Microbial composition and dynamics in environmental samples from a ready-to-eat food production facility with a long-term colonisation of *Listeria monocytogenes*

Maria Diaz, Heather Aird, Thanh Le Viet, Ana Victoria Gutiérrez, Nasmille Larke-Mejia, Oleksii Omelchenko, Lluis Moragues-Solanas, Joachim Fritscher, Nicolle Som, Jim McLauchlin, Falk Hildebrand, Frieda Jørgensen, Matthew Gilmour

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- 1 Microbial composition and dynamics in environmental samples from a ready-to-eat food production
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- 4 Maria Diaz^a, Heather Aird^b, Thanh Le Viet^a, Ana Victoria Gutiérrez^a, Nasmille Larke-Mejia^a, Oleksii
- 5 Omelchenko^{a, c}, Lluis Moragues-Solanas^{a, c}, Joachim Fritscher^{a, c}, Nicolle Som^a, Jim McLauchlin^d,

6 Falk Hildebrand^{a, e}, Frieda Jørgensen ^d, Matthew Gilmour ^{a, c*}

- 7
- ⁸ ^a Quadram Institute Bioscience, Rosalind Franklin Road, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7UQ,
- 9 Norwich, United Kingdom
- ^b UK Health Security Agency, Food Water and Environmental Microbiology Laboratory York, National
- 11 Agri-Food Innovation Campus, Sand Hutton, York, YO41 1LZ, United Kingdom
- 12 ^c University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7TJ, United Kingdom
- ^d Gastrointestinal Infections and Food Safety (One Health) Division, UK Health Security Agency, 61
- 14 Colindale Avenue, London NW9 5EQ, UK.
- ^e Earlham Institute, Colney Ln, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7UZ, United Kingdom
- 16 *Corresponding author: <u>Matthew.Gilmour@quadram.ac.uk</u>. Quadram Institute Bioscience, Rosalind
- 17 Franklin Road, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7UQ, United Kingdom
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23 ABSTRACT

24 Listeria monocytogenes is a foodborne pathogen of significant concern for the food industry due to 25 its remarkable ability to persist through safety control efforts, posing a subsequent health threat to 26 consumers. Understanding the microbial communities coexisting with L. monocytogenes in food 27 processing environments provides insights into its persistence mechanisms. We investigated the 28 microbial communities on non-food contact surfaces in a facility producing ready-to-eat foods, 29 known to harbour a ST121 L. monocytogenes strain over multiple years. A 10-week sampling period 30 was coordinated with the company and public health authorities. Metagenomic analysis revealed a 31 stable microbial composition dominated by *Pseudomonas fluorescens*. While highly related 32 populations were present in high-care production zones, distinctive taxa characteristic of specific areas were observed (e.g., Sphingomonas aerolata). Although Listeria spp. were not detected in 33 34 metagenomes, they were detected in cultured samples, suggesting low relative abundance in factory 35 settings. The findings suggest that a stable resident microbiota, with distinct adaptations to different 36 areas within the factory, was selected for by their collective ability to survive control efforts in this 37 environment. Listeria spp. was a member of this microbial community, albeit at low abundance, and may likewise benefit from the mutualism of the overall microbial community. 38 39 40 Keywords: Listeria monocytogenes, food processing environments, microbial ecology, 41 metagenomics, food safety 42 43

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47 1. INTRODUCTION

Material surfaces in food production environments (FPEs) can be colonized by communities of 48 49 microbes that persist over time despite the multitude of approaches used to control microbial 50 hazards, such as rigorous cleaning and disinfection routines and the use of controlled temperature in 51 the facilities. These microbial communities, or resident microbiota, consist mainly of non-pathogenic 52 microorganisms but can also contain pathogenic bacteria which are usually in very low abundance 53 [1, 2]. Amongst foodborne pathogens, Listeria monocytogenes is a significant concern for food 54 businesses and health and food safety authorities. L. monocytogenes causes invasive listeriosis, a 55 relatively low-incidence foodborne infection, where for example, England and Wales respectively reported 0.39 and 0.16 cases of listeriosis per 100,000 population in 2021 [3]. However, L. 56 57 monocytogenes ranks among the top three causes of foodborne diseases resulting in hospital admissions in Western countries [4], and has an alarmingly high case fatality rate of, for example, 58 17.5% in England and Wales in 2021 [3]. 59 60 Controlling L. monocytogenes poses challenges to food businesses, as it is a highly resilient 61 microorganism with distinctive physiological characteristics. Notably, this pathogen thrives at low 62 temperatures, tolerates low pH levels and high salt concentrations, and can become tolerant to 63 biocides [5]. These characteristics contribute to its survival and persistence in food environments, 64 particularly in humid and low-temperature areas, even after regular cleaning and disinfection [5, 6]. 65 The persistent presence of this pathogen in FPEs poses a significant risk for the contamination of 66 food products, as *L. monocytogenes* may transmit from the environment into foods, or may already be present in food ingredients and then remain in finished food products. 67 68 This issue of controlling *L. monocytogenes* becomes particularly important in ready-to-eat (RTE) food 69 manufacturing settings because products are consumed without further cooking and are often 70 stored at refrigeration temperatures in which L. monocytogenes can reproduce. Significant

71 foodborne outbreaks can occur when contaminated RTE foods are served widely to vulnerable

72 populations [7], with notable examples occurring in Canada in 2008 [8] and the UK in 2019 [9]. 73 Similarly, pre-packed sandwiches served in hospitals have been identified as the most common food 74 vehicle leading to listeriosis in England and Wales [10]. Importantly, different L. monocytogenes 75 subtypes have been assessed at varying levels of food safety risk; for instance the most virulent 76 strains have a more full complement of virulence genes such as LIPI-1 and inIA (as commonly seen 77 with sequence types (ST) ST1, ST4 and ST87), whereas those strains with a truncated inIA (as 78 commonly seen with ST9 and ST121) are also associated with food environments and can be 79 assessed as lower risk for causing illness [11].

