The background is a vibrant watercolor wash in shades of cyan, magenta, and orange. A dark blue, textured oval shape is positioned in the lower center of the page.

On the role of ribosomal proteins
in stress resistance and fitness of
Listeria monocytogenes

a laboratory evolution approach

Jeroen Koomen

Propositions

1. Switching between stress resistance and fitness in *Listeria monocytogenes* is possible through ribosomal mutations.
(this thesis)
2. Lower fitness in stress resistant *rpsU* variants is not caused by SigB activation.
(this thesis)
3. The finding that certain British birds adapt their beaks to birdfeeders (Bosse et al. (2017) SCIENCE Vol 358, pp. 365-368), indicates that fondness for birds can have unexpected side effects.
4. Trying to solve the antibiotic resistance crisis with new antibiotics is a dead-end road.
5. A programming language should be offered as a language in high school.
6. The use of gloves by operators in food stalls is a food safety risk.

Propositions belonging to the thesis, entitled

On the role of ribosomal proteins in stress resistance and fitness of *Listeria monocytogenes*: a laboratory evolution approach

Jeroen Koomen

Wageningen, 18 January 2022

On the role of ribosomal proteins in stress
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monocytogenes

a laboratory evolution approach

Jeroen Koomen

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a laboratory evolution approach

Jeroen Koomen

Thesis

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Prof. Dr A.P.J. Mol,

in the presence of the

Thesis Committee appointed by the Academic Board

to be defended in public

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a laboratory evolution approach*

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1

General introduction and outline of the thesis

Parts of this introduction were previously published as: Impact of pathogen population heterogeneity and stress-resistant variants on food safety. Abee, T., Koomen, J., Metselaar, K.I., Zwietering, M.H., Den Besten, H.M.W., 2016. *Annu. Rev. Food Sci. Technol.* 7, 439–456. doi:10.1146/annurev-food-041715-033128

General introduction and outline of the thesis

The production of healthy, nutritious, tasty, and safe foods requires efficient strategies to control foodborne pathogens along the food chain. Recent research developments include the implementation of genomics, transcriptomics, and proteomics, that may transform approaches to the detection, prevention, and treatment of foodborne pathogens (Bergholz et al., 2014). These omics-based techniques are already used as research tools to unravel the survival strategies of notorious foodborne pathogens such as *Listeria monocytogenes* (Arcari et al., 2020; Begley and Hill, 2015; Harrand et al., 2020; Radoshevich and Cossart, 2018). *L. monocytogenes* is a robust, ubiquitously present foodborne human pathogen and the causative agent of listeriosis (Toledo-Arana et al., 2009). It is well known that microbial variability ensures survival and persistence of pathogens in changing environments. *L. monocytogenes* is capable of growing and surviving in a wide range of adverse conditions such as low temperature, low pH, and low a_w (NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016), and has served as a model in a large number of studies that addressed the impact of strain diversity and the role of population heterogeneity in adaptive stress response and survival capacity (Karatzas et al., 2005; Koomen et al., 2018; Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2010; van der Veen and Abee, 2011a; Vanlint et al., 2012). The dynamic response of microorganisms to (changing) environmental conditions depends on the behaviour of individual cells within the population, and this can affect the efficiency of conventional control measures like heat inactivation procedures, and that of nonthermal processes such as high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) treatments. Enhanced survival of resistant subpopulations is reflected in a higher fraction of surviving cells. These resistant subpopulations include so-called persister cells that are more resistant than the majority of cells.

Population heterogeneity and stress resistance

The term persistence is used in this thesis to describe the long-term survival of pathogens in specific environments, including processing plants (Carpentier and Cerf, 2011; Ferreira et al., 2014). Over the past 15 to 20 years, increasing evidence suggests that the persistence of foodborne pathogens such as *L. monocytogenes* in food processing plants for years or even decades is an important factor in the transmission of foodborne pathogens. In addition, *L. monocytogenes* persistence in other food-associated environments (e.g., farms and retail establishments) may also contribute to food contamination and transmission of the pathogen to humans (Ferreira et al., 2014).

Population heterogeneity is an important component of the survival strategy of a microbial population. The long-term success of the population depends on the robustness and fitness of the individual cells (Ryall et al., 2012). Obviously, optimization and validation of (novel) processing strategies is required, and detailed insight into inactivation kinetics is essential, requiring both information about strain heterogeneity (Van Boeijen et al., 2011; 2008; Zwietering et al., 2021), and strain-environment interaction (Chen et al., 2020; Harrand et al., 2019). When a population is uniform, the individual cells within the population have a similar probability per unit of time to be inactivated, and therefore the corresponding inactivation curve follows an exponential decline. When the inactivation curve is plotted on a logarithmic scale, this results in linear inactivation. Inactivation curves can deviate from linearity, and shoulders and tails in inactivation curvatures have been reported (Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2008; Cerf, 1977). Various explanations have been proposed for observed shoulders in an inactivation curve. A shoulder curvature might be caused by organisms being present in clumps, and the length of the shoulder coincides with the time all but one cell in a clump have been killed (Cerf, 1977). Alternately, the shoulder period has been explained by the presence of a critical cellular component that needs to be destroyed before inactivation ensues (Geeraerd et al., 2000) (and references therein). Tailing has been observed for many pathogens upon exposure to different lethal stresses; here, the initial exponential inactivation is followed by a slower decrease. Tailing of inactivation curves has been attributed to heterogeneity in a microbial population with respect to variation in sensitivity of the single cells toward lethal stress. The reduced sensitivity can be attributed to both genotypic and phenotypic diversity, as the enhanced survival of persister cells can be a consequence of a transient phenotypic switch as well as of inheritable mutations (see, e.g., Avery, 2006; Balaban et al., 2004; Van Boeijen et al., 2010; Veening et al., 2008). Previous studies reported the isolation of stable stress-resistant variants derived from *L. monocytogenes* strains EGDe, LO28, and ScottA (see, e.g., Karatzas and Bennik, 2002; Metselaar et al., 2013; 2015; Rajkovic et al., 2009; Van Boeijen et al., 2011; 2008). The difference between transient and stable stress-resistant variants is summarized in Figure 1.1, together with the method used to isolate these variants.

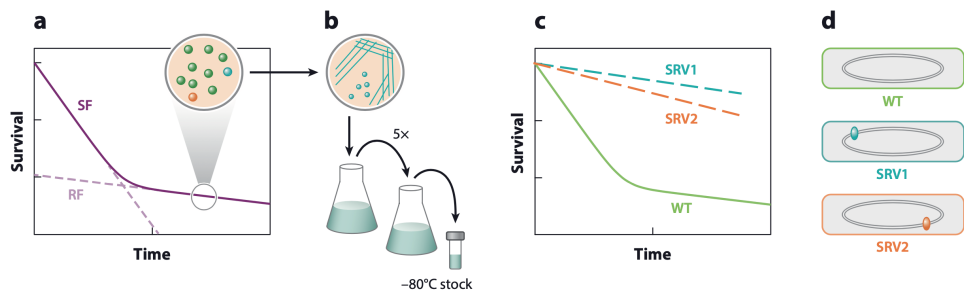


Figure 1.1: Schematic representation of the stress-resistant variant isolation strategy. (a) Upon exposure to stress, a sensitive wild-type (WT) fraction (SF) and a stress-resistant fraction (RF) can be identified, the latter composed of persister-type WT cells (green) and resistant variants (blue and orange). (b) Approximately 100 colonies are randomly selected from the tail and stored in the freezer. (c) Stress exposure of cultures derived from the approximately 100 stocks enable the identification and quantification of the number of stable stress-resistant variants (SRVs; represented by SRV1 and SRV2) that show enhanced survival compared to WT. (d) Subsequent comparative genome analysis allows for identification of mutations in the SRVs (adopted from Abee et al. 2016).

Mutations drive heterogeneity in bacterial populations

Mutational events are among the main drivers of heterogeneity in bacteria, and are the so-called fuel for adaptation. As such, mutations stand at the origin of the previously described *L. monocytogenes ctsR* and *rpsU* variants (e.g. Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2008). Mutational events, including point mutations, insertions, and deletions, are caused by errors during copying of DNA, and occur spontaneously over time. In addition, mutations can also be generated by the stress-induced activation of repair systems such as the SOS-response that allows cells to read over specific types of DNA damage, at the expense of an increased risk of mutation (Schlacher and Goodman, 2007; van der Veen et al., 2010).

In a well-adapted system in a constant environment, where proteins are highly optimized to their function, most mutations will be deleterious (Elena and Lenski, 2003; Eyre-Walker and Keightley, 2007; Perfeito et al., 2007), and the rate at which mutations occur is expected to be kept low by population genetic forces (Drake et al., 1998). Especially in stressful environments, this mutation rate is of critical importance for the speed with which populations can adapt. Comparative studies using *L. monocytogenes* wild type(s) and targeted mutants have shown roles for the RecA controlled SOS response, and MutS/MutL

DNA damage repair proteins in maintaining a low mutation rate (Mérino et al., 2002; van der Veen and Abee, 2011b). Although so-called mutator strains with defects in DNA repair systems have been isolated from a number of foodborne pathogens including *Salmonella* spp. and *Staphylococcus aureus*, (Sheng et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2013) the isolation of mutator strains from *L. monocytogenes* from food or clinical samples has not been reported up to now.

The mechanism of stress resistance

Despite the fact that the presence of stable stress-resistant subpopulations has been clearly demonstrated, the mechanisms behind the increased stress resistance are still not fully understood. Mutations in the class III heat shock repressor *ctsR* were shown to be responsible for the increased HHP and/or heat-resistant phenotype for a selection of *L. monocytogenes* ScottA, EGDe, and LO28 variants (Karatzas et al., 2003; Van Boeijen et al., 2011; 2010). Sequence comparison of wild type (WT) and variants allowed identification of a large number of mutations in *ctsR*, such as single nucleotide polymorphisms, inserts, and deletions. Mutations in *ctsR* can lead to a defect in the repression of a number of chaperone encoding genes like *clpC*, which results in transcription of these stress response genes, with concomitant activation of stress defense, providing increased stress resistance.

Next to HHP and heat treatment, acid stress treatment also resulted in selection of acid stress-resistant variants of *L. monocytogenes* (Metselaar et al., 2015; 2013). Phenotypic characterization of 23 stable acid-stress resistant variants demonstrated that the variants could be clustered in three clusters and four individual variants. The variants showed multiple-stress resistance, with both unique and overlapping features related to stress resistance, growth, motility, biofilm formation, and virulence indicators. Subsequent whole-genome sequencing (WGS) of the variants revealed mutations in *rpsU* that encodes ribosomal protein S21 in those variants that were grouped in the largest phenotypic cluster (11 isolates), whereas mutations in *ctsR* (see above) were not found in any of the acid-stress resistant variants. In *L. monocytogenes*, *rpsU* is located between *rsmE* (a putative 16S rRNA methyltransferase) and *yqeY* (GatB/YqeY domain-containing protein). There is not much known about the specific function of ribosomal protein S21 in *L. monocytogenes* or about its role in stress resistance in general. Some work has been done in *Bacillus subtilis*, and a *B. subtilis* *rpsU* mutant showed unusual ribosome profiles, a reduced growth rate, and reduced motility (Akanuma et al., 2012; Takada et al., 2014). Notably, a role in cold

adaptation and cold stress response has been suggested for specific ribosomal proteins (Durack et al., 2013; Ivy et al., 2012). In other microorganisms, expression of S21 was suggested to be temperature-regulated (O'Connell and Thomashow, 2000; Sato et al., 1997). The data of Metselaar et al. (2015) also suggested that in *L. monocytogenes* S21 plays a role in growth at lower temperatures, because all *rpsU* variants show a severely reduced growth rate in BHI at 7°C compared to the wild type. This growth defect is still visible at 30°C but restored at 37°C (Metselaar et al., 2013).

Understanding how the genotype–environment interactions between strain characteristics such as diversity and fitness, and environmental parameters affects stress response and subsequent microbial survival, is useful for designing effective intervention strategies.

Stress response via SigB in *Listeria monocytogenes*

One of the primary stress-response systems in *L. monocytogenes* is Sigma factor B (SigB). SigB is the alternative transcription factor that controls the general stress response (GSR) (Liu et al., 2019; NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016). SigB activation by one type of stress is known to provide cross protection against other types of stress (Begley et al., 2002; Bergholz et al., 2012), providing an explanation for multiple stress resistance of cells in which SigB has been activated. Many SigB-dependent genes are differentially expressed under various growth conditions (Toledo-Arana et al., 2009), and environmental conditions play a major role in the activation of the SigB-mediated stress response (Shen et al., 2014). SigB activity is controlled both translationally and post translationally by the “stressosome” stress-signal sensing and integration hub. The structure of this hub has recently received attention from multiple research groups (Dessaux et al., 2020a; Guerreiro et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2019). Activation of SigB is controlled by the stressosome, a signal integration complex that relays a range of stress signals and activates the sigma B regulon (Dessaux et al., 2020b; Guldimann et al., 2016; NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016; Radoshevich and Cossart, 2018), see Figure 1.2. The exact mechanism by which the stressosome responds to signals is still under investigation, although recent work suggests that the adaptive stress response upon exposure to blue light involves the blue light sensor *rsbL* (Dorey et al., 2019).

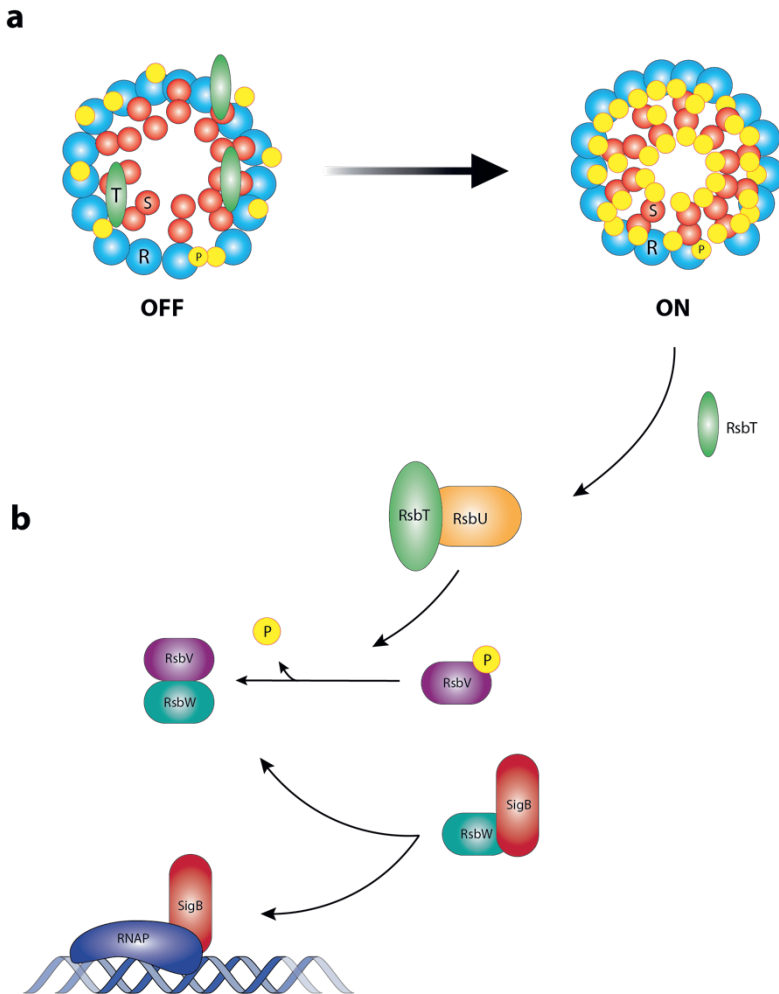


Figure 1.2: Schematic overview of the stressosome and SigB activation.

Following perception of a stress signal, RsbT dissociates from RsbR and RsbS (T, R and S in the stressosome), after activation of its kinase activity (a). RsbT is released from the stressosome and binds to RsbU. The phosphatase activity of RsbU is activated and removes a phosphate (P) group from RbsV. The anti-sigma factor RsbW has a higher affinity for the now dephosphorylated RbsV than for SigB, resulting in release of SigB allowing it to bind to RNA polymerase and initiate transcription of SigB regulon members (b) (adapted from Dessaux et al., 2020b and Cabeen et al., 2017).

In the in vitro stressosome model proposed by Williams et al. (2019), phosphorylation of RsbR and RsbS (Figure 1.2a) triggers a signaling cascade of RsbU, RsbV and RsbW (Figure 1.2b), resulting in the activation of SigB. A revision of this stressosome model was proposed by Dessaux et al. in 2020, where they suggested an additional role for paralogues of RsbR in attenuating the generation of active stressosome complexes upon the sensing of stress, possibly giving rise to environmental modulation of stressosome related activation of SigB.

Further work is required to elucidate the details of the underlying mechanisms of this SigB-involved signalling cascade and the ribosome-induced modulation of *L. monocytogenes* fitness and stress resistance.

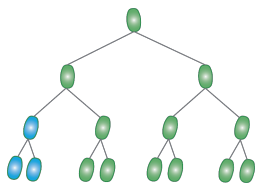
Outline of this thesis

Population heterogeneity appears to be an important aspect of *L. monocytogenes* survival and transmission, and mutations drive this heterogeneity in bacterial populations. To date, isolation of *L. monocytogenes* mutator strains from food has not been described. Therefore, in **chapter 2** we investigated the rate at which mutations occur for a set of 20 *Listeria monocytogenes* strains, and focus on a foodborne isolate that showed to be a mutator strain. We combined a whole genome sequencing approach with targeted mutations to assess the role of *mutS* in this mutator phenotype.

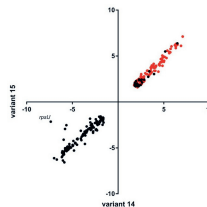
Two of the previously isolated multiple-stress resistant *rpsU* variants are described in more detail in **chapter 3**, where we investigated the phenotypic effects of a deletion, and a point mutation in *rpsU* in variants 14 and 15, respectively. We focus on the differences and overlap in the stress response of these two variants that harbour a different mutation, but share a largely overlapping phenotype.

From recent work on comparative whole genome sequencing analysis of *Listeria monocytogenes* food and clinical isolates, of which some isolates were isolated decades apart, we know that strains can persist in the food processing environment for many years, where strains are exposed to continuous selection pressures. The possibility of the presence of (stress resistant) *L. monocytogenes* cells in food processing environments for a prolonged period of time, in combination with selection on increased growth rate, raises the question of how the low-fitness, stress-resistant variants 14 and 15 will evolve over time. In **chapters 4 and 5** we explore this concept by using an experimental evolution protocol where we selected for increased fitness, defined as a higher maximum specific growth rate (μ_{\max})

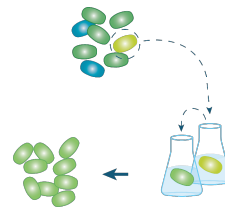
compared to the ancestor variant 15 or 14, respectively, while monitoring both fitness and stress-resistance of the evolved strains. Finally, in **chapter 6** the results of the work in this thesis are combined, the relevance and impact are discussed and recommendations for future research are presented. For an overview of all chapters, see Figure 1.3. Overall, the work presented in this thesis provides more insight into the adaptive stress behaviour of *L. monocytogenes* and increases our understanding how this notorious pathogen is able to grow and survive in changing environments.



Chapter 2: Determination of spontaneous mutation rates in *Listeria monocytogenes* food isolates identified a hypermutator strain with an insertion in DNA mismatch repair protein MutS.



Chapter 3: Gene profiling-based phenotyping for identification of cellular parameters that contribute to fitness, stress-tolerance and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes* variants.



Chapter 4: Amino acid substitutions in ribosomal protein RpsU enable switching between high fitness and multiple-stress resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes*.

Chapter 5: Low fitness and high stress resistance in a *Listeria monocytogenes* RpsU deletion mutant is reversed by single amino acid substitutions in ribosomal protein RpsB.

Figure 1.3: Schematic overview of the research presented in this thesis.

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**Determination of spontaneous mutation rates in
Listeria monocytogenes food isolates identified a
hypermutator strain with an insertion in DNA
mismatch repair protein MutS**

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Abstract

Population heterogeneity is an important element of the survival strategy of the food pathogen *Listeria monocytogenes* to cope with environmental stresses and to survive during transmission to the human host. Most research in this field has focussed on the description of standing genetic variation i.e., the heterogeneity that is already present in a population, without investigating the rate at which populations can acquire new mutations. Here, we used a high-throughput version of the classical Luria-Delbrück fluctuation assay, to investigate the rate of spontaneous mutation in a set of 20 whole genome sequenced (WGS) *L. monocytogenes* food isolates. All strains, except one, had a mutation rate of between $4.6 \cdot 10^{-10}$ and $3.5 \cdot 10^{-9}$, while the strain FBR16 showed an approximately 100-fold to 1000-fold higher mutation rate of $2.9 \cdot 10^{-7}$ mutations per gene per generation. Subsequent WGS analysis of previously sequenced genomes revealed a 179 bp insertion in the DNA mismatch repair gene *mutS* gene of FBR16 as the cause of the mutator phenotype. The mutator phenotype was lost upon restoration of the *mutS* gene, confirming the insertion-induced reduction of MutS activity.

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is a ubiquitous food pathogen, that can cause listeriosis, a rare disease with high mortality rate (Toledo-Arana et al., 2009). It is a model species to describe transmission from the environment to the human host that relies on population heterogeneity, strain variability, and adaptive behaviour to cope with environmental stresses during this transmission (Abee et al., 2016). When a population of cells is exposed to stress, the inherent heterogeneity in a population can lead to the differential survival of a subset of cells, resulting in a tailing of the inactivation curve (Cerf, 1977). The role of population heterogeneity in the stress survival capacity of *L. monocytogenes* has been under intense study. Part of this heterogeneity is heritable, and stable multiple-stress resistant variants have been isolated from diverse strains such as EGDe, LO28, and ScottA after a single exposure to stress (Karatzas and Bennik, 2002; Metselaar et al., 2013; 2015; Rajkovic et al., 2009; Van Boeijen et al., 2011; 2008). However, most work on the diversity and heterogeneity of *L. monocytogenes* is done on standing genetic variation. Most authors have investigated the diversity and heterogeneity that is already present in populations of *L. monocytogenes*, giving very little attention to the fundamental process of mutagenesis that is underlying this variation, and the speed at which new mutations occur.

Mutations in bacteria are produced stochastically during replication of DNA, or after environmental insults that lead to DNA damage, requiring repair by genes involved in the SOS response (van der Veen et al., 2010). The SOS response includes the activation of a translesion polymerase that allows cells to read over damaged parts of the DNA, reviving stalled replication forks at the cost of an increase in mutation rate (van der Veen et al., 2010), see Maslowska et al. (2019) for a review. The generation of mutations is considered to be neutral with respect to their effect on fitness (Luria and Delbrück, 1943), i.e., cells produce both beneficial, neutral, and deleterious mutations. However, most cells are well adapted to their environment, and in stable environmental conditions, random mutations are more likely to be deleterious than beneficial (Elena and Lenski, 2003; Eyre-Walker and Keightley, 2007; Kimura, 1967; Perfeito et al., 2007). Therefore, there is a trade-off between mutations (which increase adaptability to novel environments), and an increase in genetic load (the negative effects of deleterious mutations). This trade-off is believed to be the cause of the low mutation rates in populations that are typically observed. The energy requirements needed for higher fidelity, and thus a lower mutation rate, are often seen as a barrier that prevent an even lower mutation rate. In addition, population genetic forces

such as drift will limit selection on even lower mutation rates (Lynch et al., 2016). However, mutator strains, with mutation frequencies that are at least an order of magnitude above the species baseline, have been isolated and characterized for a range of bacterial species including foodborne pathogens (Prunier and Leclercq, 2005; Sniegowski et al., 1997). These mutator strains typically have mutations in DNA mismatch repair genes such as *mutS* (lmo1403) and *mutL* (lmo1404). In *L. monocytogenes*, *mutS* (lmo1403) and *mutL* are co-transcribed in an operon together with lmo1405 (glycerol uptake operon antiterminator regulatory protein), and deletion of *mutSL* results in a strong increase in mutations, including those leading to rifampicin resistance (Mérino et al., 2002).

Currently, studies on mutation rate in *L. monocytogenes* have used whole genome sequencing data of long-term studies in food processing facilities to infer mutation rate (Harrand et al., 2020) However, that method is impractical in situations where long term histories of strains are not available. Here, we use a high-throughput method based on the Luria-Delbrück fluctuation assay (Luria and Delbrück, 1943) to investigate the spontaneous mutation rate in 20 selected strains of *L. monocytogenes*, and we applied a whole genome approach to assess to role of *mutS* in a hypermutator foodborne isolate.

Materials and methods

Strains and growth conditions

A set of 20 strains of whole genome sequenced *L. monocytogenes* with different origins, and various histories of laboratory usage (Aryani et al., 2015) was used. Cells from -80°C stocks were grown at 30°C for 48 hours on brain heart infusion (BHI, Oxoid, Hampshire) agar (1.5 % [w/w], bacteriological agar no. 1 Oxoid, Hampshire) plates. A single colony was used to inoculate 10 ml of BHI broth in a 12 ml tube (Greiner) and incubated overnight (ON, 18 to 22 hours) at 30°C under continuous shaking at 160 rpm.

Selective medium

Rifampicin (Rif, Sigma-Aldrich GmbH, St. Luis MO, USA) was stored as stock solutions of 2 mg/ml or 64 mg/ml in DMSO and kept at 4°C. Stocks were used within 6 months as advised by stability studies by (Yu et al. 2011) and (Karlson and Ulrich, 1969). Rif-supplemented media were prepared by adding appropriate volumes of stock solution to the medium after cooling down to 55°C. Rif-supplemented broth was prepared on the day of use, and rif-supplemented agar plates were kept at 4°C for a maximum of 2 days. Agar plates for spotting (see below) were dried for up to an hour in a laminar-flow cabinet before use.

Fluctuation analysis

Fluctuation analysis was performed as described by (Pope et al., 2008; Rosche and Foster, 2000), also see Appendix 1. This version of the Luria-Delbrück fluctuation assay estimates the mutation rate using the number of mutants that have gained resistance to rifampicin. By determining the number of rifampicin resistant mutants in up to 48 parallel cultures per strain, we were able to estimate the number of mutational events that have led to the observed distribution of mutants (see Appendix 1).

Briefly, ON-cultures were serially diluted in BHI to approximately $5 \cdot 10^4$ cfu/ml, of which 200 μ l was transferred into 96-microwell plates resulting in approximately $1 \cdot 10^4$ cfu per well, and plates were incubated at 30°C for 17 ± 2 hours.

The total viable counts (TVCs) of the parallel cultures just after inoculation of the wells (i.e. N_0) was estimated by spotting 4 aliquots of 20 μ l of appropriate dilutions onto BHI agar plates, and incubating at 30°C for 24 hours. To estimate the mean final cell density of the parallel cultures (i.e., N_{max}) TVC was determined by spot plating as described above. To quantify the number of rif-resistant (rifR) mutants in these cultures, an aliquot of 30 μ l of

all the parallel cultures was spotted on square Rif-BHI-agar plates using a multichannel pipet. The concentration of Rif was set at 2 µg/ml, approximately four times the highest minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of WT strains, as suggested by Rosche and Foster, 2000. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 96 hours before enumeration of colonies. Jackpot cultures, containing an uncountably high number of mutants, were truncated, scored at 120 mutant colonies/spot, and used as the “Winsorization” parameter during later analysis in FLAN. Mutant colonies and the mean final number of the cells of the parallel cultures were used to calculate the mutation rate in the statistical programming language R, using the FLAN package version 0.8 (Mazoyer and Drouilhet, 2017), using `mutestim()` with parameters: `model= "LD"`, `method= "ML"`, `plateff= 0.3`, `winsor=120`.

The FBR16_mutS_repaired mutant (see below Construction of the FBR16_mutS_repaired mutant) was tested together with FBR16 WT, in 24 parallel wells filled with cultures of 100 µl, and subsequent plating of the whole well content was done on a 9-cm diameter petri dish. This higher plating volume allows for higher resolution in the number of rif^R colonies, and supported the more accurate estimation of mutation rates for these two strains.

Construction of the FBR16_mutS_repaired mutant

Mutant strain FBR16_mutS_repaired was constructed using the temperature sensitive suicide plasmid pAULA (Chakraborty et al., 1992). As the *mutS* gene from strain FBR12 was identical to that of FBR16, but without the insertion, we amplified *mutS* from genomic DNA of FBR12 using a KAPA HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix polymerase (KAPA Biosystems, USA), and primers MutSrepair_F: 5'-TGAAGAATTCGTAAGGGATGATGAGATAATGACAGA-3' and MutSrepair_R: 5'-ATGAGTCGACATCCCCTCTTCCACTAAAATA-3'. The resulting fragment was ligated in frame to the pAULA multiple cloning site via the EcoR1 and Sal1 restriction sites that were introduced to the fragments by the respective primers. The resulting plasmid was electroporated (2.5 kV, 25 µF, 200 Ω), in a 0.2 cm cuvette using a BIO-RAD GenePulser, to cells of FBR16, and plated on BHI agar at 30°C with 5 µg/ml erythromycin to select for transformants.

Two erythromycin resistant colonies were inoculated in separate tubes in BHI broth supplemented with 5 µg/ml erythromycin and grown overnight at 42°C to select for plasmid integration. Selected strains resulting from a single cross-over integration event were grown overnight in BHI at 30°C to induce double crossover events and were subsequently plated at 30°C. Resulting colonies were plated on BHI with and without 5 µg/ml erythromycin and incubated at 30°C. Colonies sensitive to erythromycin were selected. PCR with primers

MutS_F 5'-CGTCCGTTAATAGACCGAAAAA-3' and MutS_R 5'-AGCGGCCTTCTGGGAGCA-3' was used to confirm the ~200 bp difference between the mutS of FBR16 and FBR16_mutS_repaired. Subsequently, PCR and amplicon sequencing using the primers: MutS_seqCheck_F: 5'-CTGTGCACGAAGAAGATACGATT-3', and MutS_seqCheck_R: 5'-CAGCGGGAACAAAACAACC-3' confirmed the correct insertion of the FBR 12 *mutS* gene and deletion of the original FBR16 *mutS* gene that harboured the insertion.

In silico analysis of insertions in *mutS*

The *mutS* genes of the 20 strains were aligned locally by MAFFT (v7.419) (Rozewicki et al., 2019), and the alignment was visualized with the MSA viewer as implemented at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/. To investigate the number of *mutS* sequences with insertions in WGS sequences deposited to online databases, we performed a blast search on www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/. Using *mutS* of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe as reference we queried the RefSeq Genome Database, limited to *Listeria monocytogenes* (taxid:1639). The output was downloaded as .txt and aligned locally with MAFFT. Sequences were manually compared in Mesquite 3.61 (Maddison and Maddison, 2019).

Results and discussion

Spontaneous mutation rate in 20 strains

We have used a high-throughput version of the Luria-Delbrück fluctuation assay on a set of 20 strains, that includes laboratory reference strains (e.g., EGDe, ScottA, and LO28), as well as food isolates, to determine the spontaneous mutation rate. Nineteen of the twenty strains showed mutation rates between $4.6 \cdot 10^{-10}$ and $3.5 \cdot 10^{-9}$ mutations per gene per generation. However, strain FBR16 showed a much higher mutation rate (Figure 2.1), pointing to a mutator strain phenotype. This strain was selected for more detailed genetic analysis and quantification of its mutation rate.

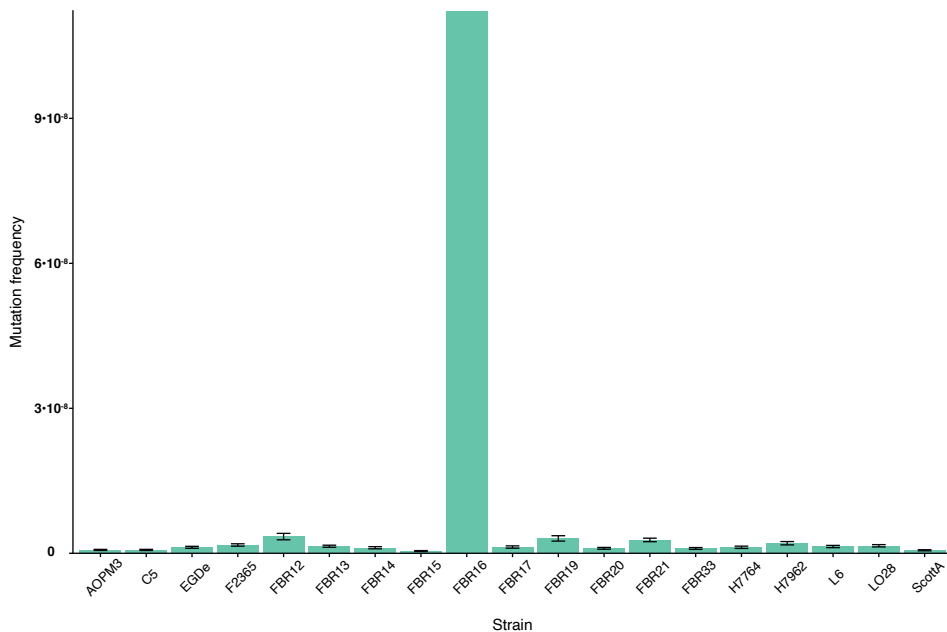


Figure 2.1: Mutation frequency of selected strains of *Listeria monocytogenes* as determined by the LD fluctuation assay. The value for FBR16 is an estimation, as the winsorization cutoff was reached in all tested parallel lines.

Insertion in *mutS* of FBR16

Alterations in conserved DNA mismatch repair genes such as *mutS* (Imo1403) and *mutL* (Imo1404) are known to increase mutation rates in several species, including *L. monocytogenes* (Mérino et al., 2002). Comparison of previously obtained whole genome sequences of the 20 strains revealed a 179 bp insertion in the *mutS* DNA repair gene of FBR16 (Figure 2.2a and 2.2b). Moreover, this insertion resulted in a premature stopcodon (TGA), 12 nucleotides from the start of the insertion (see Figure 2.2b), suggesting that the MutS protein in FBR16 will be truncated. In *L. monocytogenes*, *mutS* and *mutL* are transcribed in an operon together with the glycerol uptake operon antiterminator regulatory protein Imo1405 (Mérino et al., 2002), and truncation of *mutS* will have conceivable effects on both the functionality of MutS, and of MutL. Mérino et al. have determined the effect of a deletion of both *mutS* and *MutL* on the mutant fraction in *L. monocytogenes* EGD, and found a 100- to 1000-fold increase in mutant fraction, as well as a 15-fold increase in homologous recombination in a $\Delta mutSL$ mutant. A large insertion in

mutS such as the one found in FBR16, appears to be rare, as we did not identify similar insertions in the 3553 whole genome sequences from RefSeq that were screened. Insertions such as the 179 bp insertion in *mutS* of FBR16 can only be restored by homologous recombination. Interestingly, the increased homologous recombination rate associated with non-functioning *mutSL* system (Mérino et al., 2002) might provide the possibility of a transient mutator phenotype.

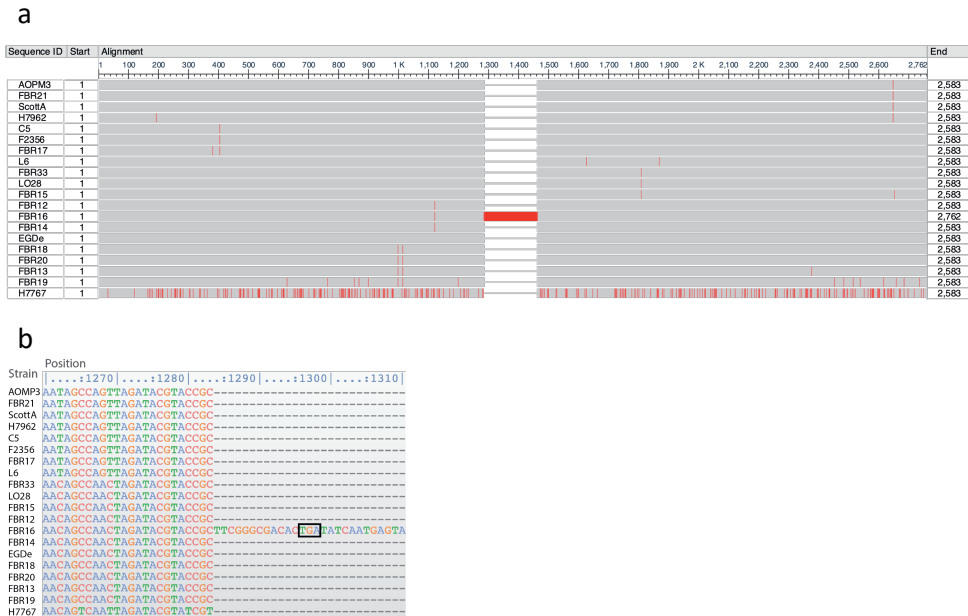


Figure 2.2: Alignment of the *mutS* gene in 20 *L. monocytogenes* strains. (a) Alignment of DNA sequences of the *mutS* gene for the 20 strains of *L. monocytogenes*. Differences to the top sequence (AOPM3) are shown in red. The 179 bp insertion in FBR16 ranging from position 1284 to 1463 is shown as a red bar. (b) Partial alignment of the DNA sequence of *mutS* for the 20 strains of *L. monocytogenes*. Position is shown as base pairs from the start of the *mutS* gene. Only the first 27 bases of the 197 bp insertion of FBR16 are shown. The premature stopcodon (TGA) is shown in the black box.

Experiments by Mérimo et al. in 2002 have shown that the combined deletion of *mutS* and *mutL* from *L. monocytogenes* EGD did not result in differences in fitness. However, virulence in a mouse model was attenuated for a $\Delta mutSL$ mutant, when compared to the EGD WT. One possible explanation for the decreased virulence may be the increased mutational load. The intracellular environment is stressful, which may lead to an increased mutation rate, which would be more deleterious for the mutator strain than for the WT. Whether fitness and virulence are affected by the *mutS* insertion in FBR16 remains to be elucidated by comparing FBR16 $\Delta mutSL$ and FBR16 in mutant studies.

In a well-adapted system, as most mutations will be deleterious (Elena and Lenski, 2003; Eyre-Walker and Keightley, 2007; Kimura, 1967; Perfeito et al., 2007), mutator strains are expected to be selected only in specific circumstances. For instance, after a recent environmental change, mutator strains may have an early advantage by generating mutations faster, leading to their establishment based on their increased adaptability (Desai and Fisher, 2011; Sniegowski et al., 2000). A second conceivable scenario in which a high mutation rate can be selected is when a mutator allele generates a beneficial mutation by chance. Then, positive selection for this adaptive property, and the linked mutator allele, allow the mutator allele to spread through the population as a consequence, a process that is known as second order selection (Gentile et al., 2011; Giraud et al., 2001; Woods et al., 2011). Although the *mutSL* operon has been studied in *L. monocytogenes* (Mérimo et al., 2002), and has been found to influence salt sensitivity in transposon experiments (Gardan et al., 2003), to our knowledge, this is the first description of a mutator strain, generated by an insertion in *mutS* in a *L. monocytogenes* foodborne isolate.

In addition, over the 2583 bp length of the *mutS* gene, we found 331 SNPs in strain H7767 when compared to the EGD reference genome (Figure 2.2a). The mutation rate of strain H7767 was in the order of magnitude of the other 18 strains, suggesting that the functionality of *mutS* in this strain is unchanged. This amount of sequence divergence is rare for a functional gene, and additional investigation into the distribution of SNPs in *mutS* in *L. monocytogenes* is warranted.

Mutation rate of the FBR16_MutS_repaired strain

As the 179 bp insertion in *mutS* of FBR16 was expected to disrupt protein function and increase the mutation rate, we replaced the *mutS* gene of FBR16 with the *mutS* gene of FBR12, which is identical to that of FBR16, except for the insertion, yielding the mutant

strain FBR16_mutS_repaired. PCR analysis confirmed the approximately 200 bp size difference between *mutS* of FBR16 and FBR16_mutS_repaired (data not shown). FBR16_mutS_repaired was tested in a fluctuation assay together with the original FBR16 as reference. Using an adapted protocol that included plating of higher volumes (see methods section), the mutation rate of FBR16 was estimated to be at $2.9 \cdot 10^{-7}$ per gene per generation (Figure 2.3), while the mutation rate of FBR16_mutS_repaired was estimated at $4.7 \cdot 10^{-9}$, and this was in the same range as the mutation rate of the other 19 strains (Figure 2.1), indicating that the insertion in *mutS* was responsible for the increased mutation rate in FBR16.

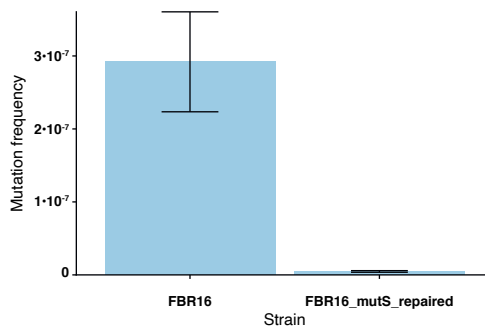


Figure 2.3: Mutation rate of *Listeria monocytogenes* FBR16 and FBR16_mutS_repaired. The mutation rate of FBR16, with its disrupted *mutS*, is $2.9 \cdot 10^{-7}$ per gene per generation, and that of FBR16_mutS_repaired is $4.7 \cdot 10^{-9}$ per gene per generation.

In conclusion, we have designed a high throughput protocol for the estimation of mutation rates in *L. monocytogenes*. Using this protocol, we demonstrated that the food isolate FBR16 is a mutator strain, and showed that the 179 bp insertion in the *mutS* gene was responsible for this increased mutation rate. Moreover, we show that large mutations in *mutS* are very rare, as we did not identify similar insertions among 3553 strains evaluated in an *in-silico* approach.

