

1 **Whole-Genome Sequence Typing shows extensive diversity of *Listeria monocytogenes* in**
2 **the outdoor environment and poultry processing plants**

3 Swarnali Louha,^{a#} Richard J. Meinersmann,^b Zaid Abdo,^c Mark E. Berrang,^b Travis C. Glenn^{a, d}

4 ^a Institute of Bioinformatics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA.

5 ^b USDA Agricultural Research Service, U.S. National Poultry Research Center, Athens, GA,
6 USA.

7 ^c Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Pathology, Colorado State University, Fort
8 Collins, CO, USA.

9 ^d Department of Environmental Health Science, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA.

10

11 #Correspondence: Swarnali Louha, Institute of Bioinformatics, University of Georgia, Athens,

12 GA 30602; E-mail: sl50708@uga.edu

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24 **ABSTRACT**

25 A reliable and standardized classification of *Listeria monocytogenes* (*Lm*) is important for
26 accurate strain identification during outbreak investigations. Current whole-genome sequencing
27 (WGS) based approaches for strain characterization either lack standardization, rendering them
28 less suitable for data exchange, or are not freely available. Thus, we developed a portable and
29 open-source tool Haplo-ST to improve standardization and provide maximum discriminatory
30 potential to WGS data tied to an MLST (multi locus sequence typing) framework. Haplo-ST
31 performs whole-genome MLST (wgMLST) for *Lm* while allowing for data exchangeability
32 worldwide. This tool takes in (i) raw WGS reads as input, (ii) cleans the raw data according to
33 user specified parameters, (iii) assembles genes across loci by mapping to genes from reference
34 strains, (iv) assigns allelic profiles to assembled genes and provides a wgMLST subtyping for
35 each isolate. Data exchangeability relies on the tool assigning allelic profiles based on a
36 centralized nomenclature defined by the widely-used BIGSdb-*Lm* database. Tests on Haplo-ST's
37 performance with simulated reads from *Lm* reference strains yielded a high sensitivity of 97.5%,
38 and coverage depths of $\geq 20\times$ was found to be sufficient for wgMLST profiling. We used Haplo-
39 ST to characterize and differentiate between two groups of *Lm* isolates, derived from the natural
40 environment and poultry processing plants. Phylogenetic reconstruction showed sharp
41 delineation of lineages within each group and no lineage-specificity was observed with isolate
42 phenotypes (transient vs. persistent) or origins. Genetic differentiation analyses between isolate
43 groups identified 21 significantly differentiated loci, potentially enriched for adaptation and
44 persistence of *Lm* within poultry processing plants.

45

46 **IMPORTANCE**

47 We have developed an open-source tool that provides allele-based subtyping of *Lm* isolates at the
48 whole genome level. Along with allelic profiles, this tool also generates allele sequences, and
49 identifies paralogs, which is useful for phylogenetic tree reconstruction and deciphering
50 relationships between closely related isolates. More broadly, Haplo-ST is flexible and can be
51 adapted to characterize the genome of any haploid organism simply by installing an organism-
52 specific gene database. Haplo-ST also allows for scalable subtyping of isolates; fewer reference
53 genes can be used for low resolution typing, whereas higher resolution can be achieved by
54 increasing the number of genes used in the analysis. Our tool enabled clustering of *Lm* isolates
55 into lineages and detection of potential loci for adaptation and persistence in food processing
56 environments. Findings from these analyses highlights the effectiveness of Haplo-ST in
57 subtyping and evaluating relationships among isolates for routine surveillance, outbreak
58 investigations and source tracking.

59

60 **INTRODUCTION**

61 *Listeria monocytogenes* is an opportunistic foodborne pathogen associated with significant
62 public health concern worldwide, with an estimated 1600 illnesses and 260 deaths occurring
63 annually (1, 2) and an estimated annual economic burden of \$2.8 billion in the United States (3).
64 *Lm* primarily causes the food borne illness listeriosis but may also cause septicemia, encephalitis
65 and meningitis in the immunocompromised, newborn and elderly and severe complications in
66 pregnancies leading to stillbirths and miscarriages (4). *Lm* is ubiquitous in the natural environment.
67 Although all environmental isolates of *Lm* have the potential to cause disease, it is uncertain if
68 some clones are more virulent than others (5).

69 Listeriosis mainly occurs through the consumption of food such as meat, fish and dairy
70 products which become contaminated in food processing facilities during manufacturing, post-
71 processing or storage for extended periods of time before consumption (6). Nearly all sporadic
72 and epidemic human listeriosis cases have been linked to contaminated food or feed (7). Within
73 food processing facilities, *Lm* can adapt to survive conditions used for food preservation and
74 safety; it can replicate at low temperatures, high salt conditions and withstand disinfectants and
75 nitrate preservation methods. These, together with the ability to form biofilms on food contact
76 surfaces can facilitate persistence of *Lm* in food facilities (7). In fact, studies have shown that *Lm*
77 can persist for more than 10 years in food processing facilities (8, 9). Persistence may also arise
78 from the survival of the bacteria in nooks not reached by regular cleaning and sanitation
79 procedures. Often, this results in cross-contamination of the final product multiple times, which
80 increases the risk of an outbreak. On the other hand, frequent introduction of *Lm* from external
81 sources may result in a high prevalence of transient strains within food facilities (10).
82 Contaminating strains of *Lm* are later released from food facilities into the natural environment
83 via effluents (11, 12). Hence, food regulatory authorities should implement effective surveillance
84 and control measures to discriminate between transient and persistent strains, decrease harborage
85 and prevent dissemination of *Lm*. Additionally, it is important to investigate the relatedness of
86 strains of *Lm* involved in a single contamination event for accurate source tracking. Such
87 investigations can help optimize effective control measures to prevent recurrence of
88 contamination in food processing facilities (10).

89 Molecular subtyping techniques have been traditionally used for strain discrimination and
90 identification of degrees of genetic relatedness among isolates (13). While many other subtyping
91 methods (ribotyping, REP-PCR, MLEE) have been used in the past, pulsed-field gel

92 electrophoresis (PFGE) has been the gold standard subtyping tool for *Lm* for many years (14).
93 Although PFGE has been extremely useful in outbreak investigations and source tracking of *Lm*
94 at food settings (10), it is time consuming, labor-intensive, expensive, and difficult to standardize
95 (15, 16). Moreover, it provides little information on the genetic variation within or phylogenetic
96 relationships among strains, limiting our overall understanding of evolutionarily important traits
97 such as virulence. In contrast, sequence-based approaches are promising tools for strain typing
98 and phylogeny assessment (17). Multi-locus sequence typing (MLST) differentiates strains by
99 detecting variation within the nucleotide sequences of seven housekeeping genes. Every isolate
100 is defined by a sequence type (ST), which consists of a combination of seven allelic profiles.
101 Groups of STs sharing a minimum of six identical alleles along with an ST acting as the ‘central
102 genotype’ forms clonal complexes (CCs), which can be geographically and temporally
103 widespread (17). Conventional MLST has been used to describe the population structure of *Lm*,
104 and has shown that *Lm* forms a structured population consisting of four divergent lineages (I-IV)
105 (17, 18). Each lineage is comprised of multiple serotypes; with lineage I containing serotypes
106 1/2b, 3b, 4b, 4d, 4e and 7; lineage II, serotypes 1/2a, 1/2c, 3a, 3c; lineage III: serotypes 1/2a, 4a,
107 4b and 4c; and lineage IV: 4a and 4c. About 96% of all human listeriosis cases are caused by
108 Lineage I and II; serotypes 1/2a, 1/2b and 4b (7). Lineage I strains are known to be highly clonal,
109 indicating strong selection of genetic traits of fitness within the host, whereas Lineage II strains
110 show higher rates of recombination than Lineage I and this increased genome plasticity may help
111 in adapting to diverse ecological niches (19, 20). This is supported by the fact that Lineage I
112 strains are predominantly linked to human clinical infection and animal listeriosis, whereas
113 Lineage II strains are more commonly associated with food contamination and the environment.

114 Lineage III and IV strains occur less frequently among humans and have been linked to animals
115 (21).

116 The advent of next generation sequencing technologies has facilitated whole genome
117 sequencing (WGS)-based subtyping at low costs and speeds exceeding that of traditional MLST.
118 WGS enables easy availability of total bacterial genomes that allow strain discrimination at very
119 high resolution. WGS also provides the ability to infer phylogenetic relationships among isolates,
120 along with access to additional information such as virulence and resistance markers (6). WGS-
121 based subtyping has become extremely valuable for epidemiological surveillance, outbreak
122 detection and source tracking in the United States (22), France (23), Germany (24), Denmark
123 (25), and Australia (26) among other countries. WGS-based subtyping approaches are either
124 based on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (22, 27), or on gene-by-gene allelic profiling
125 of a defined set of genes in the genome (10, 23). Although studies have shown that both SNP-
126 based subtyping and whole-genome based allelic profiling show similar discriminatory power
127 and clustering among isolates (10, 28), SNP-based approaches are dependent on the choice of a
128 reference genome, can be difficult to interpret, and are limited to assessing closely related
129 isolates (10). These limitations are overcome by gene-by-gene approaches, which are based on
130 allelic variation of a predefined set of genes from either the core genome (cgMLST) or on a set
131 of genes from both core and accessory genome (wgMLST).

132 Several cgMLST schemes have been developed for subtyping *Lm* (15, 29-31). These
133 cgMLST schemes are different from each other with respect to the method employed, the
134 diversity and number of isolates used in scheme development, and the number of loci used in
135 each scheme. These differences between cgMLST schemes can impact communication on cluster

136 detection between different laboratories, as knowledge on the type of core genome scheme,
137 assembler, assembler version, and sequencing technology used for cluster detection becomes
138 crucial (32). Further, cgMLST finds differences only within the core genome of *Lm*, which
139 represents ~58% of the genome in terms of number of genes and ~54% in terms of the length of
140 the genome. Though this level of differentiation may be sufficient for discriminating outbreak
141 strains from epidemiologically unrelated strains, investigating persistence and source tracking of
142 root-cause analysis requires increased discriminatory power beyond cgMLST (10). These
143 problems can be addressed with a standardized wgMLST-based subtyping, which can profile
144 allelic differences among *Lm* strains on a genome-wide scale.