80 The resident microbiota that coexists with L. monocytogenes in environmental settings may have a 81 role in the survival of this pathogen. For example, a protective effect of *Pseudomonas* biofilms on *L*. 82 monocytogenes has been observed, which suggested that control of Pseudomonas in the FPEs could 83 reduce contamination of L. monocytogenes [12, 13]. Studies using amplicon sequencing or 84 metagenomics alongside culture enrichments have explored the resident microbiota coexisting with 85 L. monocytogenes in various FPEs [2], including fish and meat processing settings, dairy factories [14] 86 and fruit packing facilities [15]. Despite the well-known health risks associated with L. 87 monocytogenes-contaminated RTE foods for human health [16], there has been limited research on 88 the microbial communities coexisting with *L. monocytogenes* in RTE-food production facilities [17]. 89 Culture-based isolation followed by subtyping using whole genome sequencing (WGS) are 90 increasingly being used to support surveillance, source attribution and outbreak response activities 91 [18]. For example, in the UK a case of listeriosis was reported in 2017 where a hospitalised patient 92 consumed contaminated sandwiches and developed listeriosis [19]. Subsequent investigation by 93 UKHSA using WGS revealed that the ST121 *L. monocytogenes* strain isolated from the patient was 94 genetically indistinguishable to isolates found in food products and environmental samples originating from a UK-based company (hereafter, 'Company X'). Furthermore, the presence of the 95 96 ST121 L. monocytogenes and other Listeria species within the FPE of Company X were revealed over

97	2017-2020 [19], indicating a persistent colonization of the factory premises and subsequent
98	contamination of equipment, food contact surfaces, and food products. Following the investigation,
99	the company implemented corrective measures, including a thorough assessment of the factory
100	cleaning procedures and layout, which led to a substantial reduction in food product contamination
101	[19]. Despite efforts in eliminating this pathogen, the ST121 strain was still detected on non-food
102	contact surfaces of the factory in 2021 during follow-up surveillance activities (results not shown),
103	presenting an opportunity to study and understand the microbial factors related to its persistence.
104	In this study, we used shotgun metagenomics to investigate the resident microbiota in Company X, a
105	RTE-food factory with persistent L. monocytogenes contamination. Sampling was coordinated over a
106	10-week period with the company and with public health authorities, and changes to the microbiota
107	resulting from cleaning and disinfection were evaluated. Additionally, we assessed the feasibility of
108	applying a quasimetagenomics approach (involving bacterial culture enrichments prior to
109	sequencing) for source tracking of Listeria spp. and L. monocytogenes in FPE environmental samples.
110	An understanding of the microbial composition and dynamics in food production environments using
111	innovative sequencing techniques can contribute to novel and improved strategies for preventing
112	and managing L. monocytogenes contamination.
113	
114	2. MATERIALS AND METHODS
115	
116	2.1. Sample collection and preparation

117 Environmental samples were collected by UKHSA officers from areas of a RTE-factory that had

shown recurrent contamination with *L. monocytogenes*.

119 An initial trial sampling event was performed in November 2021 (T0) to test the performance of the

swabs for metagenomic analysis. Samples were obtained by swabbing 10 x 10 cm areas according to

UKHSA environmental surface sampling microbiological guidelines [20, 21] using 3M[™] Sponge-Stick
 embedded in 10 mL neutralizing buffer as sampling media. In addition, maximum recovery media
 (MRM) and neutralizing buffer collected from sterile swabs were inoculated with 10⁸, 10⁷ and 10⁶
 CFU/mL of *L. monocytogenes* serovar 1/2a strain 396044 and used as control to test DNA extraction
 and sequencing procedures. Based on these trials, the dry Sponge-Stick embedded in MRM
 demonstrated adequate performance in the DNA extraction and sequencing workflows, and this
 method was selected for continued sampling.

128 The samples were obtained from non-food contact surfaces located in 10 different sites 129 (Supplementary Site description) in the high care zone of the factory (designated area of the factory where products are handled under controlled environment to minimize the risk of 130 131 contamination), which is divided in two areas: preparation (where the food ingredients are stored and kept at a controlled temperature of 4 °C) and production (where the ingredients are combined 132 133 and packed, kept at a controlled temperature of 10 °C) (Supplementary Fig. 1). A drain (located at 134 the production area of the factory) and 9 floor surfaces (4 located in the preparation area, 5 located 135 in the production area of the factory) were sampled and sent under refrigeration to the Quadram 136 Institute (Norwich, United Kingdom) in accordance with the Food Standards Agency Food Law Code 137 of Practice [22] for further processing.

Samples for characterization of the environmental microbial populations were collected over 10 weeks: T1 occurred in February 2022 during normal operation of the factory; T2 and T3 occurred two months later with T2 samples collected in the morning during operation of the factory and T3 samples collected in the afternoon on the same day after routine cleaning had occurred; the final samples (T4) were collected one week following T2/T3 (Supplementary_Sample_metadata). Samples were obtained as described above, using the 3M[™] dry Sponge-Stick embedded in 10 mL MRM as sampling buffer.

Upon receipt at the laboratory, all swab samples were homogenised for 1 min in a stomacher (400
Circulator Lab Blender, Seward) and the buffer was aseptically collected and divided into aliquots for
further processing. For each sample, a 800 µL aliquot was stored at -20 °C and used for total DNA
extraction and a 2 mL aliquot was stored in 20% glycerol at -80 °C for further microbiological testing.