Appendix 1, fluctuation analysis

Spontaneous mutations can arise stochastically during cell replication, or after environmental insults that lead to DNA damage requiring repair by genes involved in the SOS response (van der Veen et al., 2010). Mutations occur at a certain rate that can be measured using the Luria-Delbrück fluctuation analysis (Luria and Delbruck 1964). It is however important to acknowledge that mutation rates are not simply the number of mutant cells in a population. The mutation rate represents the probability that a mutation in the rifampicin occurs during the lifetime of a cell (Rosche and Foster, 2000). After a mutational event, the mutant cells will propagate and grow to a certain fraction of the total population, represented by its frequency within that final population. One mutational event can therefore lead to very different mutation frequencies, while both cultures have the same mutation rate, see Figure A2.1a.

Therefore, the mutation rate is a far more reliable unit when investigating the occurrence of mutations than the frequency of mutants in a population (Rosche and Foster, 2000). To estimate a mutation rate, we grow several small liquid cultures (typically between 20-50 parallel cultures) from a diluted inoculum that is assumed not to contain any mutants. Then, after incubation we plate (a portion of) the parallel cultures on solid medium containing an antibiotic. The resistance against the antibiotic rifampicin as conferred by mutations in the *rpoB* gene is a selectable marker for mutant cells, as resistant mutants will be able to form colonies. The numbers of mutant colonies on the rifampicin-agar plates can be used together with the mean final number of cells in the parallel cultures to estimate the mutation rate that gave rise to this distribution of mutant cells over the cultures (Figure A2.1b). To estimate the mean final number of cells per strain, we plated three parallel cultures per strain on BHI-agar to estimate the total viable count. The number of mutant cells per parallel line, and the mean final number of cells were used to calculate the mutation rate with the R package FLAN (Mazoyer and Drouilhet, 2017).

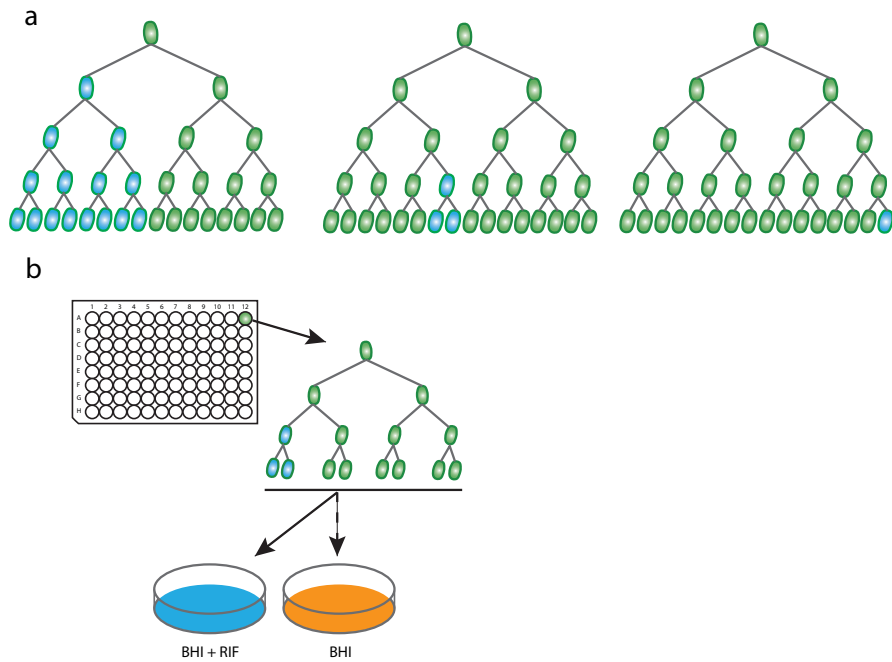


Figure A2.1: Fluctuation analysis. (a) The same mutation rate can lead to a significant difference in mutant cells. (b) Multiple parallel cultures can be grown in a multiwell plate, and tested for mutant cells.

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3

Gene profiling-based phenotyping for identification of cellular parameters that contribute to fitness, stress-tolerance and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes* variants

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Abstract

Microbial population heterogeneity allows for a differential microbial response to environmental stresses and can lead to the selection of stress resistant variants. In this study, we have used two different stress resistant variants of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 with mutations in the *rpsU* gene encoding ribosomal protein S21, to elucidate features that can contribute to fitness, stress-tolerance and host interaction using a comparative gene profiling and phenotyping approach. Transcriptome analysis showed that 116 genes were upregulated and 114 genes were downregulated in both *rpsU* variants. Upregulated genes included a major contribution of SigB-controlled genes such as intracellular acid resistance-associated glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) (*gad3*), genes involved in compatible solute uptake (*opuC*), glycerol metabolism (*glpF*, *glpK*, *glpD*), and virulence (*inlA*, *inlB*). Downregulated genes in the two variants involved mainly genes involved in flagella synthesis and motility. Phenotyping results of the two *rpsU* variants matched the gene profiling data including enhanced freezing resistance conceivably linked to compatible solute accumulation, higher glycerol utilisation rates, and better adhesion to Caco 2 cells presumably linked to higher expression of internalins. Also, bright field and electron microscopy analysis confirmed reduced flagellation of the variants. The activation of SigB-mediated stress defence offers an explanation for the multiple-stress resistant phenotype in *rpsU* variants.

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is a ubiquitous Gram-positive foodborne pathogen that can cause the rare but severe disease listeriosis (Toledo-Arana et al., 2009). Due to its ubiquitous nature, *L. monocytogenes* needs to be able to adapt to environmental stresses in its transition from the environment to the human gastro-intestinal tract. Population heterogeneity is an inherent feature of microorganisms and heterogeneity in stress response between individual cells of a population can result in survival of a small fraction of the population when subjected to (food-relevant) lethal stresses such as heat or low pH. This type of non-uniform killing leads to non-linear inactivation kinetics and tailing of the inactivation curve (Avery, 2006). Tailing leads to higher-than-expected number of cells surviving an inactivation treatment, which can be problematic for the accurate modelling of inactivation procedures. Moreover, non-homogeneous killing can lead to the selection of stress resistant variants from a population. The fraction of stress resistant cells in a population has been shown to be comprised of both cells that show a transient phenotypic resistance, and cells that show a stable genotypic resistance (Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2011; Van Boeijen et al., 2008). Indeed, from the tail of the inactivation curve, stable stress resistant variants have been isolated for *L. monocytogenes* EGDe, LO28, and ScottA when exposed to either heat, low pH or high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) (Karatzas and Bennik, 2002; Metselaar et al., 2013; Metselaar et al., 2015; Van Boeijen et al., 2011; Van Boeijen et al., 2008). However, the specific mechanism of resistance in these stable stress resistant variants is still poorly understood. For variants selected by HHP treatment, a mutation in the class III heat shock repressor *ctsR* was shown to be responsible for the increased stress resistance in some of the variants (Van Boeijen et al., 2010). Interestingly, these HHP selected variants showed cross resistance to other stresses including heat and acid stress. In 2013, Metselaar et al. could isolate 23 stable stress resistant variants upon acid treatment. Although phenotypic characteristics such as heat and acid resistance and impaired growth rate were observed in both the HHP selected and the acid stress selected variants, a whole genome sequencing and Structural Variation (SV) analysis on the acid stress selected variants of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 revealed no mutations in the *ctsR* region in any of the 23 variants. The SV analysis revealed that 11 of the 23 acid stress selected variants that shared similar phenotypes all had a mutation in the *rpsU* gene locus. Our current study focuses on two of these *rpsU* variants, namely, variant 14, which has a deletion encompassing *rpsU*, *yqeY* and half of *phoH*, and variant 15 that carries a single

point mutation resulting in an amino acid substitution, changing an arginine into a proline. In previous work (Metselaar et al., 2015) RT-PCR analysis revealed significantly lower expression of the *rpsU* gene in variant 15, and as expected, no transcript in variant 14. For these variants, protection from lethal acid stress seems to be correlated (Metselaar et al., 2015) with increased activity of the glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) system (Cotter et al., 2001; Feehily and Karatzas, 2013; Karatzas et al., 2012), but complementary mechanisms contributing to the observed multiple stress-resistant phenotype of the variants are unknown. Therefore, in the current study we investigated the differential transcriptomic and phenotypic responses of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variants 14 and 15 in comparison to the wild type to further characterize the variants and to elucidate features that can contribute to fitness, stress-tolerance, and virulence.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

Listeria monocytogenes LO28 wild type (WT) strain (Wageningen Food & Biobased Research, The Netherlands) and stress resistant variants 14 and 15 (Metselaar et al., 2013) were used in this study. All bacterial cultures were cultured as described elsewhere (Metselaar et al., 2013). Briefly, cells from -80°C stock were grown at 30°C for 48 hours on brain heart infusion (BHI, Oxoid, Hampshire) agar (1.5 % [w/w], bacteriological agar no. 1 Oxoid, Hampshire) plates. A single colony was then used to inoculate 20 ml of BHI broth in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask (Fisher, USA). After overnight (ON) culturing at 30°C under shaking at 160 rpm, (Innova 42; New Brunswick Scientific, Edison, NJ) 0.5% (v/v) inoculum was added to fresh BHI broth. Cells were grown under shaking at 160 rpm in BHI at 30°C until the late-exponential growth phase ($OD_{600} = 0.4-0.5$).

RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and labelling

RNA was isolated from late-exponentially growing cultures of the WT and variants 14 and 15. Cultures (20 ml) were centrifuged in 50 ml Falcon tubes for 1 min at room temperature (11.000 x *g*). Immediately after centrifugation the pellet was resuspended in 1 ml TRI reagent (Ambion) by vortexing, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until use. RNA was extracted according to the RNAwiz (Ambion) protocol. Residual DNA was enzymatically removed using the TURBO DNA-free kit (Ambion) according to manufacturer's instructions. The quality of the extracted RNA was checked by using the Bioanalyzer (Agilent) with the Agilent RNA 6000 Nano kit, according to manufacturer's

instructions. RIN scores were between 8.5 and 10. Complementary DNA (cDNA) with amino-allyl-labelled dUTP (Ambion) was synthesized from RNA by using Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). Labelling and hybridization were performed as described elsewhere (Mols et al., 2013).

Microarray design and data analysis

A custom-made array design for *L. monocytogenes* LO28 was based on the 8 x 15K platform of Agilent Technologies (GEO accession number: GSE114672, on the GPL25009 platform) and the genome sequence of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe (NCBI accession number NC_003210.1). Two biological replicates of variant 14, and three biological replicates of variant 15 were used. Microarrays were scanned with an Agilent G2505C scanner. Image analysis and processing were performed with the Agilent Feature Extraction software (version 10.7.3.1). Transcriptome profiles were normalized using LOWESS normalization (Yang et al., 2002) as implemented in MicroPreP (van Hijum et al., 2003). The data were corrected for inter-slide differences based on total signal intensity per slide using Postprep (Yang et al., 2002) and median intensity of the different probes per gene was selected as the gene expression intensity. CyberT software was used to compare the different transcriptomes (Baldi and Long, 2001) resulting in gene expression ratios and false discovery rates (FDR) for each gene. The gene was considered significantly differentially expressed when FDR-adjusted P value was <0.05 and expression fold change was higher than 3 (\log_2 ratio > 1.58 for upregulation, and < -1.58 for downregulation) (Hayrapetyan et al., 2015). FunRich version 2.1.2 (Pathan et al., 2015) was used for functional enrichment analysis.

Freeze-thaw resistance

100 μ l of late exponential phase cultures of the WT strain and variants 14 and 15 were each transferred into 10 ml of fresh BHI and BHI supplemented with 100 μ g/ml chloramphenicol as an inhibitor of protein synthesis. For each culture, 1.5 ml of inoculated BHI was transferred into a 2.0 ml Eppendorf tube, after which the Eppendorf tubes were collected in a water bath floater and placed in a tray containing a coolant mixture of 50% (v/v) glycerol (Fluca, Buchs) and deionized water pre-cooled to -20°C to ensure an even rate of freezing of the three cultures. After freezing for 2 h, all samples were thawed for 15 min in a water bath (Julabo JW II, Germany) set to 25°C. Appropriate dilutions of the first sample were prepared in Peptone Physiological Salt (PPS) solution, 0.1% w/v peptone, and 0.9% w/v NaCl (Tritium Microbiologie, The Netherlands) and spiral plated on BHI agar plates (Eddy Jet, IUL

Instruments) in duplicate. Samples for the second and third round of freezing and thawing were frozen again, after which the samples of the second round were thawed and plated. This process was repeated for the third round. Plates were counted after 3-4 days to allow recovery of the cells. Experiments were done with independent biological triplicates.

Glycerol consumption

100 ml cultures of the WT strain and variants 14 and 15 were grown in BHI medium in 500 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. Late-exponential phase cells were harvested by centrifuging 2 x 50 ml of cell suspension for 5 min at 2880 x *g*. Pellets were resuspended in phosphate buffered saline, pH 7.4 (PBS, KH₂PO₄ 1.06 mM; NaCl 155.17 mM; Na₂HPO₄·7H₂O 2.97 mM) (Gibco, Life Technologies, Scotland), and centrifuged again for 5 min at 2880 x *g* to remove all traces of BHI medium. The pellet was resuspended in 20 ml of nutrient broth (NB) (Oxoid, Hampshire) supplemented with 25 mM glycerol, 100 µg of chloramphenicol as an inhibitor of protein synthesis per ml and incubated in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask (Fisher, USA) at 30°C. A 1 ml sample was taken directly after resuspension in NB as time point zero, followed by sampling after 60, 120 and 180 minutes of incubation. Samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 17.000 x *g* to remove cells. The supernatant was filter sterilized using a 0.2 µm syringe filter (Minisart NML, Sartorius Stedim Biotech GmbH, Germany). 0.5 ml of supernatant was deproteinized by the Carrez AB method. Briefly, 0.25 ml of cold Carrez A (42.20 g/l K₄FE(CN)₆·3H₂O) was added to 0.5 ml of sample. After thorough mixing with a MS 2 minishaker (IKA, Staufen, Germany) 0.25 ml of Carrez B (57.50 g/l ZnSO₄·7H₂O) was added, and the sample was centrifuged at 17.000 x *g* for 5 min. 10 µl of supernatant was analysed using an Ultimate 3000 HPLC (Dionex, USA) equipped with a 300 x 7.8 mm Aminex HPX 87-H ion exclusion column (Biorad, USA), kept at 40°C with 0.05 M H₂SO₄ as eluent at a flow of 0.6 ml/min. Glycerol was detected by a Shodex R-101 refractive index detector (Shodex, USA). A standard curve was constructed by serial dilutions of glycerol in Milli-Q water (Millipore, USA). Peaks were annotated and integrated using Chromelion version 7.2 SR4 analysis software.

Differences in glycerol consumption between the WT and variants were evaluated by a Student t-test using Microsoft Excel. Differences were considered significantly different when $p < 0.05$.

Flagella imaging

Late-exponential phase cells of the WT strain and variants 14 and 15, grown at 30°C were

visualized using either the Ryu protocol (Kodaka et al., 1982; Ryu, 1937) or transmission electron microscopy (TEM). In the Ryu protocol, a wet mount of a cell suspension was made using a glass microscope slide with a coverslip. Then, a solution of one-part dye (saturated crystal violet in ethanol absolute) was added to 10 parts of mordant solution (aluminum potassium sulfate ($\text{AlK}_2\text{O}_8\text{S}_2 \cdot 12 \text{H}_2\text{O}$) 57 g/l; Phenol ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{OH}$) 25 g/l; Tannic Acid ($\text{C}_{76}\text{H}_{52}\text{O}_{46}$) 20 g/l). A drop of this dye-mordant solution was placed on the side of the coverslip, allowing the dye-mordant solution to enter the wet mount via capillary action. Images were taken at phase contrast settings using an Olympus BX 41 microscope with an Olympus UIS-2 PLAN-C 100x PH3 oil immersion lens coupled to an Olympus XC 30 digital camera via a 0.63x magnifier tube. Olympus CellB version 3.5 software running under Windows 7 (Microsoft, USA) was used for image acquisition. Contrast was enhanced over the entire image using ImageJ (version 1.5f National Institutes of Health, Maryland, USA). For TEM, cells were pelleted at $2880 \times g$ and washed with phosphate buffered saline to remove traces of BHI and applied to copper TEM grids and stained with 2% uranyl acetate for 30s. The samples were visualized using a JEOL 1100, (Wageningen Electron Microscopy Centre, Wageningen University & Research, The Netherlands) operated at 100kV. Experiments were performed with independent biological triplicates.

Caco-2 adhesion and invasion assay

Caco-2 human intestine epithelial cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Caco-2, ATCC HTB-37) and cells at passage (41) were used for all experiments. Cells were routinely cultured in Tissue culture medium (TCM), containing Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM, Scotland) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Integro, The Netherlands), 1% (200 mM) glutamine (Gibco), Non-Essential Amino Acids (10 mM/amino acid, Gibco) and 0.1% w/v gentamycin (50.0 mg/ml, Gibco) in 75 cm² flasks (Corning Incorporated, NY, USA).

The cells were grown to confluence in 12-well tissue culture plates (Corning Incorporated, NY, USA) following the procedure described previously (Oliveira et al., 2011) at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂. 12-well plates were seeded in each well with $1.6 \cdot 10^5$ cells/ml. Medium was replaced every 2-3 days. Inoculated 12-well plates were incubated for 12-14 days at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂ for full cell differentiation. Prior to all experiments, Caco-2 cells were washed three times with TCM without gentamycin and FBS pre-warmed to 37°C. An final inoculum concentration of 6.7 log cfu/ml was obtained by adding 40 µl of late exponential phase cells of *L. monocytogenes*

WT and variants 14 and 15 to the monolayers. After inoculation, the 12 well plates were centrifuged (Hettich Rotina 420R, with 4784A swing-out rotor, Hettich Benelux, The Netherlands) for 1 min at 175 x *g* to create a proximity between the Caco-2 and *L. monocytogenes* cells. The bacteria suspension was removed after one hour of incubation at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂. Then, the Caco-2 monolayers were washed 3 times with 1 ml of pre-warmed PPS. To quantify the number of cells adhered and/or invaded to the Caco-2 cells, the Caco-2 cells were lysed with 1 ml of 1% v/v Triton-X100 (Sigma–Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) in PPS and serially diluted in PPS. Appropriate dilutions were plated on BHI agar in duplicate, and colonies were enumerated after 2 days of incubation at 37°C. The ratio of percentage recovery (defined as number of cells (cfu/ml) attached and/or invaded divided by number of cells (cfu/ml) inoculated) in the variants over percentage recovery in the WT was reported. Two technical replicates were used with three wells per replicate.

Results

General transcriptome response of variants 14 and 15

Microarray analysis showed that gene expression was different between the WT and variants 14 and 15. The number of differentially expressed genes in variants 14 and 15 is shown in Figure 3.1. There was a clear overlap in the expression profiles of both variants, as 116 and 114 genes were upregulated and downregulated in both variants, respectively. To provide a more detailed insight into the transcriptomic responses of variants 14 and 15, the COG classes of the overlapping set of genes are shown in Figure 3.1c (for a complete list of genes in the overlapping set and their corresponding COG classes, see supplementary table S3.1 and S3.2). Notable shifts in expression in the variants were seen in COG classes related to metabolism and energy conversion (G: carbohydrate transport and metabolism, E: Amino acid transport and metabolism, C: Energy production and conversion), cell motility (N), signal transduction mechanisms (T), and transcription (K). Based on the previously described multiple-stress resistant phenotype of the *rpsU* variants, we first focused on parameters involved in stress response.

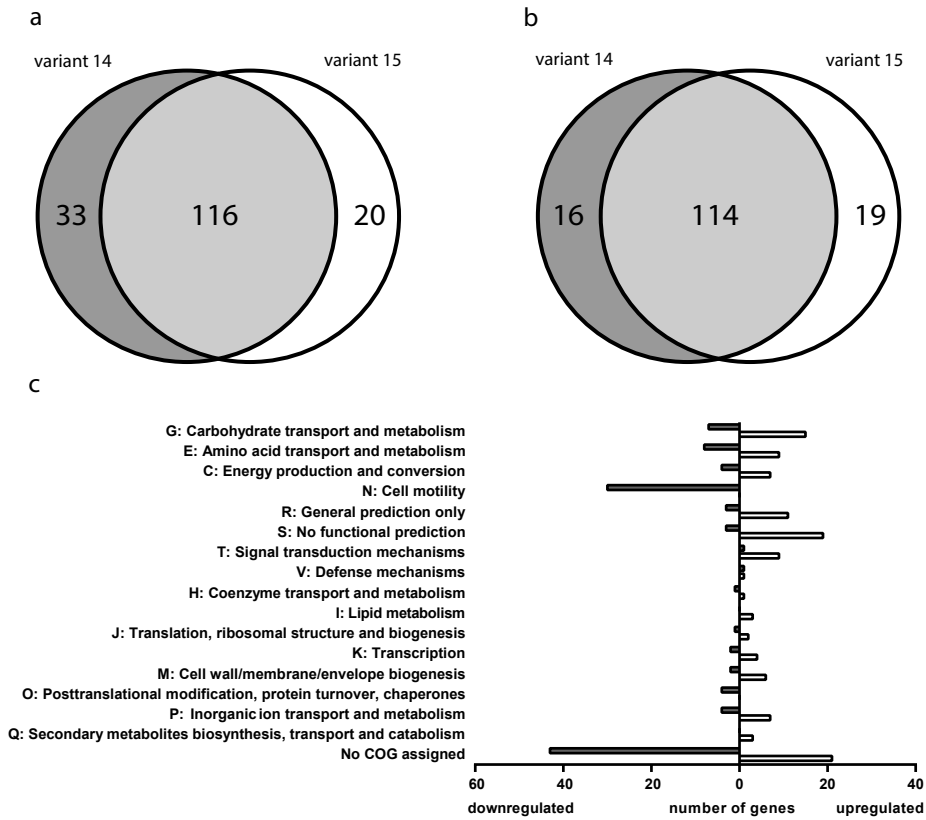


Figure 3.1: Differentially expressed genes in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variants 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Panel (a) represents genes that were upregulated in the variants compared to the wild type, panel (b) represents genes that were downregulated in the variants compared to the wild type. The dark grey shaded circle part represents genes only up- or downregulated in variant 14, the white circle part represents genes only up- or downregulated in variant 15. The light grey circle part represents the overlap in expression between the variants, with 116 and 114 genes up- and downregulated, respectively. (c) COG assignment of the number of upregulated (open bars) and downregulated genes (shaded bars) in both variants 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Expression of individual genes is listed in tables S3.1 to S3.6.

General stress response

The alternative transcription factor SigB and its regulon are known to play a key role in general stress adaptation in *L. monocytogenes* (Guldimann et al., 2016, NicAogain and O'Byrne, 2016). The SigB regulon has been investigated in several studies using different methods, including DNA microarrays and RNAseq (Mujahid et al., 2013; Oliver et al., 2010; Ollinger et al., 2009; Raengpradub et al., 2008), see Guldimann et al., (2016) for a recent overview of SigB in relation to resilience. Here we used the SigB regulon described by Mujahid et al. in 2013 based on a gene expression dataset obtained by DNA microarrays and RNAseq, and compared the differential expression of these SigB-regulated genes in variants 14 and 15.

The transcriptome analysis of the variants showed that the majority (ca. 70%) of the SigB regulon, consisting in total of around 145 genes was upregulated. Additionally, the SigB-controlled *ctc* gene encoding ribosomal protein L25 (previously referred to as general stress protein Ctc) (Gardan et al., 2003), was found to be higher expressed in the *rpsU* variants (Figure 3.2a/b, supplementary table S3.15). This pointed to an important role of the SigB regulon in acquired stress resistance of the variants, although the differential expression of the gene coding for the alternative transcription factor *sigB* (Sigma B, Imo0895) was significant (1.47 and 1.08 log₂ fold change respectively for variant 14 and 15 with FDR <0.005), but just below the stringent cut-off that was used (i.e. 1.58 log₂ fold change). A selection of the SigB-regulated genes with known impact on *L. monocytogenes* stress-tolerance and host interaction is presented in Figure 3.2c. The SigB-regulated *gad-D3* gene (Imo2434) (Kazmierczak et al., 2003) is responsible for intracellular conversion of glutamate into GABA (Feehily and Karatzas, 2013) and was upregulated in both variants (Figure 3.2c). Additionally, genes involved in the SigB and PrfA controlled arginine deiminase (ADI) system (Ryan et al., 2009) were upregulated (see supplementary table S3.8). Upregulation of these genes aligns with the previously reported increased acid resistance of these variants (Metselaar et al., 2015). In the genome of *L. monocytogenes* various SigB-controlled genes encoding compatible solute transporters have been identified (Sleator and Hill, 2010; Sleator et al., 2001), and genes encoding for the compatible solute transporter OpuC (encoded by the *opuC* operon) were among the highest upregulated genes in the variants (Figure 3.2c). Also, SigB-regulated genes involved in glycerol metabolism (represented by *glpF/K/D*, *dhaK/L*) were upregulated, pointing to a shift in metabolism compared to the WT, as well as SigB-regulated genes known to be involved in initial attachment to epithelium cells (represented by *inlA* in Figure 3.2c). Based on these observations a range of

experiments was designed to determine corresponding relevant phenotypes of the two variants.

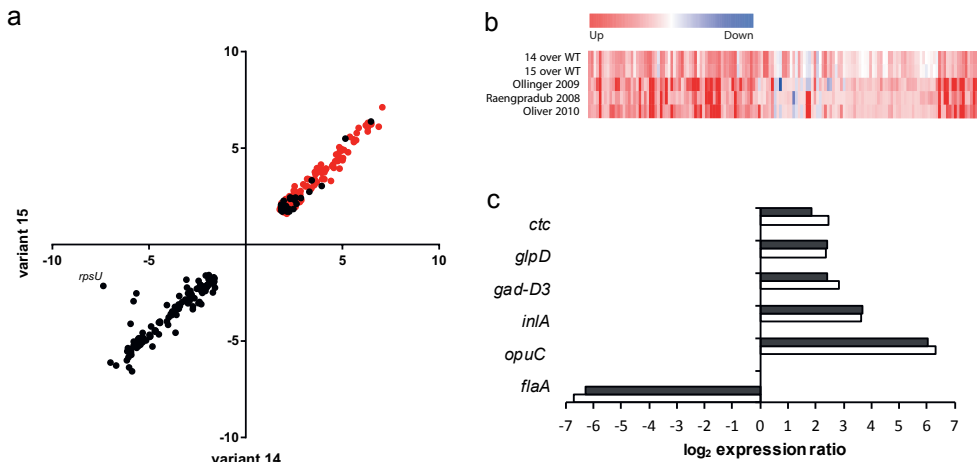


Figure 3.2: Expression of representative SigB-regulated genes in *L. monocytogenes* variants compared to the wild type. (a) Regression of all genes that were significantly up- or downregulated in both variants 14 and 15. Genes shown in red are part of the SigB operon as described by Mujahid et al., 2013 (b) The heatmap displays relative expression of SigB-related genes in variants 14 and 15 compared to the wild type, and relative expression of these SigB-regulated genes as reported by Ollinger et al. 2009, Raengpradub et al. 2008 and Oliver et al. 2010. (c) Relative expression of selected SigB-regulated genes. The filled bars represent expression of genes in variant 15, the open bars represent expression of genes in variant 14. Expression of individual genes is listed in table S3.1 and S3.2

Freeze-thaw resistance

Listeria monocytogenes may be exposed to freezing-thawing stress in natural environments, as well as during storage and transport of foods. Compatible solutes are known to have a role in resistance to freezing-thawing stress (Sleator and Hill, 2010; Wemekamp-Kamphuis, Sleator, et al., 2004), and the observed upregulation of the SigB-regulated *opuC* operon in variants 14 and 15 conceivably results in higher intracellular concentrations of compatible solutes such as carnitine present in BHI leading to improved freezing-thawing resistance. Therefore, *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variants 14 and 15 were exposed to consecutive cycles of freezing and thawing. Indeed, while the WT decreases up to 3 to 4 log cfu/ml after three rounds of freezing and thawing, the cell counts of both variants did not decline, indicating enhanced stress-tolerance (Figure 3.3). Experiments with chloramphenicol as inhibitor of protein synthesis showed a similar trend with slightly higher variation between the data points (data not shown) indicating that *de novo* protein synthesis was not required to sustain enhanced stress-tolerance of the variants. In addition to protection against freezing and thawing stress, compatible solutes are involved in osmoprotection. Therefore, *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variants 14 and 15 were also exposed to a 24% w/v solution of NaCl in PPS for 16 hours, but no killing was observed for WT or variants 14 and 15 (data not shown).

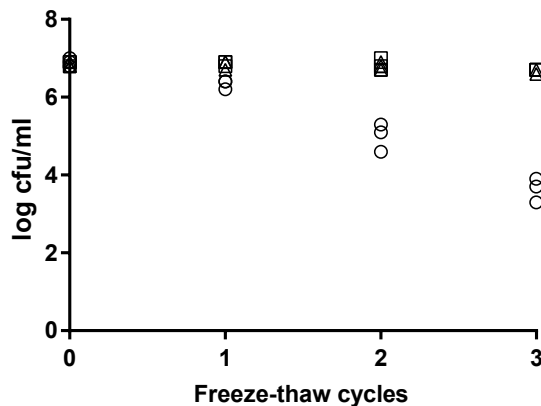


Figure 3.3: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wild type and variants after, 0 (equals the initial concentration), 1, 2, and 3 cycles of freezing and thawing. The wild type is represented by circles, variant 14 by squares, and variant 15 by triangles.

Glycerol metabolism

Increased expression of glycerol metabolism associated genes (Figure 3.4a and supplementary table S3.10) indicates an increased production of glycerol metabolic enzymes in the variants. Glycerol catabolism in *L. monocytogenes* is strongly linked to the expression of *sigB* (Abram et al., 2008), while simultaneous upregulation of *prfA* has been reported in glycerol grown cultures (Joseph et al., 2008). The transcriptome analysis showed that indeed *prfA* was upregulated in both variants as well as the SigB-regulated gene encoding the putative glycerol uptake facilitator protein GlpF₁ (Imo1539), while the second non SigB-regulated gene encoding the putative glycerol uptake facilitator protein GlpF₂ (Imo1167) was not differentially expressed. After facilitated diffusion of glycerol into the cell via GlpF₁, glycerol can be metabolized into dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHA-P) via glycerol-3-phosphate (Figure 3.4a). The glycerol kinase gene (*glpK*, Imo1538) was upregulated in both variants and is suspected to catalyse the ATP-dependent phosphorylation of glycerol to yield glycerol-3-phosphate (Joseph et al., 2008). The *glpD* (Imo1293) gene coding for GlpD, which catalyzes the conversion of glycerol-3-phosphate into DHA-P was also upregulated in variants 14 and 15. Previous work on glycerol metabolism in *Listeria innocua* (Monniot et al., 2012) described the *golD* operon in *L. innocua* (lin0359-lin0369), and a homologous operon (*golD*) is present in *L. monocytogenes* (Imo0341-Imo0351). This *gol* operon is part of the second glycerol utilization pathway that depends on GolD for the conversion of glycerol into dihydroxyacetone (DHA). While the *golD* gene (Imo0344) was not upregulated in variants 14 and 15, the genes needed to perform the subsequent utilisation steps in this pathway (*dhaK/L*) were upregulated. Consequently, glycerol consumption was assessed in exponentially growing cells of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variants 14 and 15. Indeed, glycerol utilisation was increased in the variants compared to the WT after three hours of incubation in glycerol supplemented medium (Figure 3.4b). This pattern was observed while the cells were incubated with chloramphenicol, indicating that *de novo* protein synthesis did not contribute to this phenotype. Notably, the genes Imo0722 and Imo1381 encoding pyruvate oxidase and acylphosphatase, respectively, were also higher expressed (supplementary table S3.11). This points to downstream utilization of pyruvate generated from glycerol via acetyl phosphate leading to the production of acetate. HPLC analysis of samples obtained after 3 h incubation demonstrated that glycerol was indeed preferentially converted into acetate in the variants (data not shown).

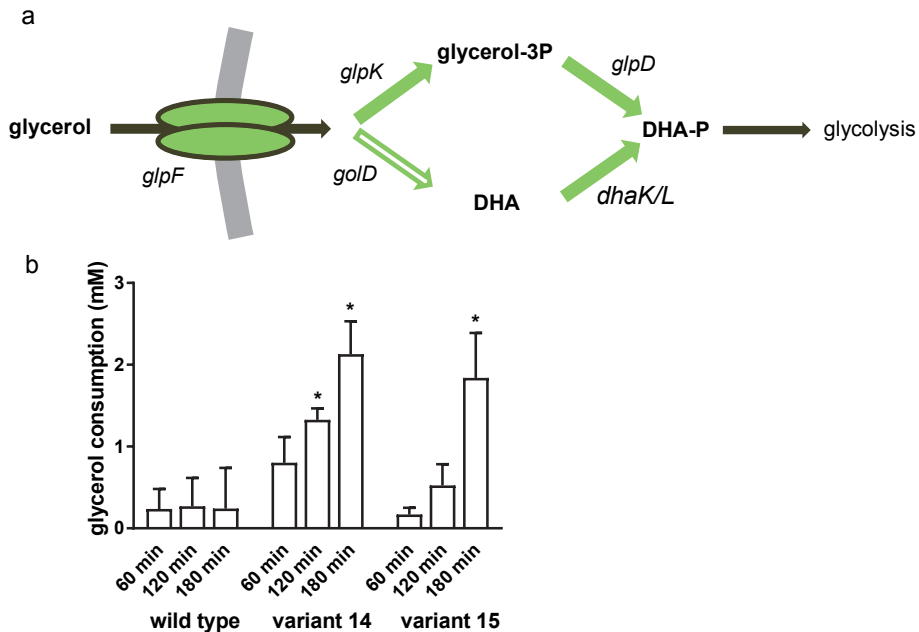


Figure 3.4: Glycerol uptake and consumption in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wild type and variants. (a) Glycerol is imported in the cell via *GlpF* and can be converted to glycerol-3 phosphate by *GlpK* or to dihydroxyacetone (DHA) by *GlpD*, before entering glycolysis as dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHA-P). Closed arrows represent upregulated genes in both variants 14 and 15 relative to the wild type, open arrows represent no differential expression in both variants. *glpK* is upregulated in variant 14, however expression in variant 15 falls just below the stringent cut-off used here (see table S10). (b) Glycerol usage by *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variants. Late exponential cells were concentrated and incubated in nutrient broth supplemented with glycerol for 60, 120 and 180 minutes. Error bars indicate standard errors. * indicates significant difference over the same time point in the WT.

Motility

In our study, both flagella cluster 1 and putative flagella cluster 2 were downregulated in variants 14 and 15 (supplementary Figure S3.1 and supplementary Table S3.11), and therefore flagella staining was used to analyse the presence or absence of flagella in WT

and variants 14 and 15. Figure 3.5 shows the reduced presence of flagella (no flagella for 30 observed cells) in both variants, while flagella were clearly observed for approximately 50% of the cells in the WT strain.

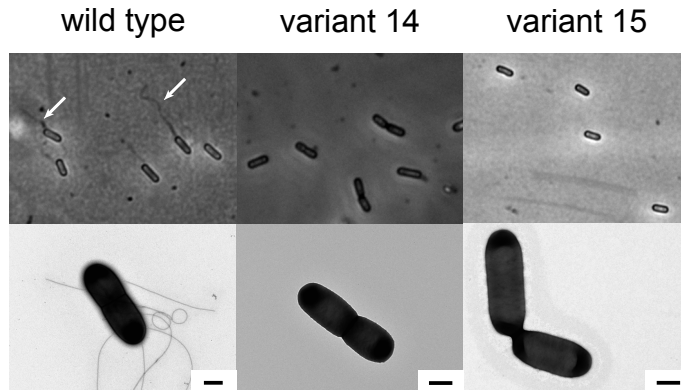


Figure 3.5: Flagella imaging of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variants. Top row, *L. monocytogenes* flagella staining with crystal violet as described in Ryu et al. (1937). White arrows indicate flagella in WT. Bottom row, TEM image of *L. monocytogenes* cells. Scale bar indicates 500 nm.

Caco-2 attachment and invasion

After stomach passage and crossing of the intestinal barrier, *L. monocytogenes* induces internalisation by non-phagocytal host cells using the cell surface proteins internalin A (*inIA*) and B (*inIB*). The InIA protein mediates the infection of human enterocyte like cells lines such as Caco-2 via the human E-cadherin receptor (Bonazzi et al., 2009) while InIB is specific for the hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) receptor Met (Pizarro-Cerda et al., 2012). In vitro, expression of either *inIA* or *inIB* is sufficient for attachment to and internalization in non-phagocytic cells (Pizarro-Cerda et al., 2012). In variants 14 and 15, both *inIA* and *inIB* were upregulated (see Figure 3.2 and supplementary Table S3.14). Therefore, the attachment and invasion of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT strain and variants 14 and 15 during incubation with Caco-2 cells was determined. The recovery ratio in Caco-2 cells of both variants 14 and 15 was eight-fold higher in comparison to the WT (Figure 3.6), indicating that the variants performed better in attachment and/or invasion than the WT strain.

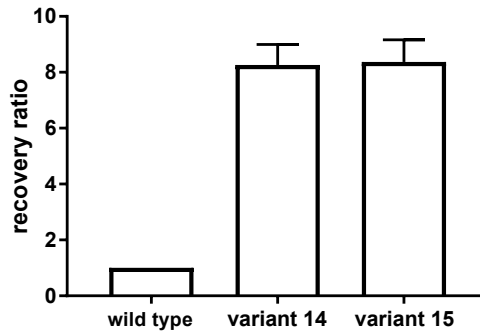


Figure 3.6: Recovery ratio of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 wild type compared to variants 14 and 15 from Caco-2 cells. Recovery ratio is defined as N recovered (attached and invaded) over N inoculated. Wild type recovery ratio is set at 1. Error bars represent standard error of three technical replicates.

Discussion

Genotypic heterogeneity within a bacterial population may allow for elevated survival when a population of bacteria is subjected to food relevant stresses. In this study we focused on the transcriptomic behaviour of two multiple-stress resistant *rpsU* variants of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 that were previously isolated from a heterogeneous population. Notably, the transcriptomic response of variant 14, harbouring a large deletion that spans the ribosomal *rpsU* gene, as well as *yqeY* and half of *phoH*, was highly similar to the transcriptomic response of variant 15, harbouring a single point mutation in *rpsU*, that resulted in an amino acid change from arginine to proline. Despite the mutation in *rpsU*, and the strikingly lower expression of *rpsU* in variant 15 both variants apparently possessed functional ribosomes, and were highly stress resistant. Using a comparative gene-profiling and phenotyping approach, we now provided evidence that the multiple stress resistant phenotype could be explained by the activation of the SigB regulon. Both variants show an upregulation of about 70% of the 145 genes of the SigB regulon included in the analysis, although no mutations in *sigB* or its regulatory sequences were found (Metselaar et al., 2015). Whether additional factors are contributing to the observed multiple stress resistance phenotype of the variants remains to be elucidated.

One of the primary systems to overcome acid stress in *L. monocytogenes* is the partially SigB-regulated GAD system. This system exchanges extracellular glutamate for

intracellularly produced gamma-aminobutyrate (GABA_i) under acidic conditions using the *gadT1* and *gadT2* antiporters. Intracellular glutamate is decarboxylated into GABA_i by *gadD1*, *gadD2*, or *gadD3* while consuming a proton, thereby increasing the pH of the cytoplasm (Karatzas et al., 2010). As in previous work, (Metselaar et al., 2015), we did not find an elevated transcription of antiporter/decarboxylase pair *gadT1D1* or *gadT2D2* of the external GAD system. However, the SigB-regulated *gadD3* of the internal GAD system, operating without a glutamate/GABA antiporter was upregulated. *GadD3* is hypothesised to play an important role in acid resistance by mediating the conversion of glutamate into GABA_i with concomitant consumption (removal) of protons in the cytoplasm (Karatzas et al., 2010; Wemekamp-Kamphuis, Wouters, et al., 2004), and indeed elevated accumulation of GABA_i has been previously found in variants 14 and 15 in response to acid stress (Metselaar et al., 2015).

In *L. monocytogenes*, transcription of genes involved in glycerol catabolism was shown to be SigB dependent (Abram et al., 2008). In variants 14 and 15, increased transcription of the SigB-regulated *GlpF₁* (lmo1539) gene pointed to increased glycerol catabolism in variants 14 and 15. Indeed, during exponential growth in BHI we found upregulation of a specific set of genes in the variants involved in glycerol uptake: *glpF₁* (lmo1539), *glpK₁* (lmo1538) and *glpD* (lmo1293) but not of *glpF₂* (lmo1167) and *glpK₂* (lmo1034). During growth, *L. monocytogenes* preferentially uses sugars that are taken up by the phosphoenol-pyruvate (PEP): phosphotransferase systems (PTS) such as glucose (Joseph et al., 2008). The main carbon source in BHI is glucose, and the presence of PTS sugars in the medium normally inhibits the catabolism of non-PTS carbon sources such as glycerol via carbon catabolite repression (CCR) (Gilbreth et al., 2004; Joseph et al., 2008; Milenbachs et al., 1997; Park and Kroll, 1993). However, our variants 14 and 15, when grown in BHI display a pattern of gene expression like WT cells of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe grown to OD₆₀₀ 0.5 in defined minimal medium with glycerol (Joseph et al., 2008) suggesting mitigation of catabolite repression.

