

Stress responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to antimicrobial substances from lactic acid bacteria: an explorative study

Stressresponser hos *Listeria monocytogenes* ovenfor antimikrobielle substanser fra melkesyrebakterier: et eksplorativt studium

Philosophiae Doctor (PhD) Thesis

Girum Tadesse Tessema

Ås 2010



Norwegian University of Life Sciences
Department of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science

Thesis number 2011:02
ISBN 978-82-575-0960-6
ISSN 1503-1667

Faith is to believe what you do not see;
the reward of this faith is to see what you believe.
St. Augustine (354-430)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
SAMMENDRAG (NORWEGIAN ABSTRACT)	iv
LIST OF PAPERS.....	v
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. BACKGROUND.....	3
2.1 <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i>	3
2.2 Significance of <i>L. monocytogenes</i> and human listeriosis.....	3
2.2.1 Pathogenicity and virulence determinants.....	4
2.3 Food safety and biopreservatives	5
2.3.1 Lactic acid bacteria and their antimicrobial products	6
2.4 Stress responses of <i>L. monocytogenes</i>	12
2.4.1 Response to the class IIa bacteriocin stress.....	12
2.4.2 Response to acid stress.....	16
2.4.3 Effect of class IIa bacteriocins and low pH stresses on virulence.....	21
2.5 Methodological aspects of the present stress response study.....	22
2.5.1 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy	23
2.5.2 Transcriptional analysis.....	24
2.5.3 Data analysis	26
3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	27
4. MAIN RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	28
5. MAIN CONTRIBUTION AND FUTURE WORK.....	37
6. REFERENCES	38
7. APPENDIX	54

Paper I-III

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The work presented in this thesis was carried out at Nofima Mat AS and financially supported by The Foundation for Research Levy on Agricultural Products.

I am grateful to my supervisors Dr. Trond Møretø, Dr. Kristine Naterstad, and Dr. Lars Axelsson at Nofima Mat. Thank you for accepting me as your student and for your unconditional encouragements and help. I also thank Professor Ingolf Nes, my supervisor at the Norwegian University of Life Sciences, for the support with administrative works and the heartening spirits. I would like to thank all the co-authors for the educative and productive collaborations.

I thank all colleagues at Nofima Mat for the support and the pleasant time. Especially enormous gratitude to past and present members of the “microbiology group” and officemates for the unreserved guidance. I wish to extend my extraordinary gratefulness to “my parents” Professor Arnfinn Sundsfjord and Dr. Kristin Hegstad Dahl for bringing me to the world of molecular microbiology. Dear Arnfinn and Kristin I will cherish you fondly forever.

I also love to extend my deepest appreciation to all my families and friends for the unconditional supports. Thanks to Emahoye, my sisters, brothers, nephews, and nieces (yekerta besem endaltera bezu nachu☺) and your keen interest have been a great inspiration. Mojej rodzinie w Polsce dziękuję bardzo! Mom and Dad, thanks for your endless efforts to inculcate in me the values of education, hard work and honesty. I am just beginning to ascertain your dreams.

My dearest wife Basia and our charismatic daughter Marta, thank you for the wonderful love and you are the best gift ever. I am so grateful for your patience and uplifting care. Without you the PhD journey would remain just a dream. Finally, I wish to thank all those who have contributed in one way or another, especially, **God for His indescribable gift!!!**

Ås, October 2010

Girum Tadesse Tessema

ABSTRACT

Listeria monocytogenes is a gram-positive bacterium that causes severe and life threatening disease both in humans and animals. Due to the severity of the disease and the fact that the bacterium is responsible for considerable economical loss, *L. monocytogenes* is of a great concern particularly to the food industry. *L. monocytogenes* is a common food contaminant and nearly all human *L. monocytogenes* infections are due to ingestion of contaminated food. Antimicrobial components from lactic acid bacteria may serve as safe and natural food preservatives targeting unwanted microorganisms, including *L. monocytogenes*. Elucidations of how *L. monocytogenes* respond to the antimicrobial products are crucial steps to devise a knowledge-based strategy to control this deadly bacterium in food and food-related environments using food grade bacteria.

In the present study the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P and to acids (acetic, lactic and hydrochloric acid) were explored. Exposure to sakacin P gave spontaneous mutant strains with reduced susceptibility to the bacteriocin. Analysis of large number of the mutant strains using different approaches revealed substantial difference among the strains. The mutant strains displayed difference in (i) the level of resistance to sakacin P, (ii) the stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype, (iii) growth fitness in various conditions, (iv) biofilm formation ability, (v) virulence potential, (vi) Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy profile, (vii) regulation of the bacteriocin receptor gene, and (viii) global transcriptome profile. Overall, this indicates that the incidence(s) giving rise to the sakacin P resistance involves a complex regulatory gene network possibly mediated by the bacteriocin receptor and have pleiotropic effects on the physiology of the resistant strains.

The growth of *L. monocytogenes* was reduced but not completely inhibited at pH 5 when the growth medium was acidified with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid. Acetic acid had the highest antilisterial activity followed by lactic acid and HCl. Stress due to the presence of the acids induced a large number of genes associated with acid defense, virulence, and cross-protection to other types of stresses. Acidulant type dependent responses were also observed.

The explorative transcriptome studies confirmed numerous results of previous studies on the response of *L. monocytogenes* to the class IIa bacteriocins and acid stresses. In addition, it identified a number of putative genes with possible role in the responses under investigation. Altogether, the results presented in this thesis revealed insights contributing to understand the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to the antimicrobial substances that may be encountered by this bacterium in fermented food and thereby opening new avenues for further studies.

SAMMENDRAG (NORWEGIAN ABSTRACT)

Listeria monocytogenes er en gram-positiv bakterie som kan forårsake alvorlig og livstruende sykdom blant både dyr og mennesker. Alvorlighetsgraden av sykdommen og det faktum at bakterien er årsak til stort økonomisk tap, gjør at *L. monocytogenes* forårsaker stor bekymring, spesielt hos næringsmiddelindustrien. *L. monocytogenes* forekommer i mange typer mat, og nesten alle humane infeksjoner med *L. monocytogenes* skyldes inntak av forurenset mat. Antimikrobielle forbindelser fra melkesyrebakterier, som bakteriocin og syrer, kan være trygge og naturlige konserveringsmidler mot uønskete mikroorganismer, inkludert *L. monocytogenes*. Å avdekke hvordan *L. monocytogenes* responderer på disse antimikrobielle forbindelsene er viktig for å utvikle en kunnskapsbasert strategi for kontroll av denne bakterien i mat og i matrelaterte omgivelser ved bruk av “food grade” bakterier.

I denne studien ble responsen til *L. monocytogenes* mot klasse IIa bakteriocinet sakacin P, mot lav pH og syrer (eddik- og melkesyre) undersøkt. Eksponering for sakacin P ga spontane mutanter med redusert følsomhet for bakteriocinet. Bred analyse av et stort antall mutanter viste at det var vesentlig forskjell mellom stammene. De muterte stammene hadde forskjeller i (i) resistensnivå mot sakacin P, (ii) stabilitet av resistens fenotype (iii) vekst ved ulike forhold, (iv) evne til biofilmdannelse, (v) virulenspotensial, (vi) Fourier transform infrarød spektroskopiprofil, (vii) regulering av bakteriocinreseptorgenet og (viii) global transkripsjonsprofil. Til sammen indikerer dette at hendelser som medfører økt sakacin P resistens involverer et komplekst genreguleringsnettverk, muligens styrt via bakteriocin reseptoren, som har en mangfoldig påvirkning på fysiologien til de resistente stammene.