149

150

2.2. Listeria enrichment and isolation

151 Listeria enrichments were performed according to UKHSA guidelines [23] with some modifications. 152 Briefly, a primary enrichment was prepared by inoculating 1 mL of sample stored in glycerol in half 153 Fraser broth (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 1 in 10 proportion. After 24 h incubation at 30 °C, a 154 secondary enrichment was prepared by inoculating 300 µL of the primary enrichment into 30 mL of 155 Full Fraser broth (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The theoretical limit of detection of the modified 156 method is 10 CFU per swab instead of 1 CFU per swab. A positive and negative control, consisting of media inoculated with L. monocytogenes serovar 1/2a strain 396044 [19] and uninoculated media 157 158 respectively, were used and treated as the rest of the samples. Both, primary and secondary 159 enrichments were incubated for 48 h each. Using a 10 µL loop, both enrichments were sub-cultured 160 after 6, 24 and 48 h incubation to Listeria chromogenic (ALOA) agar (Thermo Fisher Scientific). 161 Presumptive Listeria spp. and presumptive L. monocytogenes colonies were selected from the ALOA 162 plates, which were subsequently re-streaked to new ALOA plates to obtain pure colonies, and subsequently preserved in 20% glycerol at -80 °C. Aliquots (800 μL) were collected from primary and 163 164 secondary enrichments after 6, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30 and 48 h incubation and stored at -20 °C for subsequent DNA extraction. 165

166

167 2.3. DNA extraction

Total microbial DNA was obtained from 800 µL of sampling buffer homogenates for the direct
 metagenomic sequencing, from 800 µL of *Listeria* enrichment cultures for the quasimetagenomics

approach, and from 800 µL of overnight pure cultures of *Listeria* for WGS of the isolates. In all
instances, DNA was extracted using the Maxwell[®] RSC PureFood Pathogen Kit on a Maxwell[®] RSC 48
automated extraction system (Promega) according to manufacturer's instructions. A negative
control consisting of buffer obtained from sterile swabs or from uninoculated Half-Fraser and Fraser
broth was included on each DNA extraction batch. DNA concentration was measured using the
QuantiFluor[®] dsDNA kit on a GloMax[®] Explorer plate reader (Promega).

176

177 2.4. Sequencing

178 The environmental samples were analysed by direct metagenomic analysis to characterise the total 179 environmental microbial population and/or by quasimetagenomics to identify and subtype Listeria 180 genomes. The total DNA extracted either directly from environmental sampling buffer homogenates, 181 from Listeria enrichments, or from Listeria isolates was sequenced at the Quadram Institute (Norwich, United Kingdom). DNA was normalised and used to prepare 150 bp paired-end sequencing 182 183 libraries with the Illumina DNA Prep kit (Illumina Inc, CA, USA). Sequencing was performed on an 184 Illumina Nextseq500 instrument using a Mid Output Flowcell and the NSQ[®] 500 Mid Output KT v2 (300 cycle) following the Illumina recommendations. 185 186 DNA from selected Listeria enrichment timepoints was also sequenced using Oxford Nanopore long-

read sequencing technology. Native barcoded libraries were generated using oxford Nanopore
Sequencing Ligation kit (SQK-LSK109, Oxford Nanopore Technologies) with the Native Barcoding
Expansion 96 kit (EXP-NBD196, Oxford Nanopore Technologies). Libraries were sequenced on a
PromethION instrument using R9.4.1 flow cells and raw sequencing data was collected with ONT
MinKNOW software (v4.0.5). Subsequently, base calling and de-multiplexing was carried out using
Guppy v6.06 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies)

193

194 2.5. Bioinformatic analysis

195 2.5.1. Read quality filtering and taxonomic classification.

Illumina raw reads derived from direct sequencing of the environmental samples were quality
filtered and contaminating chicken and human reads were removed, using the genomes *Gallus gallus* GRCg6a and *Homo sapiens* hg38 as reference and the pipeline KneadData v 0.10.0 [24].
Illumina raw reads derived from *Listeria* enrichments and pure cultures were quality filtered with
fastp [25]. Filtered reads were taxonomically classified with MetaPhlAn4 (v 4.0.3) [26] using default
parameters.

Nanopore reads were processed with Porechop [27] to remove adapters; the trimmed reads were then quality filtered with Filtlong [28] to keep the 95% of reads with best quality. Read quality was assessed with NanoStat [29]. Taxonomic classification of the filtered nanopore reads was performed with the online BugSeq pipeline [30]. To ensure comparability with MetaPhlAn4 analysis, unclassified reads were not taken into consideration when calculating relative abundances.

207

208 2.5.2. Direct mapping of metagenomic reads against reference genomes.

To assess the potential detection of *Listeria* spp. genomes within our study, unfiltered metagenomic reads were mapped against the draft genomes of the identified *Listeria* species and subsequently genome coverage was calculated using MATAFILER [31], mapping was performed using bowtie2 and alignments post-processed as described in [32]. The genome was considered to be present in the metagenomes if the median coverage of the contigs within the N90 was >2.

214

215 2.5.3. Genome, Metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) and binning.

216 Genome assembly of *Listeria* isolates was performed on filtered reads with Shovill [33] using Spades

217 [34] as assembler. Hybrid metagenome-assembled genomes were obtained from the *Listeria*

218 enrichments using OPERA-MS v.0.9.0 [35] on the filtered reads using default parameters. The

219	resulting assemblies were binned with metaWRAP v1.3.0 [36], which includes MaxBin2 and
220	CONCOCT as binning tools and a binning refinement module. The quality of the WGS and bins was
221	assessed with CheckM [37] and QUAST [38] and taxonomic classification was performed with GTDB-
222	tk [39] with the GTDB database (Release 95).
223	
224	2.5.4. MLST classification
225	MLST classification of Illumina raw reads derived from the Listeria enrichments was performed with
226	MetaMLST v1.2.2 [40] while nanopore reads were classified with krocus v1.0.1. [41]. Metagenome-
227	assembled genomes derived from enrichments and genomes derived from Listeria isolates were
228	typed with MLST v2.16.1 [42] against the PubMLST database [43].
229	
230	2.5.5. SNP distance calculation
231	The genomes of the <i>L. monocytogenes</i> isolates obtained in this study were compared with those of
232	the 4 <i>L. monocytogenes</i> isolates obtained from the environment of the same factory in 2017 [19].
233	SNPs differentiating reference isolates and study isolates were detected using Snippy [44] and the
234	outputs were combined into a core SNP alignment using the snippy-core function and counted with
235	snp-dist [45].
236	
237	2.6. Statistical analysis
238	The following analysis was performed for data derived from direct sequencing: species richness and
239	the alpha diversity indexes Shannon and Simpson were estimated using the diversity function within
240	the R package vegan (version 2.6-4) [46] and compared with the wilcox.test and kruskal.test
241	functions on the R package stats (version 4.2.2) [47]. Differences in microbiome composition were

evaluated by Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) of the beta diversity Bray-Curtis distance,

calculated with the *pco* function and the *vegdist* function within the R packages *ecodist* [48] and

244 *vegan* respectively. The PCoA was plotted with *ggplot* and data ellipses were drawn based on the

factory area with the *stat_ellipse* function, both contained in the R package *ggplot2* [49].

