (63), as well as additional

genetic elements associated with stress response and resistance (Table S4) and the entire content

of the ResFinder database (59) downloaded on November 11, 2021. Only the best hit for each

query sequence in each genome was kept. When the minimum nucleotide identity was <99%,

and/or the length ratio of the query sequence relative to the match in the genome (length/qlen)

was ≠ 1, the alignments and contigs were manually inspected before a presence/absence gene

call was made. In addition, the protein sequences of the BLAST hits were aligned to the query

protein sequences. A call was made for the presence of the gene if the protein identity was >92%.

Differences in the nucleotide sequences that lead to alterations of the protein sequences, such

as insertions, deletions, premature stop codons or elongations, were recorded.

The Pearson's chi-squared association test was performed using Minitab v.19.2020.1 to

determine whether there was any statistically significant association between the presence or

absence of stress survival genes (or groups of genes) or lineage and the source of the isolates

(e.g., meat vs. salmon, clinical vs. food processing) or classification as persistent or pervasive. All

tests were performed separately for pairs of categories.

Calculation of weighted similarity scores

Genetic associations between pervasive isolates from different factories, weighted by their

similarity, and illustrated in the chord diagram in Fig. 5B were calculated as follows: All pairs of

isolates from different factories separated by 20 or fewer wgMLST allelic differences were

counted towards the total strength of links between factories. For these pairs, the genetic

distance D was converted to a similarity score $S = 21 - D$. Thus, a distance of 20 wgMLST alleles

corresponds to a similarity score of 1, and a distance of 0 wgMLST alleles corresponds to a

similarity score of 21. Of note, the lowest genetic distance separating two isolates from different

factories was 2. Then, all similarity scores were grouped by CC and factory and summed to

generate the final scores, which are represented by the thickness of each arc in Fig. 5B. The image

was created using the R package circlize (114).

Data availability

The raw data and assembled genomes for the 512 genomes sequenced in the current study has

been submitted to NCBI as BioProject accession PRJNA689484. For GenBank and Sequence Read

Archive (SRA) accession numbers, see Table S1. The assemblies were annotated using the NCBI

Prokaryotic Genomes Automatic Annotation Pipeline (PGAAP) server.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank Merete Rusås Jensen and Anette Wold Åsli at Nofima for excellent

technical assistance. This work was supported by the Research Council of Norway through grant

no. 294910 and the Norwegian Fund for Research Fees for Agricultural Products (FFL) through

grant no. 314743.

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Tables

Table 1: Comparison of number of differences detected in each CC using SNP and wgMLST analysis[a]

	CC group	Number of genomes analysed	Number of detected SNPs (after filtering)	Number of differing wgMLST loci	Pairwise distance (wgMLST)		
					Maximum	Minimum	Median
lineage I	CC1	34	222	230	170	0	5
	CC2	7	6	11	7	2	4
	CC3	24	79	84	74	0	2.5
	CC5	13	79	88	45	0	26
	CC6	3	31	36	35	4	34
	CC88	2	9	17	17	17	17
	CC220	2	105	105	105	105	105
	CC315	10	4	11	5	0	2
lineage II	CC7	68	633	694	198	0	79
	CC8	19	203	288	181	1	37
	CC9	290	966	896	179	0	94
	CC11	9	138	215	83	3	49
	CC14	20	176	221	103	0	20
	CC18	5	106	140	88	2	63.5
	CC19	55	209	199	105	0	77
	CC20	4	57	99	77	3	56
	CC21	2	126	118	118	118	118
	CC31	3	193	198	132	112	131
	CC37	14	81	78	50	0	5
	CC91	14	468	628	512	0	102
	CC121	86	573	608	238	0	48
	CC177	22	222	223	160	0	2
	CC199	3	4	6	6	0	6
	CC403	27	19	27	9	0	2
	CC415	30	203	231	118	0	81
Median		14	126	140	103	0	37

[a] CC4, CC101, and CC200 are not shown as they comprised only one isolate (from M4, M4, and M3, respectively).