Vekst av *L. monocytogenes* ble redusert, men ikke fullstendig hemmet ved pH 5, når vekstmediet var surgjort med saltsyre (HCl), 10 mM eddiksyre eller 20 mM melkesyre. Eddiksyre hadde den største antilisteriaeffekten, etterfulgt av melkesyre og HCl. Stress som følge av nærvær av syrer, induserte et stort antall gener assosiert med syreforsvar, virulens og kryssbeskyttelse mot andre typer stress. Det ble også observert spesifikke responser for de ulike syrene.

Transkripsjonsstudier bekreftet flere resultater fra tidligere studier på respons av *L. monocytogenes* til klasse IIa bakteriociner og syrestress. I tillegg ble det identifisert gener som muligens er involvert i responsene som ble studert. Til sammen gir resultatene presentert i denne avhandlingen innsikt som bidrar ytterligere til å forstå responser til *L. monocytogenes* mot antimikrobielle forbindelser som denne bakterien kan utsettes for, for eksempel i fermentert mat, noe som kan være interessant å undersøke videre i fremtidige studier.

LIST OF PAPERS

Paper I

Tessema, G. T., T. Møretrø, A. Kohler, L. Axelsson, and K. Naterstad. (2009). Complex phenotypic and genotypic responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains exposed to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 75:6973-6980.

Paper II

Tessema, G. T., T. Møretrø, L. Snipen, L. Axelsson, and K. Naterstad. (2010). Global transcriptional analysis of spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutant strains of *Listeria monocytogenes* during growth on different sugars. Submitted.

Paper III

Tessema, G. T., L. Axelsson, T. Møretrø, L. Snipen, E. Heir, A. Holck and K. Naterstad. (2010). Global transcriptional responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to hydrochloric acid, acetic acid and lactic acid stress. Submitted.

1. INTRODUCTION

Outbreaks during the early 1980s involving *Listeria monocytogenes* established this bacterium as a foodborne pathogen (1, 2). Listeriosis caused by ingestion food contaminated with *L. monocytogenes* still remains a great threat (3-6). Listeriosis occurs infrequently but despite early antibiotic treatment the fatality rate is up to 30% or higher, which is one of the highest figures for foodborne diseases (4, 7, 8). Product recalls due to contamination by *L. monocytogenes* and expenditures associated with listeriosis create a significant economical burden to the society in general and to the food industry in particular (9, 10).

Preservation of food using fermentation has been a common practice in the history of mankind, long before the invention of refrigeration and synthetic additives (11). Lactic Acid Bacteria (LAB) are one of the most common group of microorganisms involved in food fermentations (11, 12). The preservative quality of LAB relies on their ability to produce an array of antimicrobial substances such as organic acids (e.g. lactic acid and acetic acid) and bacteriocins (12, 13).

Controlling the growth of foodborne pathogens such as *L. monocytogenes* using LAB and their antimicrobial products alone, or as a part of hurdle technology, has raised an exciting possibility to use the traditional way of food preservation in a contemporary manner [(14-26) and more other works]. *L. monocytogenes*, however, shows a remarkable capacity to counteract adverse conditions including stresses due to low pH and bacteriocins (27-33). Their intrinsic properties as well as the ability of *L. monocytogenes* to acquire new mechanisms to withstand the antimicrobial activity of LAB, has created concerns regarding the application of LAB and their products as biopreservatives.

A deeper understanding of how *L. monocytogenes* respond to the antimicrobial products of LAB is a crucial step to devise a knowledge-based strategy to control this and other closely related foodborne pathogens in food and food-related environments. In addition, knowledge about stress survival strategies in pathogens may be applicable for patho-biotechnology purpose (34, 35). The present work aim to explore the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to stresses from antimicrobial products of LAB with emphasis on bacteriocin and organic acids.

This thesis is organized in chapters, and a brief description of important thematic areas is addressed in Chapter 2. The aim of this study is described in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 report the main results of the present work and the future perspectives, respectively. The papers described in this thesis (Paper I - Paper III) are presented as appendix.

2. BACKGROUND

2.1 *Listeria monocytogenes*

Listeria monocytogenes belongs to the genus *Listeria*, a genus of gram-positive bacteria closely related to *Bacillus*, *Clostridium*, *Enterococcus*, *Streptococcus* and *Staphylococcus*. The genus comprises facultative anaerobe, non spore-forming, and rod shaped bacteria 0.5 µm in width and 1-1.5 µm in length with a low GC content (36). Currently, the genus includes six species: *L. monocytogenes*, *L. ivanovii*, *L. seeligeri*, *L. innocua*, *L. welshimeri* and *L. grayi*. Of these, *L. monocytogenes* and *L. ivanovii* are pathogenic. While the former infects both human and animals the latter principally causes disease in animals. However, some of the regarded non pathogenic *Listeria* species are reported to be implicated in human infections (8, 36, 37).

The species of *L. monocytogenes* consists of 13 different serotypes which are grouped into three genetic lineages: lineage I (consists of serotypes 1/2a, 1/2c, 3a and 3c), lineage II (1/2b, 3b, 4b, 4d, 4e and 7) and III (4a and 4c) (38). Serotype 4ab is a variant of serotype 4b (39) and no lineage designation is given to serotype 4ab. Although 13 serotypes are recognized, serotypes 1/2a, 1/2b, 1/2c, and 4b represent approximately 98% of the isolates collected from food and infected patients (40). Generally, serotype 4b causes the majority of foodborne outbreaks and human listeriosis, while serotypes belonging to 1/2 are most frequently isolated from food (41-44).

2.2 Significance of *L. monocytogenes* and human listeriosis

The bacterium *L. monocytogenes* (originally named *Bacterium monocytogenes*) was first described in 1926 as the cause of a disease of rabbits, characterized by a large mononuclear leucocytosis (45). A retrospective study has confirmed listeriosis in human even before it was described in the rodents (46). The transmission of human listeriosis was shown to be foodborne in 1980s (1, 2) and since *L. monocytogenes* is considered one of the major foodborne pathogens (4-6). Recent resurgent trend in listeriosis has been reported in several European countries (3, 5, 47, 48). In United States of America, a modest increase in the incidence of *Listeria* infection has been reported for the year 2009, compared with the last three years of average incidence (49). *L. monocytogenes* has been isolated from different food

products in developing countries such as in Africa (50-53), however, except few reports (54, 55), the human epidemiologic aspects of listeriosis is largely unknown.

Listeriosis in humans occurs infrequently, but despite early antibiotic treatment the fatality rate is up to 30% or higher, which is one of the highest figures for foodborne diseases (4, 7, 8). Immunocompromised individuals such as neonates, pregnant women, elderly persons, and patients suffering from transplantation events are at higher risk of acquiring listeriosis (8, 56). However, accumulating evidences indicate that *L. monocytogenes* also may cause febrile gastroenteritis and to the lesser extent systemic infection among otherwise healthy individuals (56-61). Recall of products contaminated with *L. monocytogenes* and cost associated with human listeriosis has created a high economic burden to the food industry and to the public health services (9, 10).