Another study reported that cells grown in the presence of a non-PTS carbon source such as glycerol, show a high activity of *prfA* (Joseph and Goebel, 2007; Mertins et al., 2007) and experiments with $\Delta glpK$ and $\Delta glpD$ mutants indicated that components related to glycerol metabolism may modulate the transcription of *prfA*. Notably, glycerol has been reported as one of the main carbon sources for *L. monocytogenes* during cytosolic growth (Bruno and Freitag, 2010; Fuchs et al., 2012). Therefore, the observation that both *prfA* and the genes

for glycerol metabolism are constitutively expressed in the variants suggests that variants 14 and 15 are metabolically primed for replication in eukaryotic cells (Bruno and Freitag, 2010), conceivably affecting their virulence potential. Indeed, in variants 14 and 15, with upregulated *glpK* and *glpD*, we see upregulation of the PrfA/SigB-regulated *inlA* and *inlB*. InlA is essential for attachment and invasion of enterocytes and enterocyte cell lines such as Caco-2, while InlB mediates the attachment of *L. monocytogenes* to fibroblasts and hepatocytes. Although *L. monocytogenes* LO28 carries a premature stopcodon in *inlA*, truncating the InlA protein at 63 kDa as opposed to the 80 kDa InlA of epidemic strains, infection studies show that *L. monocytogenes* LO28 is still able to adhere to and invade Caco-2 cells (Olier et al., 2003). In variants 14 and 15, we observed an eight-fold increase over the WT in attachment and invasion to a Caco-2 cell line, indicating a higher potential for adhesion and invasion in the variants.

Both variants 14 and 15 showed a clear reduction in expression of motility associated genes, including flagellar biosynthesis genes (*fliN*, *fliP*, *fliQ*, *fliR*, *flhB*, *flhA*, *flhF*, and *flgG*) and motor control genes (*motA*, *motB*). In variants 14 and 15, there was no significant difference in expression of the motility gene repressor *mogR* over the wild type (see table S13). In line with the downregulation of the flagellar biosynthesis genes, the *gmrA* gene encoding the MogR-anti-repressor GmrA, was strongly downregulated in both variants (see table S13), conceivably allowing the MogR protein to repress expression of the flagella operon (Lebreton and Cossart, 2016). Whether the previously described SigB-activated long antisense RNA Anti0677 (Lebreton and Cossart, 2016; Schultze et al., 2014; Toledo-Arana et al., 2009) plays an additional role in the observed downregulation of motility genes in the flagella operon in the two *L. monocytogenes* variants remains to be elucidated.

Activation of a systemic stress defence response via SigB is energetically costly, and shutdown of the energy consuming flagella synthesis apparatus can reduce some of the energetic costs of SigB activation. Indeed, *rpsU* variants have been described to have reduced fitness relative to the WT, showing reduced growth rates at 7°C and 30°C (Metselaar et al., 2015). Notably, Metselaar et al. (2013) described growth rate differences that were a function of media pH for *rpsU* variants, suggesting that stress resistance and growth rate are growth condition dependent and mechanically linked. This could provide a clue to elucidate the correlation between the *rpsU* mutations and activation of the SigB regulon reported in the current paper. SigB activity is controlled both translationally and

posttranslationally in *Listeria*, allowing the bacterial cells to rapidly respond to changes in environmental conditions. The posttranslational control of SigB activity involves a phosphorylation cascade that is highly conserved in species containing *sigB*, including *L. monocytogenes* (Ferreira et al., 2004) and is governed by the “stressosome”, a signal relay hub that integrates multiple environmental (stress) signals to regulate SigB activity. A published overview of network motifs in *L. monocytogenes* (Guariglia-Oropeza et al., 2014) underlines the role of *sigB* as a central hub in the stress response of *L. monocytogenes*. In variants 14 and 15, we found strong upregulation of genes that were under the direct control of SigB (eg. *uspL1-3*, *inlAB*, *bsh*) in these regulatory networks, but not of genes that were co-regulated by other regulators. However, additional network effects remain to be elucidated.

In conclusion, the activation of SigB-mediated stress defence offers an explanation for the multiple-stress resistant phenotype observed in *rpsU* variants. Strikingly, our DNA microarray analysis showed that expression of upregulated or downregulated genes largely overlaps between variants 14 and 15, while variant 14 carries a deletion of the *rpsU* and *yqeY* gene, and a partial deletion of *phoH*, whereas variant 15 carries only an amino acid substitution in the *rpsU* gene which may affect functionality of the RpsU protein. The exact mechanism of SigB induction via *rpsU* and stressosome associated genes remains to be elucidated. Moreover, a better mechanistic understanding of *rpsU* associated multi-stress resistance will provide valuable insights into the generation of genotypic heterogeneity within bacterial populations.

Acknowledgments

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Supplementary material

Table S3.1 (1 of 3). Expression of genes up-regulated in both *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	COG class	COG description	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
						log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_2671	lmo1988	<i>feuB</i>	C	Energy production and conversion	3-isopropylmalate dehydrogenase	2.63	0.0007	2.12	0.0018
LO28_0878	lmo1651		V	Defense mechanisms	ABC transporter	2.04	0.0000	1.85	0.0000
LO28_0923	lmo2603		C	Energy production and conversion	Acetylmalate/formate dehydrogenase	2.64	0.0015	2.55	0.0003
LO28_2350	lmo2065		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Acetylthioesterase	3.17	0.0037	3.03	0.0009
LO28_1323	lmo0134		R	General prediction only	Acetyltransferase GANT family	4.10	0.0000	3.84	0.0000
LO28_2005	lmo0607		K	Transcription	Acetyltransferase GANT family	5.58	0.0000	5.45	0.0000
LO28_0517	lmo1309	<i>gfpD</i>	Q	Energy production and conversion	Acetyl glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	2.38	0.0000	2.39	0.0000
LO28_2843	lmo2157	<i>scpA</i>	Q	Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism	Alkyl sulfatase	3.52	0.0000	3.06	0.0000
LO28_1252	lmo0043		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Arginine diaminase	4.15	0.0000	3.95	0.0000
LO28_2917	lmo2330		T	Signal transduction mechanisms	Aspartate reductase	5.84	0.0000	6.04	0.0000
LO28_2028	lmo0579		S	General prediction only	Bacterial seryl-tRNA synthetase related	2.24	0.0000	2.31	0.0000
LO28_1354	lmo2573		C	Energy production and conversion	Bilirubin oxidase	3.99	0.0000	3.84	0.0000
LO28_2468	lmo2159		R	General prediction only	Cell division inhibitor <i>SirA223</i> (Veh in EC)	5.08	0.0000	4.90	0.0000
LO28_1501	lmo2522		M	No functional prediction	Cell wall binding protein	1.83	0.0000	2.06	0.0000
LO28_2750	lmo2067		P	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Choloyglycine hydrolase	4.47	0.0000	4.07	0.0000
LO28_2918	lmo2231		M	General prediction only	Cobal-Tnc-cad mium resistance protein	5.59	0.0000	5.31	0.0000
LO28_2017	lmo0590		R	General prediction only	DAK2 domain protein	3.38	0.0000	2.89	0.0000
LO28_1553	lmo2572		H	Enzyme transport and metabolism	Dihydropyridone reductase	4.52	0.0000	4.15	0.0000
LO28_0827	lmo1601		R	General prediction only	General stress protein	2.48	0.0000	2.79	0.0000
LO28_0828	lmo1602		R	General prediction only	General stress protein	2.53	0.0000	3.02	0.0000
LO28_1079	lmo2748		R	General prediction only	General stress protein	5.39	0.0000	5.58	0.0000
LO28_2860	lmo2174		T	Signal transduction mechanisms	GGDF4 domain protein	2.23	0.0000	1.84	0.0001
LO28_1584	lmo0169		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Glucose uptake protein	4.63	0.0000	4.32	0.0000
LO28_1411	lmo2434		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Glutamate decarboxylase	2.85	0.0000	2.41	0.0000
LO28_0656	lmo1433		C	Energy production and conversion	Glutathione reductase	4.68	0.0000	4.67	0.0000
LO28_0765	lmo1539		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Glycerol uptake facilitator protein	2.57	0.0001	1.95	0.0012
LO28_0645	lmo1422		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Glucosyltransferase ABC transport system	3.60	0.0000	3.64	0.0000
LO28_0644	lmo1421		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Glucosyltransferase ABC transport system	3.28	0.0000	3.96	0.0000
LO28_2016	lmo0591		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	2.74	0.0000	2.74	0.0000
LO28_2011	lmo0596		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	6.31	0.0000	5.86	0.0000
LO28_1308	lmo0019		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	6.31	0.0000	4.79	0.0000
LO28_0173	lmo0934		T	Signal transduction mechanisms	Hypothetical protein	5.29	0.0004	6.11	0.0001
LO28_2818	lmo2132		No COG		Hypothetical protein	0.0000	0.0000	6.11	0.0000
LO28_2818	lmo2132		No COG		Hypothetical protein	0.0000	0.0000	6.11	0.0000
LO28_1979	lmo0628		No COG		Hypothetical protein	1.94	0.0200	1.94	0.0200
LO28_1610	lmo2387		No COG		Hypothetical protein	4.16	0.0001	3.99	0.0000
LO28_1936	lmo1432		No COG		Hypothetical protein	3.56	0.0000	3.39	0.0000
LO28_0655	lmo1432		No COG		Hypothetical protein	5.15	0.0000	5.49	0.0000
LO28_2018	lmo0589		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	2.60	0.0000	2.43	0.0000
LO28_1440	lmo2463		R	General prediction only	Hypothetical protein	3.93	0.0000	3.03	0.0000
LO28_1959	lmo0647		No COG		Hypothetical protein	3.96	0.0000	3.40	0.0000
LO28_1934	lmo0670		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	3.42	0.0000	3.33	0.0000
LO28_0992	lmo2671		No COG		Hypothetical protein	4.96	0.0000	4.95	0.0000
LO28_0301	lmo1140		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	3.68	0.0000	3.33	0.0000
LO28_1414	lmo2437		R	General prediction only	Hypothetical protein	1.96	0.0000	1.67	0.0000
LO28_0752	lmo1526		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	3.68	0.0001	3.23	0.0004
LO28_1322	lmo0133		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	2.57	0.0000	2.44	0.0000
LO28_2341	lmo0274		T	Signal transduction mechanisms	Hypothetical protein	2.97	0.0000	3.12	0.0000
LO28_1551	lmo2570		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	2.07	0.0003	2.25	0.0001
LO28_2167	lmo0045		No COG		Hypothetical protein	4.41	0.0000	3.30	0.0000
LO28_0114	lmo0937		No COG		Hypothetical protein	3.84	0.0000	3.88	0.0000
LO28_1932	lmo0654		No COG		Hypothetical protein	2.56	0.0001	2.75	0.0000
LO28_1952	lmo2169		No COG		Hypothetical protein	2.52	0.0066	2.32	0.0041
LO28_2956	lmo2169		No COG		Hypothetical protein	2.26	0.0001	2.50	0.0000
					Hypothetical protein	4.76	0.0000	4.33	0.0000

Table S3.1 continued (2 of 3): Expression of genes upregulated in both *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant L4 and variant L5 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant.

LO28	lmo	Gene	COG class	COG description	Product	variant L4		variant L5	
						log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_2179	lmo0433	<i>mfa</i>	No COG		Internalin A (LXrG motif)	3.64	0.0000	3.70	0.0000
LO28_2178	lmo0434	<i>mfb</i>	No COG	No functional prediction	Internalin H (GV motif)	1.85	0.0029	2.15	0.0001
LO28_2352	lmo0263	<i>mhh</i>	S	No functional prediction	Internalin H (LPTx motif)	6.21	0.0000	6.18	0.0000
LO28_1997	lmo0610		No COG		Internalin-like protein (LPTx motif) lmo0610homolog	4.84	0.0000	5.05	0.0000
LO28_1978	lmo0629		Q	Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism	Isocitronatease	4.73	0.0001	4.65	0.0000
LO28_1737	lmo0211	<i>ctc</i>	J	Transcription, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	LSU ribosomal protein L25p	2.47	0.0000	1.84	0.0000
LO28_1958	lmo0648		G	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Magnesium and cobalt transport protein CovA	2.82	0.0005	2.21	0.0004
LO28_1074	lmo0995		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Membrane protein	2.80	0.0000	2.31	0.0000
LO28_0486	lmo1261		No COG		Membrane protein	2.88	0.0000	2.11	0.0000
LO28_1462	lmo2484		S	No functional prediction	Membrane protein	2.12	0.0016	0.0000	0.0009
LO28_2294	lmo0321		No COG		Mg(2+) transport ATPase protein C	4.07	0.0000	3.39	0.0000
LO28_0922	lmo2602		S	No functional prediction	N-acetylglucosamine 6-phosphatase	1.78	0.0000	1.99	0.0000
LO28_1033	lmo0956		G	Energy production and conversion	NADH-dependent biotin dehydratase A	3.39	0.0000	3.10	0.0000
LO28_2054	lmo0554		Q	Secondary metabolites biosynthesis, transport and catabolism	Nicotinamide	3.56	0.0000	3.92	0.0000
LO28_1552	lmo2571		C		Non-specific DNA-binding protein Dps /iron-binding ferritin-like antioxidant protein	4.15	0.0000	3.26	0.0000
LO28_1020	lmo0943	<i>fr</i>	P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Osmotically activated L-carnitine/choline ABC transporter	1.96	0.0000	2.26	0.0000
LO28_0651	lmo1448	<i>opvCA</i>	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Osmotically activated L-carnitine/choline ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein OpvCA	6.31	0.0000	6.04	0.0000
LO28_0650	lmo1427	<i>opvCB</i>	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Osmotically activated L-carnitine/choline ABC transporter, permease protein OpvCB	6.48	0.0000	6.32	0.0000
LO28_0648	lmo1425	<i>opvCD</i>	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Osmotically activated L-carnitine/choline ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein OpvCD	6.49	0.0000	6.22	0.0000
LO28_0649	lmo1426	<i>opvCC</i>	M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Oxidoreductase, NADH-dependent	6.50	0.0000	6.28	0.0000
LO28_1514	lmo2391		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Oxidoreductase, NADH-dependent	3.26	0.0000	3.36	0.0000
LO28_1935	lmo0669		I	Lipid metabolism	Oxidoreductase, short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase family	5.74	0.0000	5.78	0.0000
LO28_0938	lmo1375		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Peptidase I	2.08	0.0000	2.14	0.0000
LO28_1936	lmo0650		S	No functional prediction	Peptidase I	1.89	0.0000	1.71	0.0000
LO28_1474	lmo2496		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Phosphate transport ATP-binding protein PstB	2.25	0.0000	2.14	0.0000
LO28_1472	lmo2494		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Phosphate transport system regulatory protein PhdU	2.89	0.0001	1.71	0.0484
LO28_1028	lmo2695		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Phosphoenolpyruvate-dihydroxyacetonephosphotransferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.15	0.0000
LO28_1027	lmo2696		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Phosphoenolpyruvate-dihydroxyacetonephosphotransferase, subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.81	0.0000
LO28_1029	lmo2697		S	No functional prediction	Phosphoenolpyruvate-dihydroxyacetonephosphotransferase, subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.88	0.0000
LO28_2892	lmo2205		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Phosphoglycerate mutase	3.52	0.0001	3.21	0.0000
LO28_2027	lmo0580		R	General prediction only	Poly (glycero)-phosphatidylethanol phosphate transferase	2.12	0.0000	2.34	0.0000
LO28_1370	lmo1798		No COG		Possible low-affinity inorganic phosphate transporter	1.94	0.0000	2.02	0.0000
LO28_2207	lmo0405		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	PTS system, mannose-specific IIA component	2.08	0.0324	2.01	0.0146
LO28_1818	lmo0784		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, mannose-specific IIB component	2.38	0.0000	2.43	0.0000
LO28_1819	lmo0783		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, mannose-specific IIC component	4.94	0.0000	4.37	0.0000
LO28_1820	lmo0782		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, mannose-specific IID component	5.01	0.0000	4.37	0.0000
LO28_1821	lmo0781		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, mannose-specific IIE component	4.85	0.0000	3.94	0.0000
LO28_0464	lmo1241		S	No functional prediction	Putative exported protein	4.55	0.0000	3.97	0.0000
LO28_1585	lmo0170		M	No functional prediction	Putative exported protein	2.63	0.0049	2.25	0.0029
LO28_0056	lmo0880		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LXrG motif) lmo0880 homolog	3.94	0.0000	3.71	0.0000
LO28_0893	lmo1566		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LXrG motif) lmo1566 homolog	3.17	0.0024	3.40	0.0002
LO28_2270	lmo2085		No COG		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LXrG motif) lmo2085 homolog	3.49	0.0000	2.48	0.0000
LO28_1066	lmo2735		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Putative sucrose phosphorylase	5.09	0.0000	4.84	0.0000
LO28_1881	lmo0722		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Pyruvate oxidase (lactulose, cyclochrom)	2.14	0.0366	1.72	0.0355
LO28_0995	lmo2674		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Pyruvate oxidase (lactulose, cyclochrom)	6.32	0.0000	6.31	0.0000
LO28_1469	lmo2511		J	Transcription, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	Ribosome 50S ribosomal E	2.79	0.0000	2.46	0.0000
LO28_2176	lmo0436		K	Transcription, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	Ribosome 50S ribosomal E	2.99	0.0000	2.88	0.0000
LO28_1808	lmo0794		J	Transcription, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	Ribosomal subunit interface protein	1.84	0.0000	1.88	0.0000
LO28_1951	lmo0655		T	General prediction only	Riz2 family transcriptional regulator, group III	1.84	0.0019	2.09	0.0003
LO28_2512	lmo1830		T	Signal transduction mechanisms	Serine/threonine protein phosphatase	3.58	0.0000	3.76	0.0000
LO28_2173	lmo0439		I	Lipid metabolism	Short chain dehydrogenase	2.77	0.0001	2.77	0.0000
LO28_0090	lmo0913		R	General prediction only	Siderophore/surfactin synthetase related protein	1.81	0.0007	1.81	0.0000
LO28_2084	lmo0524		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Sulfate-sensitizable dehydrogenase (NADP+)	2.02	0.0242	1.86	0.0092
					Sulfate permease	1.84	0.0000	1.95	0.0000

Table S3.1 continued (3 of 3): Expression of genes upregulated in both *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	COG class	COG description	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
						log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_2069	lmo0539	G	No COG	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism		4.07	0.0000	3.75	0.0000
LO28_0993	lmo0672	K	No COG	Transcription	Tartrate 1,6-diphosphate aldolase	2.74	0.0000	2.48	0.0000
LO28_1957	lmo0649	K	No COG	Transcription	Transcriptional regulator, ArcA family	2.29	0.0000	2.38	0.0000
LO28_1360	lmo1788	K	No COG	Transcription	Transcriptional regulator, GntR family	1.83	0.0001	1.77	0.0001
LO28_2900	lmo2213		No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Uncharacterized protein, MerR family	4.92	0.0000	4.87	0.0000
LO28_0806	lmo1580	T	No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Uncharacterized protein, homolog of <i>B. subtilis</i> yngC	2.22	0.0000	2.33	0.0000
LO28_0994	lmo2673	T	No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Universal stress protein family	2.22	0.0000	2.33	0.0000
LO28_2093	lmo0515	T	No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Universal stress protein family	7.06	0.0002	7.11	0.0000
LO28_1748	lmo0200	T	No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Universal stress protein family	3.10	0.0040	3.05	0.0009
LO28_1806	lmo0796	S	No functional prediction	No functional prediction	Virulence regulatory factor PflA/Transcriptional regulator, Crp/Fnr family	2.30	0.0000	2.45	0.0000
					Yield like family Protein	3.22	0.0000	3.40	0.0000
LO28_2938	lmo2350	arpI	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Amino acid ABC transporter, amino acid binding/permease protein	4.01	0.0001	4.16	0.0000
LO28_2939	lmo2251	E	No COG	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	3.87	0.0001	3.60	0.0000
LO28_1446	lmo2469	E	No COG	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Amino acid permease family protein	1.68	0.0000	2.04	0.0000
LO28_0829	lmo1603	E	No COG	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Aminopyridase	1.75	0.0000	1.89	0.0000
LO28_2776	lmo2091	argH	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Argininosuccinate lyase	5.88	0.0047	6.57	0.0007
LO28_2775	lmo2090	argG	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Argininosuccinate synthase	4.83	0.0012	5.29	0.0001
LO28_2940	lmo2352	E	No COG	Amino acid transport and metabolism	Aspartate aminotransferase	2.83	0.0003	2.69	0.0001
LO28_0446	lmo0689	N	No COG	Cell motility	Bacteriophage	3.58	0.0000	3.65	0.0000
LO28_1914	lmo0693	N	No COG	Cell motility	Chemotaxis protein CheV	5.55	0.0000	5.26	0.0000
LO28_1912	lmo0691	T	No COG	Signal transduction mechanisms	Chemotaxis regulator, transmits chemoreceptor signals to flagellar motor components CheY	5.16	0.0000	4.97	0.0000
LO28_1915	lmo0688	M	No COG	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	Dolichol-phosphate mannose transferase in lipid-linked oligosaccharide synthesis cluster	6.12	0.0000	5.53	0.0000
LO28_2790	lmo2105	P	No COG	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Ferrous iron transport protein B	4.89	0.0000	4.24	0.0000
LO28_1885	lmo0718		No COG	No functional prediction		2.30	0.0000	3.09	0.0000
LO28_2791	lmo2567	S	No COG	No functional prediction		3.44	0.0000	3.20	0.0000
LO28_1548	lmo0724	S	No COG	No functional prediction		2.73	0.0000	2.67	0.0000
LO28_1879	lmo0724	S	No COG	No functional prediction		2.98	0.0064	2.53	0.0175
LO28_1916	lmo0687		No COG	No functional prediction		2.25	0.0000	2.51	0.0000
LO28_1901	lmo0702		No COG	Hypothetical protein		4.93	0.0000	4.75	0.0000
LO28_1919	lmo0684		No COG	Hypothetical protein		5.43	0.0000	5.02	0.0000
LO28_1902	lmo0701		No COG	Hypothetical protein		4.06	0.0000	3.84	0.0000
LO28_1902	lmo0701		No COG	Hypothetical protein		6.00	0.0000	5.64	0.0000
LO28_0452	lmo0704		No COG	Hypothetical protein		2.34	0.0004	2.08	0.0001
LO28_1899	lmo0694		No COG	Hypothetical protein		6.10	0.0000	5.37	0.0000
LO28_1909	lmo0694		No COG	Hypothetical protein		4.49	0.0000	4.04	0.0000
LO28_0008	lmo0834		No COG	Hypothetical protein		2.07	0.0001	1.60	0.0003
LO28_1894	lmo0708		No COG	Hypothetical protein		5.79	0.0000	5.03	0.0000
LO28_2462	lmo1700		No COG	Hypothetical protein		7.00	0.0000	6.12	0.0000
LO28_0414	lmo1700		No COG	Hypothetical protein		1.90	0.0005	1.58	0.0003
LO28_0449			No COG	Hypothetical protein		3.66	0.0000	3.23	0.0000
LO28_0448			No COG	Hypothetical protein		3.06	0.0000	2.82	0.0000
LO28_0421	lmo0309		No COG	Hypothetical protein		2.40	0.0024	2.22	0.0028
LO28_0445			No COG	Hypothetical protein		3.80	0.0000	3.47	0.0000
LO28_0445			No COG	Hypothetical protein		2.91	0.0000	2.76	0.0000
LO28_2289	lmo0326	K	No COG	Transcription	Hypothetical protein	2.80	0.0000	2.59	0.0000
LO28_1888	lmo0715	flhH	No COG	Transcription	Transcriptional activator of lmo0327 homolog	1.81	0.0000	1.75	0.0000
LO28_1907	lmo0696	flgP	N	Cell motility	Flagellar assembly protein FlhH	4.66	0.0000	4.46	0.0000
LO28_1893	lmo0710	flgB	N	Cell motility	Flagellar basal-body rod modification protein FlgB	4.70	0.0000	4.52	0.0000
LO28_1892	lmo0711	flgC	N	Cell motility	Flagellar basal-body rod protein FlgC	4.96	0.0000	4.78	0.0000
						4.43	0.0000	4.06	0.0000

Table S3.2 continued (2 of 3). Expression of downregulated genes in both *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and variant 15, compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant.

LO28	Inno	Gene	COG class	COG description	Product	Variant 14		Variant 15	
						log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1921	Inno0682	<i>flgG</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar basal-body rod protein FlgG	-6.03	0.0000	-6.37	0.0000
LO28_1923	Inno0680	<i>fljA</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljA	-5.31	0.0000	-4.83	0.0000
LO28_1924	Inno0579	<i>fljB</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljB	-4.49	0.0000	-4.65	0.0000
LO28_1927	Inno0681		N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljF	-5.57	0.0000	-4.91	0.0000
LO28_1927	Inno0576	<i>fljP</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljP	-2.91	0.0000	-2.93	0.0000
LO28_1926	Inno0577	<i>fljQ</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljQ	-2.99	0.0000	-3.04	0.0000
LO28_1925	Inno0578	<i>fljR</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljR	-3.12	0.0000	-2.85	0.0000
LO28_1895	Inno0708		No COG	Cell motility	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljS	-5.38	0.0000	-4.86	0.0000
LO28_1906	Inno0567	<i>fljE</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar hook protein FljE	-5.59	0.0000	-5.20	0.0000
LO28_1898	Inno0705	<i>fljK</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar hook-associated protein FljK	-5.33	0.0000	-5.16	0.0000
LO28_1897	Inno0706	<i>fljL</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar hook-associated protein FljL	-5.33	0.0000	-4.57	0.0000
LO28_1896	Inno0707	<i>fljD</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar hook-associated protein FljD	-5.37	0.0000	-4.59	0.0000
LO28_1891	Inno0712	<i>fljE</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar hook-associated body complex protein FljE	-5.92	0.0000	-5.71	0.0000
LO28_1918	Inno0685	<i>motA</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor rotation protein MotA	-5.33	0.0000	-5.06	0.0000
LO28_1917	Inno0714	<i>fljG</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor switch protein FljG	-4.69	0.0000	-4.45	0.0000
LO28_1889	Inno0699	<i>fljM</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor switch protein FljM	-5.93	0.0000	-5.29	0.0000
LO28_1904	Inno0700		N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor switch protein FljN	-5.64	0.0000	-5.35	0.0000
LO28_1910	Inno0698		N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor switch protein FljN	-5.64	0.0000	-5.35	0.0000
LO28_1905	Inno0693		N	Cell motility	Flagellar motor switch protein FljN	-5.91	0.0000	-5.40	0.0000
LO28_1928	Inno0675		N	Cell motility	Flagellar M-ring protein FljF	-2.53	0.0000	-2.29	0.0000
LO28_1890	Inno0713	<i>fljF</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellin protein FljA	-4.98	0.0000	-4.67	0.0000
LO28_1913	Inno0690	<i>fljO4</i>	N	Cell motility	Flagellin protein FljA	-6.70	0.0000	-6.27	0.0000
LO28_1887	Inno0716	<i>fljI</i>	N	Cell motility	Fumarate reductase flavoprotein subunit	-4.44	0.0000	-3.99	0.0000
LO28_2260	Inno0355		C	Energy production and conversion		-2.02	0.0005	-2.23	0.0000
LO28_0410			No COG		G331 protein	-5.80	0.0000	-2.93	0.0000
LO28_0412			No COG		Hypothetical protein	-3.04	0.0001	-2.97	0.0000
LO28_0413			No COG		Hypothetical protein	-2.29	0.0000	-2.41	0.0028
LO28_0418	Inno2312		S	No functional prediction	Hypothetical protein	-2.31	0.0006	-2.34	0.0001
LO28_0419			No COG		Hypothetical protein	-2.29	0.0001	-2.13	0.0001
LO28_0451			No COG		Hypothetical protein	-1.76	0.0012	-1.94	0.0002
LO28_1908	Inno0695		No COG		Hypothetical protein	-2.41	0.0000	-2.24	0.0080
LO28_1908			No COG		Hypothetical protein	-5.96	0.0000	-4.10	0.0000
LO28_0438	Inno0573		R	General prediction only	Hypoxanthine/guanine permease PbgG	-4.08	0.0000	-3.98	0.0000
LO28_0438			No COG		Lin2582 protein	-2.39	0.0070	-2.98	0.0004
LO28_0426			No COG		Lin2592 protein	-3.46	0.0000	-3.11	0.0000
LO28_2810	Inno2124		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Maltose/maltotriose ABC transporter, permease protein MalF	-2.44	0.0001	-1.88	0.0003
LO28_2809	Inno2125		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Maltose/maltotriose ABC transporter, permease protein MalG	-2.74	0.0008	-3.35	0.0000
LO28_2811	Inno2125		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	Maltose/maltotriose ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein MalK	-2.66	0.0007	-2.78	0.0001
LO28_2510	Inno1847		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Manganese ABC transporter, inner membrane permease protein S1D	-2.73	0.0006	-2.75	0.0011
LO28_2519	Inno1848		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Manganese ABC transporter, periplasmic binding protein S1A	-1.59	0.0000	-2.34	0.0000
LO28_1880	Inno0713		N	Cell motility	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	-2.21	0.0000	-2.32	0.0000
LO28_2463	Inno1699		N	Cell motility	Methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	-1.56	0.0000	-2.07	0.0000
LO28_2528	Inno1846		V	Defense mechanisms	Multiantennal oral exoskeleton protein	-6.15	0.0000	-6.80	0.0000
LO28_0817	Inno1591	<i>argC</i>	E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	N-acetyl-glycine N-acetyltransferase	-1.70	0.0008	-2.48	0.0000
LO28_0959	Inno2638		E	Amino acid transport and metabolism	NAD ⁺ dehydrogenase in <i>Enterobacter</i> periplasmic precursor	-3.63	0.0001	-4.57	0.0000
LO28_0138	Inno0961		O	Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones	Peptidase, U3.2 family large subunit [C1]	-1.52	0.0000	-1.92	0.0000
LO28_0450	Inno0960		O	Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones	Peptidase, U3.2 family small subunit [C1]	-2.08	0.0000	-2.41	0.0000
LO28_0444			No COG		Phage major capsid protein	-1.80	0.0000	-1.88	0.0000
LO28_0450			No COG		Phage major tail protein	-3.46	0.0000	-3.33	0.0000
LO28_0455			No COG		Phage minor structural protein, N-terminal region domain protein	-4.41	0.0000	-3.19	0.0000
LO28_0442			No COG		Phage portal (connector) protein	-3.83	0.0000	-3.66	0.0000
LO28_0442			No COG		Phage portal (connector) protein	-3.04	0.0000	-2.23	0.0000

Table S3.2 continued (3 of 3): Expression of downregulated genes in both *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant.

LO28	lmo	Gene	COG class	COG description	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
						log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_0435			No COG		Phage protein	-1.71	0.0030	-1.82	0.0006
LO28_0447			No COG		Phage protein	-3.59	0.0000	-3.59	0.0000
LO28_0437			No COG		Phage regulator protein	-1.65	0.0159	-1.70	0.0067
LO28_0453			R	General prediction only	Phage tail length tapemeasure protein	-2.86	0.0000	-2.59	0.0000
LO28_0443			O	Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones	Prophage CIP protease-like protein	-3.40	0.0000	-3.14	0.0000
LO28_0456			No COG		Protein gp23 [Bacteriophage A118]	-4.07	0.0000	-3.13	0.0000
LO28_1015	Imo2883		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIB component	-1.91	0.0004	-2.02	0.0000
LO28_1016	Imo2884		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIC component	-1.78	0.0001	-1.84	0.0000
LO28_2684	Imo2001		G	Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	PTS system, rhamnose-specific IIC component	-3.28	0.0000	-2.98	0.0000
LO28_0480	Imo1255		H	Coenzyme transport and metabolism	Pyridoxine biosynthesis IIB component/PTS system, tetrahalo-specific IIC component	-1.71	0.0000	-1.99	0.0000
LO28_2787	Imo2102		C	Energy production and conversion	Pyruvate formate-lyase	-1.95	0.0000	-2.13	0.0000
LO28_0629	Imo1406		C	Energy production and conversion	Pyruvate formate-lyase	-1.64	0.0000	-1.92	0.0000
LO28_2598	Imo1917		C	Energy production and conversion	Pyruvate formate-lyase	-1.92	0.0064	-1.80	0.0026
LO28_0630	Imo1407		O	Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones	Serine/threonine protein phosphatase family protein	-2.44	0.0000	-3.04	0.0000
LO28_0963	Imo2642		R	General prediction only	Signal transduction histidine kinase CheA	-1.61	0.0000	-1.75	0.0000
LO28_1911	Imo0692		N	Cell motility	Soluble lysin murein transglycosylase CheA	-5.79	0.0000	-5.23	0.0000
LO28_1886	Imo0717		M	Cell wall/membrane/envelope biogenesis	SSU ribosomal protein S21p	-3.99	0.0000	-3.78	0.0000
LO28_0693			M	Translational, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	SSU ribosomal protein S21p	-7.37	0.0000	-7.15	0.0000
LO28_0073	Imo0897	<i>rpsU</i>	J	Translational, ribosomal structure and biogenesis	Sulfate permease	-1.79	0.0000	-1.94	0.0000
LO28_0692	Imo1468		P	Inorganic ion transport and metabolism	Transamidase GalB domain protein	-5.65	0.0000	-2.53	0.0000
LO28_2318	Imo0297		K	No functional prediction	Transcriptional antiterminator of lichenan operon, BglG family	-2.01	0.0037	-2.10	0.0000
LO28_1900	Imo0703		K	No functional prediction	UDP-N-acetylglucosamine 6-epimerase	-5.66	0.0000	-5.23	0.0000

Table S3.3: Expression of genes that were only upregulated in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_0088	Imo0911		Hypothetical protein	1.62	0.0000
LO28_0338	Imo1177		Ethanolamine utilization polyhedral-body-like protein EutL	2.09	0.0219
LO28_0764	Imo1538	glpK	Glycerol kinase	2.06	0.0003
LO28_0877	Imo1650		CcdC protein	1.68	0.0001
LO28_1225	Imo0036		Putrescine carbamoyltransferase	1.75	0.0037
LO28_1226	Imo0037		Agmatine/putrescine antiporter, associated with agmatine catabolism	1.59	0.0060
LO28_1228	Imo0039		Carbamate Kinase	1.92	0.0022
LO28_1335	Imo0146		Hypothetical protein	1.69	0.0253
LO28_1361	Imo1789		Flavodoxin-like fold domain protein	1.64	0.0000
LO28_1362	Imo1790		Metallo-beta-lactamase family protein	1.65	0.0003
LO28_1463	Imo2485		Psyc domain protein, truncated	1.82	0.0015
LO28_1569	Imo2587		Hypothetical protein	1.73	0.0001
LO28_1783	Imo0819		Hypothetical protein	1.85	0.0001
LO28_1841	Imo0761		Nitrotriacetate monooxygenase component B	2.14	0.0052
LO28_1842	Imo0760		Carboxylesterase	1.68	0.0000
LO28_1870	Imo0732		Internalin-like protein (LPXTG motif) Lmo0732 homolog	2.07	0.0072
LO28_1946	Imo0660		Mobile element protein	2.27	0.0001
LO28_2015	Imo0592		Hypothetical protein	1.81	0.0000
LO28_2041	Imo0566	hlsB	Imidazoleglycerol-phosphate dehydratase	1.69	0.0048
LO28_2044	Imo0563	hlsF	Imidazole glycerol phosphate synthase cyclasesubunit	1.63	0.0007
LO28_2045	Imo0562	hlsI	Phosphoribosyl-AMR cyclohydrolase	1.81	0.0057
LO28_2053	Imo0555		Di/tripeptide peptidase DtpT	2.03	0.0000
LO28_2390	Imo1772	purC	Phosphoribosylaminoimidazole-succinocarboxamide synthase	1.68	0.0002
LO28_2395	Imo1767	purM	Phosphoribosylformylglycinamide cyclo-ligase	1.58	0.0001
LO28_2396	Imo1766	purN	Phosphoribosylglycinamide formyltransferase	1.69	0.0003
LO28_2397	Imo1765	purH	IMP cyclohydrolase /Phosphoribosylaminoimidazolecarboxamide formyltransferase	1.64	0.0000
LO28_2564	Imo1883		Chitinase	2.40	0.0405
LO28_2667	Imo1984	ilvB	Acetolactate synthase large subunit	1.66	0.0089
LO28_2669	Imo1986	ilvC	Ketol-acid reductoisomerase	1.63	0.0405
LO28_2670	Imo1987	leuA	2-isopropylmalate synthase	1.87	0.0212
LO28_2672	Imo1989	leuC	3-isopropylmalate dehydratase large subunit	1.74	0.0152
LO28_2844	Imo2158		Hypothetical protein	1.64	0.0041
LO28_2878	Imo2191	spxA	Arsenate reductase family protein	1.66	0.0000

Table S3.4: Expression of genes that were only upregulated in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_0309	Imo1148		Cobalamin synthase	4.03	0.0140
LO28_1592	Imo2369		General stress protein 13	1.83	0.0000
LO28_0516	Imo1292		Glycerophosphoryl diester phosphodiesterase	1.68	0.0002
LO28_1811	Imo0791		Hypothetical protein	2.19	0.0000
LO28_0081	Imo0904		Hypothetical protein	1.66	0.0001
LO28_0441	Imo0900		Hypothetical protein	1.66	0.0000
LO28_0077	Imo0839		Multidrug-efflux transporter, major facilitator superfamily (MFS)	1.63	0.0007
LO28_0013	Imo2368		MutT/nudix family protein	1.69	0.0152
LO28_1591	Imo1622		NAD(P)HX dehydratase	1.83	0.0000
LO28_0848	Imo0903		OsmC/Ohr family protein	1.63	0.0000
LO28_0080	Imo2772		PTS system, beta-glucoside-specific component	1.75	0.0011
LO28_1105	Imo2178		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTGmotif) Lmo2178 homolog	1.61	0.0486
LO28_2684	Imo0292		Serine protease, DegP/HtrA, do-like	1.64	0.0386
LO28_2323	Imo0606		Transcriptional regulator, Marr family	1.80	0.0000
LO28_2082	Imo0526		Transcriptional regulator, Marr family	1.64	0.0000
LO28_2290	Imo0325		Transcriptional regulator, MutR family	1.66	0.0155
LO28_0631	Imo1408		Transcriptional regulator, PadR family	1.70	0.0000
LO28_0211	Imo1032		Transketolase, N-terminal section	1.72	0.0035
LO28_1168	Imo2836		Zinc-type alcohol dehydrogenase YgQ	1.99	0.0044
				1.80	0.0386

Table S3.5: Expression of genes that were only downregulated in variant 14 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_0432			DNA polymerase B region	-2.06	0.0003
LO28_0459		<i>lysA</i>	Endolysin, L-alanyl-D-glutamate peptidase [Bacteriophage A118]	-1.73	0.0045
LO28_1871			Hypothetical protein	-8.69	0.0000
LO28_0351			Hypothetical protein	-4.27	0.0055
LO28_1549	Imo2568		Hypothetical protein	-2.74	0.0085
LO28_0462			Hypothetical protein	-2.12	0.0026
LO28_0436			Hypothetical protein	-1.76	0.0048
LO28_0409			Hypothetical protein	-1.68	0.0006
LO28_0564	Imo1341		Late competence protein ComGG, FIG07920	-3.71	0.0043
LO28_0428			Phage protein	-1.65	0.0001
LO28_1098	Imo2765		PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIA component	-2.10	0.0172
LO28_1116	Imo2783		PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIC component	-1.87	0.0003
LO28_0986	Imo2665		PTS system, galactitol-specific IIC component	-1.60	0.0007
LO28_0009	Imo0835		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTGmotif) Lmo0835 homolog	-1.96	0.0018
LO28_2686	Imo2003		Transcriptional regulator, GntR family	-1.88	0.0353
LO28_1787	Imo0815		Transcriptional regulator, MarR family	-1.96	0.0000

Table S3.6: Expression of genes that were only downregulated in variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	Product	variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1048	lmo2717	<i>cvdB</i>	Cytochrome d ubiquinol oxidase subunit II	-1.65	0.0002
LO28_1231	lmo0042	<i>dedA</i>	Deda protein	-1.64	0.0000
LO28_2089	lmo0519		Drug resistance transporter, EmrB/OacA family	-1.60	0.0004
LO28_0434			Hypothetical protein	-1.63	0.0008
LO28_0420	lmo2310		Hypothetical protein	-1.88	0.0000
LO28_0423			Hypothetical protein	-2.15	0.0000
LO28_0954			Hypothetical protein	-2.25	0.0002
LO28_2161	lmo0450		Hypothetical protein	-2.27	0.0000
LO28_0653	lmo1430		Hypothetical protein	-2.59	0.0005
LO28_2236			Hypothetical protein	-3.70	0.0222
LO28_2332	lmo0283		Methionine ABC transporter permease protein	-1.61	0.0000
LO28_1623	lmo2362		Probabliglutamate/gamma-aminobutyrateantiporter	-2.09	0.0318
LO28_1017	lmo2685		PTS system, beta-glucoside-specific II A component	-1.92	0.0005
LO28_2186	lmo0427		PTS system, fructose-specific IIB component	-2.45	0.0012
LO28_0971	lmo2650		PTS system, lactose/cellobiose specific IIBsubunit	-1.75	0.0156
LO28_1286	lmo0097		PTS system, mannose-specific IIC component	-1.96	0.0000
LO28_1287	lmo0098		PTS system, mannose-specific IID component	-1.89	0.0000
LO28_1288	lmo0099		Putative regulator of the mannose operon, ManO	-2.12	0.0000
LO28_0479	lmo1254		Trehalose-6-phosphate hydrolase	-1.92	0.0000
LO28_2565	lmo1884		Xanthine permease	-1.64	0.0027