145 In this study, we present the Haploid Sequence-Typer (Haplo-ST), a tool that can perform
146 wgMLST for *Lm* while allowing for data exchangeability worldwide. In contrast to the
147 commercial genome-wide MLST scheme developed by BioNumerics® (Applied Maths NV,
148 Belgium) and being used by the US CDC and PulseNet International, Haplo-ST is open-source.
149 Haplo-ST takes in WGS reads as input, assembles genes across loci by mapping to genes from
150 reference strains and assigns allelic profiles to the assembled genes, thus providing a wgMLST
151 profile for each isolate sequenced. The use of an allelic nomenclature defined by the widely-used
152 Institute Pasteur BIGSdb-*Lm* database (available at <http://bigsdb.pasteur.fr/listeria>) facilitates
153 standardized genotyping and easy inter-laboratory data exchange. Further, we conducted *in silico*
154 tests on the sensitivity of Haplo-ST and evaluated accuracy of whole-genome sequence typing
155 with varying levels of sequence coverage.

156 After developing Haplo-ST, we used it to characterize and differentiate between two groups
157 of *Lm* isolates; the first group was obtained from the natural environment and the second group

158 was obtained from poultry processing plants. Isolates from the natural environment were
159 sampled from agricultural sites, forests, sites impacted by water pollution control plants (WPCP)
160 and mixed-use sites. Because Lineage III strains are mostly associated with animals (21), we
161 hypothesized that the majority of isolates obtained from agricultural/pastoral sites would belong
162 to lineage III. Secondly, isolates obtained from the poultry processing plants contained both
163 transient and persistent strains of *Lm*. Because strains belonging to lineage II are predominantly
164 associated with contaminated food, we hypothesized that most of the strains isolated from the
165 poultry processing plants would belong to lineage II. Previous research has shown that persistent
166 strains have increased adhesion and biofilm formation capacity (33) and are genetically distinct
167 from transient strains (34). However, larger-scale studies of the extent of genetic variation
168 existing between persistent and transient strains are still needed. Furthermore, understanding the
169 genetic diversity between *Lm* isolates present in the natural environment and food processing
170 plants can indicate specific traits selected in the processing plant environment, and the genetic
171 and physiological factors responsible for the persistent phenotype.

172 This study aims to (i) develop Haplo-ST for performing wgMLST of *Lm* isolates; (ii)
173 establish phylogenetic relationships within the two group of *Lm* isolates obtained from the
174 outdoor environment and poultry processing plants; (iii) examine if there exists any lineage-
175 specific association of isolates obtained from (a) different sites in the natural environment, and
176 (b) transient and persistent strains; (iv) analyze the extent of genetic variation between (a)
177 isolates obtained from the natural environment and poultry processing plants, and (b) transient
178 and persistent strains of *Lm*. We describe below how we achieved these aims.

179

180 **RESULTS**

181 **Sensitivity of Haplo-ST**

182 Allelic profiles derived from Haplo-ST for *Lm* strains EGD-e and 4b F2365 were compared to
183 allele profiles of 1826 loci in EGD-e and 1825 loci in 4b F2365 respectively. On average, 4.4%
184 of genes had uncalled alleles; this may be due to the inability of short reads to assemble these
185 genes completely. Amongst the loci that were assigned allele designations, reproducibility of
186 allele calls with Haplo-ST was significant, yielding an average sensitivity of 97.5% over eight
187 simulated datasets for coverage depths of $\sim 80\times$ (Phred quality score ≥ 20 for $\geq 90\%$ bases in the
188 retained reads).

189 **Dependency of Haplo-ST on sequencing depth**

190 The number of genes correctly profiled by Haplo-ST increased rapidly from a sequencing depth
191 of $5\times$ to $10\times$, then increased modestly from $10\times$ to $20\times$ and did not increase further beyond a
192 depth of $20\times$ (Fig. 2A). The number of genes assigned an erroneous allele ID (i.e., misassigned)
193 and the number of genes missing an allele ID assignment (i.e., missing or uncalled alleles)
194 decreased significantly up to a depth of $20\times$, improved slightly at $30\times$ and then remained stable
195 at higher sequencing depths (Fig. 2B). The average number of genes partially assembled by
196 YASRA and thus giving rise to uncalled alleles by BIGSdb-*Lm* remained similar over all
197 sequencing depths. This may be due to the presence of low complexity regions within these
198 genes which could not be sequenced with short Illumina reads. From these results we conclude

199 that sequencing depths $\geq 20\times$ will perform well in Haplo-ST for wgMLST profiling of *Lm*
200 isolates.

201 **wgMLST profiling of *Lm* isolates**

202 Haplo-ST generated a wgMLST profile of each *Lm* isolate from WGS reads (File S7). A list of
203 assembled gene sequences identified in each isolate were also provided by Haplo-ST (available
204 at <https://bit.ly/3e9KM6g>).

205 **Identification of paralogs**

206 We used two different approaches to identify paralogous genes in our dataset. With our first
207 approach, Haplo-ST generated a list of paralogous genes for each *Lm* isolate while profiling
208 isolates. Our second approach identified 133 paralogous genes (File S3) in BIGSdb-*Lm*.
209 Comparison of the two approaches for paralog detection showed that BIGSdb-*Lm* correctly
210 identifies all paralogous genes. However, in a few instances BIGSdb-*Lm* incorrectly identifies
211 non-paralogous genes as ‘exact matches’ to each other (File S4). On further examination, we
212 found that in such cases, two allele sequences partially matched across their lengths with a 100%
213 identity (see examples in File S4).

214 **Phylogenetic relationships among *Lm* isolates**

215 *Lm* isolates obtained from the natural environment formed three distinct clusters in the
216 phylogenetic tree (Fig. 3A), with each cluster containing a specific lineage (I, II and III) of *Lm*
217 strains. A majority of the isolates belonged to lineage II (68%), followed by isolates from lineage
218 III (17%), lineage I (5%), and 15 isolates (9%) that could not be genotyped into lineages with

219 lineage-specific probes clearly clustered in lineage II. A few isolates were distantly related to
220 these clusters and an assembly of the 16s rRNA sequence of these isolates showed that they
221 belonged to non-pathogenic *Listeria* species, *L. seeligeri* (n=2) and *L. welshimeri* (n=1). Isolates
222 from the three *Lm* lineages were found to be randomly distributed across the four sampling
223 locations (Fig. 3B). This was confirmed with Fisher's exact test ($\alpha = 0.05$) which failed to show
224 any lineage-specific association of isolates with sampling sites ($P = 0.067$). Isolates sampled
225 from pastoral sites contained a mix of lineages I, II and III with a majority of isolates belonging
226 to lineage II (86%) thus failing to support our hypothesis that isolates sampled from the pastoral
227 sites would mostly belong to lineage III.

228 The phylogenetic tree constructed from isolates obtained from poultry processing plants had two
229 major clusters (Fig. 4A); one containing isolates belonging to lineage I (35%) and the other
230 containing lineage II (59%) isolates. Twelve isolates could not be classified into lineages by
231 genotyping with lineage-specific probes; of these 12, 3 isolates clustered in lineage I and 4
232 isolates clustered in lineage II. The remaining 5 isolates were distantly related from the two
233 major lineages in the tree and were identified as non-pathogenic species of *Listeria*, *L. innocua*
234 (n=4) and *L. welshimeri* (n=1). Persistent strains were more abundant (65%) than transient
235 strains (35%) and correlation of *Lm* lineages with transient vs. persistent phenotypes was not
236 significant (Fishers exact test, $P = 0.86$) (Fig. 4B).

237 **Analysis of molecular variance**

238 The wgMLST profiles were filtered for paralogous genes and assigned custom allele ID's for
239 new alleles (File S8). The results from AMOVA showed that most genetic variation was
240 contained within isolates obtained from the natural environment and poultry processing plants

241 (91%), with only 9% attributed to variation between the two groups (Table 1). To detect loci
242 with significant genetic variation between the two groups, we calculated population specific F_{ST}
243 values for each locus separately with locus-by-locus AMOVA. We chose 111 loci (top 5% of F_{ST}
244 distribution; $F_{ST} \geq 0.149$) with the highest F_{ST} values as loci having considerable genetic
245 variation between isolates obtained from the natural environment and poultry processing plants
246 (Fig. 5A, File S5). Additionally, results from AMOVA considering only isolates from the poultry
247 processing plants suggested that majority of the genetic variance was within isolates (96.18%),
248 and the remaining variation (3.18%) was between the transient and persistent groups of strains
249 (Table 1). In this case, 102 loci (upper 5%; $F_{ST} \geq 0.782$) were identified as having the most
250 divergence between the transient and persistent strains (Fig. 5B, File S6). A set of 21 loci were
251 common among the loci with highest F_{ST} values in both levels of AMOVA (ie. 111 loci in
252 natural environment vs. poultry processing plants, and 102 loci in transient vs. persistent), and
253 might play a role in the adaptation and persistence of *Lm* in poultry processing environments
254 (Table 2).

255 DISCUSSION

256 Molecular characterization of *Listeria monocytogenes* is important for outbreak detection,
257 surveillance, epidemiological studies and in the development of effective control strategies for
258 listeriosis. We have developed a freely available and portable tool, Haplo-ST, that can be used
259 for wgMLST profiling of *Lm* from WGS data. Our tool uses the centralized nomenclature of *Lm*
260 genotypes publicly accessible in the BIGSdb-*Lm* database and the BIGSdb software for calling
261 alleles, which facilitates sharing and comparing data between public health laboratories
262 worldwide, and enables international source tracking and outbreak investigation. We have shown

263 that the reproducibility of allele calls by Haplo-ST has high sensitivity (error rate ~ 2.5%), and
264 sequencing depths of ~20 \times are sufficient for assembling alleles. Because our genotyping
265 technique assembles alleles directly from WGS data by mapping to corresponding reference
266 genes before allele typing, it is computationally faster and less error-prone than other subtyping
267 techniques that require *de-novo* assembly of genomes prior to allele identification and subtyping
268 (15, 31). This property also allows for the scalable characterization of isolates based on the needs
269 of the researcher, as some questions require more discrimination among isolates than others. For
270 example, lower resolution is required for assignment of isolates to a specific lineage or clonal
271 complex whereas higher levels of discrimination are needed for outbreak detection and
272 investigation of within-patient variations (35). In this regard, Haplo-ST is flexible because it can
273 be used with custom sets of fewer reference genes for low resolution typing, whereas higher
274 resolution can be achieved by increasing the number of reference genes used in the analysis. The
275 time required for low resolution typing is low and increases with the increase in typing
276 resolution. For example, on a system with a quad-core processor running at 3.6 GHz and 50 GB
277 of RAM, the time taken for subtyping 100, 500 and 1000 loci was 1.4, 6.2, and 12.8 hrs
278 respectively.