2.2.1 Pathogenicity and virulence determinants

Normally *L. monocytogenes* is a soil-dwelling bacterium and live as a saprophyte. The bacterium can also survive and multiply in diversity of environments, including in the cytoplasm of mammalian hosts (8, 62, 63). As already mentioned, ingestion of food heavily contaminated with *L. monocytogenes* appears to be the major source of infection (4). In the majority of cases, ingestion of *L. monocytogenes* does not cause any symptoms and goes unnoticed (6). The incubation period among individuals with symptoms varies and is estimated to be 6-20 hours for febrile gastroenteritis and 3-70 days for systemic infections (6, 8, 61). Febrile gastroenteritis due to *L. monocytogenes* is often acute, self-limited and cease within two days (61). In contrast, invasive listeriosis may cause severe and often fatal illness, involving otherwise sterile body organs (8).

Crossing of the intestinal mucosa by specific (legend-receptor interaction) and non-specific mechanisms [M (microfold) cells of the Peyer's patches], is the first step in systemic listeriosis (8). The bacterium multiplies in the lamina propria of the gut and translocates into the primary target organs; liver and spleen, by lymphohematogenous means. Most of the bacterial loads are cleared by the immune system. Surviving bacteria continue to proliferate in the liver parenchyma and may result in release of the bacteria into the blood circulation. *L. monocytogenes* then disseminates to the secondary target organs. Due to the tissue tropism nature of *L. monocytogenes*, it most often infects the central nervous system, the gravid uterus

and the fetus. *L. monocytogenes* has an ability to penetrate various non-phagocytic cells (e.g. epithelial cells, and hepatocytes), to multiply both in phagocytic and non-phagocytic cells and to spread to neighboring cells directly (8). Detailed description of the pathophysiology is extensively described in the review by Vazquez-Boland et al. (8).

The transition of *L. monocytogenes* from a saprophytic to a pathogenic life style involves the regulation of a number of genes associated with virulence (58, 64, 65). This includes genes encoding proteins important for survival in the gastrointestinal tract such as *gad*, *bsh*, *bilE*, *opuC*, and *gbu* (58). The above mentioned genes are mostly up-regulated in the intestine and are regulated by the general stress regulator σ^B (64, 66). The proteins encoded by genes involved in intracellular parasitism (e.g. *plcA*, *plcB*, *mpl*, *hyl*, and *actA*) and their master positive regulatory factor A (*prfA*) are reported to be induced in blood, liver and spleen (64, 65). Genes associated with attachment and invasions (e.g. *inlA*, and *inlB*) are common for both gastrointestinal stage and intracellular parasitism, and are generally induced in the host (64, 65). Lists of confirmed and putative genes associated with virulence are described elsewhere (8, 64, 65, 67).

2.3 Food safety and biopreservatives

Listeriosis occurs almost exclusively after ingestion of contaminated food (4). Food products such as dairy, poultry, meat, fish, vegetables, fruits, and sea foods contaminated with *L. monocytogenes* have been linked to outbreaks and sporadic cases (67, 68). The above mentioned food products can be pre-processed in a ready-to-eat (RTE) form and consumed without further treatment. RTE food products are usually kept at low-temperatures and several of them are capable of supporting the growth of *L. monocytogenes* (69).

Preservation of food to control the growth of unwanted microorganism can be achieved by physical, chemical and biological means (70). Application of different preservatives together at low concentration (level) as means of hurdles can control the microbial growth, improve the sensory quality of foods as well as their nutritional properties (71). Hurdles of biological preservatives have the potential to satisfy consumer's preference to "natural" and "healthier" preservatives. Studies on the applications of LAB and their antimicrobial products, as well as of listeria specific bacteriophages, have shown promising results for better control of this bacterium in food and food related environments (14-25, 72-74). *L. monocytogenes*, however,

shows a remarkable ability to resist the killing effect of antimicrobial substances from LAB (27-32).

2.3.1 Lactic acid bacteria and their antimicrobial products

Lactic acid bacteria are a heterogeneous group of bacteria and comprise acid tolerant, non-sporulating, non-respiring, low GC content gram-positive cocci or rods. LAB are known for production of lactic acid as a major end product of carbohydrate fermentation (75). LAB are naturally found in various food products, are one of the most common groups of microorganisms involved in food fermentations, and are members of the normal flora of mammals (11, 12, 75). LAB produce an array of antimicrobial substances such as organic acids (e.g. lactic acid, acetic acid and propionic acid), hydrogen peroxide, carbon dioxide, diacetyl and bacteriocins (13). These antimicrobial substances from LAB serve as an agent in biological warfare against closely related bacteria, in the struggle for niches and nutrients (76). LAB as a group is related to *L. monocytogenes* and LAB and *L. monocytogenes* generally share common niches and utilize similar nutrients (36, 75). It makes sense the antimicrobial substances from LAB also kills the foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes*. The present work mainly focuses on the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to the bacteriocin sakacin P and to acid (acetic, lactic and hydrochloric acid) stresses. An overview of the mode of antimicrobial action of these compounds, and their application in food are presented below.

Bacteriocins

Ribosomally synthesized antimicrobial peptides are widely distributed in nature. Because of their food grade quality and potential use in the food industry, bacteriocins produced by LAB have received a great interest (77, 78). According to the current release of the bacteriocin database BACTIBASE, LAB make up the predominant group of bacteriocin producers accounting for more than 63% of the total bacteriocins (79). The LAB bacteriocins have been grouped into classes and subclasses based on criteria such as producer organism, molecular size, physical property, chemical structure, mode of action and so on (78). Despite some differences in classification schemes, class I and class II bacteriocins are common to all classification systems (78, 80, 81), including according to the latest “universal” bacteriocin classification scheme (82). Class I bacteriocins, also known as lantibiotics are subjected to extensive post translational modification and contain unusual amino acid side chain residuals

such as lanthionine and methyllanthionine (78). So far, nisin (class I) is the only bacteriocin approved for use as a food preservative (E234) and is in use in more than 50 countries (83). In contrast to class I bacteriocins, class II bacteriocins are not subjected to extensive post translational modifications. Class II bacteriocins may be divided into three to five subclasses, class IIa, IIb, IIc, IId and IIe (77, 78, 80, 82). Subclass IIa bacteriocins (also called pediocin-like) are considered the most important class II bacteriocins, having strong antilisterial activity (77). These bacteriocins are described in more details in the following section.

The class-IIa (pediocin-like) bacteriocins

The class IIa group of bacteriocin constitutes the most important and well-studied group of class II bacteriocins. Common for bacteriocins in this group is the high antilisterial activity (77). Pediocin PA-1 has already been exploited for commercial use and are covered by several US and European patents. If more bacteriocins are to be approved for various industrial applications, bacteriocins of class IIa are believed to be the next in line (80, 84, 85). The overall sequence similarity among members of the class IIa bacteriocins reported to be 26.8 to 78% (86). The pediocin-like bacteriocins have between 37-48 amino acid residues and are characterized by the conserved Y-G-N-G-V/L "pediocin box" motif signature at the N-terminal β -sheet domain region. In addition to the "pediocin box", class IIa bacteriocins possess one or two disulphide bridges and their antimicrobial activity towards indicator strains appears to be correlated with the number of the disulphide bridges (80, 86, 87). The C-terminal domains are less conserved and are suggested to participate in target recognition (88). To date more than 20 class IIa bacteriocins have been identified (77). Based on their C-terminal domain, these class IIa bacteriocins are further classified into three to four subgroups (77). The subgroup 1 comprises the majority of the class IIa bacteriocins including pediocin PA-1 (from which the term pediocin-like bacteriocins derived) and sakacin P (77).