246 Metagenome dissimilarities between area of the factory or time points of collection were tested by

247 Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance Using Distance Matrices (PERMANOVA) with

the *adonis* function in the R package *vegan*.

249 To analyse associations between taxa, relative abundances were transformed to centered log ratios

using the *clr* function [50] and correlation test was performed with the *corr.test* and the Spearman

251 method within the *psych* package [51].

Relative abundance at genus or species level was plotted using *ggplot*. Differences in relative
abundance were calculated using the ANCOMBC R package and considered significant when the

the *top_taxa* function within the R package *microbiome* [53]. All R analyses were performed with R
version 4.2.2.

adjusted p-value (q-value) was less than 0.01 [52]. The 15 most abundant taxa were extracted using

257

254

258 3. RESULTS

259 3.1. Selection of swabs with maximum recovery media for direct metagenomic analysis

To assess the viability of a direct sequencing workflow for profiling of the resident microbiota in a RTE-food factory, trial samples were collected from 10 non-food contact surfaces located within the high-care zone of the factory that had previously exhibited recurring culture positive findings for *L. monocytogenes.*

For the initial sampling event (T0), 10 environmental samples were collected using swabs immersed
in neutralizing buffer, matching routine microbiological sampling approaches [20, 21]. The efficiency

266 of DNA extraction and library preparation methods were tested on these samples. Additionally, mock samples were created by spiking 10⁸, 10⁷ and 10⁶ CFU of *L. monocytogenes* serovar 1/2a strain 267 268 396044 into two types of sterile sampling medium (neutralizing buffer and MRM). Notably, after 269 extraction, all environmental swabs and mock samples yielded quantifiable DNA (0.66-5.98 ng/µL 270 and 0.12-3.06 ng/µL respectively; Supplementary_Swab_testing). No statistical differences were 271 observed in the DNA yielded from neutralizing and MRM swabs (p-value = 0.437). However, 272 differences were observed in the number of sequencing reads: TO swab samples did not yield any 273 reads, while mock samples made with neutralising buffer yielded 94-136 reads and mock samples 274 made with MRM yielded 17,752-149,752 reads (p-value = 0.0216). None of the reads from the 275 neutralising buffer samples were classified as Listeria, whereas 2,800-68,709 (47.06-99.96%) reads 276 were assigned to *Listeria* genus from the MRM samples (p-value = 0.0336) 277 (Supplementary_Swab_testing). Based on these trial results where neutralisation buffer inhibited 278 direct sequencing efforts, in all subsequent sampling events, dry swabs immersed in MRM were 279 utilised.

280

3.2. Microbial composition of the factory environment remains stable at standard operation and
 post-cleaning phases, but differs between areas of the factory

283 To evaluate the microbial populations in the factory environment, the metagenomes of 40 non-food 284 contact surfaces in the high-care zone of the factory were compared between sampling timepoints 285 (T1, T2, T3 and T4; with 10 samples per timepoint) and between areas of the factory (16 samples 286 correlated to the preparation area and 24 samples to the production area). DNA concentrations in 287 the samples extracted from environmental swabs varied from 0.02 to 9.24 ng/ μ L and no DNA was 288 detected in blank samples. Shotgun sequencing of the DNA from the 40 environmental swab 289 samples resulted in 75 million reads across all samples (average of 1,741,932 per sample, 290 Supplementary_Direct_Sequencing). After reads were quality filtered, 9 samples resulted in less than

291 3K reads (Supplementary_Direct_Sequencing) suggesting failure during sequencing. The 9 failed 292 samples included the 3 negative controls and 3 samples from each of timepoint T2 and T3; and 293 within each timepoint of T2 and T3, 2 samples were from the production area and 1 from the 294 preparation area. Samples with less thank 3K sequences failed taxonomic classification with 295 MetaPhIAn4 and were not included for further metagenomic analysis. In the remaining 34 296 experimental samples, variation in microbial composition at different timepoints and between the 297 two main areas of the high-care zone of the factory were analysed for alpha diversity indexes 298 (richness, Shannon and Simpson). There were no significant differences for alpha diversity over the 299 sample collection time course (Fig. 1A; Supplementary_stats_a-diversity). Between different areas of 300 the factory, similar medians were also observed for α -indexes although statistically significant 301 differences were observed for the Simpson index (p-value = 0.0406) (Fig. 1B). 302 To visualise differences in the microbial composition between groups (e.g. preparation vs. 303 production areas or samples taken at the same site at different time points), Bray-Curtis similarity 304 distances were compared using PCoA (Fig. 1C). The first and second principal components explained 305 42.4% of the differences in microbial composition. Samples collected from the same sites tended to 306 cluster together independently of the time in which they were collected (adonis p-value = 0.175) 307 whereas the microbial taxa in samples collected from the two areas of the factory were related but 308 clustered into separate groups with a significant difference (adonis p-value = 0.001).