279 The motivation to develop Haplo-ST was to design an open-source platform which can
280 automate the translation of Illumina WGS data from *Lm* collections into their corresponding
281 wgMLST genotypes, thereby subtyping them at the highest possible level of resolution. Because
282 wgMLST harnesses the full power of Illumina sequencing for characterizing isolates, it can be
283 used for discriminating between closely-related isolates that have diversified over a short
284 timeframe. This is highly relevant during outbreak investigations, for tracking the origin of
285 contamination, and precise assessment of divergence dates. This discriminatory power is not

286 achieved with cgMLST because it only assesses differences in the core genome and has been
287 shown to provide fewer allelic differences in comparison to wgMLST (10). Further, cgMLST
288 schemes are mostly composed of slowly evolving genes. Previous studies on *Lm* genomes have
289 estimated the evolution rate of cgMLST types to be around 0.2 alleles per year, indicating that
290 cgMLST-based typing is insufficient for discriminating isolates which have diverged over short
291 timeframes (31). However, use of a well-defined set of species-wide conserved genes makes
292 cgMLST more stable and suitable for robust comparisons of distantly related isolates. Typically,
293 cgMLST is sufficient for routine epidemiological surveillance such as identification of clonal
294 groups and discrimination of outbreak strains from epidemiologically unrelated strains. Haplo-
295 ST can perform both core-genome and whole-genome MLST because its database incorporates
296 genes in the core-genome (the *Lm* cgMLST scheme developed by Institut Pasteur) together with
297 accessory genes in the pan-genome of *Lm*. Additionally, it can be used for inferring biological
298 properties such as virulence, antibiotic-resistance, stress tolerance and phenotypic predictions
299 like serotypes by profiling genes linked to these properties. The wgMLST scheme in Haplo-ST
300 can also be expanded to include genotypic variation in future *Lm* isolates by updating the locally
301 installed BIGSdb-*Lm* database housed within this platform. This can include multi-copy and
302 accessory genes which may arise through recombination and whose detection may become
303 important for pathogen surveillance.

304 Unlike SNP-based genotyping which uses individual SNPs as units of comparison,
305 cg/wgMLST counts different types of variants within one coding region as a single allelic
306 change. This concept covers the conflicting signals of horizontal and vertical transfer of genetic
307 material as a single evolutionary event and classifies WGS data as a set of allele identifiers,
308 thereby enabling easy storage of a stable nomenclature within a database and making

309 comparisons of wgMLST profiles faster. Nonetheless, this also leads to a loss of resolution as it
310 obscures the extent of dissimilarity between non-identical alleles. Thus, the technical
311 performance of wgMLST along with its amenability to standardization is accompanied by a loss
312 in specificity, as minimum spanning trees constructed using sequence types are fully connected,
313 failing to effectively split isolate populations into clonal complexes (36). This becomes
314 problematic as allele-based subtyping alone does not provide sufficient information for
315 delineating outbreaks; it is therefore critical to complement it with whole-genome based
316 phylogenetic clustering for assessing relationships between isolates (37). Recent studies have
317 shown that although wgMLST-based dendograms are comparable to SNP-based phylogenies in
318 identifying clades of closely related isolates with a recent common ancestor, they differ from
319 each other with respect to the placement of isolates within clonal groups, where branches in
320 SNP-based phylogenies are not supported by greater than 90% bootstrap support (10). This
321 emphasizes the importance of constructing phylogenies with confidence measures such as
322 bootstrap support, which is unfortunately not feasible with wgMLST-based dendograms. Haplo-
323 ST has the advantage of not only providing wgMLST profiles, but also provides corresponding
324 allele sequences assembled for each isolate. While allelic profiles can be used for constructing
325 dendograms from allelic similarity type matrices, allele sequences can be concatenated and used
326 for constructing cg/wgMLST-based phylogenies using a variety of models of molecular
327 evolution and obtaining bootstrap support values. Moreover, our tool can detect paralogous
328 genes which when ignored, can lead to the construction of biased phylogenies. Thus, analysis
329 provided by Haplo-ST, when combined with detailed epidemiological evidence, isolate metadata
330 and appropriate interpretation allows for routine surveillance of *Lm*, accurate source-tracking of

331 contaminating strains, elucidation of transmission pathways and ultimately helps in devising
332 better intervention strategies in food safety monitoring programs.

333 Our approach was evaluated for its usability in characterizing and determining relatedness
334 within two groups of *Lm* isolates; one group representing isolates present in the natural
335 environment and the other from poultry further processing facilities. This enabled us to decipher
336 the phylogenetic relatedness of *Lm* isolates which shows clear delineation between lineages in
337 both isolate groups. A majority of isolates in the natural environment and food facilities
338 belonged to lineage II, which is consistent with previous studies (21). Further, the lineage of 11%
339 isolates could not be identified with lineage-specific probes. All of these were identified using
340 our methods, including 2% that belonged to other species. Moreover, we did not find significant
341 differences in the distribution of isolates belonging to different lineages in terms of their
342 phenotypes (persistent/transient) and origin (sampling sites). However, it is curious that we
343 found no lineage III isolates in the processing plant samples but 17% in the natural environment.

344 *Lm* is a foodborne pathogen that is prevalent in the natural environment. Its ability to
345 colonize and persist in food processing environments increases the risk of contaminating ready-
346 to-eat (RTE) food, often leading to outbreaks of listeriosis. Hence, understanding the genetic
347 determinants associated with its adaptation and persistence in food processing environments is of
348 paramount importance for developing targeted intervention strategies, and the typing of *Lm* plays
349 a crucial role in such investigations. Another advantage of the wgMLST approach is that it lends
350 itself to analyses that help to form hypotheses on the mechanisms of segregation of isolates.

351 We used Haplo-ST to type and identify loci with significant genetic variation between
352 isolates obtained from the natural environment and poultry processing facilities. Our analysis

353 revealed 111 significantly differentiated loci which may be involved in helping *Lm* to adapt to
354 high stress conditions within food processing environments, thereby increasing its risk of
355 contaminating food. Unlike transient strains, which are frequently introduced into food facilities
356 from the natural environment and easily removed with regular sanitation shifts, persistent strains
357 have been reported to have enhanced capacity to adapt and survive in food production chains and
358 are difficult to eradicate. Thus, we also used our tool to characterize and detect loci with high
359 genomic differentiation between transient and persistent strains. We obtained 102 highly
360 differentiated loci potentially enriched for the ‘persistent’ phenotype. Of these, 21 loci were
361 common with the 111 loci we previously identified as potentially contributing towards
362 adaptation in food processing facilities (Table 2). These loci were considered to be significantly
363 enriched for adaptation and were related to metabolism (*lmo0875*, *lmo2650*, *lmo1336*, *lmo1817*,
364 *lmo1464*, *lmo2640*), transport (*lmo0875*, *lmo2650*, *lmo1210*, *lmo2383*, *lmo1960*, *lmo1205*),
365 tRNA and ribosome biogenesis (*lmo1949*, *lmo2078*, *lmo1294*), biosynthesis of secondary
366 metabolites (*lmo1294*, *lmo2640*), translation (*lmo2548*, *lmo2073*), and oxidative stress
367 (*lmo0964*). We also found that out of the 102 loci differentiated for persistence, three genes
368 (*lmo1699*, *lmo0692*, *lmo2020*) were found to be associated with chemotaxis, a process that plays
369 a role in niche localization (38). Several studies have shown the presence of a five gene stress
370 survival islet, *SSI-1* to contribute to the growth of *Lm* under suboptimal conditions like low pH
371 and high salt concentrations (39, 40). Our analyses found *SSI-1* in a higher fraction of isolates
372 (93%) from processing plants compared to the natural environment (17%). Other studies report
373 resistance to quaternary ammonium compounds like benzalkonium chloride (BC) in persistent
374 strains (41). BC is commonly used as an agri-food sanitizer and resistance to it is provided by the
375 gene cassette *bcrABC*, in which *bcrAB* codes for the small multidrug resistance protein family

376 transporter and *bcrC* codes for a transcriptional factor. Our subtyping results are in agreement
377 with this; *bcrABC* was present in 72% of the isolates obtained from the effluents, but absent in
378 isolates obtained from the natural environment. Among isolates collected from effluents, *bcrABC*
379 was associated with a higher proportion of persistent strains (54%) when compared to transient
380 strains (18%).

381 Our approach does, however, have a few limitations. Although the locally installed database
382 within our platform is expandable to accommodate future genetic diversity in *Lm*, it requires
383 frequent manual upgrades as new alleles and genes become available. With the recent
384 accessibility of BIGSdb-*Lm* at Pasteur Institut through RESTful API, this drawback can be
385 resolved by making minor modifications to our pipeline which will allow the tool to interrogate
386 the server at Pasteur Institut directly instead of calling alleles locally. Secondly, our approach is
387 gene-centric and characterizes differences only in protein-coding genes; therefore, genetic
388 variation in other genomic regions like pseudogenes and intergenic regions are not accounted for.
389 Additionally, the use of short reads may produce faulty assemblies of accessory genes and repeat
390 regions. With the decreasing costs and increased popularity of third-generation sequencing
391 instruments, these limitations can be overcome with development of appropriate sequence
392 assembly algorithms. Thus, the power of fully assembled genomes remain yet to be exploited.
393 Nevertheless, the current wgMLST approach will be stable over time as new genes are added and
394 maintain backwards compatibility with classical seven-gene MLST schemes.