Sakacin P

Sakacin P is a class IIa bacteriocin produced by different strains of *Lactobacillus sakei*, all peptides of 43 amino acids with one disulfide bridge (81, 86, 87, 89-91). Comparative study on class IIa bacteriocins revealed that sakacin P is one of the class IIa bacteriocins with very low sequence similarity (26.8%) and with narrow spectrum of activity (86). Sakacin P is active against *L. monocytogenes* (18, 19, 92), and unlike many other class IIa bacteriocins, it

has modest activity also against LAB (87). Hence, sakacin P is suggested to be the most promising bacteriocin for use in LAB fermentations that are prone to *Listeria* contaminations (87). Sakacin P, as most other class IIa bacteriocins, consists of N-terminal antiparallel β -sheet region, followed by an α -helix and an extended C-terminal amino acid sequence tail that folds back onto the helical region. A hinge region between the β -sheet N-terminal region and the α -helix C-terminal region allows the two domains to move relative to each other (93) (Fig. 1). Interestingly, it has been shown that the potency, the target specificity, and the temperature activity of sakacin P can be further increased by the introduction of an additional disulfide bridge at the C-terminal region (94).

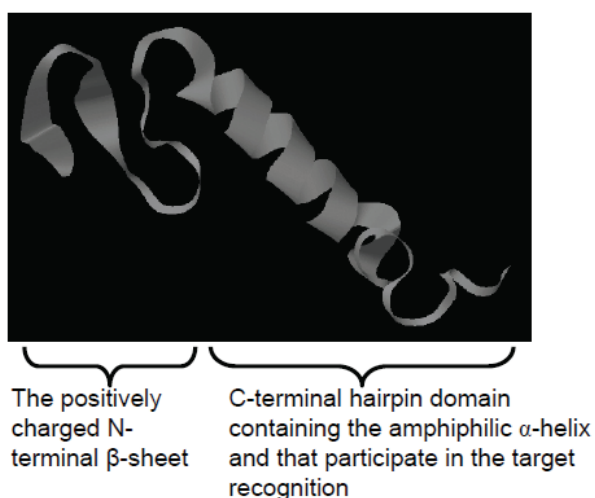


Fig. 1. A cartoon depiction of sakacin P. Image from the BACTIBASE (79).

Mode of action of class IIa bacteriocins

Initial electrostatic interaction between the positively charged bacteriocin (the N-terminal) and the negatively charged cell-envelope of target cells mediates the binding of the bacteriocin to the target (77) (Fig. 2A). It has been shown that the membrane component IIC of a phylogenetically defined subgroup of mannose phosphotransferase systems (PTS) act as receptors for class II bacteriocins (95-98). Evidences from studies involving modified class IIa bacteriocins revealed that the C-terminal hairpin-like domain is responsible for penetrating the hydrophobic core of the target membrane (77). The class II bacteriocins kill the target

cells by permeabilizing the cell membrane, resulting in disruption of the cell's proton motive force, depletion of intercellular ATP pool and leakage of electrolytes and amino acids (77, 99, 100) (Fig. 2B). In addition, the class IIa bacteriocin mesentericin Y105 has been shown not only to induce leakage of amino acids, but also inhibiting their uptake in *L. monocytogenes* (101). A more detailed response of *L. monocytogenes* to class IIa bacteriocins will be presented in the stress response section (see below).

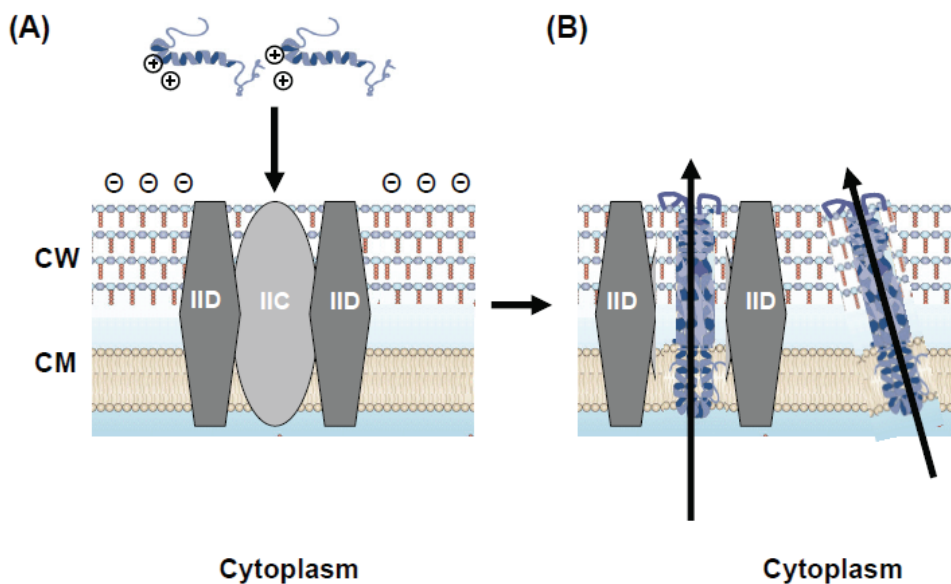


Fig. 2. Putative model for mode of action of class II bacteriocin on target cells. (A) The positively charged class IIa bacteriocins (e.g. sakacin P) interact with the negatively charged cell-envelope. The membrane component IIC of the mannose phosphotransferase systems (PTS) acts as a docking molecule to the bacteriocin. (B) A pore is formed by the bacteriocin, which induces leakage of molecules such as electrolytes and amino acids from the cell. The exact orientation of the pore relative to the docking molecule is not fully known. The model is based on several studies on the interaction between bacteriocins and the target cells (77, 80, 84, 95, 97, 100, 102). Abbreviations: CW, cell wall; CM, cell membrane; IIC and IID refer domains of the mannose-PTS.

Low pH and organic acids

Lactic acid bacteria have the ability to lower the local pH by the production of organic acids, such as lactic-, acetic- and propionic acids (103). Organic acids are also commonly used for acidification of food environments and are used as food additives to extend shelf life and to control the growth of undesirable microorganisms, including *L. monocytogenes* (104, 105). It has been documented that the inhibitory effect of acetic acid (Fig. 3A) on *L. monocytogenes* is higher than the effect of lactic acid (Fig. 3B and 3C) at equal pH and equimolar total acids (23). The difference in antilisterial activity may be partly due to the higher pKa value for acetic acid (pKa = 4.76) compared to that of lactic acid (pKa = 3.86), that gives a higher undissociated: dissociated ratio for acetic acid than lactic acid at a given pH. Factors other than the pKa affecting the antimicrobial activity of organic acids include the bacterial strain, the characteristics of the acid (e.g. isomer type), as well as growth conditions (e.g. pH, media, temperature, growth phase) (33, 104, 106-108).

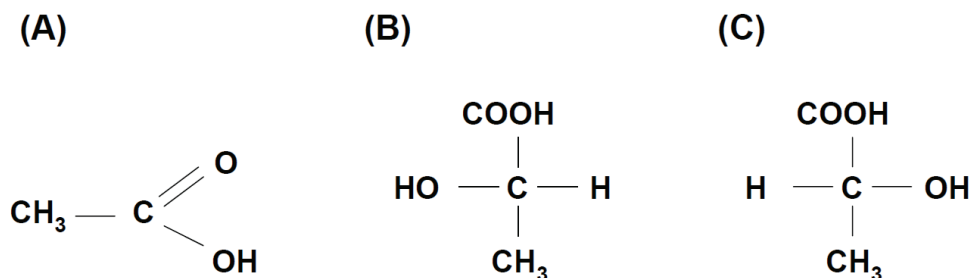


Fig. 3. Structure of (A) acetic acid (B) L-lactic acid and (C) D-lactic acid. Sources (104, 109).