Table S3.7 (1 of 4): expression of genes that are part of the *sigB* operon as described by Mujahid et al., 2013. In both variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1323	lmo0134		Acetyltransferase, GNAT family	4.10	0.0000	3.84	0.0000
LO28_2069	lmo0539		Tagatose 1,6-di-phosphate aldolase	4.07	0.0000	3.75	0.0000
LO28_2054	lmo0554		NADH-dependent butanol dehydrogenase A	3.56	0.0000	3.10	0.0000
LO28_1952	lmo0654		Hypothetical protein	2.76	0.0001	2.50	0.0000
LO28_1881	lmo0722		Pyruvate oxidase [ubiquinone, cytochrome]	6.32	0.0000	6.31	0.0000
LO28_1819	lmo0783		PTS system, mannose-specific IIB component	5.01	0.0000	4.37	0.0000
LO28_1808	lmo0794		Rf2-linked NADH-flavin reductase	3.58	0.0000	3.76	0.0000
LO28_1806	lmo0796		YccI like family protein	3.22	0.0000	3.40	0.0000
LO28_0090	lmo0913		Succinate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase [NAD(P)H]	2.02	0.0242	1.86	0.0092
LO28_0828	lmo1602		General stress protein	2.53	0.0000	3.02	0.0000
LO28_2512	lmo1830		Short chain dehydrogenase	1.76	0.0033	1.81	0.0007
LO28_2844	lmo2158		Hypothetical protein	1.64	0.0041	1.58	0.0012
LO28_2900	lmo2213		Uncharacterized protein, homolog of <i>B. subtilis</i> yhgC	4.92	0.0000	4.87	0.0000
LO28_1374	lmo2398	<i>hrc</i>	Low temperature requirement C protein	3.17	0.0000	2.93	0.0000
LO28_1079	lmo2748		General stress protein 26	5.39	0.0000	5.58	0.0000
LO28_1738	lmo0210	<i>ldh</i>	L-lactate dehydrogenase	-0.44	0.1942	-0.34	0.2324
LO28_2273	lmo0342		Transketolase	0.84	0.1637	-0.06	0.9711
LO28_2272	lmo0343		Transaldolase	0.37	0.5284	0.66	0.1499
LO28_2270	lmo0345		Ribose-5-phosphate isomerase B	0.15	1.0483	0.09	1.0372
LO28_2269	lmo0346		Triosephosphate isomerase	0.03	0.8776	-0.68	0.6495

Table S3.7 continued (2 of 4). expression of genes that are part of the *SigB* operon as described by Mulhild et al., 2013. In both variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

L028	Imo	Gene	Product	Variant 14		Variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
L028_2268	Imo347		Phosphoenolpyruvate:ethylhydroxycinnophosphate transferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	1.10	0.0959	0.29	0.2029
L028_2267	Imo348		Phosphoenolpyruvate:ethylhydroxycinnophosphate transferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	0.21	0.7673	0.20	0.2838
L028_2206	Imo0406		Possible glyoxylase family protein (lactoyglutathione lyase)	1.07	0.0054	1.24	0.0002
L028_2204	Imo0408		Hypothetical protein	1.07	0.0006	1.31	0.0000
L028_2084	Imo0524		Sulfate permease	1.84	0.0000	1.95	0.0000
L028_2078	Imo0579		Bacterial aryl-tRNA synthetase related	2.24	0.0000	2.31	0.0000
L028_2027	Imo0580		Phospholipase/carboxylesterase family protein	1.94	0.0000	2.02	0.0000
L028_2017	Imo0590		DAZ2 domain protein	3.38	0.0000	2.89	0.0000
L028_1958	Imo0648		Magnesium and cobalt transport protein CorA	2.82	0.0000	2.60	0.0000
L028_0072	Imo0896	<i>rsdX</i>	Phosphoserine phosphatase RsdX	1.54	0.0025	0.85	0.0206
L028_0133	Imo0957		N-acetylglucosamine-6-phosphate deacetylase	1.78	0.0000	1.89	0.0000
L028_0174	Imo0995		Glucosamine-6-phosphate deaminase	1.25	0.0000	1.19	0.0000
L028_0174	Imo0995		Membrane protein	2.80	0.0005	2.21	0.0004
L028_0466	Imo1261		Membrane protein	2.88	0.0000	2.31	0.0000
L028_0599	Imo1376		6-phosphonucleotidyltransferase, decarboxylating	0.10	0.7951	0.13	0.5666
L028_0610	Imo1388	<i>tc54</i>	Unspecific monooxygenase:ABC transport system, substrate binding component /GDA+Tcell-stimulating antigen/ lipoprotein	-0.05	0.8039	-0.20	0.3716
L028_0655	Imo1432		Hypothetical protein	2.60	0.0000	2.43	0.0000
L028_0806	Imo1380		Universal stress protein family	2.22	0.0000	2.33	0.0000
L028_0831	Imo1805	<i>murC</i>	UDP-N-acetylmuramate-3-amine ligase	0.88	0.0034	0.72	0.0023
L028_0831	Imo1805		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	0.46	0.1937	0.29	0.3033
L028_0899	Imo1866		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif) Imo1666 homolog	2.49	0.0000	2.64	0.0000
L028_2610	Imo1929	<i>ndk</i>	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase	0.25	0.5871	0.25	0.4768
L028_2611	Imo1930		Heptrapeptidyl diphosphate synthase component II	0.22	0.5759	0.10	0.6885
L028_2614	Imo1933	<i>fojE</i>	GTP cyclohydrolase I	0.00	1.0566	-0.04	1.0323
L028_2725	Imo2041	<i>mrwW</i>	rRNA small subunit methyltransferase H	0.38	0.1735	0.44	0.0602
L028_2855	Imo2169		Hypothetical protein	1.03	0.0002	1.08	0.0000
L028_2878	Imo2191	<i>spaA</i>	Aspartate reductase family protein	1.66	0.0000	1.32	0.0000
L028_1609	Imo2386		Membrane protein	1.43	0.0037	1.13	0.0003
L028_1612	Imo2389		MADH dehydrogenase	0.97	0.0005	0.96	0.0002
L028_1519	Imo2539		Serine hydroxymethyltransferase	0.87	0.1518	0.79	0.0224
L028_1311	Imo0122	<i>gljA</i>	Phage tail fiber	0.49	0.3229	0.36	0.3000
L028_1322	Imo0133		Hypothetical protein	2.41	0.0003	2.25	0.0001
L028_2341	Imo0274		Hypothetical protein	2.07	0.0000	2.36	0.0000
L028_2242	Imo0372		Beta-glucosidase	0.22	0.8304	-0.81	0.0793
L028_2207	Imo0405		Probable low-affinity/inorganic phosphate transporter	2.38	0.0000	2.01	0.0000
L028_0644	Imo1421	<i>inA4</i>	Internalin A (LPXTG motif)	1.85	0.0029	2.15	0.0001
L028_2179	Imo0433	<i>inB</i>	Internalin B (IGW module)	3.64	0.0000	3.70	0.0000
L028_0644	Imo1421		Siderophore/Sideritin synthetase related protein	5.71	0.0000	5.41	0.0000
L028_2648	Imo1866		Glycine betaine ABC transport system, OpuAA	3.68	0.0000	3.96	0.0000
L028_2686	Imo2003		ATP/GTP-binding protein, SA1392 homolog	-0.07	0.8389	-0.19	0.4394
L028_1553	Imo2522		Transcriptional regulator, GntR family	-1.88	0.0353	-1.43	0.0667
L028_1064	Imo2723		Dihydrodolate reductase	4.52	0.0000	4.15	0.0000
L028_1064	Imo2723		PTS system, fructose-specific IIB component	1.39	0.1789	0.56	0.3242
L028_2213	Imo0398		PTS system, fructose-specific IIC component	-1.17	0.0779	-1.00	0.0916
L028_2213	Imo0399		PTS system, fructose-specific IIC component	-0.71	0.3898	-0.81	0.1374
L028_0229	Imo1046	<i>mooc</i>	Mblydenin cofactor biosynthesis protein Moac	0.24	0.5287	-0.04	0.8853
L028_0229	Imo1046		Mblydenin cofactor biosynthesis protein Moac	0.24	0.5287	-0.04	0.8853
L028_0972	Imo1349		Glycine dehydrogenase (beta-carboxylating) (glycine cleavage system P1 protein)	3.60	0.0000	3.64	0.0000
L028_0945	Imo1422		Glycine betaine ABC transport system, permeseprotein OpuAB/ Glycine betaine ABC transport system	-0.61	0.6951	-0.52	0.0945
L028_2730	Imo2047	<i>rpmF</i>	LSU ribosomal protein L32p	2.57	0.0001	1.95	0.0012
L028_0765	Imo1539		Glycerol uptake facilitator protein	0.23	0.5634	-0.16	0.5461
L028_1074	Imo2714		Transaldolase	3.52	0.0001	3.21	0.0000
L028_1029	Imo2697		Phosphoenolpyruvate:ethylhydroxycinnophosphate transferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.81	0.0000
L028_1028	Imo2696		Phosphoenolpyruvate:ethylhydroxycinnophosphate transferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.81	0.0000

Table S3. 7 continued (3 of 4). Expression of genes that are part of the *588* operon as described by Mughaid et al., 2013, in both variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

L028	Ino	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
L028_1087	Imo2695		Phosphoenolpyruvate-4-hydroxyacetonephosphotransferase, dHv/dxv/aet/onehndring subunit DhaK	4.80	0.0000	4.58	0.0000
L028_1097	Imo2666		PTS system, galactitol-specific IIB component (EC 2.7.1.89)	-0.80	0.0593	-0.66	0.0774
L028_1299	Imo1110		Esterase/lipase	-0.52	0.3411	-0.39	0.4548
L028_2432	Imo1730		N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine ABC transport system, sugar-binding protein	0.55	0.5150	0.68	0.2635
L028_0827	Imo1601		General stress protein	2.48	0.0000	2.79	0.0000
L028_2892	Imo2205		Phosphoglycerate mutase	2.12	0.0000	2.34	0.0000
L028_0651	Imo1428	opvC4	Osmotically activated L-carnine/choline ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein OpvC4	6.31	0.0000	6.04	0.0000
L028_0649	Imo1426	opvCC	Osmotically activated L-carnine/choline ABC transporter, substrate-binding protein OpvCC	6.31	0.0000	6.28	0.0000
L028_1783	Imo8189		Hypothetical protein	1.85	0.0001	1.47	0.0001
L028_2350	Imo8129		Acetylornithine decarboxylase	3.17	0.0000	3.03	0.0009
L028_1584	Imo0169		Glucose uptake protein	4.63	0.0000	4.32	0.0000
L028_1585	Imo0170		Putative exported protein	3.94	0.0000	3.71	0.0000
L028_2352	Imo2653	inH	Internalin H (LXTG motif)	4.07	0.0000	6.18	0.0000
L028_2167	Imo0445		Membrane protein	4.27	0.0000	3.39	0.0000
L028_2094	Imo0321		Hypothetical protein	3.84	0.0000	3.01	0.0000
L028_2093	Imo0555		Universal stress protein family	3.10	0.0000	3.10	0.0000
L028_2093	Imo0555		D1/riptide/permease Dpt1	2.03	0.0000	1.35	0.0004
L028_2014	Imo0593		Formate/trimethylamine family protein	-0.75	0.1123	-1.28	0.0034
L028_2011	Imo0596		Formate/trimethylamine family protein	6.31	0.0000	5.86	0.0000
L028_2005	Imo0602		Acetyltransferase, GNAT family	5.58	0.0000	5.45	0.0000
L028_1997	Imo0610		Internalin-like protein (LXTG motif) Imo0610 homolog	4.16	0.0001	3.93	0.0000
L028_1978	Imo0628		Ischorismatase (EC 3.3.2.1)	4.73	0.0001	4.65	0.0000
L028_1978	Imo0629		Serine/threonine protein phosphatase	2.84	0.0001	2.77	0.0000
L028_1951	Imo0655		Oxidoreductase, short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase family	5.74	0.0000	5.78	0.0000
L028_1934	Imo0670		Hypothetical protein	4.96	0.0000	4.95	0.0000
L028_1821	Imo0781		PTS system, mannose-specific IID component	4.55	0.0000	3.97	0.0000
L028_1820	Imo0782		PTS system, mannose-specific IIC component	4.85	0.0000	3.94	0.0000
L028_1818	Imo0784		PTS system, mannose-specific IIA component / PTS system, mannose-specific IIB component	4.94	0.0000	4.43	0.0000
L028_0088	Imo0880		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPTX motif) Imo0880 homolog	3.17	0.0024	3.40	0.0002
L028_0088	Imo0911		Hypothetical protein	1.62	0.0000	1.36	0.0000
L028_0114	Imo0937		Hypothetical protein	2.56	0.0001	2.75	0.0000
L028_0130	Imo0953		Hypothetical protein	0.46	0.3404	0.72	0.0516
L028_0173	Imo0994		Hypothetical protein	6.88	0.0000	6.11	0.0000
L028_0301	Imo1140		Hypothetical protein	3.68	0.0012	3.23	0.0004
L028_0464	Imo1241		Putative exported protein	2.63	0.0049	2.25	0.0029
L028_0519	Imo1295		RNA-binding protein Hfq	1.47	0.0000	1.34	0.0000
L028_0598	Imo1375		Peptidase 1	2.08	0.0000	2.14	0.0000
L028_0648	Imo1425	opvCD	Osmotically activated L-carnine/choline ABC transporter, permease protein OpvCD	6.49	0.0000	6.22	0.0000
L028_0656	Imo1433		Glutathione reductase	4.68	0.0000	4.67	0.0000
L028_0752	Imo1526		Hypothetical protein	2.97	0.0000	3.12	0.0000
L028_0882	Imo1606		Cell division protein FtsK	0.93	0.0008	0.93	0.0002
L028_2468	Imo1694		Cell division inhibitor SII_223 (YKH in EC) contains epimerase/dehydratase	5.08	0.0000	4.90	0.0000
L028_2564	Imo1883		Ribosomal protein S5p-silencerethyltransferase	0.35	0.3974	0.56	0.0602
L028_2750	Imo2067		Chitinase	2.40	0.0405	1.44	0.0980
L028_2770	Imo2085		Choline/lysine hydrolase	4.47	0.0000	4.07	0.0000
L028_2816	Imo2130		Putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPTX motif) Imo2085 homolog	5.03	0.0000	4.48	0.0000
L028_2818	Imo2132		Amino acid permease	-0.87	0.2892	-1.45	0.0105
L028_2843	Imo2157	spvA	Hypothetical protein	3.34	0.0062	1.94	0.0020
L028_2917	Imo2230		Allyl sulfatase (EC 3.1.6.-)	3.52	0.0000	3.06	0.0000
L028_2918	Imo2331		Aspartate reductase	5.84	0.0000	6.04	0.0000
L028_2956	Imo2769		Cobalt-zinc-cadmium resistance protein	5.59	0.0000	5.31	0.0000
L028_2956	Imo2769		Hypothetical protein	4.76	0.0000	4.33	0.0000

Table S3.7 continued (4 of 4): expression of genes that are part of the *sigB* operon as described by Mujahid et al., 2013, in both variant 14 and variant 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Ino	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1610	Ino2387	Hypothetical protein		3.56	0.0000	3.39	0.0000
LO28_1614	Ino2391	Oxidoreductase yJbE		3.36	0.0000	3.36	0.0000
LO28_1622	Ino2434	Glutamate decarboxylase		-1.51	0.1807	-0.67	0.2576
LO28_1431	Ino2454	Lin2548 protein		0.66	0.1342	0.57	0.1378
LO28_1440	Ino2463	Hypothetical protein		3.96	0.0000	3.40	0.0000
LO28_1462	Ino2484	Membrane protein		2.12	0.0016	1.60	0.0009
LO28_1463	Ino2485	PapC domain protein, truncated		1.82	0.0015	1.50	0.0010
LO28_1472	Ino2494	Phosphate transport system regulatory protein Phou		3.89	0.0001	4.15	0.0000
LO28_1551	Ino2570	Hypothetical protein		4.41	0.0000	3.30	0.0000
LO28_1552	Ino2571	Nicotinamide		4.15	0.0000	3.92	0.0000
LO28_1554	Ino2573	Bifunctional protein: zinc-containing alcohol dehydrogenase, quinone oxidoreductase, similar to arginate lyase		3.99	0.0000	3.84	0.0000
LO28_0922	Ino2602	Mg(2+) transport ATPase protein C		3.39	0.0000	2.94	0.0000
LO28_0923	Ino2603	acetamidase/formamidase family protein		2.64	0.0015	2.55	0.0003
LO28_0991	Ino2670	Hypothetical protein		1.57	0.0088	1.26	0.0191
LO28_0992	Ino2671	Hypothetical protein		1.96	0.0000	1.67	0.0000
LO28_0993	Ino2672	Transcriptional regulator, ArcC family		2.74	0.0000	2.48	0.0000
LO28_0994	Ino2673	Universal stress protein family		7.06	0.0002	7.11	0.0000
LO28_0995	Ino2674	Ribose 5-phosphate isomerase B		2.79	0.0000	2.46	0.0000
LO28_1055	Ino2724	PhnB protein, putative DNA binding 3-demethylubiquinone-9-3-methyltransferase domain protein		0.91	0.0642	0.79	0.0553
LO28_1208	Ino0019	Hypothetical protein		5.29	0.0004	4.79	0.0001
LO28_1232	Ino0043	Arginine deiminase		4.15	0.0000	3.93	0.0000

Table S3.8: Expression of genes associated with the ADI system in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 over the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1226	Imo0037	<i>arcD</i>	Agmatine/putrescine antiporter, associated with agmatine catabolism	1.59	0.0060	0.84	0.1096
LO28_1232	Imo0043	<i>arcA</i>	Arginine deiminase	4.15	0.0000	3.93	0.0000
LO28_1228	Imo0039	<i>arcC</i>	Carbamate kinase	1.92	0.0022	1.57	0.0067
LO28_1225	Imo0036	<i>arcB</i>	Putrescine carbamoyltransferase	1.75	0.0037	0.89	0.1284

Table S3.9: Expression of genes associated with the GAD system in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 over the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1622	Imo2363	<i>gadD2</i>	Glutamate decarboxylase	-1.51	0.1807	-0.67	0.2576
LO28_1411	Imo2434	<i>gadD3</i>	Glutamate decarboxylase	2.85	0.0000	2.41	0.0000
LO28_2165	Imo0447	<i>gadD1</i>	Glutamate decarboxylase	-0.09	0.9550	0.58	0.2419
LO28_2164	Imo0448	<i>gadT1</i>	Probable glutamate/gamma-aminobutyrate antiporter	-1.71	0.5505	-1.16	0.8712
LO28_1623	Imo2362	<i>gadT2</i>	Probable glutamate/gamma-aminobutyrate antiporter	-0.91	0.8055	-2.09	0.0318

Table S3.10: Expression of genes associated with glycerol metabolism in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_0765	Imo1539	<i>gfpF1</i>	Glycerol uptake facilitator protein	2.57	0.0001	1.95	0.0012
LO28_0328	Imo1167	<i>gfpF2</i>	Glycerol uptake facilitator protein	0.72	0.3227	0.67	0.2381
LO28_0764	Imo1538	<i>gfpK1</i>	Glycerol kinase	2.06	0.0003	1.34	0.0049
LO28_0213	Imo1034	<i>gfpK2</i>	Unknown peritrose Kinase TM0952	-0.63	0.4643	0.62	0.9826
LO28_1027	Imo2695	<i>dhok</i>	Phosphoenolpyruvate-dihydroxyacetone phosphotransferase, dihydroxyacetone binding subunit Dhak	4.80	0.0000	4.58	0.0000
LO28_1028	Imo2696	<i>dhok</i>	Phosphoenolpyruvate-dihydroxyacetone phosphotransferase, ADP-binding subunit Dhak	4.86	0.0000	4.81	0.0000
LO28_0517	Imo1293	<i>gfpD</i>	Aerobic glycerol 3-phosphate dehydrogenase	2.38	0.0000	2.39	0.0000
LO28_2271	Imo0344	<i>gfpD</i>	3-oxoacyl:acyl-carrier protein reductase	0.06	0.9325	0.67	0.3981
LO28_1881	Imo0722		Pyruvate oxidase [ubiquinone cytochrome]	6.32	0.0000	6.31	0.0000
LO28_0609	Imo1381		Predicted nucleoside phosphate	1.11	0.0004	1.25	0.0000

Table S3.11: Expression of genes of predicted flagella operon 1 in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant.

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1928	Imo0675	<i>fljN</i>	Flagellar motor switch protein FljN	-2.53	0.0000	-2.29	0.0000
LO28_1927	Imo0676	<i>fljP</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljP	-2.91	0.0000	-2.93	0.0000
LO28_1926	Imo0677	<i>fljQ</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljQ	-2.99	0.0000	-3.04	0.0000
LO28_1925	Imo0678	<i>fljR</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljR	-3.12	0.0000	-2.85	0.0000
LO28_1924	Imo0679	<i>fljB</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljB	-4.49	0.0000	-4.65	0.0000
LO28_1923	Imo0680	<i>fljA</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljA	-5.31	0.0000	-4.83	0.0000
LO28_1922	Imo0681	<i>fljE</i>	Flagellar biosynthesis protein FljE	-5.57	0.0000	-4.91	0.0000
LO28_1921	Imo0682	<i>fljG</i>	Flagellar basal-body rod protein FljG	-6.03	0.0000	-6.37	0.0000
LO28_1920	Imo0683	<i>cher</i>	Chernotax's protein methyltransferase Cherk	-5.16	0.0000	-4.97	0.0000
LO28_1919	Imo0684	<i>cher</i>	Hypothetical protein	-6.06	0.0000	-5.84	0.0000
LO28_1918	Imo0685	<i>motA</i>	Flagellar motor rotation protein MotA	-5.92	0.0000	-5.71	0.0000
LO28_1917	Imo0686	<i>motB</i>	Flagellar motor rotation protein MotB	-5.33	0.0000	-5.06	0.0000
LO28_1916	Imo0687	<i>motB</i>	Hypothetical protein	-4.93	0.0000	-4.75	0.0000
LO28_1915	Imo0688	<i>gmoR</i>	Dolichol-phosphate mannosyltransferase in lipid-linked oligosaccharide synthesis of Lister	-4.89	0.0000	-4.24	0.0000
LO28_1914	Imo0689	<i>cheV</i>	Chernotax's protein CheV	-5.55	0.0000	-5.26	0.0000

Table S3.12: Expression of genes of predicted flagella operon 2 in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant.

LO28	Imo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1912	Imo0691	<i>cheY</i>	Chernotax's regulator - transmits chemoreceptor signals to flagellar motor components CheY	-6.12	0.0000	-5.53	0.0000
LO28_1911	Imo0692	<i>cheA</i>	Signal transduction histidine kinase CheA	-5.79	0.0000	-5.23	0.0000
LO28_1910	Imo0693	<i>fljY</i>	Flagellar motor switch protein FljY	-5.91	0.0000	-5.40	0.0000
LO28_1909	Imo0694	<i>fljY</i>	Hypothetical protein	-4.49	0.0000	-4.04	0.0000
LO28_1908	Imo0695	<i>fljK</i>	Hypothetical protein	-4.08	0.0000	-3.98	0.0000
LO28_1907	Imo0696	<i>fljD</i>	Flagellar basal-body rod modification protein FljD	-4.70	0.0000	-4.52	0.0000
LO28_1906	Imo0697	<i>fljE</i>	Flagellar hook protein FljE	-5.44	0.0000	-5.20	0.0000
LO28_1905	Imo0698	<i>fljV</i>	Flagellar motor switch protein FljV	-5.64	0.0000	-5.35	0.0000
LO28_1903	Imo0700	<i>cheC</i>	Flagellar motor switch protein FljV	-5.66	0.0000	-5.29	0.0000
LO28_1902	Imo0701	<i>cheC</i>	Flagellar motor switch protein FljV	-6.00	0.0000	-5.64	0.0000
LO28_1901	Imo0702	<i>cheC</i>	Hypothetical protein	-5.43	0.0000	-5.02	0.0000

Table S3.13: Expression of selected motility regulatory genes in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1929	lmo0674	<i>mogR</i>	Motility gene repressor MogR	0.93	0.0472	0.96	0.0184
LO28_1913	lmo0690	<i>flaA</i>	Flagellin protein FlaA	-6.70	0.0000	-6.27	0.0000
LO28_1920	lmo0683	<i>cheR</i>	Cherotaxis protein methyltransferase Cher	-5.16	0.0000	-4.97	0.0000
LO28_0677	lmo1454	<i>rpoD</i>	RNA polymerase sigma factor RpoD	0.35	0.2354	0.40	0.1392
LO28_1494	lmo2515	<i>degU</i>	Transcriptional regulator DegU, LuxR family	0.78	0.0012	0.92	0.0000

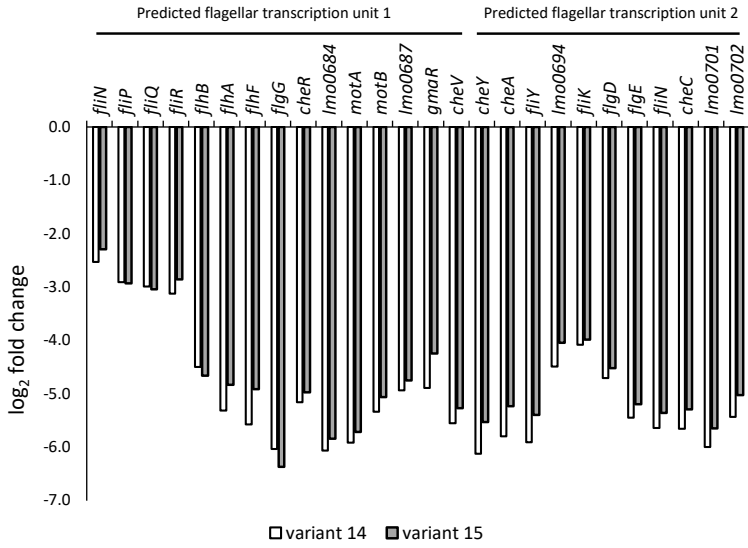
Table S3.14: Expression of genes regulated by PrfA in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	lmo	Gene	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_1744	lmo0204	<i>actA</i>	Actin-assembly inducing protein ActA precursor	0.05	0.9791	0.26	0.7970
LO28_1743	lmo0205	<i>picB</i>	Broad-substrate range phospholipase C (EC3.1.4.3)	-0.59	0.8742	-1.45	0.2211
LO28_2179	lmo0433	<i>lmlA</i>	Internalin A (LPXTG motif)	3.64	0.0000	3.70	0.0000
LO28_2178	lmo0434	<i>lmlB</i>	Internalin B (GW modules)	1.85	0.0029	2.15	0.0001
LO28_1358	lmo1786	<i>lmlC</i>	Internalin C	0.23	1.0391	-1.63	0.3974
LO28_1747	lmo0201	<i>picA</i>	phosphatidylinositol-specific phospholipase C (EC 4.6.1.13)	-0.39	0.9871	-0.22	0.7330
LO28_0012	lmo0837	<i>hpt</i>	Sugar phosphate transporter	-0.98	0.6702	0.88	0.2103
LO28_1746	lmo0202	<i>hly</i>	Thiol-activated cytolysin	-0.49	0.7944	0.12	0.6724
LO28_1748	lmo0200	<i>prfA</i>	Virulence regulatory factor PrfA/Transcriptional regulator, Crp/Fnr family	2.30	0.0000	2.45	0.0000
LO28_1745	lmo0203	<i>mpl</i>	Zinc metalloproteinase precursor (EC3.4.24.29)	-0.12	0.8774	0.43	0.4801

Table S3.15: Expression of ribosomal genes in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 and 15 compared to the wild type. Values in bold are considered significant

LO28	Gene	Protein	Product	variant 14		variant 15	
				log ₂ fold change	FDR	log ₂ fold change	FDR
LO28_2366	<i>rplA</i>	L1	LSU ribosomal protein L1p (L10Ae)	-0.31	0.5337	-0.70	0.0244
LO28_0949	<i>rplB</i>	L2	LSU ribosomal protein L2p (L8e)	0.46	0.4249	0.18	0.5679
LO28_0952	<i>rplC</i>	L3	LSU ribosomal protein L3p (L3e)	0.52	0.3427	0.33	0.2843
LO28_0951	<i>rplD</i>	L4	LSU ribosomal protein L4p (L1e)	0.49	0.5712	0.39	0.2376
LO28_0940	<i>rplE</i>	L5	LSU ribosomal protein L5p (L11e)	0.07	0.9497	-0.17	0.8789
LO28_0937	<i>rplF</i>	L6	LSU ribosomal protein L6p (L9e)	0.10	0.9386	-0.09	1.0152
LO28_1242	<i>rplI</i>	L9	LSU ribosomal protein L9p	0.27	0.3371	0.18	0.4800
LO28_2365	<i>rplJ</i>	L10	LSU ribosomal protein L10p (P0)	-0.37	0.7040	-0.40	0.5256
LO28_2367	<i>rplK</i>	L11	LSU ribosomal protein L11p (L12e)	-0.10	0.9071	-0.45	0.0767
LO28_2364	<i>rplL</i>	L7/L12	LSU ribosomal protein L7/L12 (P1/P2)	-0.66	0.1507	-0.77	0.0304
LO28_0917	<i>rplM</i>	L13	LSU ribosomal protein L13p (L13Ae)	-0.03	1.0214	0.14	0.5986
LO28_0942	<i>rplN</i>	L14	LSU ribosomal protein L14p (L23e)	0.09	1.0466	-0.03	1.0488
LO28_0933	<i>rplO</i>	L15	LSU ribosomal protein L15p (L27Ae)	0.11	0.8750	-0.13	0.8798
LO28_0945	<i>rplP</i>	L16	LSU ribosomal protein L16p (L10e)	0.36	0.4350	-0.03	1.0095
LO28_0925	<i>rplQ</i>	L17	LSU ribosomal protein L17p	-0.53	0.2495	-0.77	0.0325
LO28_0936	<i>rplR</i>	L18	LSU ribosomal protein L18p (L5e)	-0.07	1.0343	-0.13	1.0176
LO28_1359	<i>rplS</i>	L19	LSU ribosomal protein L19p	-0.14	0.6553	0.21	0.6003
LO28_1354	<i>rplT</i>	L20	LSU ribosomal protein L20p	0.33	0.2948	0.23	0.3477
LO28_0768	<i>rplU</i>	L21	LSU ribosomal protein L21p	-0.03	1.0319	0.11	0.8626
LO28_0947	<i>rplV</i>	L22	LSU ribosomal protein L22p (L17e)	0.37	0.5493	0.05	0.8604
LO28_0950	<i>rplW</i>	L23	LSU ribosomal protein L23p (L23Ae)	0.60	0.2523	0.38	0.2589
LO28_0941	<i>rplX</i>	L24	LSU ribosomal protein L24p (L26e)	0.18	0.8382	0.01	0.9288
LO28_1737	<i>ctc</i>	L25	LSU ribosomal protein L25p	2.47	0.0000	1.84	0.0000
LO28_0766	<i>rpmA</i>	L27	LSU ribosomal protein L27p	-0.21	0.7267	-0.25	0.5329
LO28_2498	<i>rpmB</i>	L28	LSU ribosomal protein L28p	0.01	0.9614	0.20	0.4226
LO28_0944	<i>rpmC</i>	L29	LSU ribosomal protein L29p (L35e)	0.20	0.7945	-0.17	0.8103
LO28_0934	<i>rpmD</i>	L30	LSU ribosomal protein L30p (L7e)	0.12	0.8760	-0.05	1.0408
LO28_1529	<i>rpmE</i>	L31	LSU ribosomal protein L31p	-0.26	0.2877	0.05	1.0322
LO28_2122	<i>rpmF</i>	L32	LSU ribosomal protein L32p	1.01	0.0141	0.77	0.0302
LO28_1187	<i>rpmH</i>	L34	LSU ribosomal protein L34p	-0.09	0.9268	0.15	0.6130
LO28_1355	<i>rpmI</i>	L35	LSU ribosomal protein L35p	0.29	0.3122	0.79	0.0092
LO28_0929	<i>rpmJ</i>	L36	LSU ribosomal protein L36p	0.15	0.8194	0.13	0.7839
LO28_2620	<i>rpsA</i>	S1	SSU ribosomal protein S1p	-1.43	0.0000	-1.13	0.0000
LO28_0885	<i>rpsB</i>	S2	SSU ribosomal protein S2p (SAe)	0.41	0.1899	0.92	0.0025
LO28_0946	<i>rpsC</i>	S3	SSU ribosomal protein S3p (S3e)	0.20	0.7866	0.03	0.8843
LO28_0822	<i>rpsD</i>	S4	SSU ribosomal protein S4p (S9e)	0.10	0.8303	0.07	0.9749
LO28_0935	<i>rpsE</i>	S5	SSU ribosomal protein S5p (S2e)	-0.06	0.9728	-0.07	1.0043
LO28_1233	<i>rpsF</i>	S6	SSU ribosomal protein S6p	0.28	0.5503	0.36	0.5432
LO28_0976	<i>rpsG</i>	S7	SSU ribosomal protein S7p (S5e)	0.20	0.8589	0.21	0.7099
LO28_0938	<i>rpsH</i>	S8	SSU ribosomal protein S8p (S15Ae)	0.07	1.0146	-0.07	0.9305
LO28_0916	<i>rpsI</i>	S9	SSU ribosomal protein S9p (S16e)	-0.22	0.4486	-0.38	0.0831
LO28_0953	<i>rpsI</i>	S10	SSU ribosomal protein S10p (S20e)	0.52	0.2582	0.29	0.3533
LO28_0927	<i>rpsK</i>	S11	SSU ribosomal protein S11p (S14e)	-0.31	0.6779	-0.37	0.4710
LO28_0977	<i>rpsL</i>	S12	SSU ribosomal protein S12p (S23e)	0.14	0.8648	0.09	0.8041
LO28_0928	<i>rpsM</i>	S13	SSU ribosomal protein S13p (S18e)	-0.02	1.0566	-0.05	1.0450
LO28_0939	<i>rpsN</i>	S14	SSU ribosomal protein S14p (S29e)	0.12	0.9255	-0.08	0.9136
LO28_0554	<i>rpsO</i>	S15	SSU ribosomal protein S15p (S13e)	-0.02	0.9434	-0.32	0.5679
LO28_1369	<i>rpsP</i>	S16	SSU ribosomal protein S16p	-0.10	0.8401	-0.41	0.1309
LO28_0943	<i>rpsQ</i>	S17	SSU ribosomal protein S17p (S11e)	0.12	0.9926	-0.06	0.9753
LO28_1235	<i>rpsR</i>	S18	SSU ribosomal protein S18p	-0.39	0.0825	-0.19	0.3845
LO28_0948	<i>rpsS</i>	S19	SSU ribosomal protein S19p (S15e)	0.54	0.2667	0.11	0.7184
LO28_0704	<i>rpsT</i>	S20	SSU ribosomal protein S20p	-0.21	0.6236	-0.19	0.3512
LO28_0693	<i>rpsU</i>	S21	SSU ribosomal protein S21p	-7.37	0.0000	-2.15	0.0000

Figure S3.1: expression of motility associated genes in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variants 14 and 15. Predicted flagellar transcription unit 1 and 2, based on *Listeria monocytogenes* 10403S (retrieved from Biocyc.org on 12/4/2017).



4

Amino acid substitutions in ribosomal protein RpsU enable switching between high fitness and multiple-stress resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes*

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Abstract

Microbial population heterogeneity contributes to differences in stress response between individual cells in a population, and can lead to the selection of genetically stable variants with increased stress resistance. We previously provided evidence that the multiple-stress resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15, carries a point mutation in the *rpsU* gene, resulting in an arginine-proline substitution in ribosomal protein RpsU (RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}). Here, we investigated the trade-off between general stress sigma factor SigB-mediated stress resistance and fitness in variant 15 using experimental evolution. By selecting for higher fitness in two parallel evolving cultures, we identified two evolved variants: 15EV1 and 15EV2. Whole genome sequencing and SNP analysis showed that both parallel lines mutated in the same codon in *rpsU* as the original mutation resulting in RpsU^{17Pro-His} (15EV1) and RpsU^{17Pro-Thr} (15EV2). Using a combined phenotyping and proteomics approach, we assessed the resistance of the evolved variants to both heat and acid stress, and found that in both lines reversion to WT-like fitness also resulted in WT-like stress sensitivity. Proteome analysis of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2 revealed high level expression of SigB regulon members only in variant 15, whereas protein profiles of both evolved variants were highly similar to that of the LO28 WT. Experiments with constructed RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutants in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 and EGDe, and RpsU^{17Arg-His} and RpsU^{17Arg-Thr} in LO28, confirmed that single amino acid substitutions in RpsU enable switching between multiple-stress resistant and high fitness states in *L. monocytogenes*.

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is a foodborne pathogen that is ubiquitously present in the environment, and can cause the rare but severe disease listeriosis (Radoshevich and Cossart, 2018; Lecuit, 2007; Vázquez-Boland et al., 2001). *L. monocytogenes* is considered a robust organism, since it can adapt to and survive a wide range of stress conditions such as low pH, low temperature and low water activity (a_w) (NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016). The inherent heterogeneity of microbial populations is one of the factors that contribute to the ubiquitous nature of *L. monocytogenes* supporting its capacity to cope with environmental stresses during its transmission from the environment to the human gastrointestinal tract. Notably, differences in stress response between individual cells of a population can lead to survival of a small fraction of the population when the population is subjected to lethal stresses such as heat or low pH, leading to tailing of the inactivation curve. Tailing results in higher-than-expected numbers of cells surviving an inactivation treatment, either as transiently resistant subpopulations, or as genetically stable variants with increased stress resistance (Gollan et al., 2019; Karatzas et al., 2005; Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2008).

Previously, Metselaar et al. (2015) combined phenotypic clustering of a collection of stable stress resistant *L. monocytogenes* variants, based on reduced growth rate and increased resistance against acid, heat, high hydrostatic pressure (HHP), and benzalkonium chloride, with a whole genome sequencing and Structural Variation (SV) analysis. This analysis showed that 11 of the 23 selected variants with a shared phenotype had a mutation in the ribosomal *rpsU* gene locus encoding S30 ribosomal protein RpsU (small ribosomal protein 21) (Metselaar et al., 2015). Subsequent work focused on two of the variants; variant 14, with a large deletion that spans the whole *rpsU* gene, as well as *yqeY* and half of *phoH*; and variant 15, with a single point mutation in *rpsU* that resulted in an amino acid substitution from arginine to proline in the RpsU protein, RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} (Koomen et al., 2018). Comparative analysis of gene expression profiles and phenotypes of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wildtype (WT) and multiple-stress resistant variants 14 and 15, revealed upregulation of 116 genes with a major contribution of genes controlled by the alternative stress sigma factor SigB (Koomen et al., 2018). Activation of SigB is controlled by the so-called stressosome, a cytoplasmic complex that relays a range of stress signals and activates the sigma B regulon providing multiple-stress resistance (Guldemann et al., 2016; NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016; Radoshevich and Cossart, 2018). Next to stress defence activation, the multiple-stress

resistant *L. monocytogenes* variants 14 and 15 had increased glycerol metabolic capacity and reduced expression of flagella (Koomen et al., 2018). Modelling and validation of the ecological behaviour of *L. monocytogenes* WT and stress resistant variants 14 and 15 led to the hypothesis that multiple stress resistance could contribute to performance and persistence in the food chain, which, in combination with the conceivable higher survival of acidic conditions in the stomach, could result in a higher exposure and risk of disease (Abee et al., 2016; Metselaar et al., 2016). An additional factor contributing to increased risk following the initial selection of multiple stress resistant variants (Abee et al., 2016) could be the subsequent selection of other variants that originate from the ancestor variant and have increased fitness and loss of the stress resistant phenotype.

In the current study, we addressed this issue and subjected *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15, with its single point mutation in *rpsU*, resulting in RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}, to an experimental evolution regime where we selected for higher fitness, defined as an increased maximum specific growth rate (μ_{\max}), when compared to the ancestor variant 15. Subsequent genotyping and phenotyping of evolved variants has provided insights in *L. monocytogenes* switching between high fitness-low stress resistance, and low fitness-high stress resistance.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

For genotypic, proteomic and phenotypic analysis, *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wild type (WT) strain (Wageningen Food & Biobased Research, The Netherlands), stress resistant ancestor variant 15 (Koomen et al., 2018; Metselaar et al., 2013), and evolved variants (this study) were used. All bacterial cultures were grown as described elsewhere (Metselaar et al., 2013). Briefly, cells from -80°C stocks were grown at 30°C for 48 hours on brain heart infusion (BHI, Oxoid, Ltd., Basingstoke, England) agar (1.5 % [w/w], bacteriological agar no. 1 Oxoid) plates. A single colony was used to inoculate 20 ml of BHI broth in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask. After overnight (ON, 18-22 hours) culturing at 30°C under shaking at 160 rpm, (Innova 42, New Brunswick Scientific, Edison, NJ) 0.5% (v/v) inoculum was added to fresh BHI broth. Cells were grown under shaking at 160 rpm in BHI at 30°C until the late-exponential growth phase ($OD_{600} = 0.4-0.5$).