395 The greatest advantage of Haplo-ST is that this platform is flexible and not limited to
396 profiling of *Listeria monocytogenes* alone. It can be adapted to provide molecular
397 characterization for any haploid organism, with the installation of an organism-specific gene

398 database with associated allelic nomenclature, along with minor changes to the script that
399 automates the pipeline. Furthermore, users are not limited to using publicly available gene
400 databases because BIGSdb can accommodate any custom user-provided database.

401 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

402 **Development of Haplo-ST for wgMLST profiling of *Lm* strains**

403 We developed Haplo-ST to analyze wgMLST for *Lm* (Fig. 1). This tool takes in raw WGS reads
404 for each *Lm* isolate and uses the FASTX-Toolkit v0.0.14 (42) to clean them according to user-
405 specified parameters. It then uses YASRA v2.33, (available at
406 <https://github.com/aakrosh/YASRA>; 43) to assemble genes across loci by mapping to reference
407 genes. We selected YASRA for assembling genes because YASRA is a comparative assembler
408 which uses a template to guide the assembly of a closely related target sequence, and can
409 accommodate high rates of polymorphism between the template and target (43). Hence, this
410 assembler can be used to assemble an allelic variant of a gene by mapping to a reference
411 sequence, even when the target allele has diverged considerably from the reference gene
412 sequence. Next, a local installation of the BIGSdb-*Lm* database (available at
413 <http://bigsdb.pasteur.fr/listeria>, 44) is used by Haplo-ST to assign allelic profiles to the genes
414 assembled with YASRA, thus generating a wgMLST profile for each isolate. The BIGSdb-*Lm*
415 database contains allelic profiles of 2554 *Lm* genes obtained from BIGSdb-*Lm* as of 2nd June
416 2017. This pipeline has been automated with a Perl script and made portable by installation of all
417 software dependencies along with a local installation of the BIGSdb-*Lm* database within a Linux
418 Virtual Machine (VM). Haplo-ST has been made available at
419 <https://github.com/swarnalilouha/Haplo-ST>. In addition to generating wgMLST profiles, Haplo-

420 ST also outputs the list of gene sequences assembled for each isolate. Because BIGSdb-*Lm* can
421 identify all paralogs associated with a query gene sequence as ‘exact matches’, our tool has also
422 been automated to output a list of paralogs identified for each isolate.

423 **Sensitivity of Haplo-ST**

424 ART v2.5.8 (45) was used to simulate WGS reads for two reference genomes of *Lm*, EGD-e
425 (NCBI accession number NC_003210.1) and Strain 4b F2365 (NCBI accession number
426 NC_002973.6). The simulated WGS reads were of two different lengths (150 bp and 250 bp);
427 and different qualities, one set of reads with high quality throughout the read length and the other
428 with degrading quality over the length of the read. In total, 8 sets of simulated WGS reads were
429 processed through Haplo-ST to generate 8 wgMLST profiles. Four of these wgMLST profiles
430 were obtained from simulated reads generated from the *Lm* EGD-e reference genome. Each of
431 these 4 profiles were compared to the allelic profiles of annotated genes in EGD-e. The other
432 four wgMLST profiles were obtained from reads derived from the Strain 4b F2365 reference
433 genome. These were compared to the allelic profiles of annotated genes in F2365. For each
434 comparison, we calculated the percentage of genes correctly typed by Haplo-ST. Finally, we
435 calculated the average sensitivity over eight comparisons.

436 **Dependency of Haplo-ST on sequencing depth**

437 To determine the levels of genome sequence coverage necessary for efficient whole-genome
438 sequence typing, synthetic reads were simulated from the *Lm* EGD-e reference genome with
439 ART v2.5.8 for different sequencing depths ranging from 5× - 120× and typed with Haplo-ST
440 (performed in triplicate). For each sequencing depth, the allelic profiles typed by our tool were

441 compared to allelic profiles of annotated genes from the *Lm* EGD-e reference genome. Finally,
442 for each comparison, we calculated: (i) the number of genes correctly typed, (ii) the number of
443 genes assigned an erroneous allele ID, (iii) the number of genes partially assembled and (iv) the
444 number of genes missing an allele ID assignment by Haplo-ST.

445 **Analysis of *Lm* strains collected from the natural environment and poultry processing
446 plants**

447 ***Lm* Isolate collection, DNA extraction and sequencing**

448 *Lm* isolates obtained from the natural environment were cultured from water and sediment
449 samples collected at 16 locations in the South Fork Broad River watershed located in Northeast
450 Georgia (46). Sampling locations were selected based on predominant land use by the National
451 Land Cover Database and on-the-ground surveys. Samples were collected from 6 sites
452 designated as agricultural/pastoral; 7 sites as forested; 2 sites as impacted by water pollution
453 control plants (WPCP) and 1 site classified as mixed-use. *Lm* isolates obtained from poultry
454 processing plants were sampled from different locations within the poultry processing plants at
455 different time periods (12, 47). Some of these isolates were repeatedly isolated from multiple
456 sites in the plants over an extended period of time and were designated as ‘persistent’ types
457 (based on *actA*-sequence subtyping); other isolates sporadically isolated from the food
458 processing facilities were classified as ‘transient’ strains. Each colony of *Lm* isolate cultured
459 from the samples was inoculated into 5ml of tryptic soy broth and grown overnight at 35 °C.
460 DNA was extracted using the UltraClean® Microbial DNeasy Kit (Qiagen, Venlo, The
461 Netherlands) according to manufacturer’s instructions. Sequencing libraries were prepared using
462 the Nextera XT DNA Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Genomic DNA of

463 each isolate was sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq platform to obtain paired-end 150 or 250
464 bp reads. This effort yielded WGS data for a total of 171 *Lm* isolates obtained from the natural
465 environment (NCBI BioProject Accession: PRJNA605751) and 162 *Lm* isolates obtained from
466 poultry processing plants (NCBI BioProject Accession: PRJNA606479). These were then
467 processed using Haplo-ST.

468 ***wgMLST profiling of Lm isolates with Haplo-ST***

469 WGS data for *Lm* isolates was first checked for quality with FastQC v0.11.4 (48). The raw data
470 was then cleaned with the FASTX-Toolkit v0.0.14 incorporated within Haplo-ST. User-specified
471 parameters were used to perform three successive cleaning steps with FASTA/Q Trimmer,
472 FASTQ Quality Trimmer and FASTQ Quality Filter tools of the FASTX-Toolkit. Reads were
473 trimmed to remove all bases with a Phred quality score of < 20 from both ends, and filtered such
474 that 90% of bases in the clean reads had a quality of at least 20. After trimming and filtering, all
475 remaining reads with lengths of < 50 bp were filtered out. Next, the cleaned reads were
476 assembled into gene sequences by mapping to reference genes with YASRA. While assembling
477 genes across loci, all assemblies having a length of less than 89% the length of the corresponding
478 reference gene were removed. This is because our examination of the lengths of all 2554 genes
479 and their respective alleles in the BIGSdb-*Lm* database revealed that alleles of a gene can have
480 different lengths, which ranges from 0.89 - 1.09 times the length of the reference gene. This
481 ‘length criteria’ for filtering assembled genes has been provided as a user-specified parameter in
482 the Perl script that automates Haplo-ST. The value for this parameter can be adjusted if the
483 BIGSdb-*Lm* database is updated to include more genes or alleles, or if only a subset of genes is

484 used for allelic profiling. Finally, assembled genes were assigned allele ID's with BIGSdb-*Lm*
485 and wgMLST profiles were generated for each isolate.

486 ***Identification of paralogous genes***

487 We identified paralogous genes in our dataset using two approaches. In the first approach,
488 Haplo-ST uses BIGSdb-*Lm*'s ability to identify paralogs and outputs a list of paralogs for each
489 isolate. To verify that all paralogs were correctly identified with BIGSdb-*Lm*, we used a second
490 approach to detect paralogs present within the BIGSdb-*Lm* database. First a local BLAST
491 database was created with all 2554 genes and their corresponding alleles present in the BIGSdb-
492 *Lm* database using BLAST+ v2.2.29. Next, BLAST searches of all genes and their respective
493 alleles were made against the local BLAST database (File S1). Custom Perl scripts were used to
494 identify genes having an exact sequence match to another gene in the database and all such
495 matches were listed as paralogs.

496 ***Construction of phylogenetic trees and evaluation of lineage-specific association***

497 The list of genes assembled for each isolate with Haplo-ST were filtered to remove paralogous
498 genes. The final filtered assemblies for each group of isolates (the first group obtained from the
499 natural environment and the second group obtained from poultry processing plants) were used to
500 create concatenated multiple sequence alignments (MSA) with Phyluce v1.5.0 (49). Several
501 scripts were used to create MSA's for each isolate group. First, a custom Perl script was used to
502 convert the assembled gene sequences into a format suitable for use with Phyluce. Second, the
503 'phyluce_align_seqcap_align' script was used to align genes across loci for all isolates within a
504 group and the alignment was trimmed for ragged edges. The summary statistics of alignments for

505 both isolate groups were checked with the script ‘phyluce_align_get_align_summary_data’ and
506 cleaned for locus names with ‘phyluce_align_remove_locus_name_from_nexus_lines’. The
507 dataset for each isolate group was then culled to reach a 95% level of completeness with
508 ‘phyluce_align_get_only_loci_with_min_taxa’. The 95% complete data matrix was converted
509 into phylip files with ‘phyluce_align_format_nexus_files_for_raxml’ and phylogenetic trees
510 were constructed with FastME v2.1.5 (50). The substitution model used by FastME was ‘p-
511 distance’ and the BioNJ algorithm was used to compute a tree from the distance matrix (File S2).
512 A total of 500 bootstrap replicates were computed to provide support to the internal branches of
513 each of the phylogenies.

514 *Lm* isolates were classified into lineages (I to IV) based on a targeted multilocus genotyping
515 approach (TMLGT) in which six genomic regions were coamplified in a multiplexed PCR and
516 used as templates for allele-specific primer extension using lineage-specific probes (51).
517 Lineage-specific correlation between groups of isolates was tested with Fisher’s exact test at $P =$
518 0.05.