948 **Table 2: Novel or rare genetic elements**

Isolate	CC	Source and year of isolation	Genetic determinant	Further description
Food industry isolates				
MF6196	CC7	Factory M2, 2013	*repA* G12	Novel *repA* variant found on a 58 Kb contig, locus tag: JKS07_13825.
MF4562	CC9	Factory M1, 2012	*cadA1C1*	The only food isolate with Tn4422/*cadA1C1* located on the chromosome
MF1548	CC21	Factory M3, 1998	*cadA5C5*	The only genome identified with this locus. The genome also contains *cadA1C1* and both arsenic resistance operons (on LGI2 and Tn*554*-like transposon)
Clinical isolates				
ERR2522309	CC1	Clinical, 2013	*repA* G4	The only identified genome with this *repA* variant. Located on a 65 kb contig.
			qacH-like gene	A plasmid-encoded variant of QacH, 90% identical to QacH encoded on Tn*6188*.
ERR2522330	CC7	Clinical, 2014	plasmid pAUSMDU00000235	This genome contained a contig that could be circularized and was 100% identical to the 2776 bp pAUSMDU00000235 plasmid found in a clinical strain in Australia in 2009 (71).
ERR2522310	CC7 (ST691)	Clinical, 2013	plasmid pLMST6 (pLmN12-0935)	This genome contained a contig that aligned with 99.98% identity over 99.86% of the plasmid/contig lengths with the 4392 bp long plasmid pLMST6 (pLmN12-0935) from a clinical strain belonging to ST403/CC403 isolated in Switzerland in 2012.
			emrC	The only genome identified with this gene is present on the plasmid.
ERR2522285	CC59	Clinical, 2012	*tet*(M) allele 7	The only antibiotic resistance gene identified in this study, found by search against the ResFinder database (59).

Table 3. *L. monocytogenes* **clones with repeated isolation of same strain in same factory**[a]

CC	ST	Processing plant										Niches with repeated isolation of same strain				
		M1	M2	M4	M6	M8	S1	S2	S3	S5	S6	Floors[b]	Drains	Conveyors	Gutting	Other
CC1	ST1							X					S2	S2	S2	Grader, containers
CC5	ST5			X								M6				
CC7	ST7		X		X		X	X				M2, M6, S1	M2, S1	S1		M2: pallet; M6: products; S1: bone napping machine
	ST732							X				S2	S2	S2	S2	Inflow tube
CC8	ST8	X			X		X				X	M1, S1	M1, S1	S1	S6	S6: salmon; M1: all samples from raw meat department
CC9	ST9[c]	X		X		X						M1, M4	M1, M4 M8			M1: equipment framework (near floor); M4: 3 month period 55 isolates from slicer, products
CC14	ST14							X	X			S3	S2	S2, S3	S2	
CC19	ST1416	X		X								M4	M4			M1: Specific room, raw side
	ST19										X	S6			S6	Head cutter, packaging machine
CC37	ST37										X				S6	Helix, Grader
CC91	ST91	X										M1	M1			M1: All from raw meat departments
CC121	ST121		X		X						X	M4, S6	M4	S6	S6	S6: Head cutter, scaleoff
CC177	ST177								X					S5		Grader
CC199	ST199					X										M8: Three isolates; drain, gate, product
CC315	ST249										X					Filleting machine, scaleoff
CC403	ST403										X			S6	S6	Freezing tray
CC415	ST394	X		X								M1, M4	M4			M1: Raw meat department

[a] Included isolates comprise clones with ≤20 wgMLST allelic differences collected in at least two calendar years.

[b] Floors includes floor-related sites such as wheels, floor mats, shoes, or floor weights.

[c] Includes one ST2344 isolate.

Figure legends

Figure 1: Minimum spanning tree based on wgMLST analysis for the 769 *L. monocytogenes* from

food processing environments. The area of each circle is proportional to the number of isolates

represented, and the number of allelic differences between isolates is indicated on the edges

connecting two nodes. The nodes are colored by factory of origin (meat production plants M1-

M9; salmon processing plants S1-S6), and CCs and STs are indicated (the ST number is the same

as the CC unless specified).