Experimental Evolution

Experimental evolution was performed by inoculating two parallel lines with 1% (v/v) of ON culture of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15, in 20 ml BHI in 100 ml Erlenmeyer flasks, resulting in approximately $1 \cdot 10^{7.5}$ cfu/ml. The cultures were incubated for 24 hours at 20°C under continuous shaking at 160 rpm (Innova 42). For each parallel line, 28 consecutive transfers were made using 24 hours-cultures and 1% (v/v) inoculum to inoculate fresh BHI. Each transfer allowed for a 2-log increase (~ 6.65 generations), and for 28 transfers this yields in total around 200 generations. From every second transfer, a 700 μ L culture sample was taken, mixed with glycerol (Sigma-Aldrich, the Netherlands, 25% v/v final concentration), flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C, resulting in 14 stocks. These stocks were revived by streaking on BHI agar plates, and a single colony was used to inoculate 20 ml of BHI broth in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask. After ON culturing at 30°C under shaking at 160 rpm, (Innova 42) the culture was diluted 100,000 times in fresh BHI broth, and 200 μ l of culture was inoculated in duplicate in wells of a honeycomb plate. The plate was incubated in a Bioscreen C (Oy Growth Curves AB Ltd, Helsinki, Finland) at 30°C and the respective growth curves were determined by measuring OD₆₀₀ over time, using biological triplicates. The starting stocks, and the first stocks where a clear shift to WT-like growth was observed, i.e., stock number 8 for 15EV1 (after 16 daily transfers) and number 9 for 15EV2 (after 18 daily transfers), were streaked on BHI agar, and respective single colonies were selected to prepare -80°C stocks of 15EV1 and 15EV2 and the ancestor variant 15. These stocks were used for whole genome sequencing and subsequent phenotyping experiments.

Estimation of μ_{max}

The maximum specific growth rate μ_{max} was determined for the two evolved strains (15EV1 and 15EV2), variant 15 and the LO28 WT strain. For that, ON cultures were diluted 1000 times in peptone physiological salt solution (PPS, Tritium Microbiologie B.V., the Netherlands), after which they were diluted another 100 times in BHI broth, resulting in a concentration of $\sim 4 \cdot 10^4$ cfu/ml, which was confirmed by plating on BHI agar. The μ_{max} was estimated using the 2-fold dilution method, as described previously by (Biesta-Peters et al., 2010), which is based on the time-to-detection (TTD) of serially diluted cultures. Briefly, for each strain tested, a two-fold dilution series was made in duplicate from the first well to the fifth well, by mixing 200 μ L of bacterial culture and 200 μ L of fresh BHI in honeycomb plates. The plates were incubated in a Bioscreen C (Oy Growth Curves AB Ltd) at 30 °C with continuous shaking. The TTD was defined as the time at which a well reaches

an OD₆₀₀ value of 0.2. Data processing and estimation of the TTD was done in Microsoft Excel (Redmond, Washington, USA). The μ_{max} was calculated as the negative reciprocal slope of the linear regression between TTD and the natural logarithm of the initial bacterial concentration of the five wells for each culture, where μ_{max} equals $\ln(2)/\text{generation time}$ (i.e., $\mu_{max} = 1$ represents a generation (doubling) time of approximately 0.7 h, or 42 minutes). Three biologically independent experiments were performed to estimate the mean and standard deviation of μ_{max} .

Inactivation kinetics at low pH

Acid inactivation experiments were performed as described previously (Metselaar et al., 2013). Briefly, 100 ml of late-exponential phase culture was pelleted for 5 minutes at 2,880 x g in a fixed-angle rotor (5804 R, Eppendorf). Pellets were washed in 10 ml BHI broth and pelleted again at 5 min at 2,880 x g. The pellet was resuspended in 1 ml PPS that was pre-warmed to 37°C and adjusted to pH 3.0 using 10 M of HCl, and placed in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask in a shaking water bath at 37°C. At different time intervals, samples were taken, decimally diluted in BHI broth and plated on BHI agar using an Eddy Jet spiral plater (Eddy Jet, IUL S.A.) Plates were incubated at 30°C for 4-6 days to allow for full recovery of damaged cells. Combined data of at least three biologically independent experiments were used for analysis

Inactivation kinetics at high temperature

Heat inactivation experiments were performed as described before (Metselaar et al., 2015). Briefly, 400 μL of late-exponential phase culture was added to 40 ml of fresh BHI broth that was pre-heated to 55°C \pm 0.3°C. A separate Erlenmeyer with BHI at room temperature was used to determine the initial microbial concentration. Samples were taken after various timepoints and decimally diluted in PPS. Appropriate dilutions were plated on BHI agar using an Eddy Jet spiral plater (Eddy Jet, IUL S.A.) in duplicate. Combined data of at least 3 biologically independent experiments were used for analysis.

Proteomic analysis

Cultures of the LO28 WT, variant 15 and evolved 15EV1 and 15EV2 were grown as described in 2.1. For proteomic analysis, 2 ml of sample with OD₆₀₀ of 0.4-0.5 was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored until further use. Samples were thawed on ice and pelleted at 17,000 x g. Pellets were washed twice with 100 mM Tris (pH 8) to remove traces of BHI. Pellets were

resuspended in 100 μ L of 100 mM Tris (pH 8) and were sonicated three times for 30 seconds on ice to lyse the cells. Samples were prepared according to the filter assisted sample preparation protocol (FASP) (Wiśniewski et al., 2009) with the following steps: reduction with 15 mM dithiothreitol, alkylation with 20 mM acrylamide, and digestion with sequencing grade trypsin overnight. Each prepared peptide sample was analyzed by injecting (18 μ L) into a nanoLC-MS/MS (Thermo nLC1000 connected to an LTQ-Orbitrap XL) as described previously (Lu et al., 2011; Wendrich et al., 2017). nLC-MSMS system quality was checked with PTXQC (Bielow et al., 2016) using the MaxQuant result files. LCMS data with all MS/MS spectra were analyzed with the MaxQuant quantitative proteomics software package (Cox et al., 2014) as described before (Smaczniak et al., 2012; Wendrich et al., 2017). A protein database with the protein sequences of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 (accession: PRJNA664298) was downloaded from NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Filtering and further bioinformatics and statistical analysis of the MaxQuant ProteinGroups file was performed with Perseus (Tyanova et al., 2016). Reverse hits and contaminants were filtered out. Protein groups were filtered to contain minimally two peptides for protein identification of which at least one is unique and at least one is unmodified. Also, each comparison (WT versus variants) required at least three valid values in either WT or variant. Data visualization was performed using the statistical programming language R (version 3.6.0). Significant up- or downregulation was defined as a change in abundance relative to the WT of at least 10 times (1 log), with a corrected P value ($-\log_{10}$ P value) above 2.

Whole genome sequencing and SNP analysis

Genomic DNA of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT strain for PacBio sequencing was isolated using the DNeasy Blood and tissue kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Two times 2 ml of overnight culture was pelleted at 17,000 $\times g$. The pellets were washed with 1 ml PPS and resuspended in 1 ml lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 2 mM EDTA, 1.2% (w/v) Triton X-100, 20 mg/ml lysozyme, pH 8.0). The suspension was incubated at 37°C for one hour under gentle shaking in an Eppendorf Thermomixer 5436 (Eppendorf AG, Hamburg, Germany). Subsequently 10 μ L of RNase 20 mg/ml (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) was added and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature, after which 62.5 μ L proteinase K and 500 μ L AL buffer (provided by the manufacturer) were added. After incubation at 56°C for one hour under gentle shaking, 500 μ L absolute ethanol was added. The suspension was transferred to a spin column provided by the kit and incubated for 10 minutes to allow for maximal binding of DNA. The columns were centrifuged for one minute at 6,000 $\times g$. The filters were subsequently

washed two times with 500 μ L of buffer AW1 (provided by the manufacturer) at 6,000 $\times g$, and two times with 500 μ L of buffer AW2 (provided by the manufacturer). To remove any trace of buffer the columns were centrifuged at 17,000 $\times g$ for 3 minutes. Subsequently, 53 μ L of AE buffer was added to the centre of the column and incubated for 10 minutes before centrifugation at 6,000 $\times g$. Samples were stored at 4°C until sequencing.

PacBio sequencing was performed by Eurofins GATC (Eurofins GATC Biotech GmbH, Germany) using a PacBio RS II system (Pacific Biosystems) resulting in 80,017 reads pre-filtering, with a N50 of 16970 bp. Read correction, trimming, and de-novo assembly were performed in Canu V1.8 (Koren et al., 2017) running on a 2018 MacBook Pro under MacOS Mojave Version 10.14.3. Overhangs were trimmed using Circlator (Hunt et al., 2015) resulting in a 2975254 bp linear genome with *dnaA* as the first gene. Error correction was done using Pilon version 1.123 with Illumina reads obtained previously (Metselaar et al., 2015). The resulting sequence and raw reads were submitted to GenBank and the sequence read archive respectively (at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) with accession: PRJNA664298.

Strains used and Evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 obtained in the evolution experiment were grown in 9 ml BHI tubes (Oxoid) for 18 ± 2 hours at 37°C. In total 1.8 ml of the culture was centrifuged for 5 minutes at 13,000 rpm to obtain a cell pellet. After removal of the supernatant the cell pellet was resuspended and stored in 450 μ L DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo Research) at 4°C until DNA extraction. The DNA was extracted by BaseClear (Leiden, the Netherlands) and paired-end 2×150 bp short-reads were generated using a Nextera XT library preparation (Illumina). The paired-end reads were sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 system (Illumina). Raw reads were trimmed and de novo assembled using CLC Genomics Workbench v 10.0 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). SNP analysis of evolved variants against the LO28 WT reference was performed using SNIPPY 3.2 (Seemann, T 2015) and Pilon using the "--changes" argument (Walker et al., 2014)

Mutant construction

Mutants (see Table 4.1) were constructed using the temperature sensitive suicide plasmid pAULA (Chakraborty et al., 1992). The *rpsU* gene from either variant 15, 15EV1, or 15EV2 was amplified from gDNA by KAPA HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems, USA), using the primers listed in Supplementary Table S4.1. The resulting fragments were ligated in frame to the pAULA multiple cloning site via EcoR1 and Sal1 restriction that were introduced to the fragments by the respective primers.

The resulting plasmid was electroporated (2.5 kV, 25 μ F, 200 Ω), in a 0.2 cm cuvette using a BIO-RAD GenePulser, to the appropriate *L. monocytogenes* cells, and plated on BHI agar at 30°C with 5 μ g/ml erythromycin to select for transformants.

Two erythromycin resistant colonies per construct were inoculated in separate tubes in BHI broth supplemented with 5 μ g/ml erythromycin and grown overnight at 42°C to select for plasmid integration. Selected strains resulting from a single cross-over integration event were grown overnight in BHI at 30°C to induce double crossover events and were subsequently plated at 30°C. Resulting colonies were replica plated on BHI with and without 5 μ g/ml erythromycin and incubated at 30°C. Colonies sensitive to erythromycin were selected. PCR using the primers listed in Supplementary Table S4.1 and DNA sequencing (BaseClear B.V. Leiden, The Netherlands) of erythromycin sensitive colonies confirmed the correct point mutation in the respective genes and the lack of additional mutations in the targeted region.

Table 4.1: Constructed *L. monocytogenes* mutants

Strain	Mutation introduced
LO28 WT	RpsJ ^{Arg17Pro}
LO28 WT	RpsJ ^{Arg17His}
LO28 WT	RpsJ ^{Arg17The}
EGDe WT	RpsJ ^{Arg17Pro}

Statistical testing

Hypothesis testing was performed in the statistical programming language R (version 3.6.0) using the `t.test()` and `var.test()` functions.

Results

Growth kinetics of evolved variants

The experimental evolution regime resulted in the selection of two evolved variants, Evolved 1 and Evolved 2 (15EV1 and 15EV2, respectively). The growth kinetics of evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 were assessed (Figure 4.1a) and showed that the experimental evolution regime had successfully selected for evolved variants after 16 and 18 daily transfers (\sim 105 and \sim 120 generations), that showed increased μ_{max} when compared to variant 15 (Figure 4.1a). The μ_{max} of both evolved strains was significantly higher than that

of variant 15 whereas the μ_{max} of 15EV1 was even not significantly different from the μ_{max} of the LO28 WT strain, while strain 15EV2 had a slightly lower μ_{max} (Figure 4.1b).

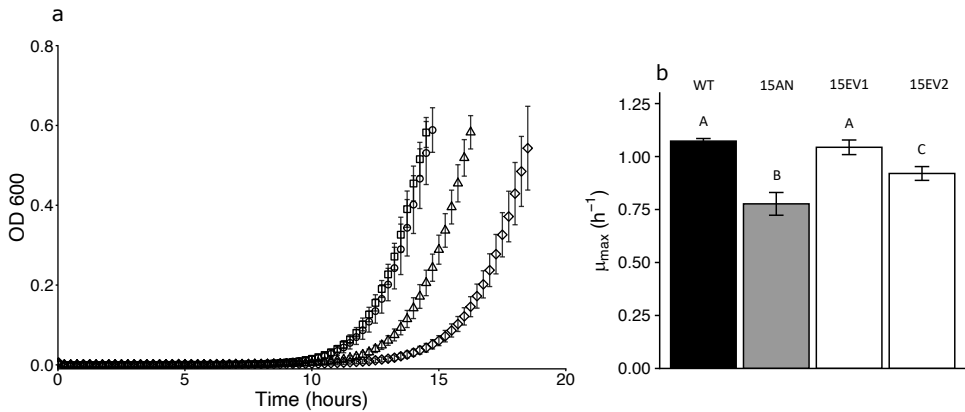


Figure 4.1: Growth performance of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2 (a) growth curves for LO28 WT (squares), variant 15 (diamonds), 15EV1 (circles), and 15EV2 (triangles), (b) Maximum specific growth rates (μ_{max}) for *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2. Different capital letters show statistically significant differences.

Multiple-stress resistance of evolved variants

Since the evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 showed increased fitness, we compared their resistance to heat stress (55°C) and acid stress (pH 3.0) to that of variant 15 (Figure 4.2). In the heat stress experiments (Figure 4.2a), variant 15 started with approximately 6.8 log cfu/ml, and showed little inactivation after 20 minutes of exposure, with a concentration of around 6 log cfu/ml. In contrast, after 20 minutes of exposure the concentrations of both evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 decreased and were not significantly different from the LO28 WT strain with concentrations of around 2.5 log cfu/ml ($p > 0.05$). For acid stress experiments (Figure 4.2b), variant 15 again only showed a small (< 1 log cfu/ml) decrease in cell counts after 20 minutes, while both evolved variants and also the LO28 WT strain showed over 5 log cfu/ml reduction after 20 minutes. These data indicate that both evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 have lost their resistance to heat stress and acid stress when compared to variant 15.

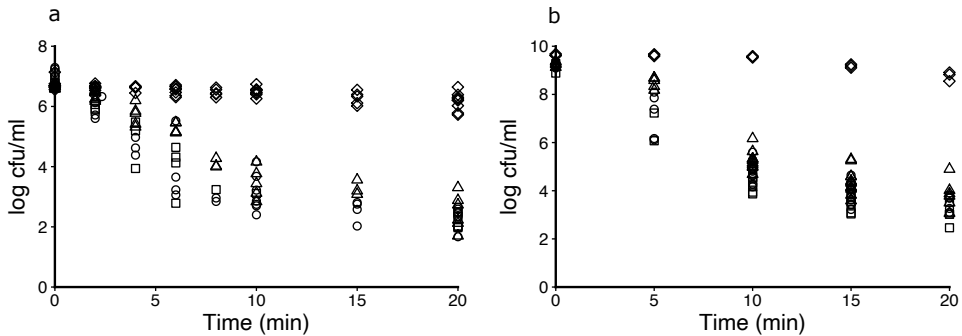


Figure 4.2: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2 after exposure to heat (55°C) (a) or acid stress (pH 3.0) (b). The wild type is represented by squares, variant 15 by diamonds, and variants 15EV1 and 15EV2, are represented by circles and triangles respectively.

Proteomic analysis of variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2

Comparative gene profiling analysis of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variant 15, previously showed upregulation of 116 genes with a major contribution of general stress sigma factor SigB dependent regulon members in late-exponential phase cells grown in non-stressed conditions in BHI (Koomen et al., 2018).

Here, we investigated the proteomes of late-exponential phase cells of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 15 and evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 (Figure 4.3). Presenting the data compared to the WT, shows significant differences for variant 15 (Figure 4.3), in line with previously reported differences in gene expression profiles and phenotypes (Koomen et al., 2018). Notably, our proteomics analysis revealed that out of the 29 proteins annotated as belonging to the SigB regulon in this sample, 21 were higher expressed in variant 15 compared to LO28 WT, (Figure 4.3). These include stress resistance proteins such as OpuCA (Imo1428), OpuCC (Imo1426), and SepA (Imo2157) (Kazmierczak et al., 2003; Milohanic et al., 2003). For a full list, see supplementary Table S4.2. In accordance with gene expression data, and the non-motile phenotype of variant 15 (Koomen et al., 2018), proteomics data show a significant reduced expression of motility and chemotaxis associated proteins such as MotA (Imo0685), MotB (Imo0686), CheA (Imo0692), and chemotaxis response regulator CheY (Imo0691). As anticipated, the proteomic profiles for 15EV1 and 15EV2 were more similar to that of the WT, and we found seven and twenty proteins expressed above the

stringent threshold in 15EV1 and 15EV2, respectively (see supplementary Table S4.2 and S4.3). None of the genes that are upregulated in 15EV1 are part of the sigB regulon. Four of the upregulated proteins in 15EV2 were part of the SigB regulon, namely, succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase (lmo0913), hypothetical protein lmo2748, opuCA (lmo1428), and the pyruvate oxidase lmo0722. The low relative abundance of SigB upregulated proteins matches the WT-like phenotypes of 15EV1 and 15EV2, including the higher fitness and loss of acid and heat stress resistance.

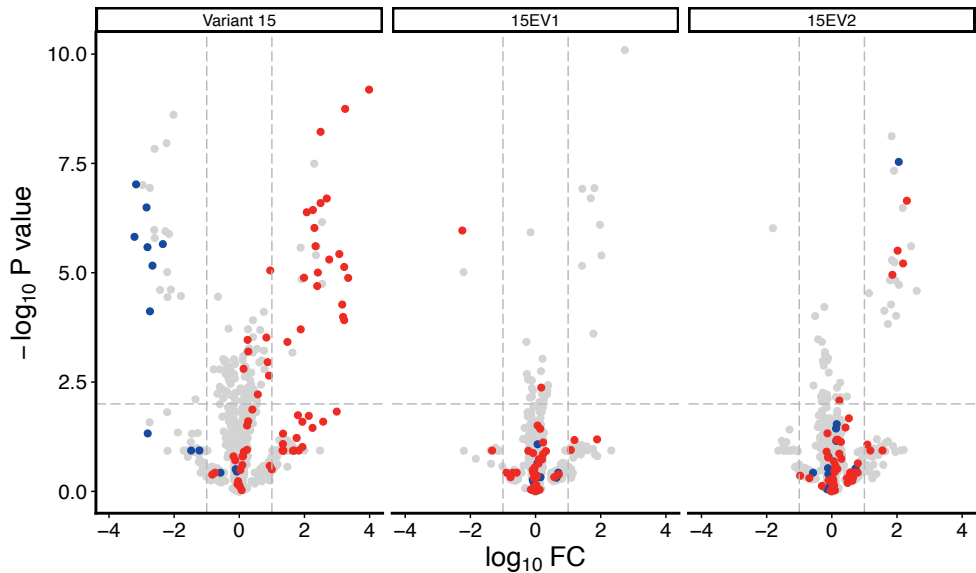


Figure 4.3: Volcano plot of significantly differentially abundant proteins of *L. monocytogenes* variant 15, 15EV1, and 15EV2 compared to the wild type. The $-\log_{10}$ (Benjamini–Hochberg corrected P value) is plotted against the \log_{10} (fold change (FC): variant over WT). Horizontal dotted line represents the cutoff for $-\log_{10}$ (P), vertical dotted lines represent \log_{10} (fold change) cutoff. Red dots represent genes regulated by sigB, blue dots represent genes involved in the formation and regulation of flagella. The expression of individual proteins is listed in supplementary Tables S4.2 – S4.4.

Whole genome sequencing of 15EV1 and 15EV2

Previous whole genome sequencing and Structural Variation (SV) analysis of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variant 15 revealed a Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) in the *rpsU* gene, coding for 30S ribosomal protein S21 (Metselaar et al., 2015). This SNP led to an arginine to proline substitution in the RpsU protein (denoted here as RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}). Strikingly, whole genome sequencing and Structural Variation (SV) analysis of *L. monocytogenes* evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 revealed a single SNP in the same codon of the *rpsU* gene, while no other SNPs were identified. In the *rpsU* gene of 15EV1 the Cytosine in position 50 mutated to Adenine, while in 15EV2 the Cytosine in position 49 mutated into Adenine, (see Table 4.2) resulting in amino acid changes from Proline (codon, CCT) to Histidine (codon, CAT) in 15EV1 (RpsU^{17Pro-His}), and Threonine (codon, ACT) in 15EV2 (RpsU^{17Pro-Thr}) (Figure 4.4 a/b). Since amino acid substitutions can disrupt protein structure, potentially altering protein stability or function, we analysed the protein sequences of WT and variants using the online tool CFSSP (Ashok Kumar, 2013) Again, the protein structure of RpsU in WT and the evolved variants appeared similar, while an extra proline-associated turn was predicted in variant 15 (see Supplementary Figure S4.1). The putative proline-induced turn may disrupt the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} protein structure as proline has been described as a helix breaker (Chou and Fasman, 1974), which might result in loss of functionality and/or exclusion from the 30S ribosome in variant 15.

Table 4.2: Mutations in *L. monocytogenes* variants found by WGS and SNP analysis

Variant	Position	Strand	NT	AA	Locus tag	Product
15	1521940	-	50G>C	17R>P	IEJ01_07680	30S ribosomal protein S21
15EV1	1521940	-	50C>A	17P>H	IEJ01_07680	30S ribosomal protein S21
15EV2	1521939	-	49C>A	17P>T	IEJ01_07680	30S ribosomal protein S21

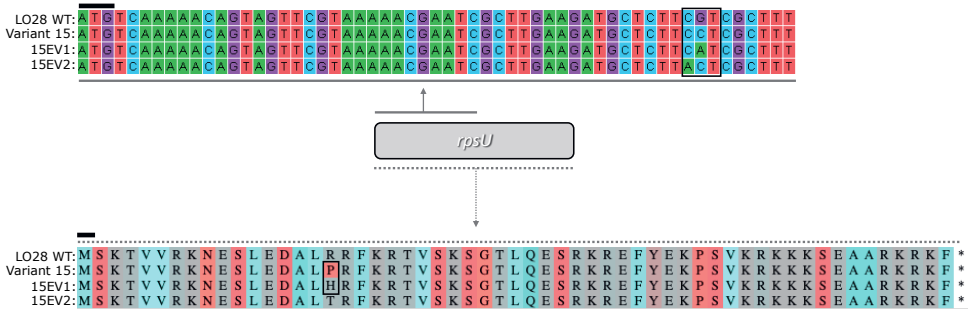


Figure 4.4: Sequence alignment of *rpsU* (top) and amino acid sequence of RpsU in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT and variant 15 and 15EV1 and 15EV2. The upper alignment represents the nucleotide sequence of the region where mutations were found. The black line indicates the start codon of the *rpsU* gene. The lower alignment represents the amino acid sequence of the complete RpsU protein and the effect of the mutations on the amino acid sequence. Amino acids predicted to cause turns in the tertiary protein structure are shaded red, and amino acids at position 17 are boxed, including the extra turn in variant 15 caused by proline (P).

Fitness and stress resistance of constructed mutants

To confirm the arginine to proline substitution at position 17 in *rpsU* as the mutation underlying the multiple-stress resistant phenotype of variant 15, we introduced RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} into a *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT background. Additionally, we also introduced the two SNP's that were selected by experimental evolution in 15EV1 and 15EV2, namely, RpsU^{17Arg-His} and RpsU^{17Arg-Thr}. Analysis of growth performance showed that the μ_{max} as proxy for fitness of the constructed RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutant was similar to that of variant 15, and that of the constructed RpsU^{17Arg-His} and RpsU^{17Arg-Thr} mutants was similar to that of the corresponding evolved variants 15EV1 and 15EV2, respectively (Table S4). Subsequently, we tested the response of late exponential phase cells of the constructed mutants to heat (55°C) stress (Figure 4.5a) and acid (pH 3.0) stress (Figure 4.5b). As expected, the LO28 WT strain with the introduced RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} substitution showed significant ($p < 0.05$) higher heat and acid resistance after 10 minutes of treatment than the LO28 WT strains with the introduced RpsU^{17Arg-His} and RpsU^{17Arg-Thr} substitutions. These results confirmed that only the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} substitution results in the multiple-stress resistant phenotype typical of variant

15, while RpsU amino acid substitutions mimicking variants 15EV1 and 15EV2 results in WT like fitness and stress sensitive phenotypes.

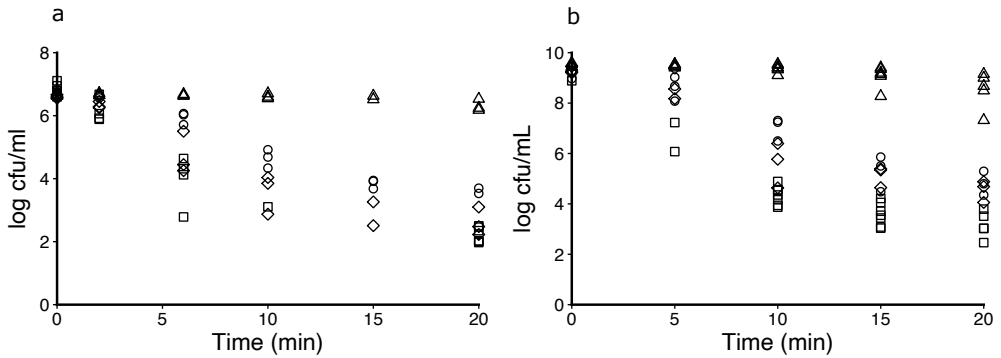


Figure 4.5: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, and constructed mutants, during heat (55°C) (a) or acid (pH 3.0) (b) stress. LO28 WT is represented by squares, LO28 with RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} is represented by triangles, LO28 with RpsU^{17Arg-Thr}, is represented by circles, and LO28 with RpsU^{Arg17His} by diamonds.

To test whether RpsU, with a proline at position 17, could induce phenotypic switching in other *L. monocytogenes* strains, we also introduced the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation into *L. monocytogenes* EGDe, which is one of the best studied strains of *L. monocytogenes* including its stress survival capacity (Becavin et al., 2014). Analysis of the growth performance of EGDe WT and its RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutant at 30 °C showed reduced fitness for the latter one, reflected in a lower μ_{max} ($0.86 \text{ h}^{-1} \pm$ standard deviation 0.01 h^{-1}) compared to that of EGDe WT ($1.10 \text{ h}^{-1} \pm$ standard deviation 0.02 h^{-1}) (Figure 4.6). A comparative analysis previously showed that EGDe has a higher resistance to heat stress than LO28 (Aryani et al., 2015), and this was also reflected in the inactivation data shown in Figure 4.7, where heat inactivation at 55°C resulted in a decrease of about 2.5 log cfu/ml in 20 minutes for the EGDe WT (Figure 4.7a). As expected, higher stress resistance was observed for the EGDe strain carrying the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation, with stable cell counts maintained during the treatment time (Figure 4.7a). We observed a similar trend when both strains were exposed to acid stress, with enhanced acid stress survival for the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} EGDe mutant strain (Figure 4.7b). The combination of all results provides evidence that sequential mutations in *rpsU* resulting in RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} and subsequently RpsU^{17Pro-His} or RpsU^{17Pro-Thr}, enable a switch

between low fitness/high stress resistance and high fitness-low stress resistance phenotypes in *L. monocytogenes*.

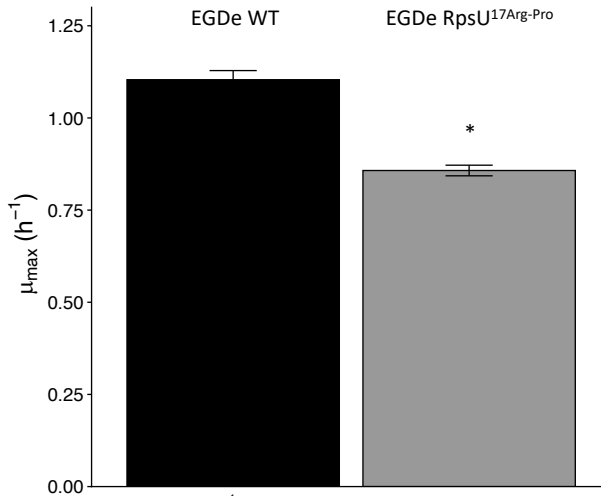


Figure 4.6: Maximum specific growth rates (μ_{max}) for *L. monocytogenes* EGDe, and EGDe RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}. * indicates significant difference.

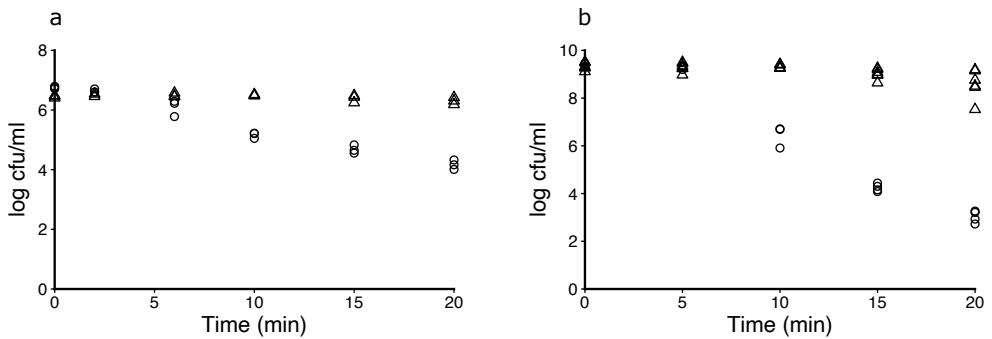


Figure 4.7: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe wild type, and EGDe RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}, after exposure to heat (55 °C) (a) or acid (pH 3.0) stress (b). The EGDe WT is represented by circles, EGDe RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} by triangles.

Discussion

Previous genotyping and phenotyping studies showed that the multiple-stress resistance of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15 with RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} was linked to induction of the SigB regulon, and was correlated with reduced fitness (Koomen et al. 2018). Here, we have used experimental evolution to select for mutations in variant 15 that increased fitness. The two evolved lines fixed two different mutations, leading to two different amino acid substitutions both at position 17 in RpsU, namely, RpsU^{17Pro-His} (15EV1) and RpsU^{17Pro-Thr} (15EV2) resulting in reversion to WT-like fitness (Figure 4.1) and stress resistance (Figure 4.2). The experimental evolution regime had successfully selected for evolved variants after 16 and 18 daily transfers (~105 and ~120 generations). We modelled the kinetics of the WT and variant 15 ancestor based on the μ_{max} reported by Metselaar et al. (2016) for the growing conditions that were used during experimental evolution. We used a 3-phase model based on Buchanan et al. 1997, with a $\log N_{max}$ of 9.5 log cfu/ml, and took into account the Jameson effect (Jameson, 1962), that addresses growth suppression by the dominant strain in a multi strain population when the dominant strain reaches its stationary phase. We then estimated that after 6 rounds (~ 40 generations) one EV15 cell (with initial fraction $1 \cdot 10^{-7.5}$) could have reached the same population density as the variant 15 strain, which is in line with the successful outcome of the experimental evolution experiment.

Random insertion of a proline residue is known to disrupt protein structure, potentially altering the stability or function of the protein (Chou and Fasman, 1974). Combined with data obtained with the constructed RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}, RpsU^{17Arg-His}, and RpsU^{17Arg-Thr} mutants, we provided evidence that replacing the putative disruptive proline at position 17 in *L. monocytogenes* variant 15 with amino acids that do not have such strong disruptive effects, i.e., threonine or histidine, can restore WT-like functioning of the RpsU protein with an arginine at position 17. Although both evolved lines fixed a compensatory mutation, they did not fix the same mutation, and we did not find a reversion to the original RpsU^{17Arg}. Based on the slight difference in μ_{max} and proteomic profile between 15EV1 and 15EV2, we hypothesize that the RpsU^{17Arg-His} mutation is slightly more efficient in restoring the WT phenotype than RpsU^{17Arg-Thr}.

The previously described variant 14 with a complete deletion of *rpsU* and variant 15 have highly comparable phenotypical behaviour (Koomen et al., 2018; Metselaar et al., 2015), which indicates that RpsU is not essential for growth, and that RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} in variant 15 either lost its functionality, or is not (efficiently) incorporated into the 30S ribosome that

together with the 50S ribosome constitutes the 70S ribosome. Notably, the additional introduction in the current study of the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation in the well-studied *L. monocytogenes* EGDe strain, also resulted in a phenotypic switch from high fitness-low stress resistance to low fitness-high stress resistance (see Figure 4.6 and 4.7), providing evidence that the observed changes in behaviour are strain independent and caused by a single arginine-proline substitution at position 17 in RpsU. Moreover, studies in *Bacillus subtilis*, a closely related firmicute, have also shown that RpsU was not essential for growth, but that deletion of the protein leads to altered phenotypes including loss of motility and a reduced growth rate (Akanuma et al., 2012).

Induction of multiple-stress resistance in *L. monocytogenes* by SigB is tightly controlled by the so-called stressosome, a protein complex that acts as a signal relay hub integrating multiple environmental (stress) signals (Guariglia-Oropeza et al., 2014; Impens et al., 2017). Activation of a large fraction of the SigB regulon during non-stress growth conditions in LO28 variant 15 and in LO28 carrying the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutations points to an (in)direct interaction between the 70S ribosome and the stress signalling cascade. How the presumed loss of function of the 30S RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} variant protein affects functioning of the 70S ribosome resulting in reduced fitness and activation of the SigB regulon remains to be elucidated.

Previous studies describing performance of multiple-stress resistant variants in a model food chain considered the trade-off between increased stress resistance and lower fitness (Abee et al., 2016; Metselaar et al., 2015). The information that selection of multiple-stress resistant variants following a single lethal stress exposure, could be followed by subsequent evolution of variants with increased fitness and loss of the stress resistant phenotype, may point to an additional layer of complexity that can be included in these scenario analyses. Notably, translation of these population dynamics that are based on the generation and performance of *L. monocytogenes* variants following single-nucleotide substitutions (SNPs) to ecology along the food chain and more specifically (over)representation in persistent strains, is currently not supported by analysis of WGS data. Recently, Harrand et al. (2020) studied the evolution of *L. monocytogenes* persistence in a food processing plant over multiple years and genotyping of isolates showed limited single-nucleotide substitutions (SNPs), and a more prominent role in strain diversification by gain and loss of prophages. Further studies are required to determine whether the observed lack of (over)representation of SNPs in RpsU, and specifically those resulting in RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}, in

sequenced *L. monocytogenes* isolates is caused by reduced fitness affecting performance of stress resistant variants in *L. monocytogenes* enrichments from food and food processing samples according to the ISO 11290-1:2017 method.

The experimental evolution setup used in the current study, combined with genotyping and phenotyping of the two evolved variants, and the construction of targeted mutants in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 and EGDe, provides evidence that single amino acid substitutions in RpsU enable *L. monocytogenes* to switch between high fitness-low stress resistance and low fitness-high stress resistance. The exact mechanism of SigB induction following RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} substitution or RpsU deletion (Metselaar et al. 2015; Koomen et al. 2018) and the impact on 70S ribosome function and the stressosome-mediated signalling cascade is currently under investigation in our group. Ultimately, a better understanding of the processes involved will add to a further insight into factors contributing to strain diversity and population heterogeneity in *L. monocytogenes* stress sensing and survival capacity and its transmission in the food chain.

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Supplementary material

Table S4.1: Primers used in construction of *rpsU* mutants
EcoRI and Sall sites are indicated in bold

Direction	Gene	Sequence
Forward	<i>rpsU</i>	5'-GAAGGA AAT CCAGAGAAGGCGAGGATAGTG-3'
Reverse	<i>rpsU</i>	5'-TGGT GTC ACTCAGCTTTGCCCTTACTTTAG-3'

Table S4.2: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15 over wild type

Protein IDs	Protein product	Gene	Locus tag	Regulon	Product	-log ₁₀ P value	log ratio
IEJ01_03515	NP_464216.1	-	lmo0689	flagella_1	chemotaxis protein CheV	5.82	-3.22
IEJ01_03510	NP_464215.1	-	lmo0688	flagella_1	hypothetical protein lmo0688	7.02	-3.17
IEJ01_04515	NP_464416.1	<i>rsbS</i>	lmo0890	-	negative regulation of sigma-B activity	7.01	-2.96
IEJ01_03525	NP_464218.1	<i>cheY</i>	lmo0691	flagella_2	chemotaxis response regulator CheY	6.49	-2.85
IEJ01_03530	NP_464219.1	<i>cheA</i>	lmo0692	flagella_2	two-component sensor histidine kinase CheA	5.58	-2.82
IEJ01_03590	NP_464231.1	-	lmo0704	-	hypothetical protein lmo0704	6.94	-2.74
IEJ01_03490	NP_464211.1	-	lmo0684	flagella_1	hypothetical protein lmo0684	4.12	-2.74
IEJ01_03495	NP_464212.1	<i>motA</i>	lmo0685	flagella_1	flagellar motor protein MotA	5.16	-2.66
IEJ01_08960	NP_465224.1	-	lmo1699	-	chemotaxis protein	5.98	-2.61
IEJ01_01825	NP_463884.1	-	lmo0354	-	fatty-acid--CoA ligase	7.83	-2.60
IEJ01_11125	NP_465650.1	-	lmo2126	-	maltogenic amylase	5.79	-2.60
IEJ01_05170	NP_464540.1	<i>gbuB</i>	lmo1015	-	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	4.61	-2.43
IEJ01_03500	NP_464213.1	<i>motB</i>	lmo0686	flagella_1	flagellar motor rotation MotB	5.66	-2.35
IEJ01_00255	NP_463584.1	-	lmo0051	-	response regulator	5.95	-2.27
IEJ01_03635	NP_464240.1	<i>flif</i>	lmo0713	-	flagellar MS-ring protein Flif	7.96	-2.23
IEJ01_14350	NP_466238.1	<i>cydC</i>	lmo2716	-	ABC transporter	5.01	-2.21
IEJ01_04805	NP_464468.1	<i>fri</i>	lmo0943	-	non-heme iron-binding ferritin	4.44	-2.20
IEJ01_03565	NP_464226.1	<i>flim</i>	lmo0699	-	flagellar motor switch protein Flim	5.89	-2.16
IEJ01_03645	NP_464242.1	<i>flih</i>	lmo0715	-	flagellar assembly protein H	4.61	-2.10
IEJ01_07370	NP_464932.1	<i>pflC</i>	lmo1407	-	pyruvate-formate lyase activating enzyme	8.61	-2.02
IEJ01_10065	NP_465440.1	-	lmo1916	-	peptidase	4.47	-1.79
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	<i>rpsU</i>	lmo1469	-	30S ribosomal protein S21	2.11	-1.34
IEJ01_04655	NP_464439.1	-	lmo0913	SigB	succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase	9.19	3.98
IEJ01_07475	NP_464953.1	<i>opuCA</i>	lmo1428	SigB	glycine/betaine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	4.88	3.34
IEJ01_03680	NP_464249.1	-	lmo0722	SigB	pyruvate oxidase	8.75	3.25
IEJ01_09635	NP_465355.1	-	lmo1830	SigB	short-chain dehydrogenase	5.13	3.22
IEJ01_14510	NP_466270.1	-	lmo2748	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo2748	3.92	3.22
IEJ01_11305	NP_465681.1	<i>sepA</i>	lmo2157	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo2157	3.99	3.19
IEJ01_11585	NP_465737.1	-	lmo2213	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo2213	4.27	3.16
IEJ01_07465	NP_464951.1	<i>opuCC</i>	lmo1426	SigB	glycine/betaine ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	5.43	3.07
IEJ01_00670	NP_463667.1	-	lmo0134	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0134	5.30	2.76
IEJ01_12965	NP_465986.1	-	lmo2463	SigB	multidrug transporter	6.70	2.68
IEJ01_02335	NP_463983.1	-	lmo0454	-	hypothetical protein lmo0454	4.74	2.54
IEJ01_03105	NP_464135.1	-	lmo0608	-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	6.16	2.54
IEJ01_07445	NP_464947.1	-	lmo1422	SigB	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	6.59	2.50
IEJ01_04045	NP_464323.1	-	lmo0796	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0796	8.22	2.49
IEJ01_01390	NP_463796.1	-	lmo0265	SigB	succinyl-diaminopimelate desuccinylase	5.00	2.41
IEJ01_03985	NP_464311.1	-	lmo0784	SigB	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIB	4.70	2.39
IEJ01_03395	NP_464192.1	-	lmo0665	-	hypothetical protein lmo0665	5.60	2.37
IEJ01_04155	NP_464345.1	-	lmo0818	-	cation-transporting ATPase	5.40	2.35
IEJ01_08935	NP_465219.1	-	lmo1694	SigB	CDP-abequose synthase	5.61	2.34
IEJ01_13525	NP_466096.1	-	lmo2573	SigB	zinc-binding dehydrogenase	6.02	2.31
IEJ01_02115	NP_463940.1	-	lmo0411	-	phosphoenolpyruvate synthase	7.49	2.30
IEJ01_02960	NP_464107.1	-	lmo0579	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0579	6.43	2.26
IEJ01_01435	NP_463805.1	-	lmo0274	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0274	6.38	2.07
IEJ01_02640	NP_464043.1	-	lmo0515	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0515	4.89	1.99
IEJ01_08000	NP_465057.1	<i>ruvB</i>	lmo1532	-	Holliday junction DNA helicase RuvB	4.85	1.91
IEJ01_03340	NP_464181.1	-	lmo0654	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo0654	3.71	1.88
IEJ01_12755	NP_465944.1	-	lmo2421	-	two-component sensor histidine kinase	5.57	1.88
IEJ01_03865	NP_464287.1	-	lmo0760	-	hypothetical protein lmo0760	3.17	1.63
IEJ01_02760	NP_464067.1	-	lmo0539	SigB	tagatose 1,6-diphosphate aldolase	3.42	1.48

Table S4.3: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15EV1 over wild type

Protein IDs	Protein product	Gene	Locus tag	Regulon	Product	$-\log_{10}$ P value	log ratio
IEJ01_08375	NP_465131.1	-	lmo1606	sigB	DNA translocase	5.97	-2.25
IEJ01_14350	NP_466238.1	<i>cydC</i>	lmo2716	-	ABC transporter	5.01	-2.21
IEJ01_06615	NP_464782.1	-	lmo1257	-	hypothetical protein lmo1257	10.09	2.74
IEJ01_09215	NP_465274.1	-	lmo1749	-	shikimate kinase	5.39	2.02
IEJ01_06660	NP_464791.1	-	lmo1266	-	hypothetical protein lmo1266	6.10	1.98
IEJ01_01400	NP_463798.1	-	lmo0267	-	hypothetical protein lmo0267	6.93	1.81
IEJ01_08250	NP_465107.1	-	lmo1582	-	hypothetical protein lmo1582	3.61	1.77
IEJ01_13180	NP_466028.1	<i>spl</i>	lmo2505	-	peptidoglycan lytic protein P45	6.70	1.70
IEJ01_14455	NP_466259.1	-	lmo2737	-	LacI family transcriptional regulator	6.92	1.44
IEJ01_03915	NP_464297.1	-	lmo0770	-	LacI family transcriptional regulator	5.16	1.43

Table S4.4: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15EV2 over wild type

Protein IDs	Protein product	Gene	Locus tag	Regulon	Product	$-\log$ P-value	log ratio
IEJ01_04915	NP_464490.1	-	lmo0965	-	hypothetical protein lmo0965	6.02	-1.81
IEJ01_06615	NP_464782.1	-	lmo1257	-	hypothetical protein lmo1257	4.59	2.61
IEJ01_02935	NP_464102.1	-	lmo0574	-	beta-glucosidase	5.61	2.43
IEJ01_04655	NP_464439.1	-	lmo0913	SigB	succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase	6.65	2.30
IEJ01_14510	NP_466270.1	-	lmo2748	SigB	hypothetical protein lmo2748	5.21	2.19
IEJ01_04155	NP_464345.1	-	lmo0818	-	cation-transporting ATPase	6.48	2.18
IEJ01_09625	NP_465353.1	-	lmo1828	-	hypothetical protein lmo1828	4.72	2.06
IEJ01_03445	NP_464202.1	-	lmo0675	flagella_1	hypothetical protein lmo0675	7.53	2.05
IEJ01_07475	NP_464953.1	<i>opuCA</i>	lmo1428	SigB	glycine/betaine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	5.50	2.02
IEJ01_03615	NP_464236.1	-	lmo0709	-	hypothetical protein lmo0709	4.02	1.98
IEJ01_08250	NP_465107.1	-	lmo1582	-	hypothetical protein lmo1582	4.82	1.96
IEJ01_07170	NP_464893.1	<i>recN</i>	lmo1368	-	DNA repair protein	5.24	1.92
IEJ01_09235	NP_465278.1	-	lmo1753	-	lipid kinase	7.33	1.91
IEJ01_03680	NP_464249.1	-	lmo0722	SigB	pyruvate oxidase	4.95	1.86
IEJ01_07825	NP_465023.1	-	lmo1498	-	O-methyltransferase	5.29	1.84
IEJ01_06660	NP_464791.1	-	lmo1266	-	hypothetical protein lmo1266	8.12	1.84
IEJ01_12275	NP_465867.1	-	lmo2344	-	hypothetical protein lmo2344	4.27	1.82
IEJ01_08705	NP_465197.1	<i>menE</i>	lmo1672	-	O-succinylbenzoic acid--CoA ligase	4.83	1.79
IEJ01_00260	NP_463585.1	-	lmo0052	-	hypothetical protein lmo0052	3.83	1.72
IEJ01_07925	NP_465042.1	-	lmo1517	-	nitrogen regulatory PII protein	4.13	1.61
IEJ01_03865	NP_464287.1	-	lmo0760	-	hypothetical protein lmo0760	4.53	1.14

Table S4.5: Maximum growth rates of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variants and constructed mutants.