Antimicrobial action of acids

Strong acids as hydrochloric acid (HCl), exert their antimicrobial effect by denaturing enzymes present on the cell surface and by lowering the cytoplasmic pH due to increased permeations of protons caused by a large pH gradient (110, 111). Despite the widespread use of organic acids, the exact mode of their antimicrobial action still has not been fully elucidated (108, 112). It is accepted that the undissociated form of organic acids can freely diffuse across the cell envelope, and once inside, the acids dissociate to give protons and

anions (105) (Fig. 4). Generally the undissociated form of the organic acid, the proton and the anion, are suggested to have effect on the cell by perturbation of the cell envelope, acidification of the cytoplasm, by osmotic stress, and by inhibition syntheses of macromolecules (105, 108, 113).

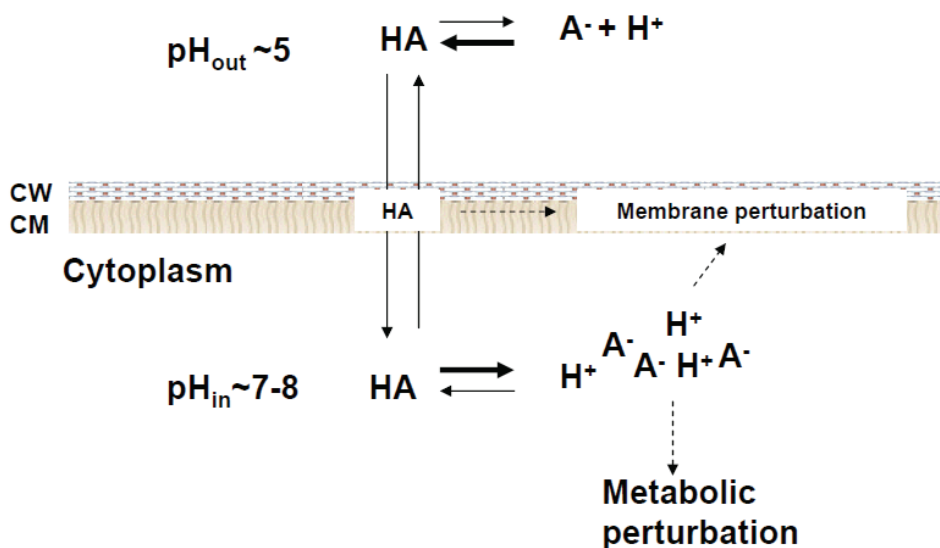


Fig. 4. Mode of action of organic acids on a target cell. The undissociated form of organic acid (HA) can freely pass the cell membrane. HA equilibrates across the membrane until the external and internal concentrations are equal. The acidic environment (pH_{out}~5) favors a higher proportion of the HA (shown by thick arrows), however, the neutral cytoplasmic (pH_{in}~7-8) (33) favors dissociations of HA to a proton (H⁺) and an anion (A⁻). The effects of organic acids on the cell are shown by dashed arrows. Abbreviations: CW, cell wall; CM, cell membrane; HA, undissociated form of organic acid; H⁺, proton; and A⁻, an anion. Modification from (112).

2.4 Stress responses of *L. monocytogenes*

In general *L. monocytogenes* optimally grows between 30°C and 37°C, in a pH range of 6 to 7, at salt concentration up to 0.5% (wt/vol), and with water activity level ≥ 0.97 , in the absence of other growth-limiting factors (33, 67, 114). *L. monocytogenes* has a remarkable ability to survive, adapt and grow under non-optimal environmental conditions. For example, the bacterium has shown to survive/grow at a wide range of temperatures ($<-0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ and 47°C), at extreme pHs (pH 3 and pH 9.5), at high concentrations of salt (up to 14%) and at water activity as low as 0.90 (67, 114-119). The ability to withstand external stress conditions facilitates the ubiquitous distribution of the bacterium (62, 120-123) and creates concern among health authorities and food industries.

For *L. monocytogenes*, as any other bacteria, changes in environmental conditions away from the optimum growth conditions inflict stress responses (110). Depending on the extent of the shift, the bacterium may respond in various ways: (i) no apparent phenotypic change, (ii) change in cellular components (e.g. expression of stress related genes), (iii) reduced growth (increased lag time, decrease the growth rate as well as the maximum yield), (iv) growth arrest, (v) and in the worst case it may be killed (124). In order to survive stressful conditions such as exposure to antimicrobial products from LAB, *L. monocytogenes* has to sense and respond rapidly and specifically to the condition. Different modes of physiological and biochemical responses, and the molecular mechanism behind the responses due to the presence of class IIa bacteriocins, low pH and organic acids, are described below.

2.4.1 Response to the class IIa bacteriocin stress

The foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes* encounter bacteriocins from LAB in fermented food, in food treated with protective culture or when purified or semi-purified bacteriocins are added directly to the food (18, 19, 125). It has been shown that some isolates of *L. monocytogenes* exhibit modest levels of natural tolerance to class IIa bacteriocins (92, 126, 127). *L. monocytogenes* isolates that are naturally susceptible to class IIa bacteriocins can develop acquired resistance through habituation, at frequency of 10^{-3} to 10^{-6} (28-30, 92, 126, 128-131). Previous studies grouped such spontaneous mutant of class IIa bacteriocins resistant strains into strains with high levels of resistance (500 to 10^6 times more resistant than the wild-type strain) and strains with intermediate levels of resistance (2 to 8 times more

resistant than the wild-type strain) (29, 30, 128, 132-134). Cross-resistance between class IIa bacteriocins are frequently reported (92, 129, 135). The mutant strains display differences in the stability of the acquired resistance during growth in the absence of contact with bacteriocins (28, 128-130, 135, 136). The development of bacteriocin resistance is often associated with lower growth fitness (28, 129, 136, 137) and a shift in metabolic profile toward more mixed acid fermentation (137, 138). The influence of the acquired bacteriocin resistance on antibiotic susceptibility profile of *L. monocytogenes* appears to be variable (128, 136).

Earlier studies sought to unravel the molecular mechanism behind the physiological and biochemical responses of class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains. Several seminal studies on *L. monocytogenes* and other related gram-positive bacteria indicated abolition of the mannose-PTS (encoded by *mpt* operon and the receptor for class IIa bacteriocins) to be the most common resistance mechanism to class IIa bacteriocins [(28, 29, 96, 97, 132, 134, 135, 138, 139); the PTS is discussed in more detail in the next section]. Interestingly, increase in transcription and translation of the bacteriocin receptor gene has been reported in one of the class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *L. monocytogenes* strains studied so far (29).

Proteins known to modulate the *mpt* expression and conferring resistance to a class IIa bacteriocin includes the σ^{54} (one of the alternative sigma factors) (140-142), ManR (transcriptional activator for σ^{54}) (139), ResD (two-component response regulator) (143), Lmo0095 (the mannose-PTS activator) (144), or PrfA (29). A more recent study also showed the auto-regulatory role of the *mpt* in class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains of *Enterococcus faecalis* (138). Recently, genes *glpQ* (encoding glycerophosphoryl diester phosphodiesterase) and *pde* (encoding phosphodiesterase) have been identified as new molecular targets conferring resistance to the class IIa bacteriocins in *E. faecalis* (145). Subsequent transcriptional analysis study on *glpQ*, *pde* and *mpt* genes in *E. faecalis* in the presence of divercin RV41, however, gave contradictory results (146). The putative orthologs of *glpQ* and *pde* in *L. monocytogenes* are reported to be *lmo0052* and *lmo1292* respectively, and their inactivation indicate that *lmo0052* but not *lmo1292* confer resistance to class IIa bacteriocins (147). In addition to the common molecular mechanism described, alterations in cell envelope fatty acid composition (133, 136, 148) and changes in cell surface charge (132) are reported to contribute to class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *L. monocytogenes*.