311	Figure 1. Changes in bacterial diversity in the different areas of the factory over ten weeks. A and
312	B) Alpha diversity evaluated with richness, Shannon and Simpson indexes depending on A) time and
313	B) area of the factory. Each boxplot represents the interquartile range (IQR) of the alpha diversity
314	indexes values and the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. C) Principal
315	Coordinate Analysis of the Bray-Curtis distance level. The ellipses represent normal data ellipses for
316	the samples in the preparation and production areas of the factory. Statistical comparisons with the
317	A) Kruskal-Wallis, B) Wilcoxon and C) Adonis tests are presented in supplementary materials.
318	Significant differences for alpha diversity (p-value < 0.05) are indicated in the graphs with an asterisk
319	(*).
320	
520	
321	3.3. Pseudomonas was the most abundant and stable genus on floor surfaces while other
322	taxonomic groups were differentially abundant between areas of the factory.
323	The most prevalent and abundant genus observed in the sampling period was Pseudomonas, with
324	Psychrobacter, Sphingomonas, and Chryseobacterium also being highly represented, particularly in
325	the production area (Fig. 2A). When sequences were classified to the species level, Pseudomonas
326	fluorescens was most abundant, with Pseudomonas caeni, Pseudomonas viridiflava, and
327	<i>Pseudomonas rhizosphaerae</i> also being observed in fewer samples and at less abundance (Fig. 2B).
328	For other genera, Sphingomonas aerolata, Chryseobacterium spp, Psychrobacter faecalis,
329	Psychrobacter sp. 1501 2011, Streptococcus thermophilus and Galactobacter caseinivorans were
330	observed in multiple samples (Fig. 2B). Amongst these taxa, only <i>P. fluorescens</i> was consistently
331	present in at least 90% of the samples, accounting for a relative abundance of \geq 1%. Further, the
332	relative abundance of <i>P. fluorescens</i> remained remarkably consistent between both the production
333	and preparation areas of the factory, with no significant differences observed
334	(Supplementary_ANCOMBC). In addition, the relative abundance of this genus was stable over time

as indicated by the absence of significant differences between timepoints

336 (Supplementary_ANCOMBC).

337 Conversely, significant differences in the abundance of other taxonomic groups were found between 338 the two areas of the factory (Fig. 2C and Supplementary Fig. 2). For instance, S. aerolata was one of 339 the most prevalent microorganisms in the production area, exhibiting a higher abundance there 340 compared to the preparation area. Within the preparation area, multiple species of Pseudomonas 341 were more abundant (Fig. 2C). No differences in the relative abundance of any of the taxonomic 342 groups were identified from the metagenomes among any of the timepoints, even when comparing 343 T2 and T3, which corresponded to periods before and after cleaning (Supplementary ANCOMBC). 344 Considering the metagenome from all sampling points, there was a strong positive correlation 345 between certain individual species of Pseudomonas with other species within the same genus, and also with species within the genus Psychrobacter, Flavobacter and Serratia (Supplementary Fig. 3 346 and Supplementary_Significant_correlations). Additionally, a strong positive correlation between 347 348 species of Pseudomonas and Brochothrix thermosphacta and species within the genus Rahnella and 349 *Providencia* were observed (Supplementary Fig. 3 and Supplementary Significant_correlations). 350 Notably, Listeria spp. was not detected in any of the metagenomes using MetaPhlAn4 or by direct 351 mapping against genomes of L. monocytogenes and L. seeligeri isolated in this study. If present in the 352 samples, Listeria was at very low abundance and below the threshold of detection with the direct 353 metagenomic sequencing approach.



Figure 2. Relative abundance of the environmental samples. Bubble plots representing the relative abundance of A) genus and B) the 15 most abundant species identified in the factory environment. Each column represents a sample and samples have been grouped by area of the factory and coloured by time of collection of the sample. C) Comparison of the relative abundance at production and preparation areas for species exhibiting significant differences in abundance, as determined by ANCOM-BC analysis. Each boxplot represents the interquartile range (IQR) of the relative abundance and the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values.

361

362 3.4. Culture enrichments reveal the persisting ST121 strain of Listeria monocytogenes and
 363 coexisting Listeria seeligerii

In the absence of detectable *Listeria* in the metagenomes of environmental samples taken from
areas recently confirmed to harbour *Listeria* spp., culture enrichments were performed for all 50
environmental samples to identify and type *Listeria* spp. To note, although samples from TO

367	containing neutralizing buffer were not suitable for direct metagenomic analysis, they remained
368	appropriate for culture enrichments. L. seeligeri was isolated from 17 of 50 samples, and notably, L.
369	monocytogenes was also isolated from 3 of these samples (Sites H and I at T0 and Site E at T4)
370	(Supplementary – Listeria_detection_standard), one of them (Site E at T4) being part of the samples
371	included in the microbial composition analysis. All L. monocytogenes isolates were classified by MLST
372	as ST121 (Supplementary_WGS_isolates) with 9 or less SNPs observed between genomes of
373	environmental isolates recovered from the same factory in 2017 (Supplementary_SNP_distance).
374	The lineage of <i>L. seeligeri</i> isolates could not be traced back to strains identified in earlier years at the
375	facility since genomes of this species from this factory had not been previously subjected to
376	sequencing.
377	To investigate if the presence of <i>Listeria</i> spp. correlated with differences in the microbial
378	composition of the direct metagenomes of environmental samples, alpha diversity indexes (richness,
379	Shannon and Simpson) and Bray-Curtis similarity distances were compared using PCoA
380	(Supplementary Fig. 4). The alpha diversity indexes were similar in all samples, whether Listeria was
381	detected or not, although slightly higher richness was observed in Listeria positive samples (p-value
382	= 0.0447) (Supplementary_stats_a-diversity and Supplementary Fig. 4A). The overall microbial
383	composition of the samples was also independent of the presence of <i>Listeria</i> spp. (adonis p-value =
384	0.062) (Supplementary_stats_b-diversity and Supplementary Fig. 4B).
385	
386	3.5. Co-occurring genera and Listeria species limited the quasimetagenomic classification of
387	Listeria monocytogenes sequence types.
388	As an alternative method for the detection of <i>Listeria</i> in the environmental samples, we assessed the
389	performance of a quasimetagenomics approach (sequencing of Listeria culture enrichments) in

390 terms of ST identification. Aliquots of the *Listeria* enrichments were collected at timepoints during

391 culture and sequenced with Illumina and nanopore platforms. For the 3 *L. monocytogenes* positive

392	samples, all 16 enrichment timepoints collected during the primary and secondary enrichments
393	were sequenced using Illumina technology to observe the effects of culture enrichment on the
394	quasimetagenome. Furthermore, 2 selected enrichment timepoints per sample were sequenced
395	with nanopore technology to observe any methodological attributes of long versus short read
396	sequencing during enrichment. Notably, for the <i>L. monocytogenes</i> positive samples, library
397	preparation was successfully achieved only after a minimum of 24 h of enrichment (Fig. 3 and
398	Supplementary_Quasimetagenomics). Sequencing of the enrichments resulted in 1.9 – 10.4 million
399	Illumina reads and 19.32 – 57.94 thousand nanopore reads per sample (Fig. 3 and
400	Supplementary_Quasimetagenomics). For the 14 L. seeligeri positive samples, selected enrichment
401	timepoints (primary enrichment after 20, 24, 28 and 48h and secondary enrichment after 20 and 48h
402	of incubation) were sequenced with Illumina technology (Supplementary Fig. 5 and
403	Supplementary_Quasimetagenomics). None of the primary enrichments after 20 and 24h produced
404	successful libraries, while the successful ones resulted in a range of 1.85 – 12.15 million Illumina
405	reads for this set of samples.