Strain	Maximum growth rate	SD
LO28 WT	1.07	0.01
LO28 Variant 15	0.78	0.05
LO28 15EV1	1.04	0.03
LO28 15EV2	0.92	0.03
LO28 RpsUArg17Pro	0.82	0.03
LO28 RpsUArg17His	1.03	0.03
LO28 RpsUArg17Thr	0.96	0.03
EGDe WT	1.1	0.02
EGDe RpsUArg17Pro	0.86	0.01



Figure S4.1: Predicted turn in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 RpsU. Secondary structure of the RpsU protein as predicted by the Chou and Fasman secondary structure prediction server (<http://www.biogem.org/tool/chou-fasman/>). The turn predicted by insertion of a proline residue at position 17 is shown in blue.

5

Ribosomal mutations enable a switch between high fitness and high stress resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes*

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Abstract

Multiple stress resistant variants of *Listeria monocytogenes* with mutations in *rpsU* encoding ribosomal protein RpsU have previously been isolated after a single exposure to acid stress. These variants, including *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 with a complete deletion of the *rpsU* gene, showed upregulation of the general stress sigma factor Sigma B-mediated stress resistance, and had a lower maximum specific growth rate than the LO28 WT, signifying a trade-off between stress resistance and fitness. In the current work we have subjected variant 14 to an experimental evolution regime, selecting for higher fitness in two parallel evolving cultures. This resulted in two evolved variants with WT-like fitness: 14EV1 and 14EV2. Comparative analysis of growth performance, acid and heat stress resistance, in combination with proteomics and RNA-sequencing, indicated that in both lines reversion to WT-like fitness also resulted in WT-like stress sensitivity, due to lack of Sigma B-activated stress defence. Notably, genotyping of 14EV1 and 14EV2 provided evidence for unique point-mutations in the ribosomal *rpsB* gene causing amino acid substitutions at the same position in RpsB, resulting in RpsB^{22Arg-His} and RpsB^{22Arg-Ser}, respectively. Combined with data obtained with constructed RpsB^{22Arg-His} and RpsB^{22Arg-Ser} mutants in the variant 14 background, we provide evidence that loss of function of RpsU resulting in the multiple stress resistant and reduced fitness phenotype, can be reversed by single point mutations in *rpsB* leading to arginine substitutions in RpsB at position 22 into histidine or serine, resulting in WT-like high fitness and low stress resistance phenotype. This demonstrates the impact of genetic changes in *L. monocytogenes*' ribosomes on fitness and stress resistance.

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is a foodborne pathogen that can cause the infrequent but deadly disease listeriosis (Toledo-Arana et al., 2009). *L. monocytogenes* is generally considered to be a robust microorganism, capable of growing in and surviving a wide range of adverse conditions such as low pH, low temperature and low a_w (NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016). Microbial populations are innately heterogenous, which contributes to the spread of *L. monocytogenes* in different environmental niches, from soil to man (Abee et al., 2016; Maury et al., 2016). When a population of cells is exposed to stress, population heterogeneity can lead to the differential survival of a subset of cells, resulting in tailing of the inactivation curve. Previously, Metselaar et al. (2015) described stress resistant *L. monocytogenes* variants, acquired after a single exposure to acid stress, with a mutation in the ribosomal *rpsU* gene, encoding small ribosomal protein 21. Additional genotypic and phenotypic studies focussed on variant 14 with a deletion that covers the entire *rpsU* gene, as well as *yqeY* and half of *phoH*; and on variant 15 that harbours a point mutation in *rpsU* resulting in an amino acid substitution from arginine to proline in the RpsU protein, RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} (Koomen et al., 2018). Gene expression data of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wildtype (WT) and multiple-stress resistant variants 14 and 15 revealed an upregulation of 116 genes (Koomen et al., 2018), including a large fraction of genes controlled by the alternative stress sigma factor SigB, which are known to be involved in providing multiple-stress resistance (Liu et al., 2019).

In a follow-up study (Koomen et al., 2021), we subjected *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 15, with its single RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} point mutation, to an experimental evolution protocol where we selected for increased fitness, defined as a higher maximum specific growth rate (μ_{max}) compared to variant 15. Both evolved variants fixed mutations in *rpsU* (resulting in RpsU^{17Pro-His} and RpsU^{17Pro-Thr}), and reverted back to WT-like high maximum specific growth rate and relative low stress resistance. The potentially disruptive effect of random insertion of a proline residue is known to alter the stability or function of proteins (Chou and Fasman, 1974). Consequently, we hypothesized that replacing the putative disruptive proline at position 17 in *L. monocytogenes* variant 15 with amino acids that do not have such strong disruptive effects, i.e., threonine or histidine, can restore WT-like functioning of the RpsU protein with originally an arginine at position 17. This was confirmed by targeted mutants in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 and type strain EGDe, showing that single amino acid substitutions in RpsU enabled *L. monocytogenes* to switch between high fitness-low stress

resistance and low fitness-high stress resistance.

This raised the follow-up question whether and how variant 14 could switch between low fitness-high stress resistance and high fitness-low stress resistance, since the whole *rpsU* gene is deleted and thus the known route to WT-like fitness and stress sensitivity via a single point mutation in *rpsU* is effectively blocked. Therefore, in the current study we subjected variant 14 to an experimental evolution regime and used a complementary genotypic, proteomic and phenotypic approach to evaluate how ribosomal mutations in *L. monocytogenes* enable a switch between fitness and stress resistance.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

Listeria monocytogenes LO28 wild type (WT) from the strain collection of Wageningen Food & Biobased Research, The Netherlands, and stress resistant ancestor variant 14 (Koomen et al., 2018; Metselaar et al., 2013), and evolved variants (this study) were used for all genotypic, proteomic and phenotypic analyses. All cultures were grown as described elsewhere (Metselaar et al., 2013). In brief, cells from -80°C stocks were incubated at 30°C for 48 hours on brain heart infusion (BHI, Oxoid, Hampshire), supplemented with agar (1.5 % [w/w], bacteriological agar no. 1 Oxoid, Hampshire). A single colony was used for inoculation of 20 ml of BHI broth in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask (Fisher, USA). After overnight (ON, 18-22 hours) growth at 30°C under shaking at 160 rpm, (Innova 42, New Brunswick Scientific, Edison, NJ) 0.5% (v/v) inoculum was added to fresh BHI broth. Cells were grown under constant shaking at 160 rpm in BHI at 30°C until the late-exponential growth phase ($OD_{600} = 0.4-0.5$).

Experimental evolution

Experimental evolution was performed as described in Koomen et al. (2021). Briefly, we inoculated two parallel lines with 1% (v/v) of ON culture of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 in 20 ml BHI broth in 100 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. The cultures were then incubated for 24 hours at 20°C with continuous shaking at 160 rpm (Innova 42, New Brunswick Scientific, Edison, NJ). For each parallel line, 44 consecutive transfers were made from 24 hours-cultures, where 1% (v/v) inoculum was used to inoculate fresh BHI, resulting in about 290 generations for each of the two evolution lines. From every second transfer, a 700 µl culture sample was taken, mixed with glycerol (Sigma, 25% v/v final concentration), flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C, resulting in 22 stocks for both evolution lines. These

stocks were revived by streaking on BHI-agar plates, from which a single colony was used to inoculate 20 ml of BHI broth in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask. After ON culturing at 30°C with shaking at 160 rpm, the culture was diluted 100,000 times in fresh BHI broth, and 200 µl of culture was inoculated in duplicate in wells of a honeycomb plate. The plate was incubated in a Bioscreen C (Oy growth Curves AB Ltd, Helsinki, Finland) at 30°C and the respective growth curves were determined by measuring OD₆₀₀ over time. All growth experiments were performed with biologically independent triplicates. Stock number 14 of the first evolution line and stock number 22 of the second evolution line were streaked on BHI agar, and respective single colonies were selected to prepare -80°C stocks of 14EV1 and 14EV2.

Estimation of μ_{\max}

The maximum specific growth rate μ_{\max} (h⁻¹) was determined at 30°C for the two evolved strains (14EV1 and 14EV2), variant 14 and the *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT, following the procedure as described previously by (Biesta-Peters et al., 2010), and Koomen et al. (2021). This method is based on the time-to-detection (TTD) of five serially diluted cultures of which the initial bacterial concentration is known. In this setup μ_{\max} equals $\ln(2)/\text{generation time}$ (i.e., $\mu_{\max} = 1$ represents a generation (doubling) time of approximately 0.7 h, or 42 minutes). Three biologically independent experiments were performed to estimate the mean and standard deviation of μ_{\max} .

Inactivation kinetics at low pH

Acid inactivation experiments were performed as described previously (Metselaar et al., 2013). Briefly, 100 ml of late-exponential phase culture was pelleted in a fixed-angle rotor (5804 R, Eppendorf) for 5 minutes at 2,880 x g. Pellets were washed using 10 ml BHI broth, and pelleted again at 5 min at 2,880 x g. The pellet was resuspended in 1 ml PPS that was pre-warmed to 37°C and adjusted to pH 3.0 using 10 M of HCl, and placed in a 100 ml Erlenmeyer flask in a shaking water bath at 37°C. At appropriate time intervals, samples were taken, decimally diluted in BHI broth and plated on BHI agar using an Eddy Jet spiral plater (Eddy Jet, IUL S.A.) Plates were incubated at 30°C for 4 to 6 days for full recovery of damaged cells. Data of at least three biologically independent experiments were used for analysis.

Inactivation kinetics at high temperature

Heat inactivation experiments were performed as described before (Metselaar et al., 2015). Briefly, 400 μ l of late-exponential phase culture was added to 40 ml of fresh BHI broth that was pre-heated to $55^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 0.3^{\circ}\text{C}$. For the determination of the initial microbial concentration, a separate Erlenmeyer with BHI at room temperature was used. Samples were taken after various timepoints, and were decimally diluted in Peptone Physiological Salt (PPS). Appropriate dilutions were plated on BHI agar using an Eddy Jet spiral plater and incubated at 30°C for 4-6 days. Combined data of at least three biologically independent experiments were used for analysis.

Proteomic analysis

Proteomic analysis was performed on late-exponentially growing cells (OD_{600} between 0.4-0.5) of variant 14 and evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 as described before (Koomen et al., 2021). Briefly, 2 ml of late-exponentially growing cells (OD_{600} of 0.4-0.5) cultures of the LO28 WT, variant 14 and evolved 14EV1 and 14EV2 were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored. Samples were, thawed on ice, pelleted at $17,000 \times g$, and subsequently washed twice with 100 mM Tris (pH 8). Resuspended pellets were sonicated and samples were prepared according to the filter assisted sample preparation protocol (FASP) (Wiśniewski et al., 2009). Each prepared peptide sample was analysed by injecting (18 μ l) into a nanoLC-MS/MS (Thermo nLC1000 connected to an LTQ-Orbitrap XL) as described previously (Lu et al., 2011; Wendrich et al., 2017). nLC-MSMS system quality was checked with PTXQC (Bielow et al., 2016) using the MaxQuant result files. LCMS data with all MS/MS spectra were analysed with the MaxQuant quantitative proteomics software package (Cox et al., 2014) as described before (Smaczniak et al., 2012; Wendrich et al., 2017). Filtering and further bioinformatics and statistical analysis of the MaxQuant ProteinGroups file was performed with Perseus. Proteins were considered Differentially Expressed (DE) if the \log_{10} transformed ratio of variant over WT (\log_{10} ratio) was below -1 or above 1, with a negative \log_{10} transformed Benjamini–Hochberg corrected P value ($-\log_{10}$ P value) above 2. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE (Vizcaíno et al., 2016) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD022732.

SNP analysis of evolved variants

Ancestor variant 14 and evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 obtained in the evolution experiment were sequenced using Illumina chemistry as described before (Koomen et al., 2021). Briefly, cells were pelleted, and resuspended in 450 μ l DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo Research) at 4°C until DNA extraction. The DNA was extracted by BaseClear (Leiden, the Netherlands) and paired-end 2 \times 150bp short-reads were generated using a Nextera XT library preparation (Illumina). A NovaSeq 6000 system (Illumina) was used to generate paired-end reads. Raw reads were trimmed and de novo assembled using CLC Genomics Workbench v 10.0 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). SNIPPY 3.2 (Seemann, T 2015), and Pilon using the "--changes" argument (Walker et al., 2014) were used for SNP analysis of evolved variants against the LO28 WT as reference.

Mutant construction

Mutant strains 14RpsB^{22Arg-His} and 14RpsB^{22Arg-Ser} were constructed in the variant 14 genetic background using the temperature sensitive suicide plasmid pAULA (Chakraborty et al., 1992). The *rpsB* gene from either variant 14EV1 or 14EV2 was amplified from genomic DNA by KAPA HiFi Hotstart ReadyMix (KAPA Biosystems, USA), using the primers listed in Supplementary Table S5.1. The resulting fragments were ligated in frame to the pAULA multiple cloning site via EcoR1 and Sal1 restriction that were introduced to the fragments by the respective primers. The resulting plasmid was electroporated (2.5 kV, 25 μ F, 200 Ω), in a 0.2 cm cuvette using a BIO-RAD GenePulser, to the appropriate *L. monocytogenes* cells, and plated on BHI agar at 30°C with 5 μ g/ml erythromycin to select for transformants.

Two erythromycin resistant colonies per construct were inoculated in separate tubes in BHI broth supplemented with 5 μ g/ml erythromycin and grown overnight at 42°C to select for plasmid integration. Selected strains resulting from a single cross-over integration event were grown overnight in BHI at 30°C to induce double crossover events and were subsequently plated at 30°C. Resulting colonies were replica plated on BHI with and without 5 μ g/ml erythromycin and incubated at 30°C. Colonies sensitive to erythromycin were selected. PCR using the primers listed in Supplementary Table S5.1 and subsequent DNA sequencing of the products (BaseClear B.V. Leiden, The Netherlands) of erythromycin sensitive colonies confirmed the correct point mutation in the respective genes and the lack of additional mutations in the targeted region.

RNA-sequencing

Total RNA was isolated from late-exponentially growing cells (OD_{600} between 0.4-0.5) of variant 14 and evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2. Briefly, 100 ml of late-exponential phase culture was pelleted for 1 min at room temperature (RT) at $11,000 \times g$ in a fixed-angle rotor (5804 R, Eppendorf). The pellet was resuspended in TRI-reagent (Ambion) in a beat-beater tube (lysing agent A) by vortexing and tubes were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen until use. Cells were disrupted using a beat-beater (MP Fast Prep-24, MP Biomedicals GmbH, Eschwege, Germany) set at 6 m/s for 4 times 20 seconds with two minutes of intermittent air cooling per cycle. Twenty percent of the starting volume of chloroform was added, mixed and incubated at RT for 10 min. Subsequently, samples were centrifuged at $17,000 \times g$ and 4°C for 15 min. The upper aqueous phase (approximately 700 μl) was transferred to an RNase free Eppendorf tube, where 600 μl of isopropanol was added, mixed and incubated at RT for 10 min. Next, the samples were centrifuged at $17,000 \times g$ and 4°C for 15 min. The pellet was washed with 700 μl of ice-cold 75% ethanol, after which the pellet was centrifuged again at $17,000 \times g$ for 5 min at 4°C . The pellet was resuspended in 90 μl of nuclease-free water and incubated at 60°C for 2 minutes to finalize RNA isolation. RNA integrity was checked using gel electrophoresis, after which the RNA was stored by adding 0.1 volume of 3M sodium acetate at pH 5.2 with 2.5 volumes of ethanol absolute, and kept at -80°C . Before shipping the samples were centrifuges at $13,000 \times g$ and 4°C for 10 minutes, and the supernatant was removed. The pellet was washed with 80% ethanol, and centrifuged again at $13,000 \times g$ and 4°C for 10 minutes. After removal of the supernatant and air drying, the RNA was dissolved in 90 μl of nuclease-free water, and shipped on dry ice. Ribo-Zero rRNA depletion, and the generation of paired-end reads using a MiSeq system was done by BaseClear B.V. (Leiden, The Netherlands). QC and read mapping against the LO28 reference genome (NCBI accession: PRJNA664298) was performed via in-house methods, by BaseClear. Counting of reads was done by htseq-count (version 0.11.1) (Anders et al., 2015). Differential expression (DE) analysis was performed using the DEseq2 package (version 1.24.0) in the statistical programming language R (version 3.6.0). Genes were considered DE if \log_2 Fold Change ($\log_2\text{FC}$) was below -1.58 or above 1.58, with a Benjamini–Hochberg corrected P value below 0.01.

Statistical testing

Hypothesis testing, comparing respective μ_{\max} and log microbial counts, was performed in the statistical programming language R (version 3.6.0) using the `t.test()` and `var.test()` functions.

Results

Growth kinetics of evolved variants

The experimental evolution regime was set up using two parallel cultures of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14. After 28 and 44 daily transfers, implicating ~ 186 and ~ 292 generations, respectively, this regime resulted in the selection of two evolved variants, 14EV1 and 14EV2, that showed different growth kinetics compared to the ancestor variant 14 (Figure 5.1a). The μ_{\max} of both evolved variants was significantly higher than that of variant 14, but just significantly lower than the μ_{\max} of the original LO28 WT strain (Figure 5.1b). This indicated that the fitness of the evolved variants was increased compared to the ancestor variant 14 and almost similar to that of the WT strain.

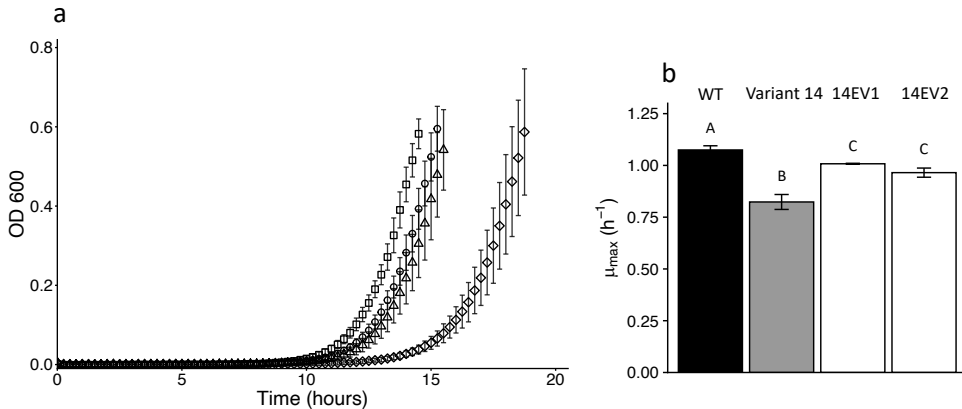


Figure 5.1: Growth performance of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 14, 14EV1, and 14EV2 (a) growth curves for LO28 WT (squares), variant 14 (diamonds), 14EV1 (circles), and 14EV2 (triangles), (b) Maximum specific growth rates (μ_{\max}) for *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 14, 14EV1, and 14EV2. Different capital letters show statistically significant differences.

Multiple-stress resistance of evolved variants

Since the evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 showed increased fitness, we compared their heat and acid stress resistance to that of variant 14 (Figure 5.2). In the heat stress experiments (Figure 5.2a), variant 14 started with approximately 6.8 log cfu/ml, and showed little inactivation after 20 minutes of exposure, with a concentration of around 6 log cfu/ml. In contrast, after 20 minutes of exposure the concentrations of both evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 decreased and were not significantly different from the LO28 WT strain with concentrations of around 2.5 log cfu/ml. For acid stress experiments (Figure 5.2b), variant 14 again only showed a small (< 1.0 log cfu/ml) decrease in cell counts after 20 minutes, while both evolved variants and also the LO28 WT strain showed more than 5 log cfu/ml reduction after 20 minutes. These data indicated that both evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 lost their high resistance to heat stress and acid stress when compared to variant 14.

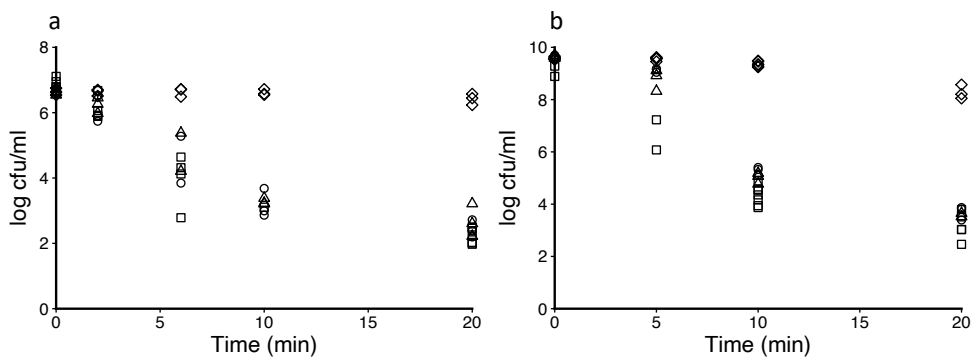


Figure 5.2: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 14, 14EV1, and 14EV2 after exposure to heat (55°C) (a) or acid stress (pH 3.0) (b). The wild type is represented by squares, variant 14 by diamonds, and variants 14EV1 and 14EV2, are represented by circles and triangles respectively.

Proteomic analysis of WT and variants 14, 14EV1, and 14EV2

Comparative analysis of proteomes of late-exponential phase cells of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 14 and evolved variants 14EV1 and 14EV2 showed significant differences for variant 14 compared to WT, and evolved (Figure 5.3). The proteomics analysis revealed that 28 proteins were significantly higher expressed in variant 14 compared to LO28 WT, of which 27 proteins belonged to the SigB regulon (Figure 5.3). Upregulated proteins included the general stress marker Ctc (lmo0211) (Ferreira et al., 2004; Kazmierczak et al., 2003;

Oliver et al., 2010; Raengpradub et al., 2008), and subunits of the known OpuC glycine betaine osmolyte transporter, OpuCA (lmo1428) and OpuCC (lmo1426). SigB (lmo0895) itself was upregulated, but did not pass the stringent cut-off values applied to the proteomics data (>1 or $<-1 \log_{10}$ FC, with adjusted $-\log_{10}(P) < 2$). See supplementary Table S5.2-S5.4 for a full overview.

Comparative proteome analysis identified in total 16 proteins that were downregulated in variant 14 compared to the WT. In line with previously obtained gene expression data and the non-motile phenotype of variant 14 (Koomen et al., 2018), 7 of these 16 downregulated proteins are involved in motility and chemotaxis, such as MotA (lmo0685), MotB (lmo0686), CheA (lmo0692), and chemotaxis response regulators CheY (lmo0691), and CheV (lmo0689). Notably, RsbS (lmo0890), one of the main components of the stressosome “signal integration hub” (Guerreiro et al., 2020) was approximately 67-fold downregulated (\log_{10} FC -1.83, adjusted $-\log(P) > 2$) in variant 14 compared to the WT, 14EV1 and 14EV2 (see supplementary Table S5.7).

These results indicated that in line with the return to WT-like growth kinetics of 14EV1 and 14EV2, the proteomic profiles of the two evolved variants were highly similar to that of the WT. Only four and five proteins were differentially expressed in 14EV1 and 14EV2 compared to the WT, respectively, including one protein that is part of the SigB regulon, lmo0110; lipase) (see Figure 5.3, and supplementary Tables S5.3-S5.4).

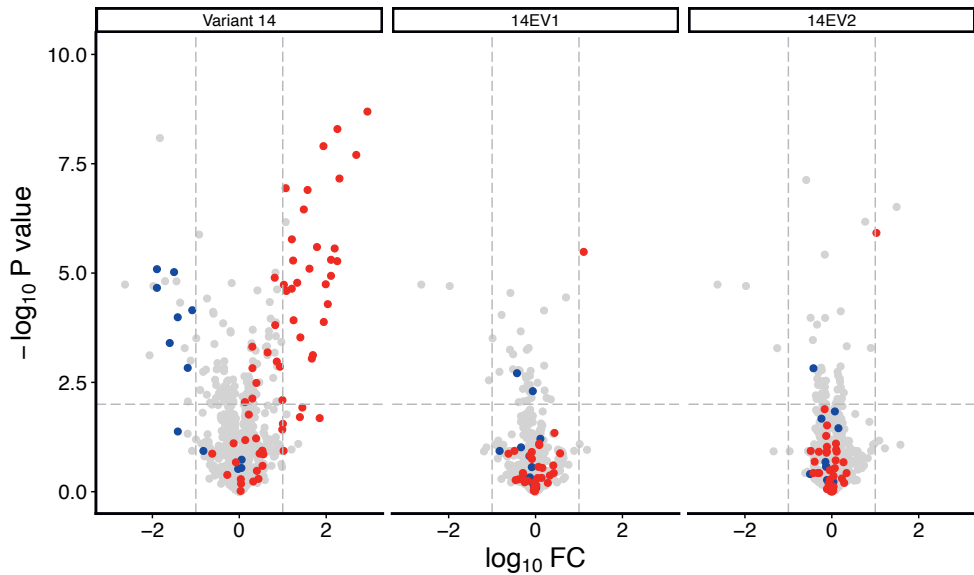


Figure 5.3: Volcano plot of significantly differentially abundant proteins of *L. monocytogenes* variant 14, 14EV1, and 14EV2 compared to the wild type. The $-\log_{10}$ (Benjamini–Hochberg corrected P value) is plotted against the \log_{10} FC (fold change: Variant over WT). Horizontal dotted line represents the cutoff for $-\log_{10}(P)$, vertical dotted lines represent \log_{10} (fold change) cutoff. Red dots indicate proteins regulated by SigB; blue dots indicate proteins involved in motility. The expression of individual proteins is listed in Tables S1 - S3.

RNAseq data were line with the observed differences in proteomes of ancestor variant 14 compared to that of the WT, 14EV1 and 14EV2. Due to the higher sensitivity of our RNA-seq approach, we found 106 genes belonging to the SigB regulon as significantly upregulated in variant 14 when compared to the WT (supplementary Table S5.5-S5.7). This is in line with the 70% upregulation of the SigB regulon we reported previously based on DNA-micro array data (Koomen et al., 2018). The upregulated genes included of all *opuCABCD* genes, (Imo1425-1428), glutamate decarboxylase (Imo2434), and *spxA* (ArsC family transcriptional regulator (Imo2191). Other genes considered upregulated in the RNA-seq analyses included the virulence regulator *prfA* (Imo0200), and *inIA* (Imo0433) and *inIB* (Imo0434) that encode internalin A and B involved in human epithelial cell adhesion. Genes *sigB* and *rsbX*, (serine

phosphatase; indirect negative regulation of sigma B dependent gene expression) were upregulated in variant 14, but not in WT and in 14EV1 and 14EV2 (see supplementary Table S5.8 for an overview of differentially expressed genes in the stressosome). In addition, for variant 14, both RNA-seq and proteome analysis indicate (slight) upregulation of anti-anti sigma factor *rsbV* (Imo0893) and *rsbX* (Imo0896) (see Supplementary Tables S7 and S8). Notably, the RNAseq analyses did not show a significant difference in expression of *rsbS* between the four strains. This suggests that the observed low RsbS level in variant 14 is due to posttranslational regulation (supplementary Table S5.8).

Whole genome sequencing of 14EV1 and 14EV2

Since variant 14 lacks the *rpsU* gene, single or multiple compensatory mutations could be expected in 14EV1 and 14EV2. Strikingly, whole genome sequencing of 14EV1 and 14EV2 revealed that both evolved lines only fixed a single nonsynonymous mutation. Both evolved variants fixed this mutation in another ribosomal protein, ribosomal protein S2 (RpsB). In the *rpsB* gene of line 14EV1, the Guanine on position 65 mutated to Adenine (codon CGT to CAT), leading to an amino acid change from Arginine to Histidine on position 22 of RpsB (RpsB^{22Arg-His}), while in 14EV2, the Cytosine on position 64 (codon CGT to AGT) mutated into Adenine, resulting in a substitution from Arginine to Serine in codon 22 resulting in RpsB^{22Arg-Ser}. Proteomic analysis revealed no significant shifts in the levels of RpsB in variant 14 compared to WT, and also no significant shifts were observed in the levels of RpsB^{22Arg-His} and RpsB^{22Arg-Ser} in the evolved variants compared to the WT. Combining these results suggests that short term evolution experiments selecting for enhanced fitness, resulted in the isolation of 14EVs with mutations in *rpsB* to compensate for reduced fitness resulting from the loss of *rpsU*.

Fitness and stress resistance of constructed mutants

To assess the effect of the substitutions that were selected during experimental evolution, we introduced RpsB^{22Arg-His} and RpsB^{22Arg-Ser} into the variant 14 genetic background. We measured μ_{max} as a proxy for fitness, and found that both constructed mutants of variant 14 had indeed a maximum specific growth rate that was significantly higher than that of variant 14. With that of variant 14 carrying the RpsB^{22Arg-His} mutation significantly lower than that of LO28 WT (P <0.001), while that of variant 14 carrying RpsB^{22Arg-Ser} was not significantly different from the LO28 WT (Figure 5.4). Subsequently, we tested the stress response of these constructed mutants, by exposure to heat (55°C, Figure 5.5a), and acid

stress (pH 3, Figure 5.5b). As expected, both constructed mutants were significantly less resistant to heat and acid stress after 20 minutes of exposure compared to variant 14 ($P < 0.05$), although their resistance was still higher than LO28 WT at this timepoint.

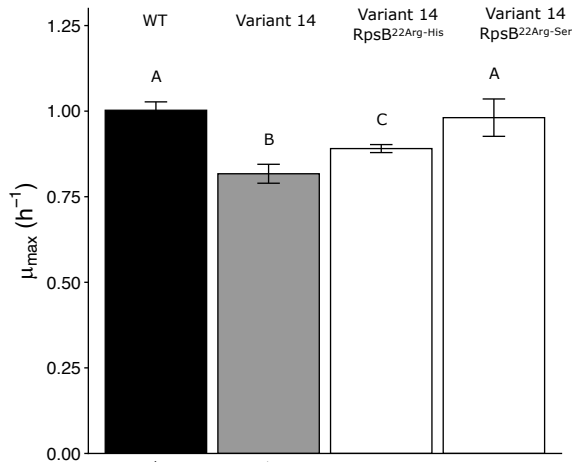


Figure 5.4: Maximum specific growth rates (μ_{max}) for *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, variant 14, and constructed mutants. Different capital letters show statistically significant differences.

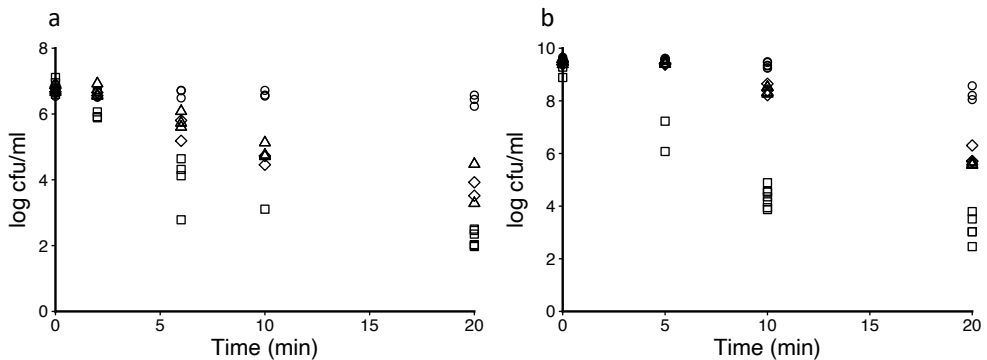


Figure 5.5: Survival of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, and constructed mutants, during heat (55°C) (a) or acid (pH 3.0) (b) stress. LO28 WT is represented by squares, variant 14 is represented by circles, mutant of variant 14 with $RpsB^{22Arg-His}$ is represented by triangles, mutant of variant 14 with $RpsB^{22Arg-Ser}$ is represented by diamonds.

Discussion

Previously, we described multiple stress resistance in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variants 14 and 15 after a single exposure to acid stress (Koomen et al., 2018). We linked stress resistance in variants 14 and 15 with a complete gene deletion, or point mutation in *rpsU* respectively, to induction of the SigB regulon, and showed the correlation between increased stress resistance and reduced fitness. By using experimental evolution to select for increased fitness in variant 15 in two parallel lines, we were previously able to show that this trade-off was reversible (although not fully) via point mutations in RpsU at the same location of the initial mutation: $RpsU^{17Pro-His}$ and $RpsU^{17Pro-Thr}$, respectively (Koomen et al., 2021). Here, we applied a similar experimental evolution approach using *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14, that has a complete deletion of *RpsU*, and by selecting for higher fitness in two parallel lines, we were able to select two evolved variants of variant 14 (14EV1, and 14EV2). Both evolved variants had higher fitness, lower stress resistance, severely reduced induction of SigB regulon members compared to variant 14, and fixed a single non-synonymous mutation in the ribosomal S2 gene (*rpsB*, lmo1658). Our RNA analysis indicated that both *sigB*, and *rsbX* were actively transcribed in variant 14. RsbX is a SigB regulated feedback phosphatase (Xia et al., 2016) and is thought to reset the stressosome after

induction, to prevent a positive feedback loop in the absence of a stress signal. In the current stressosome model (Williams et al., 2019), the phosphatase activator RsbT is released from the stressosome after phosphorylation of RsbS, and acts on the signaling cascade of RsbU, RsbV, RsbW, ending in the activation of SigB. The strong downregulation of RsbS in variant 14 suggests activation of the stressosome via the absence of RsbS. Moreover, in our whole genome sequencing of the evolved strains, we did not find (additional) mutations that resulted in premature stop codons within the genes of the *sigB* operon that positively regulate SigB activity, as previously described (Guerreiro et al., 2020a). These authors showed that such mutations leading to the loss of SigB function confer a competitive advantage manifested in an increased growth rate under conditions of sublethal heat stress, at 42°C, but not in non-stressed conditions.

The fact that in our study *L. monocytogenes* evolved variants with higher fitness originate from slow growing, multiple stress resistant variant 14 under non-stressed conditions, while no mutation(s) were found within genes of the SigB operon, suggests that the apparent activation of SigB regulon in variant 14 and loss of SigB regulon activation in EV1 and EV2, originates from alterations in ribosome functioning.

One of the stresses that can induce SigB and its operon, is nutrient stress. In addition, nutritional stress can indirectly effect ribosome functioning through uncharged tRNA's, leading to the stringent response via RelA (Taylor et al., 2002). Notably, we find significant upregulation of genes involved in metabolism of branched chain amino acids (BCAA) in variant 14. Although *relA* (lmo1523) is not differentially expressed in our RNA-seq or proteomics, activation of the indicated pathway may point to an interplay between the mutations in the *rpsU* and *rpsB* genes affecting ribosome functioning, linked to apparent stringency, and a stress signal leading to *sigB* activation. Nutrient stress-induced activation has been described for *L. monocytogenes*, but how the *L. monocytogenes* stressosome responds to metabolic stress is currently unknown (Guerreiro et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2019).

When assessing fitness and stress resistance of the constructed mutants (variant 14 RpsB^{Arg22His} and variant 14 RpsB^{Arg22Ser}), we found that WT stress sensitivity was not fully restored in the constructed mutants. Although no additional mutations were found in the sequenced genome, we cannot exclude the possibility of factors that are not detectable via Illumina DNA-sequencing to play a role, such as for example DNA methylation, that was

previously shown to affect translation initiation and elongation in *L. monocytogenes* (Wang et al. 2020), and modulation of protein functionality by (de)phosphorylation reactions including Rsb proteins constituting the stressosome, that orchestrates signal input for the activation of SigB (Guerreiro et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2019).

The role of individual small (S30) and large (S50) subunit ribosomal proteins in *L. monocytogenes* has not been studied, but due to high conservation of S70 ribosome functioning, possible effects of *rpsU* and *rpsB* mutations can be discussed based on structural and functional data in well studied bacteria, including *Escherichia coli*. In *E. coli*, ribosomal protein S21 (RpsU) is part of the so-called ribosomal platform, together with S6, S11, S15, and S18 (Held et al. 1970), that functions in the initial steps of the translation process. Ribosomal protein S2 (RpsB) and the adjacent S1 (RpsA) are connected to the platform region of the 30S ribosome, and are crucial in translation initiation (Duval et al., 2013; Marzi et al., 2007) and translation efficiency, which can vary over two orders of magnitude. (Espah Borujeni et al., 2014). The correct binding of RpsB to the 30S subunit is critical for the association of RpsA to the platform region and a fully competent 30S ribosome. This could indicate that partial reversion of the trade-off between growth and stress resistance in V14EV1 and V14EV2, carrying a compensatory mutation in RpsB, has a positive effect on binding of RpsA to the pre-initiation complex. Thereby enhancing translation efficiency, this presumably results in increased fitness and reduced triggering of the Sigma B stress response reflected in the WT-like phenotype of evolved variants. Whether the significant downregulation of the RsbS level in variant 14 versus WT and evolved variants is coupled with altered functioning of the S70 ribosome and stressosome-mediated SigB activation remains to be elucidated.

Here, we show that the apparent trade-off between increased stress resistance and lower fitness that has been described before in *L. monocytogenes* LO28 RpsU deletion mutant variant 14 and RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutant variant 15 (Abee et al., 2016; Koomen et al., 2018; Metselaar et al., 2015) can be reversed by compensatory mutations in *rpsB* and *rpsU*, respectively (Figure 5.6). Studies in yeast and higher eukaryotes have indicated that ribosomes may provide an additional layer of finetuning in protein expression in response to environmental factors (Gerst, 2018) However, the possibility of a dynamic ribosome, with shifts in ribosome composition and/or functionality of ribosomal proteins, via phosphorylation as a function of the environment, has mainly received attention in

eukaryotes (Genuth and Barna, 2018). The results presented the current study suggest that the 70S ribosome is involved in a signaling cascade to the stressosome. Alternatively, stressosome independent means of signal transduction cannot be excluded, as previous publications showed that even in the absence of RsbV, some SigB activation can occur under some growth conditions (Brigulla et al., 2003; Utratna et al., 2014). Further work is required to elucidate in more detail the underlying mechanisms of this signaling cascade and the components involved in S70 ribosome-induced modulation of *L. monocytogenes* fitness and stress resistance.