The PTS: an overview on sugar uptake and regulatory roles in low GC gram-positive bacteria

The phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP): carbohydrate specific PTS (simply PTS) is the most efficient and commonly preferred sugar uptake system in many bacteria (149, 150). The primary function of this system is to couple the transportation of carbohydrate across the cytoplasmic membrane with a simultaneous phosphorylation of the carbohydrates (151) (Fig. 5). The PTS consists of two general cytoplasmic components EI (enzyme I) and HPr (histidine-containing phosphocarrier protein), and carbohydrate specific enzymes called EIIs (enzyme II). The EIIs consist of two cytoplasmic functional domains (IIA and IIB), and generally one or two membrane bound domains (IIC and sometimes IID). During active transport and phosphorylation of sugars, the EI is phosphorylated by PEP generated from the end product of glycolysis. The phosphate from P~EI is then transferred to the His-15 residue in HPr (P~His-HPr) and sequentially to EIIA and EIIB. The sugar substrate is then channelled through the integral membrane component EIIC (and EIID) and subsequently accepts the phosphate from the P~EIIB (149, 150, 152). In addition to their role in transportation and phosphorylation of sugars, the P~His-HPr and several P~EIIBs are involved in regulation of different cellular functions (Fig. 5) (see below).

The HPr is the central processing unit in the regulatory function of PTS (153) (Fig. 5). Carbon catabolite control (CCC) system mediated by the HPr is complex and is dependent on factors such as the site of phosphorylation in HPr (His-15 and/or Ser-46), the presence of other regulatory proteins as catabolite control protein A (CcpA), glycolytic intermediates [fructose-1, 6-biphosphate (FBP) and glucose-6-phosphate], HPr kinase/phosphatase (HprK/P), and a specific conserved DNA sequences called catabolite responsive elements (*cre*) (153). During active transportation of a preferred sugar certain glycolytic intermediates as FBP and glucose-6-phosphate, stimulate the phosphorylation of HPr at a conserved Ser-46 residue by the bifunctional enzyme HprK/P (Fig. 5). The phosphorylated HPr (P~Ser-HPr) form a complex with the CcpA. The CcpA/ P~Ser-HPr complex may bind to the *cre* sequence (WWTGNAARCGNWWCAWW; W is A or T; R is G or A, and N is any nucleotide). Binding of the CcpA/ P~Ser-HPr complex to the *cre* site mostly represses target genes that are under carbon catabolite repression (CCR). Depending on the location of the *cre*, however, the binding of the CcpA/P~Ser-HPr complex to the *cre* can mediate carbon catabolite activation (CCA) of target genes (154).

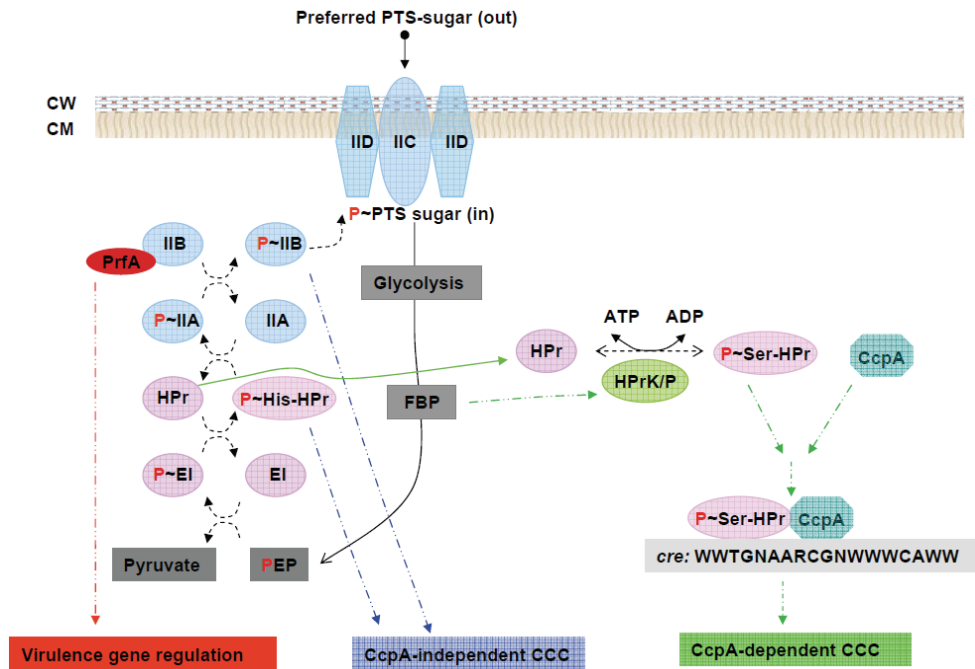


Fig. 5. Schematic presentation of the PTS components during uptake of a preferred PTS sugar and its roles in CCC and virulence regulations (see text). The presentation is based on studies on the role of PTS in Firmicutes (e.g. *B. subtilis* and *L. monocytogenes*) (144, 153-156).

The P~His-HPr and P~EIIBs are also involved in regulation of proteins in CcpA-independent manner (153). This may be achieved (i) by direct binding of P~His-HPr and/or P~EIIB to the target gene; (ii) by phosphorylation of proteins containing PTS Regulation Domain (PRD) and (iii) by phosphorylation of proteins in the glycerol metabolism (153). The overall goal of these CCC systems is to ensure that only enzymes necessary for utilizing the preferred substrate are synthesized as long as the preferred source of carbon and energy are present (154). The EIIs are also believed to be involved in regulation of virulence genes (Fig. 5). During active transportation of a preferred PTS sugar, the EIIs components of the PTS are in a non-phosphorylated state. It is speculated that the non-phosphorylated form of EIIA sequesters the PrfA and inhibits its activity (144, 156). In contrast, non-PTS sugars (e.g. glycerol) reported to induce the expression of *prfA* and *prfA*-dependent virulence genes (156-160).

Growing of *L. monocytogenes* in the presence of limiting glucose and each of other sugars (e.g. mannose or cellobiose) has indicated glucose is the preferred carbohydrate and the functionality of CCC system in this bacterium (161). Transportation of glucose is mainly mediated by the high affinity PTS uptake system (162, 163) and the class IIa bacteriocin pediocin JD appears to inhibit the uptake (164). The genome of *L. monocytogenes* EGDe contains a total of 84 *pts* genes, that can be grouped into seven PTS families depending on their sugar specificity (151, 163, 165). Four loci encoding a complete mannose PTS has been identified, and the mannose-PTS encoded by the *mpt* is reported to be the major permease for glucose and mannose (139, 163, 165) and as well as the receptor for the class II bacteriocins (see above). In most low GC gram-positive bacteria, the PTS in general and the mannose PTS in particular have central regulatory roles in the cell's physiology, including in CCC (153), in virulence [(144) also see below], in biofilm formation (166) and possibly also in global gene regulation (138, 166). In *Escherichia coli*, the mannose-PTS is reported to have also role in resistance to the bacteriophage lambda (167).