519 Phylogenetic trees were visualized and annotated with iTOL v3 (52). For better visualization,
520 all phylogenetic trees were converted to circular format and lineage classification for isolates
521 was displayed by coloring internal branches. The annotations for the source and type of isolates
522 were displayed in outer external rings.

523 ***Analysis of genetic variation***

524 To obtain measures of genetic differentiation, we used the wgMLST profiles from Haplo-ST and
525 performed Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) in Arlequin v3.5.2 (53). First, paralogous

526 loci were removed from the raw wgMLST profiles. Next, new alleles not defined in the BIGSdb-
527 *Lm* database and reported as ‘closest matches’ to existing alleles in the wgMLST profiles were
528 assigned custom allele ID’s with in-house python scripts. Finally, AMOVA was separately
529 performed at two levels: (i) among groups of isolates obtained from the natural environment and
530 poultry processing plants, and (ii) among groups of transient and persistent strains obtained from
531 the poultry processing plants. For each level of analysis, loci with < 10% missing data in the
532 wgMLST profiles were used. Fifty thousand permutations were used to determine significance of
533 variance components. In addition to AMOVA which calculates the global F_{ST} for all loci within a
534 group of isolates, we also performed a locus by locus AMOVA which computes F_{ST} indices for
535 each locus separately, for both levels of analysis. The upper 5% of the distribution of F_{ST} values
536 was chosen as the threshold for loci with significant genetic diversity.

537 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

538 This research was supported by funding from USDA Agricultural Research Service Project
539 Number 6040-32000-009-00-D. We thank USDA and FSIS for providing us with *Listeria*
540 *monocytogenes* whole-genome sequencing samples for our work. We also thank Yecheng Huang
541 for assistance with a local installation of the BIGSdb database. The high-performance computing
542 cluster at Georgia Advanced Computing Resource Center (GACRC) at the University of Georgia
543 provided computational infrastructure and technical support throughout the work.

544 **SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL**

545 **File S1:** Script for making BLAST searches of all genes and their respective alleles against a
546 local BLAST database.

547 **File S2:** Script for constructing phylogenetic trees with FastME.

548 **File S3:** List of 133 paralogous genes identified in our dataset.

549 **File S4:** Inaccurate characterization by BIGSdb-*Lm* when it recognizes non-paralogous genes as
550 ‘exact matches’.

551 **File S5:** List of 111 loci with the highest F_{ST} values (top 5% of F_{ST} distribution) having
552 considerable genetic variation between isolates obtained from the natural environment and
553 poultry processing plants.

554 **File S6:** List of 102 loci (upper 5% of F_{ST} distribution) having the most genetic divergence
555 between the transient and persistent strains.

556 **File S7:** Whole-genome MLST profiles of *Lm* isolates generated by Haplo-ST.

557 **File S8:** Whole-genome MLST profiles of *Lm* isolates with new alleles assigned custom allele-
558 IDs.

559 REFERENCES

560 1. Bennion JR, Sorvillo F, Wise ME, Krishna S, Mascola L. 2008. Decreasing listeriosis
561 mortality in the United States, 1990-2005. *Clin Infect Dis* 47:867-74.

562 2. Scallan E, Hoekstra RM, Angulo FJ, Tauxe RV, Widdowson MA, Roy SL, Jones JL,
563 Griffin PM. 2011. Foodborne illness acquired in the United States--major pathogens.
564 *Emerg Infect Dis* 17:7-15.

565 3. USDA ERS. 2014. Cost estimates of foodborne illnesses. Economic Re- search Service,
566 US Department of Agriculture, Washington, DC. Available at:
567 <https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/cost-estimates-of-foodborne-illnesses.aspx>.

568 4. Den Bakker HC, Didelot X, Fortes ED, Nightingale KK, Wiedmann M. 2008. Lineage
569 specific recombination rates and microevolution in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *BMC Evol
570 Biol* 8:277.

571 5. Haase JK, Didelot X, Lecuit M, Korkeala H, *L. monocytogenes* MLST Study Group;
572 Achtman M. 2014. The ubiquitous nature of *Listeria monocytogenes* clones: a large-scale
573 Multilocus Sequence Typing study. *Environ Microbiol* 16:405-16.

574 6. Painset A, Björkman JT, Kiil K, Guillier L, Mariet JF, Félix B, Amar C, Rotariu O,
575 Roussel S, Perez-Reche F, Brisse S, Moura A, Lecuit M, Forbes K, Strachan N, Grant K,
576 Møller-Nielsen E, Dallman TJ. 2019. LiSEQ - whole-genome sequencing of a cross-
577 sectional survey of *Listeria monocytogenes* in ready-to-eat foods and human clinical
578 cases in Europe. *Microb Genom* 5: e000257.

579 7. Hyden P, Pietzka A, Lennkh A, Murer A, Springer B, Blaschitz M, Indra A, Huhulescu
580 S, Allerberger F, Ruppitsch W, Sensen CW. 2016. Whole genome sequence-based
581 serogrouping of *Listeria monocytogenes* isolates. *J Biotechnol* 235:181-6.

582 8. Orsi RH, Borowsky ML, Lauer P, Young SK, Nusbaum C, Galagan JE, Birren BW, Ivy
583 RA, Sun Q, Graves LM, Swaminathan B, Wiedmann M. 2008. Short-term genome
584 evolution of *Listeria monocytogenes* in a non-controlled environment. BMC Genom
585 9:539.

586 9. Carpentier B, Cerf O. 2011. Review—persistence of *Listeria monocytogenes* in food
587 industry equipment and premises. Int J Food Microbiol 145:1-8.

588 10. Jagadeesan B, Baert L, Wiedmann M, Orsi RH. 2019. Comparative Analysis of Tools
589 and Approaches for Source Tracking *Listeria monocytogenes* in a Food Facility Using
590 Whole-Genome Sequence Data. Front Microbiol 10:947.

591 11. Kuhn M, Goebel W. 2007. Molecular virulence determinants of *Listeria monocytogenes*,
592 p 111-155. In Ryser ET, Marth EH (ed), *Listeria*, listeriosis and food safety, 3rd ed, CRC
593 Press Taylor and Francis Group, Boca Raton, FL.

594 12. Berrang ME, Meinersmann RJ, Frank JF, Smith DP, Genzlinger LL. 2005. Distribution
595 of *Listeria monocytogenes* subtypes within a poultry further processing plant. J Food Prot
596 68:980-985.

597 13. Moorman M, Pruett P, Weidman M. 2010. Value and Methods for Molecular Subtyping
598 of Bacteria, p 157-175. In Kornacki JL (ed), Principles of Microbiological
599 Troubleshooting in the Industrial Food Processing Environment, 1st ed, Springer Science
600 Business Media, New York, NY.

601 14. Swaminathan B, Barrett T, Hunter SB, Tauxe RV, CDC PulseNet Task Force. 2001.
602 PulseNet: The molecular subtyping network for foodborne bacterial disease surveillance,
603 United States. Emerg Infect Dis 7:382-389.

604 15. Ruppitsch W, Pietzka A, Prior K, Bletz S, Fernandez HL, Allerberger F, Harmsen D,
605 Mellmann A. 2015. Defining and evaluating a core genome MLST scheme for whole
606 genome sequence-based typing of *Listeria monocytogenes*. J Clin Microbiol 53:2869-76.

607 16. Henri C, Félix B, Guillier L, Leekitcharoenphon P, Michelon D, Mariet JF, Aarestrup
608 FM, Mistou MY, Hendriksen RS, Roussel S. 2016. Population Genetic Structure of
609 *Listeria monocytogenes* Strains as Determined by Pulsed-Field GelElectrophoresis and
610 Multilocus Sequence Typing. Appl Environ Microbiol. 82:5720-8.

611 17. Ragon M, Wirth T, Hollandt F, Lavenir R, Lecuit M, Monnier Le A, Brisse S. A new
612 perspective on *Listeria Monocytogenes* evolution. 2008. PLoS Pathog 4:e1000146.

613 18. Orsi RH, den Bakker HC, Wiedmann M. 2011. *Listeria monocytogenes* lineages:
614 genomics, evolution, ecology, and phenotypic characteristics. Int J Med Microbiol
615 301:79-96.

616 19. Meinersmann RJ, Phillips RW, Wiedmann M, Berrang ME. 2004. Multilocus Sequence
617 Typing of *Listeria Monocytogenes* by Use of Hypervariable Genes Reveals Clonal and
618 Recombination Histories of Three Lineages. Appl Environ Microbiol 70:2193-203.

619 20. Pirone-Davies C, Chen, Y, Pightling A, Ryan G, Wang Y, Yao K, Hoffmann M, Allard
620 MW. 2018. Genes significantly associated with lineage II food isolates of *Listeria*
621 *monocytogenes*. BMC Genomics 19:708.

622 21. Dreyer M, Aguilar-Bultet L, Rupp S, Guldmann C, Stephan R, Schock A, Otter A,
623 Schüpbach G, Brisse S, Lecuit M, Frey J, Oevermann A. 2016. *Listeria monocytogenes*
624 sequence type 1 is predominant in ruminant rhombencephalitis. Sci Rep 6:36419.