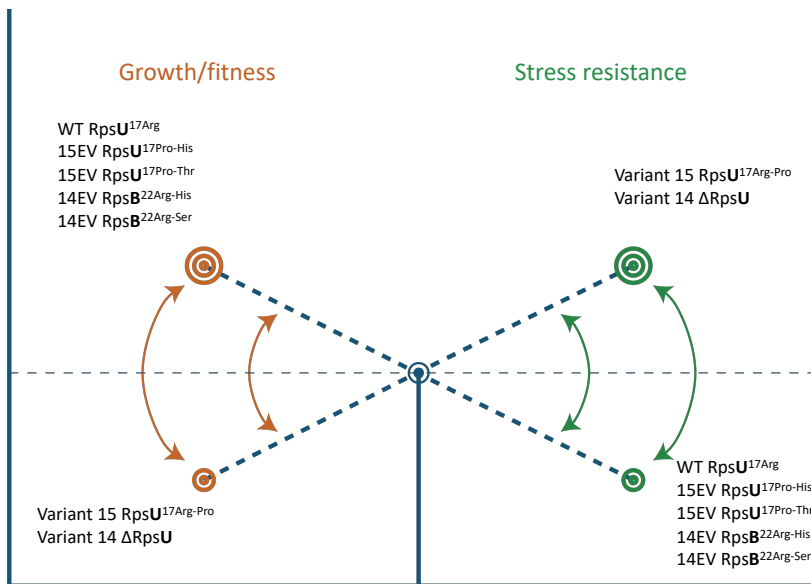


Figure 5.6: Ribosomal mutations enable a switch between high fitness and multiple-stress resistance.

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Supplementary material

Table S5.1: Primers used in construction of *rpsB* mutants
EcoR1 and Sall sites are indicated in bold

Direction	Gene	Sequence
Forward	<i>rpsB</i>	5'- TTAT GAATTC TTATGACAAGAGCGAGACACCAA- 3'
Reverse	<i>rpsB</i>	5'- ACTT GTCGACT AGCGTCAGCCATTTAGCAGTTA- '3

Table S5.2: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 variant 14 over wild type

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	EGDe	Locus	Product	$-\log_{10}$ P value	\log_{10} ratio
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	Imo1469		<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	4.74	-2.63
IEJ01_03685	NP_464250.1	Imo0723		-	methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	3.12	-2.06
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	Imo1468		-	hypothetical protein Imo1468	4.70	-1.98
IEJ01_03515	NP_464216.1	Imo0689		<i>CheV</i>	chemotaxis protein CheV	4.66	-1.90
IEJ01_03520	NP_464217.1	Imo0690		<i>flaA</i>	flagellin	5.09	-1.90
IEJ01_04515	NP_464416.1	Imo0890		<i>rsbS</i>	negative regulation of sigma-B activity	8.09	-1.83
IEJ01_04895	NP_464486.1	Imo0961		-	protease	4.81	-1.71
IEJ01_03490	NP_464211.1	Imo0684		-	hypothetical protein Imo0684	3.40	-1.60
IEJ01_03525	NP_464218.1	Imo0691		<i>cheY</i>	chemotaxis response regulator CheY	5.02	-1.50
IEJ01_04890	NP_464485.1	Imo0960		-	protease	4.81	-1.45
IEJ01_03495	NP_464212.1	Imo0685		<i>MotA</i>	flagellar motor protein MotA	3.99	-1.42
IEJ01_13505	NP_466092.1	Imo2569		-	peptide ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	4.32	-1.36
IEJ01_11125	NP_465650.1	Imo2126		-	maltogenic amylase	3.28	-1.26
IEJ01_03530	NP_464219.1	Imo0692		<i>cheA</i>	two-component sensor histidine kinase CheA	2.83	-1.19
IEJ01_03640	NP_464241.1	Imo0714		<i>fliG</i>	flagellar motor switch protein FliG	3.00	-1.12
IEJ01_03500	NP_464213.1	Imo0686		<i>motB</i>	flagellar motor rotation MotB	4.15	-1.08
IEJ01_04655	NP_464439.1	Imo0913		-	succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase	8.69	2.95
IEJ01_03415	NP_464196.1	Imo0669		-	oxidoreductase	7.70	2.69
IEJ01_11305	NP_465681.1	Imo2157		<i>sepa</i>	hypothetical protein Imo2157	7.16	2.31
IEJ01_03680	NP_464249.1	Imo0722		-	pyruvate oxidase	8.29	2.26
IEJ01_07475	NP_464953.1	Imo1428		<i>opuCA</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	5.27	2.26
IEJ01_14510	NP_466270.1	Imo2748		-	hypothetical protein Imo2748	5.56	2.20
IEJ01_11585	NP_465737.1	Imo2213		-	hypothetical protein Imo2213	5.30	2.11
IEJ01_09635	NP_465355.1	Imo1830		-	short-chain dehydrogenase	4.94	2.11
IEJ01_03340	NP_464181.1	Imo0654		-	hypothetical protein Imo0654	4.29	2.04
IEJ01_07970	NP_465051.1	Imo1526		-	hypothetical protein Imo1526	4.74	1.99
IEJ01_11545	NP_465729.1	Imo2205		-	phosphoglyceromutase	3.88	1.94
IEJ01_07465	NP_464951.1	Imo1426		<i>opuCC</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	7.90	1.94
IEJ01_12965	NP_465986.1	Imo2463		-	multidrug transporter	5.60	1.79
IEJ01_12600	NP_465914.1	Imo2391		-	hypothetical protein Imo2391	3.12	1.69
IEJ01_02760	NP_464067.1	Imo0539		-	tagatose 1,6-diphosphate aldolase	3.04	1.67
IEJ01_08935	NP_465219.1	Imo1694		-	CDP-abequose synthase	5.10	1.62
IEJ01_00670	NP_463667.1	Imo0134		-	hypothetical protein Imo0134	6.90	1.57
IEJ01_01390	NP_463796.1	Imo0265		-	succinyl-diaminopimelate desuccinylase	6.45	1.48
IEJ01_02960	NP_464107.1	Imo0579		-	hypothetical protein Imo0579	3.53	1.41
IEJ01_00550	NP_463643.1	Imo0110		-	lipase	4.78	1.33
IEJ01_13525	NP_466096.1	Imo2573		-	zinc-binding dehydrogenase	3.92	1.25
IEJ01_07445	NP_464947.1	Imo1422		-	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	5.29	1.24
IEJ01_03985	NP_464311.1	Imo0784		-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIB	5.77	1.21
IEJ01_00215	NP_463576.1	Imo0043		-	arginine deiminase	4.64	1.21
IEJ01_02640	NP_464043.1	Imo0515		-	hypothetical protein Imo0515	4.59	1.08
IEJ01_08600	NP_465176.1	Imo1651		-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	6.16	1.07
IEJ01_01435	NP_463805.1	Imo0274		-	hypothetical protein Imo0274	6.94	1.07
IEJ01_01045	NP_463742.1	Imo0211		<i>ctc</i>	50S ribosomal protein L25	4.73	1.03

Table S5.3: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 14EV1 over wild type

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	$-\log_{10}$ P value	\log_{10} ratio
IEJ01_00550	NP_463643.1	lmo0110	-	lipase	5.48	1.11
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	lmo1469	<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	4.74	-2.63
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	lmo1468	-	hypothetical protein lmo1468	4.70	-1.98
IEJ01_12355	NP_465883.1	lmo2360	-	transmembrane protein	2.55	-1.07

Table S5.4: Proteins above or below the cutoff in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 14EV1 over wild type

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	$-\log_{10}$ P value	\log_{10} ratio
IEJ01_06620	NP_464783.1	lmo1258	-	hypothetical protein lmo1258	6.51	1.49
IEJ01_00550	NP_463643.1	lmo0110	-	lipase	5.92	1.03
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	lmo1469	<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	4.74	-2.63
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	lmo1468	-	hypothetical protein lmo1468	4.70	-1.98
IEJ01_11125	NP_465650.1	lmo2126	-	maltogenic amylase	3.28	-1.26

Table S5.5 (1 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	\log_2 fold change
IEJ01_04465	NP_464406.1	lmo0880	-	wall associated protein precursor	0.000	9.70
IEJ01_05065	NP_464519.1	lmo0994	-	hypothetical protein lmo0994	0.000	8.59
IEJ01_04655	NP_464439.1	lmo0913	-	succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase	0.000	8.58
IEJ01_01380	NP_463794.1	lmo0263	<i>inhI</i>	internalin H	0.000	7.58
IEJ01_03045	NP_464124.1	lmo0596	-	hypothetical protein lmo0596	0.000	7.54
IEJ01_05070	NP_464520.1	lmo0995	-	hypothetical protein lmo0995	0.000	7.50
IEJ01_03420	NP_464197.1	lmo0670	-	hypothetical protein lmo0670	0.000	7.44
IEJ01_11865	NP_465793.2	lmo2269	-	hypothetical protein lmo2269	0.000	7.41
IEJ01_01390	NP_463796.1	lmo0265	-	succinyl-diaminopimelate desuccinylase	0.000	7.37
IEJ01_00665	NP_463666.1	lmo0133	-	hypothetical protein lmo0133	0.000	7.24
IEJ01_03415	NP_464196.1	lmo0669	-	oxidoreductase	0.000	7.23
IEJ01_14510	NP_466270.1	lmo2748	-	hypothetical protein lmo2748	0.000	7.20
IEJ01_07460	NP_464950.1	lmo1425	<i>opuCD</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	0.000	7.16
IEJ01_07465	NP_464951.1	lmo1426	<i>opuCC</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	7.04
IEJ01_11670	NP_465754.1	lmo2230	-	arsenate reductase	0.000	6.95
IEJ01_11585	NP_465737.1	lmo2213	-	hypothetical protein lmo2213	0.000	6.92
IEJ01_03075	NP_464129.1	lmo0602	-	transcriptional regulator	0.000	6.86
IEJ01_09635	NP_465355.1	lmo1830	-	short-chain dehydrogenase	0.000	6.77
IEJ01_11305	NP_465681.1	lmo2157	<i>sepA</i>	hypothetical protein lmo2157	0.000	6.67
IEJ01_08935	NP_465219.1	lmo1694	-	CDP-abequose synthase	0.000	6.67
IEJ01_07475	NP_464953.1	lmo1428	<i>opuCA</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	6.57
IEJ01_07470	NP_464952.1	lmo1427	<i>opuCB</i>	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	0.000	6.52
IEJ01_00095	NP_463552.1	lmo0019	-	hypothetical protein lmo0019	0.000	6.49
IEJ01_14255	NP_466219.1	lmo2697	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIA	0.000	6.43
IEJ01_11310	NP_465682.1	lmo2158	-	hypothetical protein lmo2158	0.000	6.36
IEJ01_14065	NP_466195.1	lmo2673	-	hypothetical protein lmo2673	0.000	6.28
IEJ01_04775	NP_464462.1	lmo0937	-	hypothetical protein lmo0937	0.000	6.19
IEJ01_03205	NP_464155.1	lmo0628	-	hypothetical protein lmo0628	0.000	6.18
IEJ01_00670	NP_463667.1	lmo0134	-	hypothetical protein lmo0134	0.000	6.01
IEJ01_10915	NP_465609.1	lmo2085	-	peptidoglycan binding protein	0.000	5.90
IEJ01_14250	NP_466218.1	lmo2696	-	dihydroxyacetone kinase	0.000	5.86
IEJ01_06525	NP_464766.1	lmo1241	-	hypothetical protein lmo1241	0.000	5.81
IEJ01_03680	NP_464249.1	lmo0722	-	pyruvate oxidase	0.000	5.71
IEJ01_04855	NP_464478.1	lmo0953	-	hypothetical protein lmo0953	0.000	5.66
IEJ01_01670	NP_463851.1	lmo0321	-	hypothetical protein lmo0321	0.000	5.57
IEJ01_02255	NP_463968.1	lmo0439	-	hypothetical protein lmo0439	0.000	5.48
IEJ01_02640	NP_464043.1	lmo0515	-	hypothetical protein lmo0515	0.000	5.45
IEJ01_13525	NP_466096.1	lmo2573	-	zinc-binding dehydrogenase	0.000	5.31

Table S5.5 continued (2 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_10820	NP_465591.1	lmo2067	-	bile acid hydrolase	0.000	5.30
IEJ01_03975	NP_464309.1	lmo0782	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIC	0.000	5.20
IEJ01_02250	NP_463967.1	lmo0438	-	hypothetical protein lmo0438	0.000	5.20
IEJ01_12600	NP_465914.1	lmo2391	-	hypothetical protein lmo2391	0.000	5.18
IEJ01_05700	NP_464665.1	lmo1140	-	hypothetical protein lmo1140	0.000	5.16
IEJ01_03970	NP_464308.1	lmo0781	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IID	0.000	5.08
IEJ01_14245	NP_466217.1	lmo2695	-	dihydroxyacetone kinase subunit DhAK	0.000	4.97
IEJ01_13515	NP_466094.1	lmo2571	-	nicotinamidase	0.000	4.91
IEJ01_13510	NP_466093.1	lmo2570	-	hypothetical protein lmo2570	0.000	4.86
IEJ01_04035	NP_464321.1	lmo0794	-	hypothetical protein lmo0794	0.000	4.83
IEJ01_03115	NP_464137.1	lmo0610	-	internalin	0.000	4.68
IEJ01_12820	NP_465957.1	lmo2434	-	glutamate decarboxylase	0.000	4.67
IEJ01_13520	NP_466095.1	lmo2572	-	dihydrofolate reductase subunit A	0.000	4.66
IEJ01_02285	NP_463974.1	lmo0445	-	transcriptional regulator	0.000	4.63
IEJ01_13710	NP_466125.1	lmo2602	-	hypothetical protein lmo2602	0.000	4.62
IEJ01_03980	NP_464310.1	lmo0783	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIB	0.000	4.60
IEJ01_02760	NP_464067.1	lmo0539	-	tagatose 1,6-diphosphate aldolase	0.000	4.58
IEJ01_11180	NP_465656.1	lmo2132	-	hypothetical protein lmo2132	0.000	4.52
IEJ01_07970	NP_465051.1	lmo1526	-	hypothetical protein lmo1526	0.000	4.43
IEJ01_12580	NP_465910.1	lmo2387	-	hypothetical protein lmo2387	0.000	4.38
IEJ01_00845	NP_463702.1	lmo0169	-	glucose transporter	0.000	4.36
IEJ01_03985	NP_464311.1	lmo0784	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIB	0.000	4.34
IEJ01_00215	NP_463576.1	lmo0043	-	arginine deiminase	0.000	4.22
IEJ01_07440	NP_464946.1	lmo1421	-	glycine/betaine ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	4.12
IEJ01_02225	NP_463962.1	lmo0433	<i>inlA</i>	internalin A	0.000	4.01
IEJ01_11675	NP_465755.1	lmo2231	-	hypothetical protein lmo2231	0.000	3.88
IEJ01_03010	NP_464117.1	lmo0589	-	hypothetical protein lmo0589	0.000	3.87
IEJ01_13130	NP_466018.1	lmo2495	-	phosphate ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	3.86
IEJ01_07445	NP_464947.1	lmo1422	-	glycine/betaine ABC transporter permease	0.000	3.85
IEJ01_00125	NP_463558.1	lmo0025	-	phosphoheptose isomerase	0.000	3.78
IEJ01_12640	NP_465921.1	lmo2398	<i>ltrC</i>	hypothetical protein lmo2398	0.000	3.77
IEJ01_07500	NP_464958.1	lmo1433	-	glutathione reductase	0.000	3.77
IEJ01_04645	NP_464437.1	lmo0911	-	hypothetical protein lmo0911	0.000	3.75
IEJ01_12965	NP_465986.1	lmo2463	-	multidrug transporter	0.000	3.72
IEJ01_13080	NP_466008.1	lmo2485	-	hypothetical protein lmo2485	0.000	3.70
IEJ01_11870	NP_465794.1	lmo2270	<i>comK'</i>	competence protein ComK	0.000	3.67
IEJ01_03340	NP_464181.1	lmo0654	-	hypothetical protein lmo0654	0.000	3.67
IEJ01_04045	NP_464323.1	lmo0796	-	hypothetical protein lmo0796	0.000	3.66
IEJ01_03345	NP_464182.1	lmo0655	-	phosphoprotein phosphatase	0.000	3.63
IEJ01_14390	NP_466246.1	lmo2724	-	hypothetical protein lmo2724	0.000	3.63
IEJ01_02835	NP_464082.1	lmo0554	-	NADH-dependent butanol dehydrogenase	0.000	3.59
IEJ01_02090	NP_463935.1	lmo0405	-	phosphate transporter	0.000	3.58
IEJ01_12925	NP_465977.1	lmo2454	-	hypothetical protein lmo2454	0.000	3.53
IEJ01_03310	NP_464175.1	lmo0648	-	hypothetical protein lmo0648	0.000	3.49
IEJ01_13715	NP_466126.1	lmo2603	-	hypothetical protein lmo2603	0.000	3.47
IEJ01_06635	NP_464786.1	lmo1261	-	hypothetical protein lmo1261	0.000	3.28
IEJ01_03015	NP_464118.1	lmo0590	-	hypothetical protein lmo0590	0.000	3.27
IEJ01_03020	NP_464119.1	lmo0591	-	hypothetical protein lmo0591	0.000	3.18
IEJ01_12335	NP_465879.1	lmo2356	-	hypothetical protein lmo2356	0.000	3.15
IEJ01_13125	NP_466017.1	lmo2494	-	PhoU family transcriptional regulator	0.000	3.15
IEJ01_08035	NP_465064.1	lmo1539	-	glycerol transporter	0.000	3.09
IEJ01_01675	NP_463852.1	lmo0322	-	hypothetical protein lmo0322	0.000	3.07
IEJ01_09895	NP_465407.1	lmo1883	-	chitinase	0.000	3.06
IEJ01_03305	NP_464174.1	lmo0647	-	hypothetical protein lmo0647	0.000	3.04
IEJ01_11545	NP_465729.1	lmo2205	-	phosphoglyceromutase	0.000	3.01
IEJ01_14060	NP_466194.1	lmo2672	-	AraC family transcriptional regulator	0.000	2.92
IEJ01_00850	NP_463703.1	lmo0170	-	hypothetical protein lmo0170	0.000	2.79
IEJ01_01045	NP_463742.1	lmo0211	<i>ctc</i>	50S ribosomal protein L25	0.000	2.74
IEJ01_13150	NP_466022.1	lmo2499	-	phosphate ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	2.71
IEJ01_12355	NP_465883.1	lmo2360	-	transmembrane protein	0.000	2.70

Table S5.5 continued (3 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_08350	NP_465126.1	lmo1601	-	general stress protein	0.000	2.69
IEJ01_09480	NP_465324.1	lmo1799	-	peptidoglycan binding protein	0.000	2.69
IEJ01_10430	NP_465513.1	lmo1989	<i>leuC</i>	isopropylmalate isomerase large subunit	0.000	2.68
IEJ01_10440	NP_465515.1	lmo1991	<i>ilvA</i>	threonine dehydratase	0.000	2.66
IEJ01_12360	NP_465884.1	lmo2361	-	hypothetical protein lmo2361	0.000	2.64
IEJ01_03210	NP_464156.1	lmo0629	-	hypothetical protein lmo0629	0.000	2.63
IEJ01_10435	NP_465514.1	lmo1990	<i>leuD</i>	isopropylmalate isomerase small subunit	0.000	2.62
IEJ01_08355	NP_465127.1	lmo1602	-	hypothetical protein lmo1602	0.000	2.59
IEJ01_08240	NP_465105.1	lmo1580	-	hypothetical protein lmo1580	0.000	2.56
IEJ01_11175	NP_465655.1	lmo2131	-	hypothetical protein lmo2131	0.000	2.53
IEJ01_06805	NP_464820.1	lmo1295	-	host factor-1 protein	0.000	2.51
IEJ01_10425	NP_465512.1	lmo1988	<i>leuB</i>	3-isopropylmalate dehydrogenase	0.000	2.48
IEJ01_01435	NP_463805.1	lmo0274	-	hypothetical protein lmo0274	0.000	2.44
IEJ01_12575	NP_465909.1	lmo2386	-	hypothetical protein lmo2386	0.000	2.43
IEJ01_11390	NP_465698.1	lmo2174	-	hypothetical protein lmo2174	0.000	2.41
IEJ01_10420	NP_465511.1	lmo1987	<i>leuA</i>	2-isopropylmalate synthase	0.000	2.40
IEJ01_01695	NP_463856.1	lmo0326	-	transcriptional regulator	0.003	2.38
IEJ01_00725	NP_015084540.1	NA	NA	NA	0.002	2.38
IEJ01_13075	NP_466007.1	lmo2484	-	hypothetical protein lmo2484	0.000	2.36
IEJ01_08030	NP_465063.1	lmo1538	<i>glpK</i>	glycerol kinase	0.000	2.34
IEJ01_04805	NP_464468.1	lmo0943	<i>fri</i>	non-heme iron-binding ferritin	0.000	2.32
IEJ01_07210	NP_464900.1	lmo1375	-	aminotripeptidase	0.000	2.32
IEJ01_12835	NP_465960.1	lmo2437	-	hypothetical protein lmo2437	0.000	2.31
IEJ01_09435	NP_465315.1	lmo1790	-	hypothetical protein lmo1790	0.000	2.30
IEJ01_02840	NP_464083.1	lmo0555	-	di-tripeptide transporter	0.000	2.29
IEJ01_02685	NP_464052.1	lmo0524	-	sulfate transporter	0.000	2.27
IEJ01_08600	NP_465176.1	lmo1651	-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	2.26
IEJ01_03315	NP_464176.1	lmo0649	-	transcriptional regulator	0.000	2.15
IEJ01_09425	NP_465313.1	lmo1788	-	transcriptional regulator	0.000	2.15
IEJ01_02230	NP_463963.1	lmo0434	<i>inlB</i>	internalin B	0.000	2.12
IEJ01_08675	NP_465191.1	lmo1666	-	peptidoglycan-linked protein	0.000	2.12
IEJ01_02960	NP_464107.1	lmo0579	-	hypothetical protein lmo0579	0.000	2.10
IEJ01_02965	NP_464108.1	lmo0580	-	hypothetical protein lmo0580	0.000	2.07
IEJ01_10400	NP_465507.1	lmo1983	<i>ilvD</i>	dihydroxy-acid dehydratase	0.000	2.06
IEJ01_10415	NP_465510.1	lmo1986	<i>ilvC</i>	ketol-acid reductoisomerase	0.000	2.05
IEJ01_14050	NP_466192.1	lmo2670	-	hypothetical protein lmo2670	0.000	2.05
IEJ01_10410	NP_465509.1	lmo1985	<i>ilvH</i>	acetolactate synthase small subunit	0.000	2.05
IEJ01_11475	NP_465715.1	lmo2191	<i>spxA</i>	ArcS family transcriptional regulator	0.000	2.02
IEJ01_13145	NP_466021.1	lmo2498	-	phosphate ABC transporter permease	0.000	2.01
IEJ01_04725	NP_464453.1	lmo0928	-	3-methyladenine DNA glycosylase	0.000	1.97
IEJ01_10405	NP_465508.1	lmo1984	<i>ilvB</i>	acetolactate synthase	0.000	1.95
IEJ01_13135	NP_466019.1	lmo2496	-	phosphate ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	1.95
IEJ01_13210	NP_466034.1	lmo2511	-	hypothetical protein lmo2511	0.000	1.94
IEJ01_03105	NP_464135.1	lmo0608	-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	1.94
IEJ01_04545	NP_464422.1	lmo0896	<i>rsbX</i>	indirect negative regulation of sigma B dependant gene expression	0.000	1.93
IEJ01_03280	NP_464169.1	lmo0642	-	hypothetical protein lmo0642	0.000	1.93
IEJ01_09030	NP_465238.1	lmo1713	-	rod shape-determining protein MreB	0.000	1.92
IEJ01_09430	NP_465314.1	lmo1789	-	hypothetical protein lmo1789	0.000	1.90
IEJ01_07030	NP_464865.1	lmo1340	-	hypothetical protein lmo1340	0.000	1.89
IEJ01_13140	NP_466020.1	lmo2497	-	phosphate ABC transporter permease	0.000	1.89
IEJ01_00195	NP_463572.1	lmo0039	-	carbamate kinase	0.000	1.88
IEJ01_01810	NP_463881.1	lmo0351	-	phosphotransferase mannose-specific family component IIA	0.000	1.88
IEJ01_09475	NP_465323.1	lmo1798	-	hypothetical protein lmo1798	0.000	1.87
IEJ01_01690	NP_463855.1	lmo0325	-	transcriptional regulator	0.000	1.86
IEJ01_06795	NP_464818.1	lmo1293	<i>glpD</i>	glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	0.000	1.86
IEJ01_01525	NP_463823.1	lmo0292	-	heat-shock protein htrA serine protease	0.000	1.85
IEJ01_08595	NP_465175.1	lmo1650	-	hypothetical protein lmo1650	0.000	1.83
IEJ01_03320	NP_464177.1	lmo0650	-	hypothetical protein lmo0650	0.000	1.81
IEJ01_03090	NP_464132.1	lmo0605	-	hypothetical protein lmo0605	0.000	1.81
IEJ01_01520	NP_463822.1	lmo0291	-	hypothetical protein lmo0291	0.000	1.81

Table S5.5 continued (4 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_08585	NP_465173.1	Imo1648	-	hypothetical protein Imo1648	0.000	1.79
IEJ01_12645	NP_465922.1	Imo2399	-	hypothetical protein Imo2399	0.000	1.76
IEJ01_04610	NP_464430.1	Imo0904	-	hypothetical protein Imo0904	0.000	1.74
IEJ01_00990	NP_463731.1	Imo0200	<i>prfA</i>	listeriolysin positive regulatory protein	0.000	1.73
IEJ01_04540	NP_464421.1	Imo0895	<i>sigB</i>	RNA polymerase sigma factor SigB	0.000	1.68
IEJ01_03865	NP_464287.1	Imo0760	-	hypothetical protein Imo0760	0.000	1.68
IEJ01_14055	NP_466193.1	Imo2671	-	hypothetical protein Imo2671	0.000	1.67
IEJ01_00190	NP_463571.1	Imo0038	-	agmatine deiminase	0.000	1.67
IEJ01_13600	NP_466110.1	Imo2587	-	hypothetical protein Imo2587	0.000	1.67
IEJ01_13265	NP_466045.1	Imo2522	-	cell wall-binding protein	0.000	1.65
IEJ01_14475	NP_466263.1	Imo2741	-	multidrug transporter	0.000	1.64
IEJ01_02115	NP_463940.1	Imo0411	-	phosphoenolpyruvate synthase	0.000	1.63
IEJ01_08605	NP_465177.1	Imo1652	-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	1.63
IEJ01_03100	NP_464134.1	Imo0607	-	ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	1.62
IEJ01_09320	NP_465295.1	Imo1770	<i>purL</i>	phosphoribosylformylglycinamide synthase I	0.000	1.61
IEJ01_02985	NP_464112.1	Imo0584	-	hypothetical protein Imo0584	0.000	1.61
IEJ01_02590	NP_464033.1	Imo0505	-	ribulose-5-phosphate 3-epimerase	0.000	1.60
IEJ01_09825	NP_465393.1	Imo1868	-	hypothetical protein Imo1868	0.000	1.59
IEJ01_07495	NP_464957.1	Imo1432	-	hypothetical protein Imo1432	0.000	1.58
IEJ01_14465	NP_466261.1	Imo2739	-	NAD-dependent deacetylase	0.000	1.58
IEJ01_11330	NP_465686.1	Imo2162	-	hypothetical protein Imo2162	0.000	-1.58
IEJ01_01550	NP_463828.1	Imo0297	-	transcriptional antiterminator BglG	0.000	-1.58
IEJ01_08360	NP_465128.1	Imo1603	-	aminopeptidase	0.000	-1.61
IEJ01_06405	WP_009917708.1	NA	NA	terminase large subunit	0.000	-1.63
IEJ01_11020	YP_008475638.1	Imo2104a	-	hypothetical protein Imo2104a	0.000	-1.63
IEJ01_02190	NP_463955.1	Imo0426	-	PTS fructose transporter subunit IIA	0.000	-1.64
IEJ01_14180	NP_466205.1	Imo2683	-	PTS cellbiose transporter subunit IIB	0.000	-1.65
IEJ01_10985	NP_465623.1	Imo2099	-	transcriptional antiterminator	0.000	-1.67
IEJ01_11325	NP_465685.1	Imo2161	-	hypothetical protein Imo2161	0.000	-1.67
IEJ01_06335	NP_463822.1	Imo0291	-	hypothetical protein Imo0291	0.000	-1.67
IEJ01_00485	NP_463630.1	Imo0097	-	PTS mannose transporter subunit IIC	0.000	-1.71
IEJ01_14040	NP_466190.1	Imo2668	-	transcriptional antiterminator BglG	0.000	-1.74
IEJ01_11125	NP_465650.1	Imo2126	-	maltogenic amylase	0.000	-1.78
IEJ01_13505	NP_466092.1	Imo2569	-	peptide ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	-1.78
IEJ01_01985	NP_463914.1	Imo0384	-	lolB protein	0.006	-1.85
IEJ01_04890	NP_464485.1	Imo0960	-	protease	0.000	-1.85
IEJ01_04550	NP_464423.1	Imo0897	-	transporter	0.000	-1.89
IEJ01_14310	NP_466230.1	Imo2708	-	PTS cellbiose transporter subunit IIC	0.000	-1.92
IEJ01_02060	NP_463929.1	Imo0399	-	PTS fructose transporter subunit IIB	0.000	-1.96
IEJ01_01570	NP_463832.1	Imo0301	-	PTS beta-glucoside transporter subunit IIA	0.000	-1.96
IEJ01_14780	NP_466322.1	Imo2800	-	dehydrogenase	0.000	-1.99
IEJ01_04355	NP_464385.1	Imo0859	-	sugar ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	-2.02
IEJ01_04235	NP_464362.1	Imo0835	-	peptidoglycan binding protein	0.000	-2.03
IEJ01_02245	NP_463966.1	Imo0437	-	hypothetical protein Imo0437	0.000	-2.07
IEJ01_04895	NP_464486.1	Imo0961	-	protease	0.000	-2.10
IEJ01_06450	WP_003731642.1	NA	NA	DUF3168 domain-containing protein	0.000	-2.10
IEJ01_14185	NP_466206.1	Imo2684	-	PTS cellbiose transporter subunit IIC	0.000	-2.12
IEJ01_06455	WP_012581455.1	NA	NA	phage tail protein	0.000	-2.13
IEJ01_06470	WP_012951553.1	NA	NA	phage tail tape measure protein	0.000	-2.16
IEJ01_06480	WP_012951555.1	NA	NA	phage tail protein	0.000	-2.16
IEJ01_11335	NP_465687.1	Imo2163	-	oxidoreductase	0.000	-2.17
IEJ01_00765	NP_463686.1	Imo0153	-	zinc ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	-2.21
IEJ01_11780	NP_465776.1	Imo2252	-	aspartate aminotransferase	0.000	-2.21
IEJ01_06465	WP_009931626.1	NA	NA	hypothetical protein	0.000	-2.23
IEJ01_08295	NP_465116.1	Imo1591	<i>argC</i>	N-acetyl-gamma-glutamyl-phosphate reductase	0.000	-2.26
IEJ01_11105	NP_465646.1	Imo2122	-	maltodextrase utilization protein MalA	0.000	-2.28
IEJ01_06430	WP_015987290.1	NA	NA	hypothetical protein	0.000	-2.29
IEJ01_08290	NP_465115.1	Imo1590	<i>argJ</i>	bifunctional ornithine acetyltransferase/N-acetylglutamate synthase	0.002	-2.30
IEJ01_07670	NP_464992.1	Imo1467	-	phosphate starvation-induced protein PhoH	0.000	-2.34
IEJ01_06390	WP_014930130.1	NA	NA	hypothetical protein	0.000	-2.36

Ribosomal mutations enable a switch

Table S5.5 continued (5 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_11120	NP_465649.1	Imo2125	-	sugar ABC transporter substrate-binding protein	0.000	-2.39
IEJ01_14785	NP_466323.1	Imo2801	-	N-acetylmannosamine-6-phosphate 2-epimerase	0.000	-2.41
IEJ01_06460	WP_014930131.1	NA	NA	hypothetical protein	0.000	-2.41
IEJ01_11100	NP_465645.1	Imo2121	-	maltose phosphorylase	0.000	-2.42
IEJ01_06475	WP_014601422.1	NA	NA	phage tail family protein	0.000	-2.49
IEJ01_03690	NP_464251.1	Imo0724	-	hypothetical protein Imo0724	0.000	-2.52
IEJ01_06400	WP_014929542.1	NA	NA	P27 family phage terminase small subunit	0.000	-2.53
IEJ01_06385	WP_010991275.1	NA	NA	DUF559 domain-containing protein	0.000	-2.54
IEJ01_06395	WP_000988331.1	NA	NA	HNH endonuclease	0.000	-2.58
IEJ01_06420	NP_465991.1	Imo2468	<i>clpP</i>	ATP-dependent Clp protease proteolytic subunit	0.000	-2.58
IEJ01_03685	NP_464250.1	Imo0723	-	methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein	0.000	-2.58
IEJ01_06415	WP_014929544.1	NA	NA	phage portal protein	0.000	-2.59
IEJ01_06440	WP_014929549.1	NA	NA	phage head-tail adapter protein	0.000	-2.66
IEJ01_11115	NP_465648.1	Imo2124	-	sugar ABC transporter permease	0.000	-2.69
IEJ01_06425	WP_012581458.1	NA	NA	phage major capsid protein	0.000	-2.75
IEJ01_06445	WP_009917701.1	NA	NA	hypothetical protein	0.000	-2.81
IEJ01_11110	NP_465647.1	Imo2123	-	sugar ABC transporter permease	0.000	-2.87
IEJ01_10940	NP_465614.1	Imo2090	<i>argG</i>	argininosuccinate synthase	0.000	-3.05
IEJ01_11770	NP_465774.1	Imo2250	<i>arpI</i>	amino acid ABC transporter permease	0.000	-3.07
IEJ01_06435	WP_012951549.1	NA	NA	phage gp6-like head-tail connector protein	0.000	-3.07
IEJ01_10945	NP_465615.1	Imo2091	<i>argH</i>	argininosuccinate lyase	0.000	-3.17
IEJ01_11775	NP_465775.1	Imo2251	-	amino acid ABC transporter ATP-binding protein	0.000	-3.28
IEJ01_03660	NP_464245.1	Imo0718	-	hypothetical protein Imo0718	0.000	-4.46
IEJ01_03650	NP_464243.1	Imo0716	<i>flil</i>	flagellum-specific ATP synthase	0.000	-4.57
IEJ01_03655	NP_464244.1	Imo0717	-	transglycosylase	0.000	-4.64
IEJ01_03645	NP_464242.1	Imo0715	<i>fliH</i>	flagellar assembly protein H	0.000	-4.70
IEJ01_03640	NP_464241.1	Imo0714	<i>fliG</i>	flagellar motor switch protein FliG	0.000	-4.70
IEJ01_03635	NP_464240.1	Imo0713	<i>fliF</i>	flagellar MS-ring protein FliF	0.000	-4.86
IEJ01_03490	NP_464211.1	Imo0684	-	hypothetical protein Imo0684	0.000	-5.19
IEJ01_03630	NP_464239.1	Imo0712	<i>fliE</i>	flagellar hook-basal body protein FliE	0.000	-5.30
IEJ01_03510	NP_464215.1	Imo0688	-	hypothetical protein Imo0688	0.000	-5.30
IEJ01_03495	NP_464212.1	Imo0685	-	flagellar motor protein MotA	0.000	-5.43
IEJ01_03595	NP_464232.1	Imo0705	<i>flgK</i>	flagellar hook-associated protein FlgK	0.000	-5.44
IEJ01_03470	NP_464207.1	Imo0680	<i>flhA</i>	flagellar biosynthesis protein FlhA	0.000	-5.48
IEJ01_03605	NP_464234.1	Imo0707	<i>fliD</i>	flagellar capping protein FliD	0.000	-5.50
IEJ01_03515	NP_464216.1	Imo0689	-	chemotaxis protein CheV	0.000	-5.51
IEJ01_03600	NP_464233.1	Imo0706	<i>flgL</i>	flagellar hook-associated protein FlgL	0.000	-5.55
IEJ01_03610	NP_464235.1	Imo0708	-	flagellar protein	0.000	-5.58
IEJ01_03505	NP_464214.1	Imo0687	-	hypothetical protein Imo0687	0.000	-5.58
IEJ01_03485	NP_464210.1	Imo0683	-	chemotaxis protein CheR	0.000	-5.60
IEJ01_03585	NP_464230.1	Imo0703	-	hypothetical protein Imo0703	0.000	-5.60
IEJ01_03550	NP_464223.1	Imo0696	<i>flgD</i>	flagellar basal body rod modification protein	0.000	-5.61
IEJ01_03475	NP_464208.1	Imo0681	-	flagellar biosynthesis regulator FliH	0.000	-5.61
IEJ01_03615	NP_464236.1	Imo0709	-	hypothetical protein Imo0709	0.000	-5.64
IEJ01_03535	NP_464220.1	Imo0693	-	flagellar motor switch protein FliY	0.000	-5.64
IEJ01_03540	NP_464221.1	Imo0694	-	hypothetical protein Imo0694	0.000	-5.65
IEJ01_03625	NP_464238.1	Imo0711	<i>flgC</i>	flagellar basal body rod protein FlgC	0.000	-5.65
IEJ01_03590	NP_464231.1	Imo0704	-	hypothetical protein Imo0704	0.000	-5.66
IEJ01_03620	NP_464237.1	Imo0710	<i>flgB</i>	flagellar basal-body rod protein FlgB	0.000	-5.67
IEJ01_03465	NP_464206.1	Imo0679	<i>flhB</i>	flagellar biosynthesis protein FlhB	0.000	-5.70
IEJ01_03545	NP_464222.1	Imo0695	-	hypothetical protein Imo0695	0.000	-5.86
IEJ01_03480	NP_464209.1	Imo0682	<i>flgG</i>	flagellar basal body rod protein FlgG	0.000	-5.87
IEJ01_08960	NP_465224.1	Imo1699	-	chemotaxis protein	0.000	-5.89
IEJ01_03575	NP_464228.1	Imo0701	-	hypothetical protein Imo0701	0.000	-5.91
IEJ01_03565	NP_464226.1	Imo0699	<i>fliM</i>	flagellar motor switch protein FliM	0.000	-5.91
IEJ01_03570	NP_464227.1	Imo0700	-	flagellar motor switch protein FliY	0.000	-5.91
IEJ01_03580	NP_464229.1	Imo0702	-	hypothetical protein Imo0702	0.000	-5.92
IEJ01_03500	NP_464213.1	Imo0686	<i>motB</i>	flagellar motor rotation MotB	0.000	-5.92
IEJ01_03555	NP_464224.1	Imo0697	<i>flgE</i>	flagellar hook protein FlgE	0.000	-5.92
IEJ01_03530	NP_464219.1	Imo0692	<i>cheA</i>	two-component sensor histidine kinase CheA	0.000	-5.95

Table S5.5 continued (6 of 6): Differentially expressed genes in variant 14 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Product	Variant 14	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_03525	NP_464218.1	lmo0691	<i>cheY</i>	chemotaxis response regulator CheY	0.000	-5.99
IEJ01_03460	NP_464205.1	lmo0678	<i>fliR</i>	flagellar biosynthesis protein FlIR	0.000	-6.03
IEJ01_08965	NP_465225.1	lmo1700	-	hypothetical protein lmo1700	0.000	-6.12
IEJ01_03560	NP_464225.1	lmo0698	-	flagellar motor switch protein	0.000	-6.16
IEJ01_03520	NP_464217.1	lmo0690	<i>flaA</i>	flagellin	0.000	-7.43
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	lmo1469	<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	0.000	-19.80
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	lmo1468	-	hypothetical protein lmo1468	0.000	-20.08

Table S5.6: Differentially expressed genes in variant 14EV1 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Protein name	14EV1	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_13955	NP_466173.1	lmo2651	-	PTS mannitol transporter subunit IIA	0.000	3.58
IEJ01_13950	NP_466172.1	lmo2650	-	MFS transporter	0.000	3.55
IEJ01_13940	NP_466170.1	lmo2648	-	phosphotriesterase	0.000	3.29
IEJ01_13935	NP_466169.1	lmo2647	-	creatinine amidohydrolase	0.001	3.15
IEJ01_13945	NP_466171.1	lmo2649	<i>ulaA</i>	PTS system ascorbate transporter subunit IIC	0.000	2.64
IEJ01_04465	NP_464406.1	lmo0880	-	wall associated protein precursor	0.000	2.31
IEJ01_05065	NP_464519.1	lmo0994	-	hypothetical protein lmo0994	0.000	2.25
IEJ01_13925	YP_008475644.1	lmo2644a	-	hypothetical protein lmo2644a	0.000	1.94
IEJ01_11585	NP_465737.1	lmo2213	-	hypothetical protein lmo2213	0.000	1.73
IEJ01_13930	NP_466168.1	lmo2646	-	hypothetical protein lmo2646	0.002	1.73
IEJ01_01380	NP_463794.1	lmo0263	<i>inlH</i>	internalin H	0.000	1.61
IEJ01_04655	NP_464439.1	lmo0913	-	succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase	0.000	1.60
IEJ01_07670	NP_464992.1	lmo1467	-	phosphate starvation-induced protein PhoH	0.000	-1.86
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	lmo1469	<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	0.000	-19.62
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	lmo1468	-	hypothetical protein lmo1468	0.000	-19.89

Table S5.7: Differentially expressed genes in variant 14EV2 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Protein name	14EV2	
					Padj	log ₂ fold change
IEJ01_13940	NP_466170.1	lmo2648	-	phosphotriesterase	0.000	3.33
IEJ01_13935	NP_466169.1	lmo2647	-	creatinine amidohydrolase	0.001	2.85
IEJ01_13950	NP_466172.1	lmo2650	-	MFS transporter	0.000	2.17
IEJ01_13955	NP_466173.1	lmo2651	-	PTS mannitol transporter subunit IIA	0.000	2.16
IEJ01_13930	NP_466168.1	lmo2646	-	hypothetical protein lmo2646	0.000	2.09
IEJ01_13925	YP_008475644.1	lmo2644a	-	hypothetical protein lmo2644a	0.000	2.05
IEJ01_11560	NP_465732.1	lmo2208	-	hypothetical protein lmo2208	0.000	1.81
IEJ01_13945	NP_466171.1	lmo2649	<i>ulaA</i>	PTS system ascorbate transporter subunit IIC	0.000	1.72
IEJ01_02250	NP_463967.1	lmo0438	-	hypothetical protein lmo0438	0.008	1.69
IEJ01_11955	NP_465814.1	lmo2290	-	protein gp13	0.000	-1.58
IEJ01_12000	NP_465823.1	lmo2299	-	portal protein	0.000	-1.58
IEJ01_11970	NP_465817.1	lmo2293	-	protein gp10	0.000	-1.59
IEJ01_11985	NP_465820.1	lmo2296	-	phage coat protein	0.000	-1.66
IEJ01_14310	NP_466230.1	lmo2708	-	PTS cellbiose transporter subunit IIC	0.000	-1.67
IEJ01_12015	WP_012582399.1	NA	NA	NA	0.000	-1.76
IEJ01_11995	NP_465822.1	lmo2298	-	protein gp4	0.000	-1.81
IEJ01_11975	NP_465818.1	lmo2294	-	protein gp9	0.000	-1.86
IEJ01_11980	NP_465819.1	lmo2295	-	protein gp8	0.000	-1.90
IEJ01_07670	NP_464992.1	lmo1467	-	phosphate starvation-induced protein PhoH	0.000	-1.92
IEJ01_11965	NP_465816.1	lmo2292	-	protein gp11	0.000	-1.93
IEJ01_11950	NP_465813.1	lmo2289	-	protein gp14	0.000	-1.94
IEJ01_00525	NP_463638.1	lmo0105	-	chitinase B	0.000	-1.94
IEJ01_11960	NP_465815.1	lmo2291	-	major tail shaft protein	0.000	-2.13
IEJ01_11570	NP_465734.1	lmo2210	-	hypothetical protein lmo2210	0.000	-2.43
IEJ01_07680	NP_464994.1	lmo1469	<i>rpsU</i>	30S ribosomal protein S21	0.000	-19.96
IEJ01_07675	NP_464993.1	lmo1468	-	hypothetical protein lmo1468	0.000	-20.24

Table S5.8: Expression of genes involved in the stressosome in variants 14, 14EV1, 14EV2 when compared to *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 WT

LO28 ID	Protein product	Locus tag	Locus	Protein name	Variant 14					
					Padj	log ₂ fold change	Padj	log ₂ fold change		
IEI01_04510	NP_464415.1	Imo0889	<i>rsbR1</i>	positive regulator of sigma-B activity	0.847	0.02	0.836	0.03	0.904	-0.01
IEI01_00805	NP_463694.1	Imo0161	<i>rsbR2</i>	hypothetical protein Imo0161	0.000	-0.83	0.748	0.04	0.040	0.23
IEI01_00855	NP_465167.1	Imo1642	<i>rsbR3</i>	sigma factor regulator	0.000	0.93	0.227	0.13	0.625	0.05
IEI01_09695	NP_465367.1	Imo1842	<i>rsbR4</i>	hypothetical protein Imo1842	0.719	0.04	0.983	-0.01	0.295	-0.11
IEI01_04060	NP_464326.1	Imo0799	<i>rsbL</i>	hypothetical protein Imo0799	0.565	0.07	0.990	0.00	0.500	0.09
IEI01_04515	NP_464416.1	Imo0890	<i>rsb5</i>	negative regulation of sigma-B activity	0.028	-0.26	0.370	-0.12	0.204	-0.15
IEI01_04525	NP_464418.1	Imo0892	<i>rsbU</i>	serine phosphatase	0.365	-0.08	0.989	0.00	0.256	0.11
IEI01_04530	NP_464419.1	Imo0893	<i>rsbV</i>	anti-anti-sigma factor (antagonist of RsbW)	0.000	1.39	0.648	-0.06	0.091	0.17
IEI01_04535	NP_464420.1	Imo0894	<i>rsbW</i>	serine-protein kinase RsbW	0.000	1.26	0.794	0.04	0.058	0.17
IEI01_04540	NP_464421.1	Imo0895	<i>sigB</i>	RNA polymerase sigma factor SigB	0.000	1.68	0.113	0.14	0.001	0.27
IEI01_04545	NP_464422.1	Imo0896	<i>rsbX</i>	indirect negative regulation of sigma B dependant gene expression (serine phosphatase)	0.000	1.93	0.000	0.27	0.000	0.35

6

General discussion

Introduction

Listeria monocytogenes is generally considered to be a robust microorganism, capable of growing and surviving in a wide range of adverse conditions such as low pH, low temperature and low a_w (NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016), and can adapt efficiently to changing environments including conditions inside the human body. These features allow *L. monocytogenes* to persist in the food chain, and establish life-threatening listeriosis in the very young, elderly, immunocompromised, and in pregnant women (NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016; Toledo-Arana et al., 2009).