963
Figure 2: Presence of accessory genetic determinants associated with stress survival, resistance,
or persistence in *L. monocytogenes* from food processing environments. **A)** Unique combinations
of ST and the variable stress response loci in isolates from food processing environments. All 769
isolates are shown individually in Fig. S1. The phylogeny is a midpoint-rooted Neighbor-Joining
tree based on wgMLST analysis and shows one arbitrarily selected genome from each of the
groups of genomes containing the same unique gene combination. The number of genomes
harboring the same unique combination is indicated in the right column. **B)** Prevalence of genetic
determinants in isolates from different sources. Cadmium resistance; *cadA1C1*, *cadA2C2*,
cadA4A4 or *cadA5C5*, arsenic resistance; *arsA1D1R1D2R2A2B1B2* on LGI2 or *arsCBADR* on Tn554-
like transposon, QAC resistance; *bcrABC* or *qacH*, biofilm-associated genes; *bapL* and/or *inlL*.
Statistical analysis for differences in categories using Pearson's chi-squared test is presented in
Table S5.

Figure 3: Different CCs detected in varying proportions of factories. The data is presented as a

stacked bar plot showing the percentage of examined meat and salmon processing plants in which

each CC was detected. A total of 15 factories were included.

Figure 4: Prevalence of subgroups of accessory genetic determinants associated with stress

survival, resistance, and persistence in *L. monocytogenes* classified as **A)** persistent and/or **B)**

pervasive. Cadmium; cadmium resistance loci *cadA1C1*, *cadA2C2*, *cadA4C4*, or *cadA5C5*, arsenic;

arsenic resistance operons *arsA1D1R1D2R2A2B1B2* on LGI2 or *arsCBADR* on the Tn554-like

transposon, QAC; QAC resistance loci *qacH* or *bcrABC*, biofilm; biofilm-associated genes *bapL*

and/or *inlL*, SSI; stress survival islets SSI-1 or SSI-2, and *inlA* m.; PMSC mutation in the *inlA* gene.

Asterisks represent significant differences (Pearson's chi-squared test. *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.001$,

see also Table S6).

Figure 5: Pervasive strains, present in more than one processing plant. **A)** Neighbor-Joining phylogenetic tree based on wgMLST analysis, showing CC (inner ring), factory of origin (middle ring), and isolates for which genetically similar isolates (≤20 wgMLST allelic differences) were found in at least one other factory (outer ring). Red branches are lineage I, black branches lineage II. **B)** The genetic associations between isolates from different factories illustrated by a chord diagram. The outer sectors represent the factories for which genetically similar isolates (≤20 wgMLST allelic differences) were found in at least one other factory, and the links between the factories represent the pairs of genetically similar isolates, colored by CC group. The thickness of each arc represents the sum of the similarity scores for each pair of isolates found in the two factories, weighted by their similarity. **C)** Minimum spanning tree showing the relationship between the 290 CC9 isolates. Nodes are colored by factory of origin (same colors as in **A**; the white-colored isolate is from a domestic kitchen). The area of each node is proportional to the number of isolates represented, and the number of allelic differences between isolates is indicated on the branches connecting two nodes. Branch lengths are square root scaled.

Figure 6: Presence of accessory genetic determinants associated with stress survival, resistance, or persistence in *L. monocytogenes* from different sources. **A)** Norwegian clinical isolates 2010-2015 (56), and **B)** isolates from natural (rural/urban/farm/slug) environments in Norway (2). For each ST, one arbitrarily selected genome from each of the groups of genomes containing the same unique combination of stress response loci is shown. **C)** Prevalence of genetic determinants in isolates from different sources. See legend to Fig. 2 for details on categories. Statistical analysis for differences in categories using Pearson's chi-squared test is presented in Table S7.