625 22. Jackson BR, Tarr C, Strain E, Jackson KA, Conrad A, Carleton H, Katz LS, Stroika S,
626 Gould LH, Mody RK, Silk BJ, Beal J, Chen Y, Timme R, Doyle M, Fields A, Wise M,

627 Tillman G, Defibaugh-Chavez S, Kucerova Z, Sabol A, Roache K, Trees E, Simmons M,

628 Wasilenko J, Kubota K, Pouseele H, Klimke W, Besser J, Brown E, Allard M, Gerner-

629 Smidt P. 2016. Implementation of Nationwide Real-time Whole-genome Sequencing to

630 Enhance Listeriosis Outbreak Detection and Investigation. *Clin Infect Dis* 63:380-386.

631 23. Moura A, Tourdjman M, Leclercq A, Hamelin E, Laurent E, Fredriksen N, Van Cauteren

632 D, Bracq-Dieye H, Thouvenot P, Vales G, Tessaud-Rita N, Maury MM, Alexandru A,

633 Criscuolo A, Quevillon E, Donguy MP, Enouf V, de Valk H, Brisson S, Lecuit M. 2017.

634 Real-Time Whole-Genome Sequencing for Surveillance of *Listeria monocytogenes*,

635 France. *Emerg Infect Dis* 23:1462-1470.

636 24. Halbedel S, Prager R, Fuchs S, Trost E, Werner G, Flieger A. Whole-Genome

637 Sequencing of Recent *Listeria monocytogenes* Isolates from Germany Reveals

638 Population Structure and Disease Clusters. 2018. *J Clin Microbiol* 56:e00119-18.

639 25. Kvistholm Jensen A, Nielsen EM, Björkman JT, Jensen T, Müller L, Persson S, Bjerager

640 G, Perge A, Krause TG, Kiil K, Sørensen G, Andersen JK, Mølbak K, Ethelberg S. 2016.

641 Whole-genome Sequencing Used to Investigate a Nationwide Outbreak of Listeriosis

642 Caused by Ready-to-eat Delicatessen Meat, Denmark, 2014. *Clin Infect Dis* 63:64-70.

643 26. Kwong JC, Mercoula K, Tomita T, Easton M, Li HY, Bulach DM, Stinear TP, Seemann

644 T, Howden BP. 2016. Prospective Whole-Genome Sequencing Enhances National

645 Surveillance of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J Clin Microbiol* 54:333-342.

646 27. Katz LS, Griswold T, Williams-Newkirk AJ, Wagner D, Petkau A, Sieffert C, Domselaar

647 GV, Deng X, Carleton HA. 2017. A comparative analysis of the Lyve-SET

648 phylogenomics pipeline for genomic epidemiology of foodborne pathogens. *Front*

649 *Microbiol* 8:375.

650 28. Henri C, Leekitcharoenphon P, Carleton HA, Radomski N, Kaas RS, Mariet JF, Felten A,
651 Aarestrup FM, Gerner Smidt P, Roussel S, Guillier L, Mistou MY, Hendriksen RS. 2017.
652 An Assessment of Different Genomic Approaches for Inferring Phylogeny of *Listeria*
653 *monocytogenes*. *Front Microbiol* 8:2351.

654 29. Pightling AW, Petronella N, Pagotto F. 2015. The *Listeria monocytogenes* core -genome
655 sequence typer (LmCGST): a bioinformatics pipeline for molecular characterization with
656 next generation sequence data. *BMC Microbiol* 15:224.

657 30. Chen Y, Gonzalez-Escalona N, Hammack TS, Allard MW, Strain EA, Brown EW. 2016.
658 Core Genome Multilocus Sequence Typing for Identification of Globally Distributed
659 Clonal Groups and Differentiation of Outbreak Strains of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl*
660 *Environ Microbiol* 82:6258-6272.

661 31. Moura A, Criscuolo A, Pouseele H, Maury MM, Leclercq A, Tarr C, Björkman JT,
662 Dallman T, Reimer A, Enouf V, Larsonneur E, Carleton H, Bracq-Dieye H, Katz LS,
663 Jones L, Touchon M, Tourdjman M, Walker M, Stroika S, Cantinelli T, Chenal-
664 Francisque V, Kucerova Z, Rocha EPC, Nadon C, Grant K, Nielsen EM, Pot B, Gerner-
665 Smidt P, Lecuit M, Brisson S. 2016. Whole genome-based population biology and
666 epidemiological surveillance of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Nat Microbiol* 2:16185.

667 32. Pietzka A, Allerberger F, Murer A, Lennkh A, Stöger A, Cabal Rosel A, Huhulescu S,
668 Maritschnik S, Springer B, Lepuschitz S, Ruppitsch W, Schmid D. 2019. Whole Genome
669 Sequencing Based Surveillance of *L. monocytogenes* for Early Detection and
670 Investigations of Listeriosis Outbreaks. *Front Public Health* 7:139.

671 33. Wang J, Ray AJ, Hammons SR, Oliver HF. 2015. Persistent and transient *Listeria*
672 *monocytogenes* strains from retail deli environments vary in their ability to adhere and

673 form biofilms and rarely have inlA premature stop codons. *Foodborne Pathog Dis*
674 12:151-8.

675 34. Autio T, Keto-Timonen R, Lundén J, Björkroth J, Korkeala H. 2003. Characterization of
676 persistent and sporadic *Listeria monocytogenes* strains by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis
677 (PFGE) and amplified fragment length polymorphism (ALFP). *Syst Appl Microbiol*
678 26:539-45.

679 35. Maiden MC, Jansen van Rensburg MJ, Bray JE, Earle SG, Ford SA, Jolley KA,
680 McCarthy ND. 2013. MLST revisited: the gene-by-gene approach to bacterial genomics.
681 *Nat Rev Microbiol* 11:728-36.

682 36. Feil EJ, Li BC, Aanensen DM, Hanage WP, Spratt BG. 2004. eBURST: inferring
683 patterns of evolutionary descent among clusters of related bacterial genotypes from
684 multilocus sequence typing data. *J Bacteriol* 186:1518-30.

685 37. Chen Y, Luo Y, Carleton H, Timme R, Melka D, Muruvanda T, Wang C, Kastanis G,
686 Katz LS, Turner L, Fritzinger A, Moore T, Stones R, Blankenship J, Salter M, Parish M,
687 Hammack TS, Evans PS, Tarr CL, Allard MW, Strain EA, Brown EW. 2017. Whole
688 Genome and Core Genome Multilocus Sequence Typing and Single Nucleotide
689 Polymorphism Analyses of *Listeria monocytogenes* Isolates Associated with an Outbreak
690 Linked to Cheese, United States, 2013. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 83:e00633-17.

691 38. Casey A, Fox EM, Schmitz-Esser S, Coffey A, McAuliffe O, Jordan K. 2014.
692 Transcriptome analysis of *Listeria monocytogenes* exposed to biocide stress reveals a
693 multi-system response involving cell wall synthesis, sugar uptake, and motility. *Front
694 Microbiol* 5:68.

695 39. Ryan S, Begley M, Hill C, Gahan CGM. 2010. A Five-Gene Stress Survival Islet (SSI-1)
696 That Contributes to the Growth of *Listeria Monocytogenes* in Suboptimal Conditions. *J*
697 *Appl Microbiol* 109:984-95.

698 40. Gómez D, Azón E, Marco N, Carramiñana JJ, Rota C, Ariño A, Yangüela J. 2014.
699 Antimicrobial Resistance of *Listeria Monocytogenes* and *Listeria Innocua* from Meat
700 Products and Meat-Processing Environment. *Food Microbiol* 42:61-5.

701 41. Cherifi T, Carrillo C, Lambert D, Miniaï I, Quessy S, Larivière-Gauthier G, Blais B,
702 Fraval P. 2018. Genomic Characterization of *Listeria Monocytogenes* Isolates Reveals
703 That Their Persistence in a Pig Slaughterhouse Is Linked to the Presence of
704 Benzalkonium Chloride Resistance Genes. *BMC Microbiol* 18:220.

705 42. Hannon GJ. 2010. FASTX-Toolkit, FASTQ/A short-reads pre-processing tools.
706 Repository http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit

707 43. Ratan A. 2009. Assembly algorithms for next generation sequence data. Ph.D.
708 dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University.

709 44. Jolley KA, and Maiden MC. 2010. BIGSdb:scalable analysis of bacterial genome
710 variation at the population level. *BMC Bioinform* 11:595.

711 45. Huang W, Li L, Myers JR, Marth GT. 2012. ART: A Next-Generation Sequencing Read
712 Simulator. *Bioinformatics* 28:593-4.

713 46. Bradshaw JK, Snyder BJ, Oladeinde A, Spidle D, Berrang ME, Meinersmann RJ, Oakley
714 B, Sidle RC, Sullivan K, Molina M. 2016. Characterizing relationships among fecal
715 indicator bacteria, microbial source tracking markers, and associated waterborne
716 pathogen occurrence in stream water and sediments in a mixed land use watershed. *Water*
717 *Res* 101:498-509.

718 47. Berrang ME, Meinermann RJ, Frank JF, Ladely SR. 2010. Colonization of a newly
719 constructed commercial chicken further processing plant with *Listeria monocytogenes*. J
720 Food Prot 73:286-291.

721 48. Andrews S. 2010. FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.
722 Repository <http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc>

723 49. Faircloth BC. 2016. PHYLUCE is a software package for the analysis of conserved
724 genomic loci. Bioinformatics 32:786-8.

725 50. Lefort V, Desper R, Gascuel O. 2015. FastME 2.0: A Comprehensive, Accurate, and Fast
726 Distance-Based Phylogeny Inference Program. Mol Biol Evol 32:2798-800.

727 51. Ward TJ, Usgaard T, Evans P. 2010. A targeted multilocus genotyping assay for lineage,
728 serogroup, and epidemic clone typing of *Listeria monocytogenes*. Appl Environ
729 Microbiol 76:6680-4.

730 52. Letunic I, Bork P. 2016. Interactive tree of life (iTOL) v3: an online tool for the display
731 and annotation of phylogenetic and other trees. Nucleic Acids Res 44:W242-5.

732 53. Excoffier L, Lischer HEL. 2010. Arlequin suite ver 3.5: A new series of programs to
733 perform population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. Mol Ecol Resour
734 10:564-567.