Figure 3. Microbial dynamics of *Listeria* enrichments in samples positive for *L. monocytogenes* and *L. seeligeri*. Barplots show the relative abundance of A) and B) the 10 most abundant genera and C)
and D) the 10 most abundant *Listeria* species identified in the enrichment using A) C) Illumina or B)
D) nanopore sequencing. Timepoints 1E and 2E indicate primary and secondary enrichments
respectively. The tables in panels C) and D) show the ST identified from raw reads (100001 refers to
new loci-sequences or new STs [40]).

- 412
- 413 As anticipated, the proportion of *Listeria* reads amongst all microbial reads varied as the
- 414 enrichments progressed, increasing in the secondary enrichments (0.75 61.57 % *Listeria* short
- 415 reads in primary enrichments; 15.12 99.87 % Listeria short reads in secondary enrichments) (Fig. 3
- and Supplementary Fig. 5). Additionally, the proportion of *Listeria* reads and the composition of the
- 417 enrichments varied between samples (Fig. 3A and Supplementary Fig. 5). Similar to the findings in
- 418 the direct metagenomes obtained without culture, *Pseudomonas* reads were the most abundant in

the primary enrichments, having higher relative abundance than *Listeria* (12.84 - 99.2 % *Pseudomonas* reads in primary enrichments) and were then greatly reduced in the secondary
enrichments (0 - 9.08 % *Pseudomonas reads* in the secondary enrichments). Other taxa such as *Serratia, Erwinia, Rahnella, Erwingella, Yersinia, Bacillus* and *Staphylococcus* were also detected in
the primary and secondary enrichments in at least one sample at minimum 1% relative abundance
(Fig. 3A and Supplementary Fig. 5).

425 When sub-classifying *Listeria* sequence reads to the species level, *L. seeligeri* was the most abundant

426 in all samples except T4-E (0.3 – 33.2 % *L. seeligeri* reads in primary enrichments; 11.1 – 90.4 % *L.*

427 seeligeri reads in in secondary enrichments). In the secondary enrichment of sample T4-E, one of the

428 three samples from which *L. monocytogenes* ST121 was isolated, sequence reads for *L.*

429 monocytogenes were most abundant (1.9 – 68.8 %) (Fig. 3C). In this sample, L. monocytogenes was

430 first detected in the first enrichment after 48 h of incubation. Surprisingly, in the other two L.

431 *monocytogenes* positive samples (T0-H and T0-I) the percentage of *L. monocytogenes* reads

432 observed was below 0.00437 % (Fig 3C).

433 For the 3 samples from which *L. monocytogenes* ST121 was isolated using culture enrichment,

434 classification of *Listeria* sequence reads from quasimetagenomes to the ST level was attempted by

analysing raw Illumina reads and raw nanopore reads from sequences obtained at different

timepoints during the primary and secondary enrichments. ST classification was also attempted

437 using hybrid metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) that were prepared by combining reads from

the short and long-read technologies. For two samples (TO-H and TO-I) the *Listeria* reads were

dominated by *L. seeligeri*, and accordingly, *L. seeligeri* STs were classified as either ST1090 or ST1091

440 (Fig. 3C). Similarly, *L. monocytogenes* was not detected in these two samples by direct mapping

441 against the genome of *L. monocytogenes* isolated in this study. Accordingly, with less than 9000 *L*.

442 *monocytogenes* reads observed at any timepoint with any sequencing technology, in these same two

443 samples ST classification for *L. monocytogenes* was not achieved. Alternatively, short and long read

datasets from sample T4-E were identified as ST121, and a hybrid assembly was possible that

445 covered 84.76% of the *L. monocytogenes* genome (Supplementary_Quasimetagenomics and

- 446 Supplementary_Quasimetagenomics_MAGs_QC).
- 447

448 DISCUSSION

449 Previous studies have described the microbiome of FPEs such as abattoirs and meat processing plants [54-59], fermented-products production facilities [14, 54, 59-63] and fruit and 450 vegetables processing plants [15, 64, 65], and identified distinctive microbiomes depending on the 451 452 type of commodities [59, 66]. However, very few studies describe the FPE of RTE meals [67], despite 453 the importance of this type of food in the contamination with foodborne pathogens during 454 processing [16]. The primary objective of this study was to gain insight into the resident microbial 455 populations coexisting with *L. monocytogenes* in a FPE where this pathogen has been persistently 456 contaminating non-food contact surfaces. The study aimed to assess the composition of these 457 populations in various areas within a factory setting and to evaluate the impact of cleaning and 458 disinfection procedures on the overall microbial population. It is noteworthy that multiple areas of 459 this factory have been monitored by UKHSA for several years, including food contact and non-food 460 contact surfaces, and for the purpose of this study, only areas that have shown persistent 461 contamination with L. monocytogenes and other Listeria spp. have been included. While L. 462 monocytogenes is known to endure in FPEs by concealing in difficult-to-clean areas such as slicers, 463 wheels or cracks on the materials or areas with standing water [68], the floor surfaces included in 464 this study do not exhibit apparent challenging to clean areas that would account for L. monocytogenes evading the cleaning process. 465