2.4.2 Response to acid stress

The capacity to survive acid stress is an important property of *L. monocytogenes* as it determines its ability to survive in the environment (acidic soil and food) and in the host (in human and animal). Constitutive and inducible strategies that consume protons (H^+) and subsequently neutralize the cytoplasm (e.g. glutamate decarboxylase and arginine deiminase systems) as well as efflux of protons from the cell using proton efflux systems (e.g. F_0F_1 -ATPase) are primary acid defense mechanisms of *L. monocytogenes* (Fig. 6). The significance of the different acid defense mechanisms may vary depending on the strain, growth phase and the growth conditions (111, 168-171). Recently, Ryan et al. (32) have presented a comprehensive review on the acid stress response of *L. monocytogenes*. The main acid resistance mechanisms are summarized below (Fig. 6).

The Glutamate Decarboxylase (GAD) system

The Glutamate Decarboxylase (GAD) system comprises the glutamate decarboxylase enzymes (encoded by *gadD1*, *gadD2* or *gadD3*) and the membrane associated glutamate/ γ -aminobutyrate (GABA) antiporter (encoded by *gadT1* or *gadT2*) (172). The role of the GAD system, as well as the contribution of the three GAD homologues, varies depending on the

strain, growth phase and growth conditions (32, 169, 171, 173). Generally, the GAD system reduces acidification of the cell cytoplasm by consuming protons during decarboxylation of acidic glutamate to the neutral GABA, facilitated by the glutamic acid decarboxylase. The GABA may be then exchanged for another extracellular glutamate by the antiporter (174, 175) (Fig. 6). It is also proposed that the gene *lmo0913* encoding a putative succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase enzyme, may further metabolize the GABA to succinate (172). It has been shown that in *Lactobacillus*, the decarboxylation reaction generates ATP and this may further contribute to pH homeostasis by the F₀F₁-ATPase system (176). In general, the GAD system is found to be the major mechanism in acid defense (32, 174, 177, 178), is a major component of the acid tolerance response (ATR) (174), and also enhances the tolerance of *L. monocytogenes* to the bacteriocin nisin (179).

The Arginine Deiminase (ADI) system

Recently a study by Ryan et al. (168) characterized the Arginine Deiminase (ADI) system of *L. monocytogenes*, and showed its role in acid defense. The enzymes arginine deiminase (encoded by *arcA*), catabolic ornithine carbamoyltransferase (*arcB*) and carbamate kinase (*arcC*) mediate the conversion of arginine to ornithine, carbon dioxide and ammonia. A membrane-bound antiporter (*arcD*) transports the produced ornithine out of the cell in exchange for a molecule of arginine in an energy-independent manner. The ammonia produced as a result of the system combines with intracellular protons to yield ammonium ions (NH₄⁺) and thereby neutralize the low cytoplasmic pH (168) (Fig. 6). In addition, the ADI system generates ATP, which may further contribute to pH homeostasis by the F₀F₁-ATPase (176). The induction of the *arc* genes by acidic pH and by anaerobicity suggests the role of ADI system particularly under these conditions (168).

The F₀F₁-ATPase: an active transporter of protons

The F₀F₁-ATPase is a multisubunit enzyme complex consisting of the cytoplasmic catalytic portion (F₁) and the membrane channel for proton translocation (F₀) (Fig. 6). The role of the catalytic portion is to synthesize ATP when protons move into the cell, or to hydrolyze ATP when protons expel from the cell through the membrane bound channel (170). The F₀F₁-ATPase plays an important role in the regulation of cytoplasmic pH homeostasis in a number

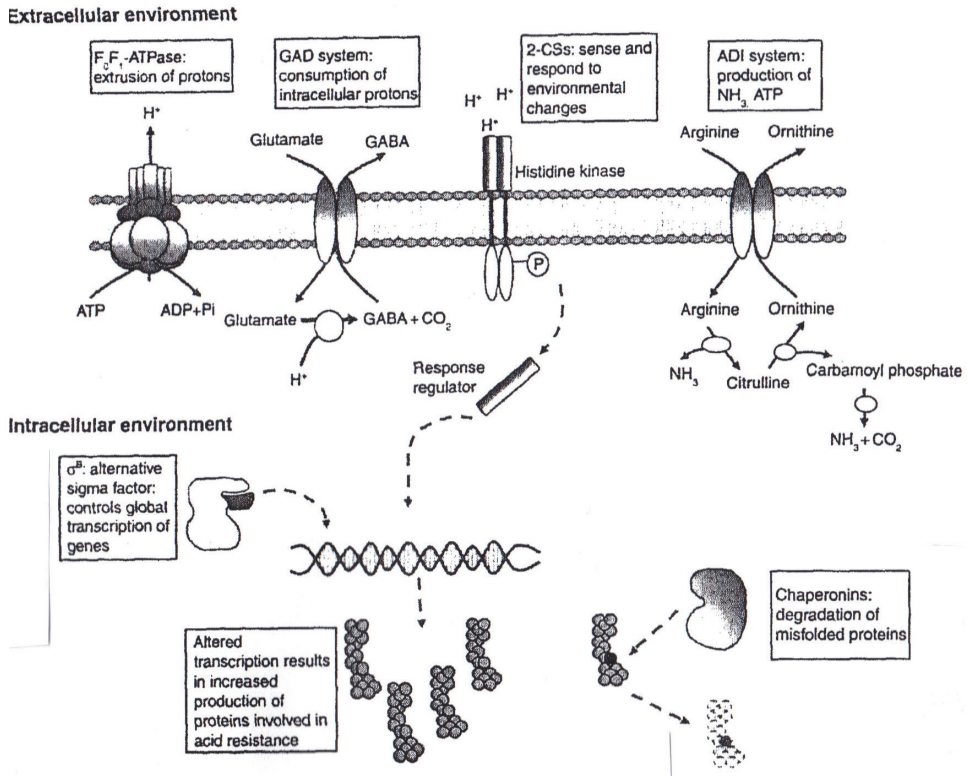


Fig. 6. Some of the known responses of *L. monocytogenes* to low pH stress (see text). The figure is reproduced from Ryan et al. (32) with permission from Elsevier.

of bacteria (180, 181). It has been shown that when *L. monocytogenes* encounter low pH induces rapid net protons influx and consequently decrease in cytoplasmic pH. Depending on the pH and availability of glucose, the bacterium may recover by switching the net protons flow from influx to efflux (111). Attempts to create mutants by deletion of genes encoding the F₀F₁-ATPase in *L. monocytogenes* have not been successful (32, 170), limiting the understanding of the exact role of the F₀F₁-ATPase, particularly in this bacterium. However, the reported induction of the components of the F₀F₁-ATPase as consequences of exposure to acidic pH (169, 182), together with studies reporting increased in sensitivity of cells to acid after treatment with ATPase inhibitor (170), strongly suggest the F₀F₁-ATPase is involved in acid defense. In accordance, a study by Shabala et al. also demonstrated that treatment with ATPase inhibitor resulted in decrease in net extrusion of protons in *L. monocytogenes* (111).

In addition to the F₀F₁-ATPase, other ATPase transporters, such as K⁺-ATPase, are known to contribute to pH homeostasis in a number of gram-positive bacteria (180).

Other responses to combat acid stress

Exposure to acid stress may change the cell membrane composition, induce repair and protection systems for macromolecules and may change the track of the common metabolic pathways of target cells (32, 169). It has been shown that *L. monocytogenes* modulate the fatty acid profile of the membrane in response to low pH stress (183, 184), and this may provide additional protection against acidic pH. Several studies have shown that low cytoplasmic pH seems to induce systems aiming to repair acid-induced damage to DNA (185), chaperonins that assist folding of malformed proteins (186) and proteases and peptidases to degrade aberrant proteins (169, 187, 188) (Fig. 6). A recent transcriptome study showed that increase in the transcription of genes encoding the acetoin synthesis enzymes from pyruvate under acidic conditions, suggesting *L. monocytogenes* to alter its metabolic pathway to alleviate acid stress (169). This genome-wide transcriptional study also revealed a number of strain and acid stress dependent responses of *L. monocytogenes* exposed to HCl and the organic acid salt sodium diacetate (169).