735

736

737

738

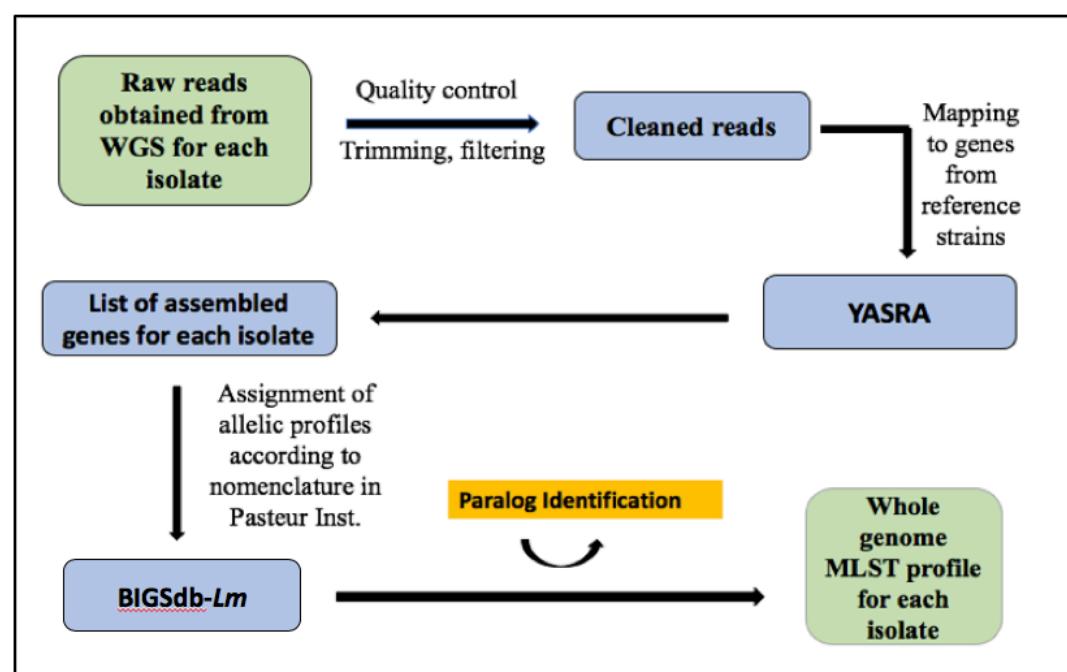
739

740

741 TABLES AND FIGURES

742 **Figure 1:** Haplo-ST, a tool for wgMLST profiling of *Listeria monocytogenes* (*Lm*) from WGS

743 reads.



744
745

746

747

748

749

750

751

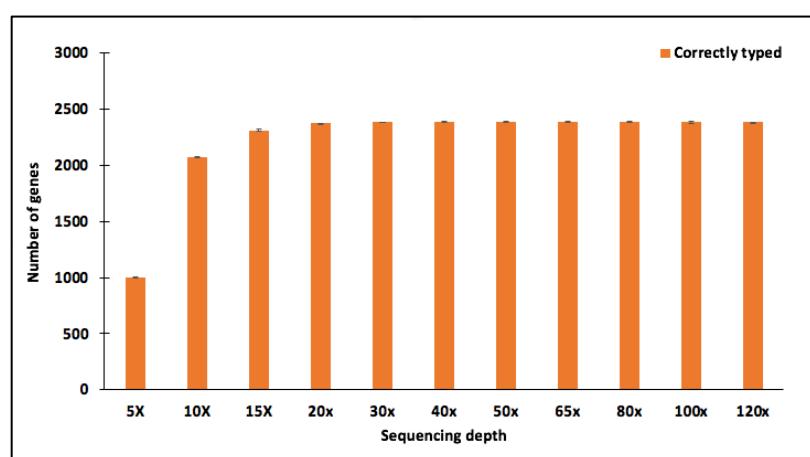
752

753

754

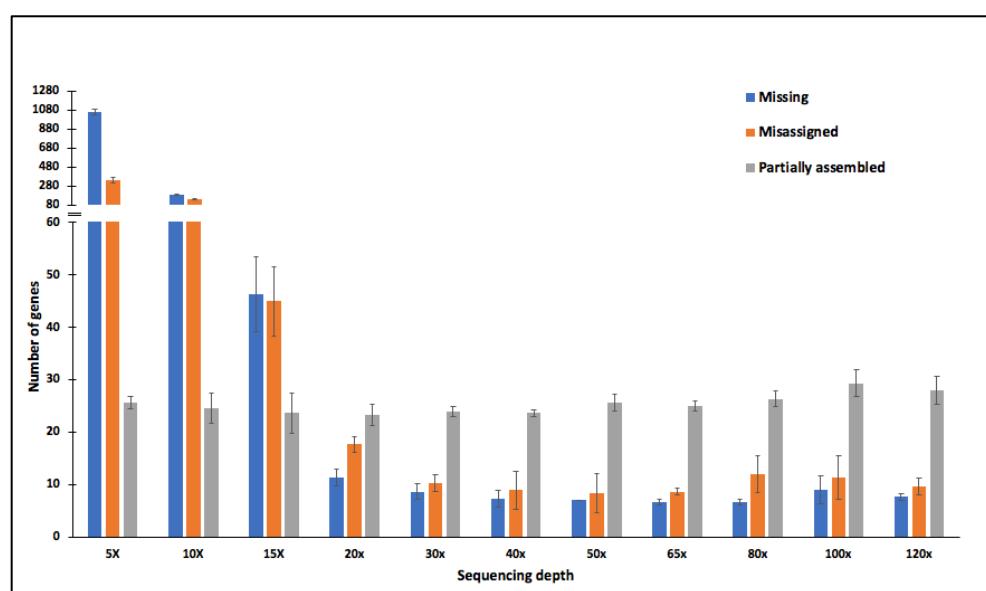
755 **Figure 2:** Dependency of Haplo-ST on sequencing depth. (a) Simulation of the number of genes
756 correctly profiled by Haplo-ST across sequencing depths ranging from 5 \times - 120 \times (b) The
757 number of genes missing an allele ID assignment, the number of genes misassigned an erroneous
758 allele ID and the number of genes partially assembled with Haplo-ST across different sequencing
759 depths.

760 A)



761

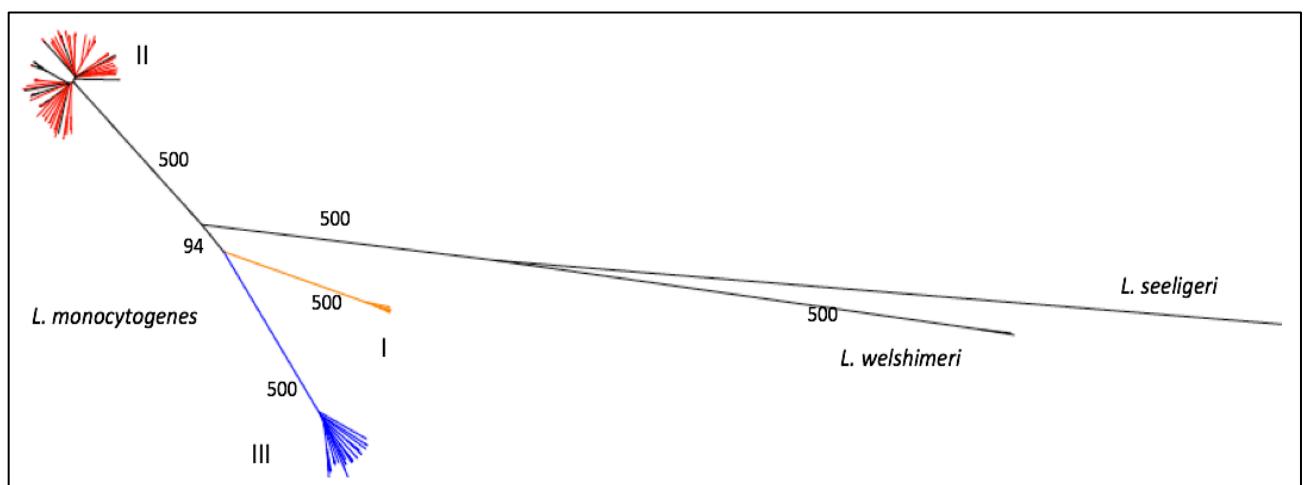
762 B)



763

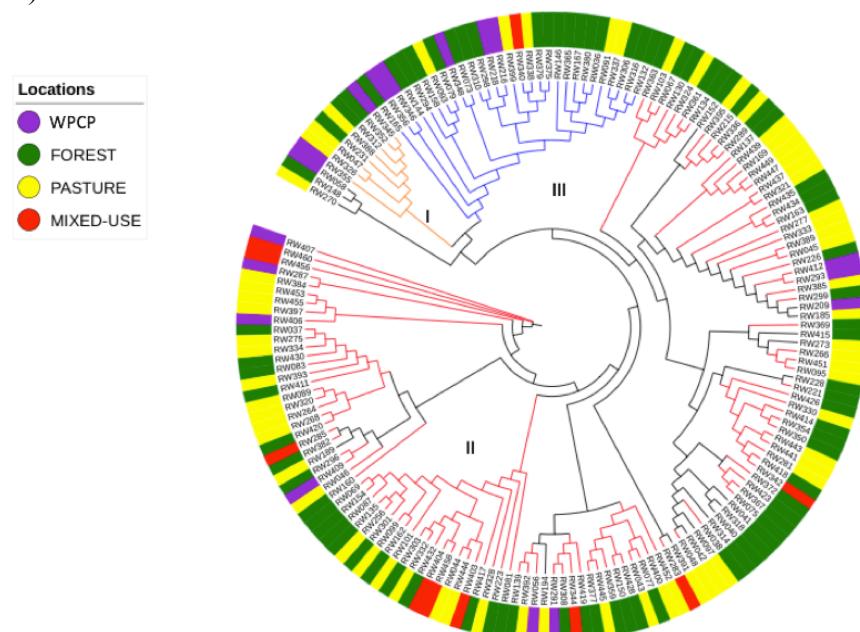
764 **Figure 3:** Phylogenetic relationships between isolates collected from the natural
765 environment. (3a) *Lm* isolates belonging to lineages I (orange), II (red) and III (blue) form
766 separate clusters in the phylogenetic tree. (3b) Random distribution of three lineages of *Lm*
767 found at different sampling sites.