466

467	A 10-week sampling period was coordinated with the company and with public health
468	authorities to advance the understanding of a persisting food safety risk. Using metagenomics, we
469	identified a resident microbiota in the high-care zone of the facility that was dominated by
470	Pseudomonas, Sphingomonas and Psychrobacter. In particular, the species P. fluorescens was the
471	most abundant in all but two of the factory sites. Pseudomonas spp. and Psychrobacter spp. are
472	frequently the dominant taxa in various food processing environments, such as abattoirs, meat-
473	processing, dairy, and fruit-processing factories [55, 58, 59, 64], due to their tolerance to low
474	temperatures [69] and their ability to form biofilms [70, 71], which often results in contamination of
475	food products [72, 73]. To our knowledge, the presence of Sphingomonas spp. has not been
476	described in FPEs, although some members of this genus have been isolated from other anthropized
477	environments [74-76]. Additionally, certain Sphingomonas species have been described as
478	psychrotolerant [74], which may explain their ability to survive in RTE food processing environments.
479	Notably, the application of the cleaning and disinfection procedures during the study period,
480	which included among other procedures, scrubbing with a degreaser followed by the application of a
481	troclosene sodium-based disinfectant, did not result in major shifts in the composition of the
482	microbial populations observed by metagenomic analysis. Although this study was not designed to
483	assess the efficacy of the cleaning and disinfection procedures, as the methodology does not
484	differentiate between viable and non-viable microorganisms nor was sampling statistically powered,
485	a strikingly stable population was observed. Pseudomonas has been described as one of the most
486	abundant taxa detected on surfaces after cleaning and disinfection procedures in facilities that
487	process meat [77] and minimally processed vegetables [65], as detected by culture-dependant and
488	culture-independent approaches respectively. Similarly, studies using RNA-based amplicon
489	sequencing coupled with plate counts have shown that cleaning and sanitizing procedures are less
490	efficient at removing psychrotrophic bacteria, including Pseudomonas, while subsequent ozonation
491	reduced the viable bacteria within this group [56]. In studies that monitored FPEs over longer
492	periods of time, shifts in microbial populations were observed. For example, the microbiome of a

493 newly opened meat processing plant was disrupted once the meat-cutting activities started [55] and 494 changes in the microbiome of a fruit processing facility over seasons were hypothesised to be caused 495 by changes in: the natural environment where the fruit is produced, the water used within the 496 facilities, or the personnel working in the facilities [15]. The absence of substantial changes in the 497 microbial community over time in the facility manufacturing RTE-meals could be explained by a low 498 inflow of foreign microbiota coupled with the high adaptation of the microbiota to the environment. 499 Unlike other FPEs where a large influx of raw materials carrying a high microbial load occurs, 500 facilities manufacturing RTE-meals introduce pre-cooked or pre-processed ingredients, potentially 501 limiting the entry of external microbiota into the facility. It is also likely that as microbes are 502 naturally introduced into FPEs, a rapid selection occurs for those capable of surviving and persisting 503 through the control measures such as cleaning and disinfection. Simultaneously, these microbes 504 must compete with the resident microbiota that have already established successful niches within 505 the environment. For example, in conjunction with the persistent ST121 clone observed in Company 506 X, multiple non-ST121 L. monocytogenes strains were transiently observed in the facility between 507 2017 and 2020 but were not detected during our sampling time-points in 2021 and 2022. This 508 suggests that these strains were susceptible to the cleaning and disinfection methods and did not 509 become persistent [19].

510 Although the presence of some taxa was consistent across the factory, there was a clear 511 distinction between the two areas within the high-care zone, reflecting the adaptation of the 512 populations to different environments. Although there was movement of personnel between them, 513 potentially allowing for the transmission of taxa, both areas were kept at different temperatures and 514 this factor has likely contributed to the differential selection between microbial populations. 515 Sphingomonas aerolata, one of the most abundant members of the resident microbiota of this 516 factory, was significantly more prevalent in the production area of the facility (detected in 20 517 samples in the production area, with relative abundances ranging from 0.67 to 56.94 % compared to 518 only two samples from the preparation area, where its relative abundance ranged from 0.89% to

519 2.51%). S. aerolata is a psychrotolerant bacteria firstly isolated from the air of a building [74] and to 520 our knowledge, this is the first time that has been detected in food processing environments, 521 although it has been detected by 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing in fruits [78]. Other taxa, mainly 522 within the *Pseudomonas* genus, showed higher abundance in the preparation area, although these 523 species represented a minor proportion of the whole community (<0.125%). Adaptation of the 524 microbial communities to different types of food processing environments [59] and different 525 environments within food production facilities [14, 55] have been described before, highlighting the 526 importance of monitoring individual ecological niches within the same facilities to identify the key 527 microbial taxa characteristic of FPEs.

528 There is evidence that biofilms present in FPEs could harbour foodborne pathogens 529 (potentially at low abundance) and support their survival against cleaning and disinfection 530 treatments [77, 79]. In our study, the sampled sites were selected based on the recurrent detection 531 of Listeria spp. and L. monocytogenes through culture enrichment during an extended period of 532 enhanced surveillance [19]. Although these taxa could not be detected from the metagenomes, 533 culture-dependent methods revealed the presence of Listeria spp. in all sites, except for two, and of 534 L. monocytogenes in three of the sites, in at least one occasion. L. monocytogenes and most other 535 pathogens are present in very low abundances in food and food processing environments compared 536 to resident microflora and the only way to detect pathogens in these sample types is by culture enrichment [14, 54]. Notably, only the partial volume of the swabs was used to obtain metagenomic 537 538 DNA, further increasing the limit of detection. A wide range of taxa have been described to coexist 539 with L. monocytogenes and Listeria spp. In meat processing plants, known biofilm-producers such as 540 Pseudomonas, Acinetobacter and Janthinobacterium were associated with the presence of Listeria 541 spp. [58] while Psyschromonas, Shewanella, Lactococcus, Lactobacillus or Yersinia were associated 542 with Listeria in fish, meat and dairy plants [54]. Pseudomonas, Stenotrophomonas and 543 *Microbacterium* were identified as potential indicators of *L. monocytogenes* presence in fruit packing 544 facilities (Rolon 2023). In this study we have identified P. fluorescens as the most abundant and

545 prevalent taxa in the sites monitored. The interactions between L. monocytogenes and 546 *Pseudomonas* spp. within biofilms have been studied in laboratory models [12, 13, 80, 81], 547 highlighting the protective effect of Pseudomonas spp., particularly P. fluorescens, towards L. 548 monocytogenes. The effect of other members of the resident microbiota in FPEs, such as 549 Xantomonadaceae or Flavobacteriaceae, can either enhance or inhibit the survival of L. 550 monocytogenes, respectively [82, 83]. All these studies indicate the importance of the background 551 microbiota in FPEs in the survival of *L. monocytogenes* and our results contribute to building the 552 knowledge into understanding these communities.