There is an inherent heterogeneity in microbial populations that further contributes to the ubiquitous nature of *L. monocytogenes* by enhancing its capacity to cope with environmental stresses during transmission from the environment to the human host. This heterogeneity leads to stochastic differences in stress response between individual cells of a population, and to differential survival of a small fraction of the population after exposure to lethal stresses such as heat or low pH, resulting in tailing of the inactivation curve. *L. monocytogenes* has served as a model species in a large number of studies on the impact of strain diversity and the role of population heterogeneity in adaptive stress response and subsequent survival capacity (Karatzas et al., 2005; Metselaar et al., 2013; Van Boeijen et al., 2010; Van der Veen and Abee, 2011; Vanlint et al., 2012).

Mutation rate and isolation of a mutator strain

Most authors have investigated the diversity and heterogeneity of *L. monocytogenes* by working on standing genetic variation. I.e., they have investigated the diversity and heterogeneity that was already present in populations. In contrast, in chapter 2, we have investigated the rate at which new mutations are generated. Mutations in bacteria are either produced stochastically during replication of DNA, or after environmental insults that lead to DNA damage, and require repair by genes involved in the SOS response (Van der Veen et al., 2010).

The trade-off between the positive (adaptive) effect of beneficial mutations, and the negative effects of deleterious mutations that increase genetic load, is believed to be the cause of the low mutation rates that are typically observed in populations (Desai and Fisher, 2011; Lynch, 2011; Sniegowski and Raynes, 2013; Wielgoss et al., 2013). We investigated the mutation rate of 20 strains of *L. monocytogenes*, and found one mutator strain (FBR16) with a 100-1000-fold increase in mutation rate, and identified an insertion in the DNA mismatch repair gene *mutS* (Imo1403) that was responsible for the observed phenotype. In addition, we found another strain (H7767) that had a high sequence diversity in the *mutS* but this did not result in a mutator phenotype for this strain. One explanation would be the presence of additional repair systems in H7767, which could be elucidated by measuring the mutation rate of a $\Delta mutS$ mutation in strain H7767.

The fluctuation analysis that is used in chapter 2 is a powerful tool to estimate mutation rates. However, there are practical limitations to this technique. It derives a mutation rate from a single gene under specific conditions, and the fitness of the phenotype that is under study (rifampicin resistance) has a strong influence on the number of mutants that can be found. This can lead to bias in the estimation of mutation rates in conditions such as low temperature, where the *rpoB* mutants are known to be less fit (data not shown). However, when these limitations are taken into account, mutation rates can be quickly compared between strains in the same conditions. Although mutation rate has received little attention in *L. monocytogenes*, recent studies have investigated the mutation rate in persister strains found in food processing facilities (Harrand et al., 2020). The authors have found very little differences in SNPs, and suggested that the main factor driving strain diversification in processing facilities are prophages.

Although an organism's mutation rate is generally considered to be almost constant (Lynch, 2010; Drake, 1991), the optimal mutation rate depends on the specific environment that the cells are in (Elena and Lenski, 2003; Eyre-Walker and Keightley, 2007; Kimura, 1967; Perfeito et al., 2007). Under optimal (e.g., laboratory) conditions, mutator strains only occur sporadically (Boe et al., 2000; de Visser, 2002; Marinus, 2010), and very high mutation rates have been shown to be potentially detrimental to fitness (Sprouffske et al., 2018). However, in natural environments, where (mild) stress is the default (Hallsworth, 2018), a much higher prevalence of mutator strains has been observed (Hall and Henderson-Begg, 2006). Examples are mutator strains amongst clinical isolates of pathogenic *E. coli* (Denamur et al., 2002) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Oliver, 2015), and food pathogens such as *Salmonella* spp. and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Sheng et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2013). This raises questions about the absence of suspected mutator genotypes of *L. monocytogenes* in databases such as RefSeq (see chapter 2). As the optimal mutation rate is a function of genotype and environment, it is possible that mutator strains are less adaptive in a species such as *L. monocytogenes* that is able to thrive in diverse conditions (Freitag et al., 2009). Did we happen to find a very rare mutator in *L. monocytogenes*, caused by an insertion in *mutS*? Or is there selection against mutator strains, caused by the genetic load of a high mutation rate, explaining their absence from the databases? Competition experiments between mutator and WT strains of *L. monocytogenes* EGD have suggested that competitive fitness and virulence of the mutator strain were lower in a mouse model (Mérino et al., 2002), while homologous recombination was increased 15-fold, pointing to a transient mutator phenotype. In addition, very high mutation rates have been shown to limit adaptation in *E. coli* (Sprouffske et al., 2018). Whether the lower fitness that was observed for the mutator strain of EGD (Mérino et al., 2002) translates to FBR16 remains to be elucidated, by direct competition experiments in FBR16 and FBR16_mutS_repaired.

Variants can be found in multiple strains after exposure to a variety of stresses

Population heterogeneity, generated for instance by mutations, has been studied by inactivation of multiple strains of *L. monocytogenes* by high hydrostatic pressure (HHP) (Van Boeijen et al., 2010), heat, and acid (Metselaar et al., 2013) and revealed considerable tailing of inactivation curves, allowing for isolation of stable resistant variants from the tail. Previous work used phenotyping and genomic analysis to investigate *L. monocytogenes* LO28 variants that were exposed to HHP, revealed significant population diversity, including

a subset with mutations and deletions in the *ctsR* gene. The *ctsR* variants had a multiple-stress resistant phenotype, which was linked to the increased expression of genes encoding Clp proteases resulting from a defect in the repressor function of CtsR (Van Boeijen et al., 2010). However, these *ctsR* variants were shown to have a reduced maximum specific growth rate and also a reduced virulence potential in a mouse model (Van Boeijen et al., 2010). Interestingly, these HHP selected variants showed cross resistance to other stresses including heat and acid stress. Further work by Metselaar et al. (2013) resulted in isolation of additional variants that were isolated after a single exposure to acid stress. Chapter 3 focusses on two of these latter variants; variant 14, with a large deletion that spans the whole *rpsU* gene, as well as *yqeY* and half of *phoH*; and variant 15, with a single point mutation in *rpsU* that resulted in an amino acid substitution from arginine to proline in the RpsU protein, RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}. For these variants, enhanced stress-resistance was correlated with increased activity of the glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) system (Metselaar et al., 2015), previously reported to contribute to *L. monocytogenes* acid resistance (Cotter et al., 2001; Feehily and Karatzas, 2013; Karatzas et al., 2012). In chapter 3, we investigated additional mechanisms contributing to the observed multiple stress-resistant phenotype of the variants. In variants 14 and 15, about 70% of the 145 genes of the SigB regulon included in the analysis, were upregulated, although no mutations in the *sigB* gene or its regulatory genes were found (Metselaar et al., 2015). The activation of SigB-mediated stress defence offers an explanation for the multiple-stress resistant phenotype observed in *rpsU* variants 14 and 15. Moreover, our variants 14 and 15, when grown in BHI, display a pattern of gene expression that suggests mitigation of catabolite repression, and elevated glycerol consumption, with the associated high activity of the virulence regulator gene *prfA*. Notably, the upregulation of the PrfA/SigB-regulated attachment and invasion genes *inlA* and *inlB* in these variants and the observed higher adhesion/invasion to Caco-2 cells of the variants compared to the WT (Koomen et al., 2018) suggests that virulence potential of these variants is higher than that of the *L. monocytogenes* LO28 WT, but additional studies are required to confirm this.

Modelling and validation of the ecological behaviour of *L. monocytogenes* WT and stress resistant variants 14 and 15 indicated that multiple stress resistance could contribute to increased performance along the food chain, which, in combination with the conceivable higher survival of acidic conditions in the stomach, could result in a higher exposure and probability of disease (Abee et al., 2016; Metselaar et al., 2016). It cannot be excluded that

following the initial selection of multiple stress resistant variants (Abee et al., 2016), other variants with additional mutations can originate from the ancestor variant. In chapters 4 and 5 we tested this idea by subjecting two parallel cultures for variant 15, and two parallel cultures for variant 14, to an experimental evolution regime (see Figure 6.1) where we selected for increased fitness, measured as maximum specific growth rate (μ_{\max}). Both for variant 15, with a point mutation in *rpsU*, and for variant 14 with a whole deletion of *rpsU*, the selection for increased fitness resulted in fixing additional mutations that lead to shifting the trade-off between fitness and stress resistance, as summarized in Figure 6.4. Although variant 15EV1 and variant 15EV2 both fixed a compensatory mutation in the 17th codon of *rpsU* (codons CAT and ACT respectively), they did not fix the same mutation, and we did not find a reversion to the CGT codon that results in RpsU^{17Arg} that is present in the LO28 WT. Within a single mutational step, one of 9 different codon changes can occur at position 17, of which 6 lead to a codon that does not code for proline on position 17 in RpsU (see Table 6.1) and only one of the nine mutations results in an arginine, conceivably offering an explanation for why we did not select a variant with the WT RpsU^{17Arg} codon. In addition, based on the slight difference in μ_{\max} and proteomic profile between 15EV1 and 15EV2, we hypothesize that the RpsU^{17Arg-His} of 15EV1 is slightly more efficient in restoring the WT phenotype than RpsU^{17Arg-Thr} of 15EV2.

Table 6.1: Possible mutations in one mutational step from variant 15

Isolate	Codon	Amino acid	AA change
Variant 15	C C T	Proline	-
	C C G	Proline	No
	C C A	Proline	No
	C C C	Proline	No
15EV2	G C T	Alanine	Yes
	A C T	Threonine	Yes
	T C T	Phenylalanine	Yes
LO28 WT	C G T	Arginine	Yes
15EV1	C A T	Histidine	Yes
	C T T	Leucine	Yes

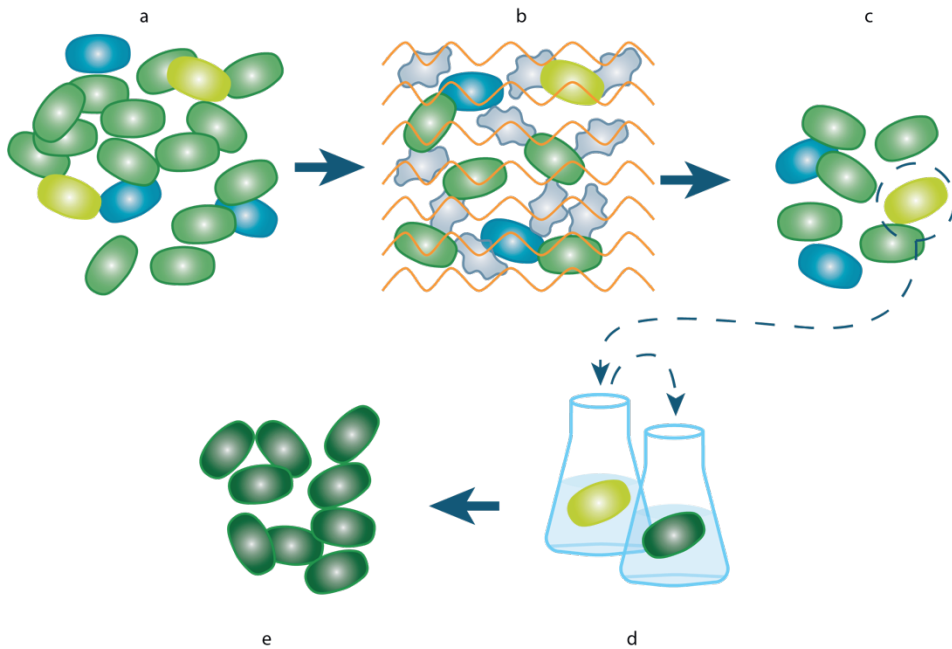


Figure 6.1: Summary of the experimental procedure used in this thesis.

A heterogeneous population of cells including WT and stress resistant variants (a) was exposed to acid stress (b), leading to differential survival. From the surviving population (c), single cells with a constitutively higher stress resistance but reduced fitness were selected and exposed to consecutive rounds of experimental evolution (d), ultimately selecting for evolved variants with increased growth rate and reduced, WT-like, stress resistance (e).

Lower fitness in variants is only indirectly linked to SigB activation

In chapter 4 and 5, we described evolved variants with higher fitness, that originated from variants with lower fitness and multiple stress resistance under non-stressed conditions (see Figure 6.1). If the major negative effect on fitness would come from energy-consuming SigB activation, we would expect the experimental evolution to select for mutations that inactivate either *sigB* or its regulating sequences. However, no mutation(s) were found in *sigB*, or genes of the SigB operon, which suggests that the apparent induction, and subsequent relaxation of SigB may be linked to the observed differences in the ribosomes. From an evolutionary perspective, we expect most mutations to be deleterious (Elena and Lenski, 2003; Eyre-Walker and Keightley, 2007; Kimura, 1967; Perfeito et al., 2007), and we expect the number of mutations that disrupt SigB activation to be much higher than the

number of mutations that restore ribosome functioning. As we did not find any mutations that disrupt the function of SigB, we suggest that the fitness gain is the primary trait under selection, and that the SigB activation is a response to it, not its cause. However, the interaction between mutations in RpsU and activation of SigB is still unknown.

In addition, in *L. monocytogenes*, stress induces the dimerization of 70S ribosomes into translationally silent 100S ribosomes that are associated with dormancy and robustness (Kline et al., 2015). Cells with a larger fraction of 100S ribosomes are more robust to stress, however, at the expense of fitness, as the 100S ribosomes need to be split into 70S ribosomes before they become active again. Preliminary results of sucrose density centrifugation showed that in variants 14 and 15 a larger fraction of 100S ribosomes exist, with relatively more unassembled ribosomes in variant 14 (see Figure 6.2). The existence of 100S ribosomes in both variants suggests an additional level of interaction between the ribosomes and the stress response that may add to the lower fitness phenotype.

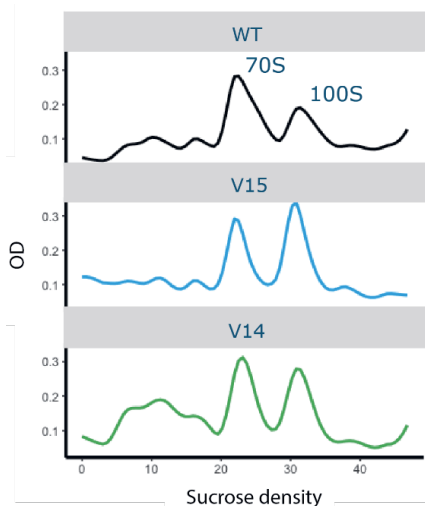


Figure 6.2: Ribosome profiles of *L. monocytogenes* LO28 wild type, and variants 14 and 15.

Possible interaction between RpsU and SigB

The RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation in variant 15, in combination with the downregulation of *rpsU* in this variant (Metselaar et al., 2015; Koomen et al., 2018) is presumably responsible for a loss of RpsU function that has phenotypic effects that are highly similar to the complete deletion of *rpsU* in variant 14. This is supported by the observation that the RpsB^{22Arg-Ser}

substitution in the ribosomal *S2* gene (*rpsB*, lmo1658) that was found in variant 14EV2, when introduced to variant 15, also decreased stress resistance and increased the maximum specific growth rate (data not shown). Activation of SigB is controlled by the stressosome, that integrates and relays a range of stress signals and activates the SigB regulon (Guldimann et al., 2016; NicAogáin and O'Byrne, 2016; Radoshevich and Cossart, 2018, Dessaux et al., 2020). The exact mechanism by which the stressosome responds to signals from, or induced by, the ribosome remains largely unknown. In the widely accepted (in vitro) stressosome model proposed by Williams et al. (2019) a signaling cascade of RsbU, RsbV and RsbW and ending in the activation of SigB, is triggered by the stressosome after phosphorylation of RsbR and RsbS (see Figure 6.3). In both variant 14 and variant 15, proteomics shows a strong downregulation of RsbS. The expression of the *rsbS* gene is not significantly downregulated in the DNA-microarray data of variants 14 and 15, nor in the RNA-seq analysis of variant 14, suggesting that the low level of RsbS protein in variants 14 and 15 is the result of post-translational regulation. Conceivably, this downregulation of RsbS leads to the release of RsbT, as proposed in the model of Williams et al. (2019) (see Figure 6.3), that can then associate with RsbU to generate a downstream signal, ultimately leading to the release of SigB. Our RNA analysis indicated that both *sigB* and *rsbX* were transcribed in variant 14. RsbX is a feedback phosphatase (Xia et al., 2016) under direct control of SigB, and thought to reset the stressosome to its inactive position after induction. The upregulation of this negative feedback system without a reversion of the SigB levels to default, suggests that the stress signal coming from the ribosome is continuous during exponential growth. In addition, the revised stressosome model presented by Dessaux and co-authors (2020a) suggests an additional role for the paralogues of RsbR in modulating the generation of active stressosome complexes upon the sensing of stress. The only receptor for which a clear trigger is described is the blue-light sensor RsbL (Dorey et al., 2019). Additional studies with $RpsJ^{17Arg-Pro} - \Delta rsbR$, and $\Delta rsbR$ paralogue double mutants are needed to identify the exact stress that triggers stressosome activation in the *rpsU* variants. Moreover, as the RsbR paralogues are hypothesized to negatively regulate the stressosome, they might provide an explanation for the decrease of the multiple-stress resistance of variants 14 and 15 that has been found for stationary cells at 20°C (Metselaar et al., 2015b).

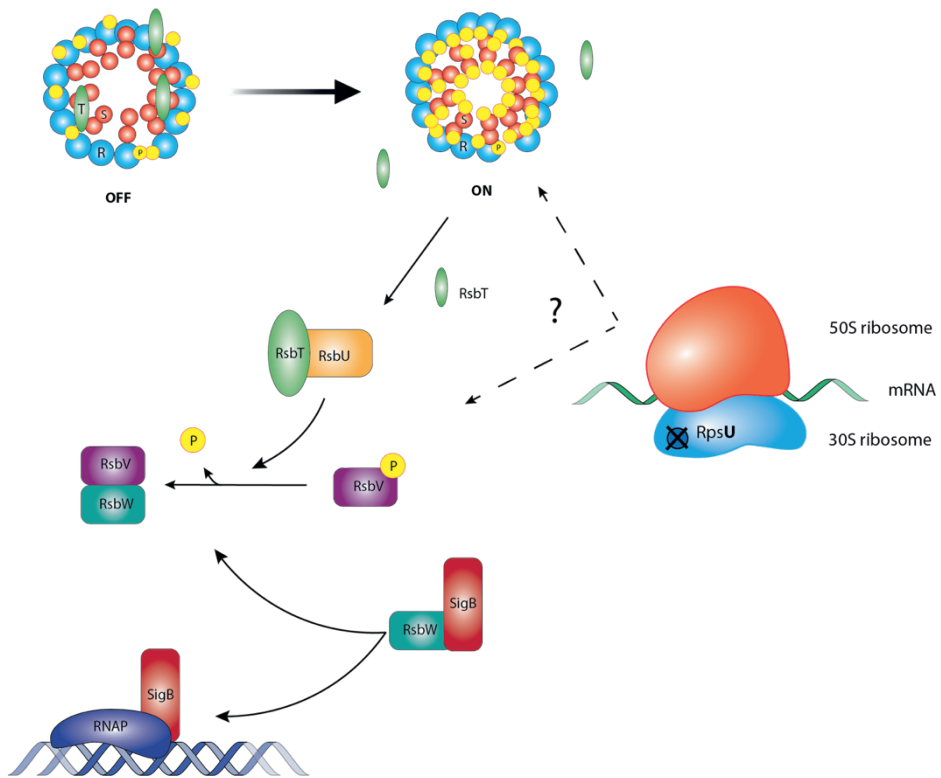


Figure 6.3: Schematic overview of the stressosome and SigB activation.

From the top left, following perception of a stress signal, RsbT dissociates from RsbR and RsbS (indicated by T, R and S in the stressosome), after activation of its kinase activity. After release from the stressosome RpsT binds to RsbU. The phosphatase activity of RbsU is activated and removes a phosphate (P) group from RbsV. The anti-sigma factor RsbW has a higher affinity for the now dephosphorylated RbsV than for SigB, resulting in release of SigB allowing it to bind to RNA polymerase and initiate transcription of SigB regulon members. RpsU function, and/or attachment to the 30S ribosome is disrupted similarly by a point mutation resulting in $RpsU^{Arg-Pro}$, or a full deletion of rpsU in variants 15 and 14 respectively, relaying a signal to either the stressosome, or directly to RsbV (see main text for details). Adapted from Dessaux et al., 2020a, Williams 2019, and Cabeen et al., 2017.

One of the stresses that might trigger SigB activation is nutrient stress. Nutrient stress-induced activation has been described for *L. monocytogenes*, but how the *L. monocytogenes* stressosome responds to metabolic stress is currently unknown (Guerreiro et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2019). Nutritional stress can be perceived indirectly through uncharged tRNA's associated to ribosomes, leading to the stringent response via RelA (Taylor et al., 2002). Alternatively, an indirect link between ribosomes and (nutritional) stress via translation efficiency, is discussed in chapter 5. The compensatory mutations in *rpsB* that were fixed by the two evolving lines of variant 14 suggested an effect on the correct binding of RpsB to the 30S subunit of the ribosome. This binding is critical for the association of RpsA to the ribosomal platform region, and leads to a fully competent 30S ribosome. This could indicate that partial reversion of the trade-off between growth and stress resistance in V14EV1 and V14EV2, carrying a compensatory mutation in RpsB, has a positive effect on binding of RpsA to the pre-initiation complex. This mode of activation suggests an effect of the *rpsB* mutations on restoring translation efficiency in evolved variants V14EV1 and V14EV2. Impaired binding of RpsA to the pre-initiation complex and a lowered translation efficiency would be more pronounced at lower temperatures (Marzi et al., 2007 and references therein), and offer a possible explanation for the lower fitness of the variants at low temperatures. Although challenging in prokaryotes, recent approaches combining ribosome profiling with RNA-sequencing have been used to study translation efficiency (Mohammad et al., 2019), and could be used to investigate the conceived differences in translation efficiency of the variants compared to the LO28 WT.

The results presented in chapters 4 and 5 suggest that the 70S ribosome is involved in a signaling cascade to the stressosome. In addition, stressosome-independent means of signal transduction cannot be excluded, as previous publications showed that even in the absence of RsbV, some SigB activation can occur under some growth conditions (Brigulla et al., 2003; Utratna et al., 2014).

Impact of population heterogeneity on food safety

The effects of the introduction of the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation in *rpsU* were not limited to strain LO28. The same phenotypic switch from high fitness-low stress resistance to low fitness-high stress resistance was observed after the introduction of the RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutation into the background of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe, proving that the single arginine-proline substitution at position 17 in RpsU can explain the observed changes in phenotype. The

possibility of selecting resistant variants from non-model strains has been raised before, and can now be experimentally explored in strains that are much more resistant already, without a reduction on fitness, such as L6 (Aryani et al., 2015). In our current model, stress resistance comes from activation of SigB. It is yet unclear whether activation of SigB in strains that are already very stress resistant will lead to even higher stress resistance, or that the relative effect is lower in these strains. By studying the effect of *rpsU* mutations in these strains, we can quantify if already stress resistant strains pose an additional risk when mutated, and whether there is a trade-off between fitness and stress resistance, as summarized in Figure 6.4. Previous work has described variants 14 and 15 as much more stress resistant than the LO28 WT (Metselaar et al., 2015). However, the *D*-value and μ_{max} of the variants stay within the limits of those currently found in literature (den Besten et al., 2017), and these limits provide valuable input to include *L. monocytogenes* variability in growth and inactivation for quantitative microbial risk assessment (QMRA).

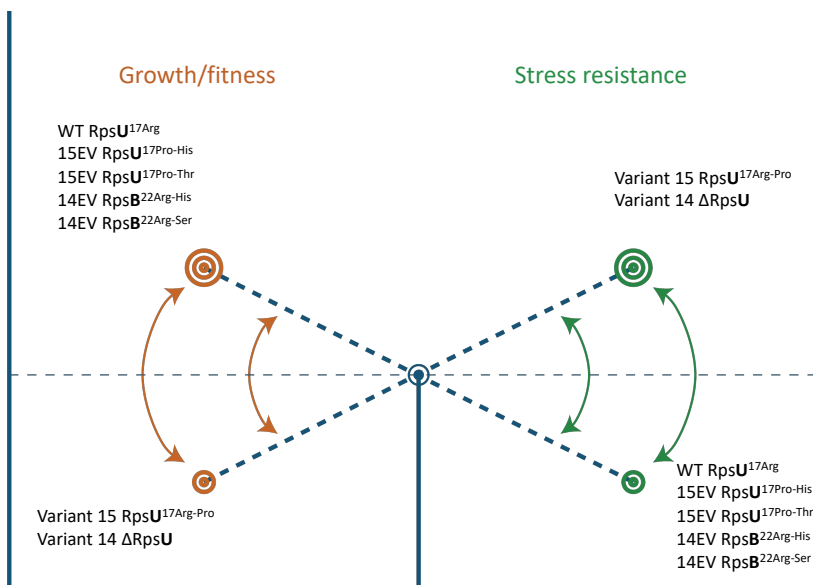


Figure 6.4: The trade-off between fitness and stress resistance, as in Figure 5.6. WT LO28 and evolved variants have a high growth rate, coupled to a low stress resistance (diagonal from upper left corner to lower right corner). The variants have high stress resistance, coupled to low fitness (diagonal from upper right corner to lower left corner). Selection for the inverse phenotype flips the balance.

One of the remaining questions is whether this trade-off is inevitable; would it be possible to push the population to an evolutionary solution that will increase both fitness and stress resistance? The (in)evitability of a trade-off is relevant information for QMRA, where the hypothetical combination of the most stress resistant and the fastest grower can be used as an “extreme worst-case scenario”, using the highest growth rate and stress resistance observed among a group of strains. But if these strains could not exist this would be an unrealistic scenario to include, and a biological trade-off would translate in a correlation between input parameters within QMRA. Interestingly, a recent study that incorporated strain variability in the design of heat treatments showed that strains with the highest resistance are determinant for the overall achieved inactivation, even if the probability of cells having such extreme heat resistance is very low (Zwietering et al. 2021), and it remains to be quantified whether the strain differences in fitness have a similar impact.

Notably, although multiple-stress resistant variants of *L. monocytogenes* have been found after a single exposure to lethal stress (Karatzas and Bennik, 2002; Metselaar et al., 2015; 2013; Rajkovic et al., 2009; Van Boeijsen et al., 2011; 2008), we were thus far unable to identify these variants in the various online sequence databases (e.g., the GenBank database hosted at www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Not finding *rpsU* variants in the databases can be a reflection of the biased content of the databases, which are focussed on strains used in research, as well as the strict rules that the databases have for genome quality and layout before admission. On the other hand, the testing methods used to detect *L. monocytogenes* in food, might also contribute to the fact that *rpsU* variants have not been reported as foodborne isolates. One factor might be that the assessment of stress resistance is done in laboratory conditions, while in a real-life scenario, stress parameters might change, as environmental conditions such as temperature have been described as potent modulators of stress response (Chen et al., 2020). In addition, growth of *L. monocytogenes* in biofilms has been shown to influence the stress response (Van der Veen and Abee, 2010), and might disrupt the trade-off between stress resistance and fitness in the LO28 variants. Moreover, testing foods for the presence of *L. monocytogenes* is routinely done by the food industry and the food inspection authorities and the test methods are based on standardized enrichments. Enrichments are needed to resuscitate damaged cells and selectively amplify the initial low concentrations of cells, and are followed by detection procedures. The growth kinetics during enrichment can be strongly influenced by the history of the cells (Abee et al. 2016; Bannenberg et al., 2021), with yet unknown effects on the probability of isolating a

variant cell. Therefore, it remains to be elucidated whether the difference in fitness between variants and WT strains might also result in a lower probability to detect variants when enrichment-based detection procedures are used.

Conclusions and perspectives

This thesis provided insight into the rate with which diversity in *L. monocytogenes* is generated by mutations. It was shown for the first time, that a strain isolated from food was a mutator strain, and an insertion in the DNA mismatch repair gene *mutS*, was identified as the cause of the mutator phenotype. Additional studies included two previously isolated multiple-stress resistant variants with low fitness and a very similar phenotype, that was linked to the upregulation of SigB, even though one carried a point mutation in the ribosomal *rpsU* gene, while the other had a full deletion of *rpsU*. Recurring selection on increased fitness by experimental evolution revealed a tradeoff between a low-fitness, stress-resistant state, and a high-fitness, low stress-resistant state. We identified additional mutations in the ribosomes of the evolved variants, which revealed a link between the ribosomes and the activation of stress resistance by SigB.

Future research will focus on the current model of reversion of fitness effects via increased translation efficiency. This model suggests a limited extra fitness burden on the variants from the global upregulation of SigB. This can be experimentally verified by generating RpsU^{17Arg-Pro}– Δ *sigB* double mutants, that are expected to have WT stress resistance, combined with low fitness, as they lack the constitutive expression of *sigB*, while still being faced with the fitness effects of the mutation in *rpsU*. Moreover, generation of RpsU^{17Arg-Pro} mutants in genetic backgrounds missing one or multiple stressosome components can shed light on the interaction between the ribosome and the stressosome. In addition, as suggested by Dessaux et al. (2020b) phosphoproteomics are needed to investigate the phosphorylation state of the individual stressosome and ribosome components, in order to gain more insight into the signalling cascade leading to SigB activation.

A better understanding of the factors that influence mutation rate, and thereby the adaptive potential of populations is valuable to increase control of this pathogen. A mechanistic understanding of the observed trade-off between stress resistance and fitness will impact fundamental research, and ultimately, incorporation of these trade-offs into predictive models and risk assessments will add to producing minimally processed foods that are microbiologically safe.

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Summary

Summary

The production of healthy, nutritious, tasty, and safe foods requires efficient strategies to control foodborne pathogens along the food chain. One of these pathogens is the notorious foodborne *Listeria monocytogenes*. *L. monocytogenes* is a robust, ubiquitously present human pathogen, and the cause of life-threatening listeriosis in the very young, elderly, pregnant, and immunocompromised persons, the so-called YOPI population. The incidence of *L. monocytogenes* infections is low, but the severity of listeriosis and the high mortality rate rank it among the top three causes of death by foodborne disease.

There is an inherent heterogeneity in microbial populations, and this heterogeneity gives *L. monocytogenes* the capacity to cope with stresses during transmission from the environment to the human host. Stochastic differences in stress response between individual cells of a population, lead to the differential survival of cells after lethal stresses such as heat or low pH, and ultimately result in tailing of the inactivation curve. The heterogeneity in a population can be either transient, where certain cells temporarily have different properties, or stable, where individual cells have undergone genetic changes that make them better able to resist (lethal) stress. Cells with genetic changes are called stable variants, and can be isolated from the tail of the inactivation curve.

Almost all research that has been done with *L. monocytogenes* has focussed on the diversity that is already present in a population. Therefore, in chapter 2, we investigated the rate at which new diversity is generated by mutations. Using a high-throughput protocol, we have experimentally determined the mutation rate of 20 *L. monocytogenes* strains, and found a mutator strain with an insertion in the DNA mismatch repair gene *mutS*, that resulted in a 100-1000-fold increase in mutation rate. To our knowledge, this is the first mutator strain of *L. monocytogenes* isolated from food.

In chapter 3 we focussed on two previously isolated multiple-stress resistant variants, both with a mutation in the ribosomal *rspU* gene, one with a point mutation in the *rpsU* gene, and one with a deletion of the whole *rpsU* gene. We described the overlap in the stress response of these two variants, and found that even though the mutation in *rpsU* was very different, the phenotypic responses were remarkably similar. Both variants were multiple-stress resistant due to massive upregulation of genes under the control of the stress-response regulator SigB. Moreover, both variants showed increased attachment to Caco-2 cells, so potentially more infective, and a significantly lower maximum specific growth rate, i.e., lower fitness.

Strains are known to persist in the food processing environment for many years, where they are exposed to continuous selection pressures. In chapters 4 and 5 we used experimental

evolution to explore what can happen when these stress-resistant variants with lower fitness are exposed to continuous selection for increased fitness. We focused on the same two variants as in Chapter 3, with a point mutation in and with a complete deletion of *rpsU*. We were able to select for additional mutations that reversed the phenotype from low-fitness and stress-resistant, to high-fitness with low stress-resistance, thereby revealing a tradeoff between these two states. Complementary whole genome sequencing and SNP analysis showed that in the point mutation variant, the additional compensating mutation occurred in *rpsU*, while in the deletion mutant, the additional mutation occurred in the ribosomal *rpsB* gene. Thereby we have revealed a link between the ribosomes and the activation of stress resistance by SigB.

In conclusion, the work presented in this thesis highlights various microbial adaptive and evolutionary mechanisms that contribute to the heterogeneous behavior of *L. monocytogenes*. This thesis revealed a trade-off between stress resistance and fitness in stress-isolated variants and it heightened our understanding of how this notorious pathogen is able to grow and survive in changing environments. A mechanistic understanding of the observed trade-off between stress resistance and fitness will impact fundamental research, and ultimately, incorporation of these trade-offs into risk assessments will add to producing minimally processed foods that are microbiologically safe.

Acknowledgements

List of publications

Overview of completed training activities

Acknowledgements

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Publications

- Tendolkar, U., Van Diepeningen, A., Joshi, A., **Koomen, J.**, Bradoo, R., Baveja, S., and Agrawal, S. 2015. Rhinosinusitis caused by *Saksenaea erythrospora* in an immunocompetent patient in India: a first report. *JMM Case Reports*. 2. 10.1099/jmmcr.0.000044
- Abee, T., **Koomen, J.**, Metselaar, K. I., Zwietering, M. H., & Besten, den, H. M. W. 2016. Impact of Pathogen Population Heterogeneity and Stress-Resistant Variants on Food Safety. *Annual Review of Food Science and Technology*, 7(1), 439–456. <http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-food-041715-033128>
- Salverda, M. L. M., **Koomen, J.**, Koopmanschap, B., Zwart, M. P., & de Visser, J. A. G. M. 2017. Adaptive benefits from small mutation supplies in an antibiotic resistance enzyme. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 114(48), 12773–12778. <http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1712999114>
- Koomen, J.**, Besten, den, H. M. W., Metselaar, K. I., Tempelaars, M. H., Wijnands, L. M., Zwietering, M. H., & Abee, T. 2018. Gene profiling-based phenotyping for identification of cellular parameters that contribute to fitness, stress-tolerance and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes* variants. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 283, 14–21. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.06.003>
- Koomen, J.**, Huijboom, L., Ma, X., Tempelaars, M.H., Boeren, S., Zwietering, M.H., Den Besten, H.M.W., Abee, T. 2021. Amino acid substitutions in ribosomal protein RpsU enable switching between high fitness and multiple-stress resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 351, 109269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2021.109269>
- Lake, F.B., van Overbeek, L.S., Baars, J.J.P., **Koomen, J.**, Abee, T., Den Besten, H.M.W. 2021. Genomic characteristics of *Listeria monocytogenes* isolated during mushroom (*Agaricus bisporus*) production and processing, *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 360, 109438. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2021.109438>.
- Garre, A., **Koomen, J.**, Den Besten, H.M.W., Zwietering, M.H. Modelling population growth in R with the biogrowth package. *Submitted for publication*.

Overview of completed training activities

Discipline specific activities

Courses

Genetics and physiology of food-associated microorganisms VLAG, Wageningen, NL)	2016
Reaction kinetics in Food Science (VLAG, Wageningen, NL)	2016
Management of Microbiological Hazards in Foods (VLAG, Wageningen, NL)	2017
Data Scientist with R (DataCamp, online)	2018

Conferences

FEMS (Valencia, ES)	2017
FEMS Microbial stress meeting (Kinsale, IE)	2018
KNVM Symposium (Bilthoven, NL)	2018
NLSEB (Ede, NL)	2018
ISOPOL (Toronto, CA)	2019

General courses

Teaching and supervising thesis students (ESD)	2015
VLAG PhD week (VLAG)	2015
Transmission Electron Microscopy (WEMC)	2017
Career orientation (WGS)	2018
Data visualization with R (DataCamp)	2018
Data analyst with R	2019

Optional courses and activities

Preparation of research proposal	2015
FHM weekly meetings	2015-2020
Seminars Microbial Population Genetics	2016-2019
FHM PhD study tour Italy	2017
Organization FHM PhD study tour Italy	2017

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