768 A)



770

771
772 B)

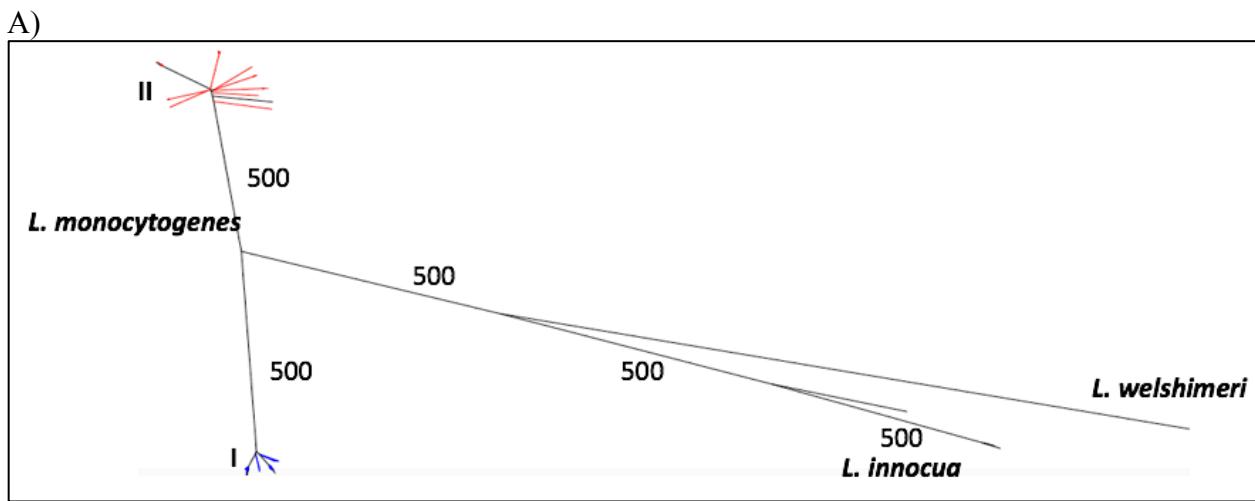


774

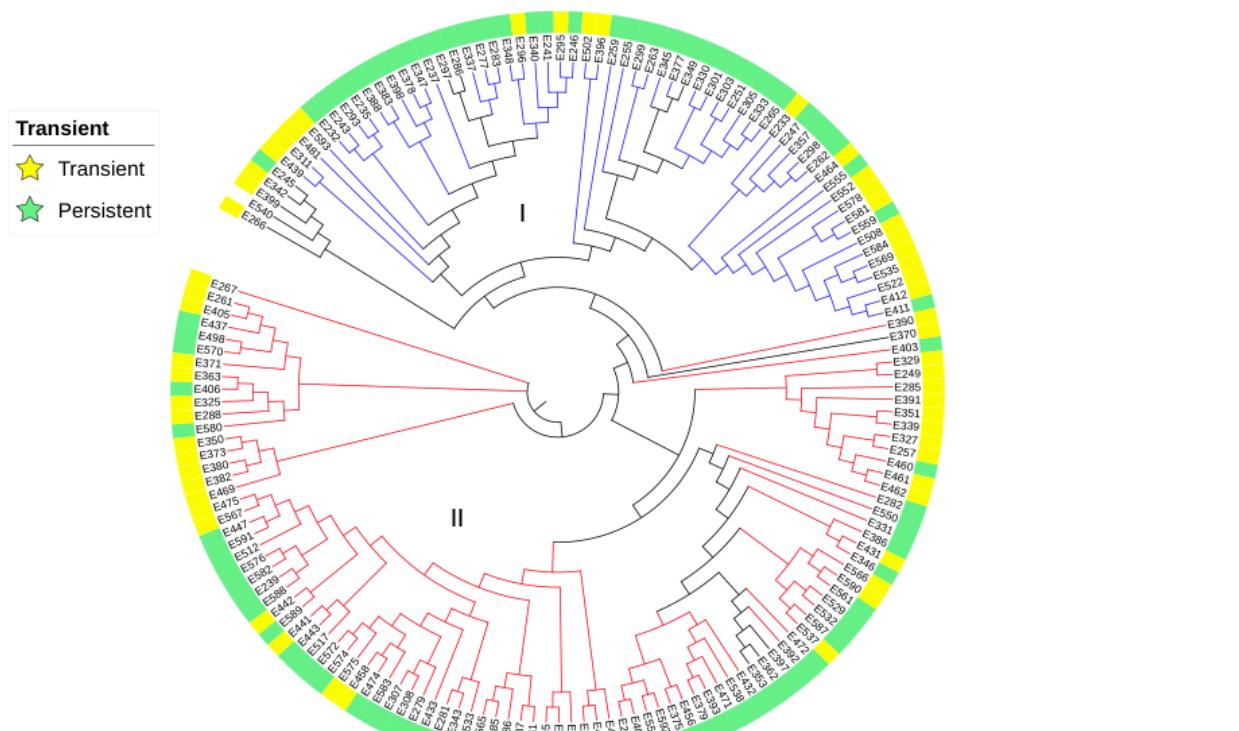
Figure 4: Phylogenetic relationships between isolates collected from poultry processing plants.

776 (4a) *Lm* lineages I (blue) and II (red) form two separate groups in the phylogenetic tree, with the
777 majority of isolates belonging to lineage II. (4b) Persistent strains were more abundant than
778 transient strains, but there was no lineage-specific association of persistent/transient strains.

779



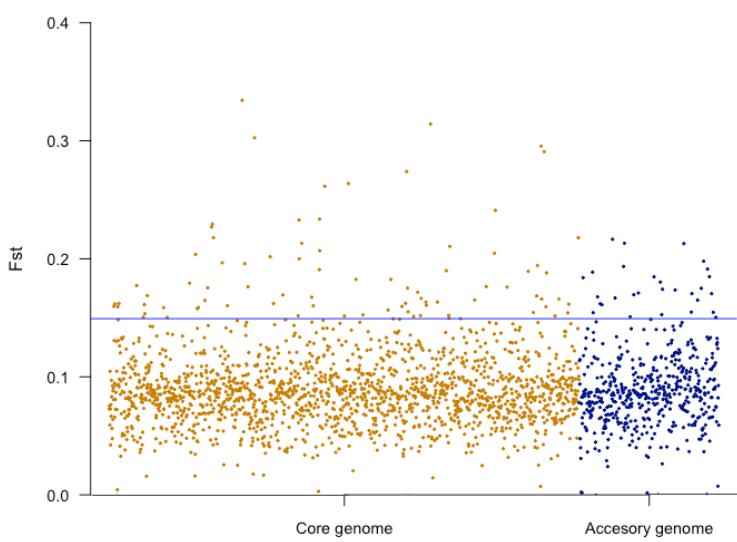
780
781
782
783



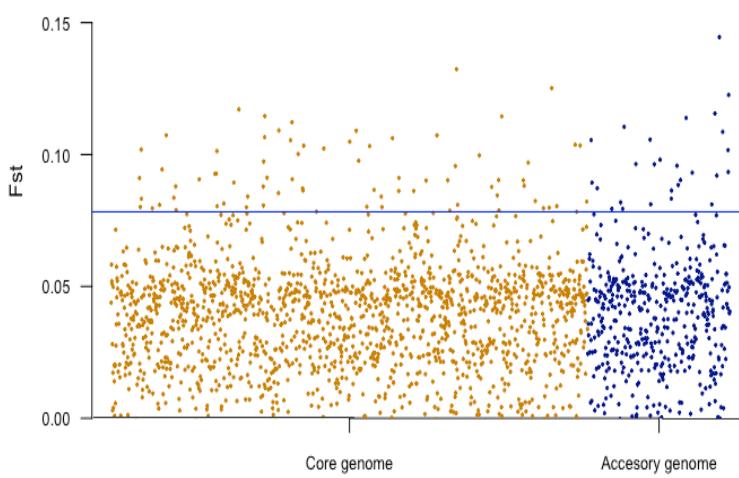
784

785 **Fig 5:** Manhattan plots of genome-wide F_{ST} values between (a) *Lm* isolates obtained from the
786 natural environment and poultry processing plants (b) groups of transient and persistent *Lm*
787 strains. F_{ST} values are shown on the y axis. The loci are arranged in two groups on the x axis; the
788 first group consisting of loci present in the core genome and the other group consisting of loci in
789 the accessory genome as specified in BIGSdb-*Lm*. The significant thresholds (blue line) are set at
790 the top 5% of the F_{ST} distribution.

791 A)



B)



799 **Table 1:** Global AMOVA results weighted over all variable loci in the two groups of *L.*
800 *monocytogenes* isolates.

Groups of isolates	Source of variation	Variance components	Variation (%)	Fixation index
Natural Environment vs. Poultry Processing plants	Among groups	86.61	9.00	$F_{ST} =$ 0.09002
	Within groups	875.51	91.00	
Persistent vs. Transient	Among groups	32.64	3.82	$F_{ST} =$ 0.03821
	Within groups	821.66	96.18	

801

802

803 **Table 2:** Genes showing significant genetic differentiation between groups of *Lm* isolates
804 collected from the natural environment vs. poultry processing plants and transient vs. persistent
805 strains and may be enriched for adaptation and persistence of *Lm* in poultry processing
806 environments.

Gene name	Gene product (obtained from RefSeq)	Biological Function (obtained from KEGG)
lmo0875	PTS beta-glucoside transporter subunit IIB	Carbohydrate metabolism, Membrane transport
lmo1949	hypothetical protein	Ribosome biogenesis
lmo2650	MFS transporter	Carbohydrate metabolism, Membrane transport
lmo1210	hypothetical protein	Electrochemical potential-driven transporters
lmo0687	hypothetical protein	Peptidase
lmo0694	hypothetical protein	Unknown function
lmo0964	hypothetical protein (thioredoxin)	Oxidative stress, Signaling
lmo2078	hypothetical protein	Transfer RNA biogenesis
lmo2383	monovalent cation/H ⁺ antiporter subunit F	Electrochemical potential-driven transporters
lmo2548	50S ribosomal protein L31	Translation
lmo1776	hypothetical protein	Unknown function

lmo1960	ferrichrome ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	Iron complex transporter
lmo1336	5-formyltetrahydrofolate cyclo-ligase	Metabolism of cofactors and vitamins
lmo2689a	hypothetical protein	Uncharacterized
lmo1294	tRNA delta(2)-isopentenylpyrophosphate transferase	Transfer RNA biogenesis, Biosynthesis of secondary metabolites
lmo2640	hypothetical protein	Metabolism of terpenoids and polyketides, Biosynthesis of secondary metabolites
lmo0360	DeoR family transcriptional regulator	Unknown function
lmo1817	hypothetical protein	Metabolism of cofactors and vitamins
lmo2073	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	Translation factor
lmo1205	cobalamin biosynthesis protein CbiN	Membrane transport
lmo1464	diacylglycerol kinase	Glycan biosynthesis and metabolism

807

808