553 There is a growing usage case for monitoring and characterising *L. monocytogenes* in FPEs using 554 whole-genome sequences from bacterial isolates, which offers advantages such as the high level of 555 discrimination between strains and the possibility to detect antimicrobial and biocide resistance and 556 virulence genes. However, this is a time-consuming process, as recovering the pathogen from a food 557 or environmental sample can take between 2 and 4 days [23]. To accelerate the process of obtaining 558 Listeria genomes, the use of quasimetagenomic sequencing has been proposed [84]. The use of a 559 quasimetagenomic approach is not only an opportunity to speed the source tracking of L. 560 monocytogenes, but also to capture the diversity of Listeria strains in a sample [85], although there 561 is debate wether the enrichment could select for specific Listeria strains [85-87]. Previous studies 562 have successfully used quasimetagenomic sequencing to obtain and subtype L. monocytogenes 563 MAGs from environmental swabs, with the proportion of *L. monocytogenes* reads ranging from 564 0.02% to 91.82%. In some cases, Pseudomonas or Enterococcus dominated the quasimetagenomes 565 and the L. monocytogenes genome coverage was insufficient to perform SNP analysis [66]. In our 566 study, quasimetagenomics from liquid culture enrichments was trialled as an additional means to 567 identify and then sequence type Listeria spp. that were known to be present in samples (via routine 568 culture) but where Listeria spp. were not detectable using direct metagenomics. In the majority of 569 samples containing *L. seeligeri*, the corresponding STs were observed using quasimetagenomics. 570 However, L. monocytogenes STs were classified in only a single sample, either by taxonomic

571 classification or by direct mapping against reference genomes, despite sufficient sequencing depth 572 (equivocal to 90x coverage, but with a limited number of reads classified as L. monocytogenes, Fig. 573 3). Even with enrichment, with a quasimetagenomic dataset there may be diminished detectable 574 sequence yields for a given pathogen when the originating amounts of pathogen were low [85]. 575 During enrichment L. monocytogenes can be overgrown by other Listeria species present in the 576 original culture [88]. It is likely that *L. seeligeri* was the predominant species in the original sample 577 and this species has retained the higher proportion during the enrichment culture. The limited 578 amount of sample did not allow enumeration of the Listeria colony forming units present in the 579 original samples. Moreover, certain genera, notably *Pseudomonas*, are only partially inhibited by 580 Half Fraser broth [89], which further challenges the isolation and subtyping of L. monocytogenes 581 from primary enrichments.

582 Metagenomics supported exploration of the microbiological dynamics within the facility, identifying 583 dominant organisms that have been selected for and have endured in that environment, while low 584 abundance organisms like *Listeria* required culture efforts to detect, but likewise have been 585 successful in enduring through the food safety control efforts imposed over many years. In this 586 stable microbial population, there may be mutualism between the resident members that has likely 587 supported adaptation to the specific conditions of this industrial niche.

588 The mechanisms of this mutualism and the impact of environmental conditions on creating resilient 589 populations can be investigated using models that mimic these complex populations, with the goal 590 of informing food safety interventions on persisting microbial populations.

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- 628 review & editing; NLM: formal analysis, investigation, review & editing; OO: investigation; LMS:
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637 DATA AVAILABILITY

- 638 The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the NCBI repository, under the
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952 FIGURE LEGENDS

953 Figure 1. Changes in bacterial diversity in the different areas of the factory over ten weeks. A and 954 B) Alpha diversity evaluated with richness, Shannon and Simpson indexes depending on A) time and 955 B) area of the factory. Each boxplot represents the interquartile range (IQR) of the alpha diversity 956 indexes values and the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values. C) Principal 957 Coordinate Analysis of the Bray-Curtis distance level. The ellipses represent normal data ellipses for 958 the samples in the preparation and production areas of the factory. Statistical comparisons with the 959 A) Kruskal-Wallis, B) Wilcoxon and C) Adonis tests are presented in supplementary materials. 960 Significant differences for alpha diversity (p-value < 0.05) are indicated in the graphs with an asterisk 961 (*). 962 Figure 2. Relative abundance of the environmental samples. Bubble plots representing the relative abundance of A) genus and B) the 15 most abundant species identified in the factory environment. 963 964 Each column represents a sample and samples have been grouped by area of the factory and 965 coloured by time of collection of the sample. C) Comparison of the relative abundance at production 966 and preparation areas for species exhibiting significant differences in abundance, as determined by 967 ANCOM-BC analysis. Each boxplot represents the interquartile range (IQR) of the relative abundance 968 and the whiskers represent the minimum and maximum values.

Figure 3. Microbial dynamics of *Listeria* enrichments in samples positive for *L. monocytogenes* and *L. seeligeri.* Barplots show the relative abundance of A) and B) the 10 most abundant genera and C)

- 971 and D) the 10 most abundant *Listeria* species identified in the enrichment using A) C) Illumina or B)
- D) nanopore sequencing. Timepoints 1E and 2E indicate primary and secondary enrichments
- 973 respectively. The tables in panels C) and D) show the ST identified from raw reads (100001 refers to
- 974 new loci-sequences or new STs [40]).
- 975
- 976 Supplementary materials
- 977 Supplementary.xlsx
- 978 Supplementary_figures.PDF

John Market Ma



Highlights

- Microbiota on non-food contact surfaces remains stable in factory environment. _
- Distinctive microbiota observed in different factory areas. -
- Microbiota adapted to environmental conditions within factory. -
- Listeria monocytogenes and Listeria spp. are present on surfaces at low abundance. -

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Declarations of interest: none

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