Acid tolerance response (ATR) and cross-protection to other stress conditions

Exposure of *L. monocytogenes* to extremely low pH has been shown to select spontaneous mutants that are constitutively resistant to this condition (31, 33). A transient acid tolerance response (ATR) upon brief exposure of *L. monocytogenes* to mild low pH has also been reported (33, 189, 190). ATR is reported to protect the bacterium against extremely low pH, and can in addition induce cross-protection to other food related environmental stresses including bacteriocins (27, 33, 184, 189-193). Importantly, ATR is shown to influence the virulence capacity of *L. monocytogenes*, although there is some disagreement regarding its contribution [(194-197), see below]. The ATR is mainly mediated by *de novo* expression of a number of proteins (33) and the contribution of GAD system (174), F₀F₁-ATPase system (111, 170) and the general stress regulator σ^B (198) in ATR, has been documented.

Gene regulation under stress conditions: emphasis on acid stress

The *L. monocytogenes* genome possesses one of the highest number (>7%) of predicted transcriptional regulators reported (165). In addition, the bacterium also uses noncoding RNAs as a regulatory system (64, 199, 200). These regulatory components are crucial to sense and respond to a rapidly changing environment through modulation of gene transcription. Four alternative sigma factors (σ^B , σ^{54} , σ^C and σ^H) associated with stress response have been identified in *L. monocytogenes* [reviewed in (201)]. A more recent and comprehensive study (202) has compared the regulons of seven key regulatory proteins of *L. monocytogenes*, including the four alternative sigma factors. The study showed cross-connection between the transcriptional regulators and overlapping in regulons, suggesting certain level of compensatory and synergistic roles among the transcription regulators (202).

In addition to mediate resistance to class IIa bacteriocins (140-142), the σ^{54} has been linked to osmotic and low temperature stresses (203-205). The induction of the *sigL* by lactic acid stress, as well as, the reported impaired growth of *sigL* null mutant during growth in the presence of this acid, particular at low temperature has suggested a possible role of σ^{54} in acid stress (205). The *sigH* (encoding the σ^H) was reported to be induced by acidic pH (182) and it has been shown that the growth of a *sigH* deletion mutant was impaired in minimal media as well as under alkaline stress (206). A more recent study, however, has reported contrasting result on possible role of σ^{54} and σ^H in acid stress (202). According the study, the survival of both *sigL* and *sigH* null mutants under acidic stress appears to be higher than that of the parental strain (202). The σ^C (encoded by *sigC*) is reported to be important transcriptional regulator during heat stress and cold adaptation (207, 208).

The σ^B (encoded by *sigB*) has a central part in the general stress regulation network [portrayed in (209) and (202)] and is by far the most investigated sigma factor in *L. monocytogenes* in connection with a variety stress responses, including low pH (195, 210-218). According to a recent whole-genome transcriptional study, more than 400 genes are reported to be under the regulation of σ^B (215). The knowledge about the σ^B in acid stress response is mostly derived from the reduced survival of a *sigB* null mutant compared to the parent wild-type under acidic stress growth conditions (202, 212, 215, 216, 219, 220). A study by Heavin et al. (171), however, showed no significant difference in the growth rate between *sigB* null mutant and its isogenic wild-type in the presence of weak acids. The σ^B dependent expression of genes

encoding the main defense systems against low pH (the GAD and ADI systems) has been observed (168, 212, 216) (Fig. 6). Because the σ^B activity is regulated primarily at post-transcriptional level (218), the transcript level of *sigB* may not reflect its actual activity. In summary, a fully functional σ^B is important in activating a number of genes important for survival during stress, but is dependent on strain, stress type and growth condition.

In addition to the sigma factors, *L. monocytogenes* utilizes two-component signal transduction systems (2-CSs) to modulate gene expression in response to environmental stimulus (Fig. 6). Of the 15 histidine kinases and 16 response regulators identified in *L. monocytogenes* (221), LisRK has shown to play a major role in numerous stress conditions (208, 222-224). Mutants lacking the *lisRK* genes displayed higher resistance to low pH than the wild-type after long time exposure to low pH at stationary phase (222). However, the *lisRK* null mutant strains were more sensitive to low pH at logarithmic phase than the parental strain (222).

2.4.3 Effect of class IIa bacteriocins and low pH stresses on virulence

It has been suggested that stress of different types are factor that may influence virulence of *L. monocytogenes* (58). Relatively little is known about the effect of stress imposed by class IIa bacteriocins on the virulence potential of *L. monocytogenes* (29, 225). In one study, a targeted microarray was used to investigate the expression of 13 selected virulence genes in two class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains (29). According to the study, five of the virulence genes were significantly down-regulated in one of the resistant strains. For the other resistant strain, the authors reported a non-significant induction of the tested virulence genes (29). In another study, exposure to class IIa bacteriocin did not appear to affect the haemolytic activity of *L. monocytogenes* (225). As outlined above, the mannose-PTS (encoded by the *mpt*) plays a central role in resistance to class IIa bacteriocins, and also regulates the expression of virulence genes. Deletion of the *mpt* induces the *prfA* controlled virulence genes but did not affect the replication of the mutant strains within the mammalian host cells (144, 163). In general, the regulation of virulence genes by the PTS is complex and largely dependent on the energy source and the phosphorylation status of the PTS components [(156, 157, 159) also see above].

Low pH is a known signal to foodborne pathogens to induce the expression of genes important for survival and adaptation in the mammalian host (32). Several studies have shown

that pre-exposure of *L. monocytogenes* to low pH may induce the expression of virulence genes (169, 195-197). Evidences from *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies also indicate that exposure to acid may aggravate the virulence potential of *L. monocytogenes* (31, 33, 194, 226). However, it is useful to note that exposure to such stress not always lead to induction in virulence potential (169, 196, 197, 227). The conflicting observations might be attributed to strain and methodological differences.

2.5 Methodological aspects of the present stress response study

Selection of *L. monocytogenes* strains for the present work was based on information from previous studies (92, 228). It has been shown that wild-type strains of *L. monocytogenes* form two distinct groups according to their natural susceptibility to sakacin P. This grouping is consistent with grouping based on other biochemical and genetic profiles of the strains (92, 228). Simultaneous analysis of all the data together using multiblock principal component analysis has allowed more distinct separation of the wild-type strains than when analysing of each profile individually (229). However, the exact biochemical and genetic basis behind this grouping of *L. monocytogenes* is not yet fully understood. In the present work, two wild-type strains with high natural susceptibility to sakacin P and two strains with low natural susceptibility to sakacin P, as well as the laboratory reference strain EGDe, were included.

Assessment of the physiological and morphological status of bacterial cells before and after being subjected to stress is common approaches in the study of stress responses. Application of both general microbiological methods (e.g. growth study) and the modern techniques (e.g. transcriptome study) offer more holistic approach to understand how bacteria respond to stresses. In the present study, the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P and to low pH stresses were investigated using different microbiological methods. Fig. 7 depicts the experimental design used. The general microbiological methods applied in the present work have been described thoroughly elsewhere, so in this introduction, only brief description of Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, transcript quantification and the basics of principal components analysis are presented.

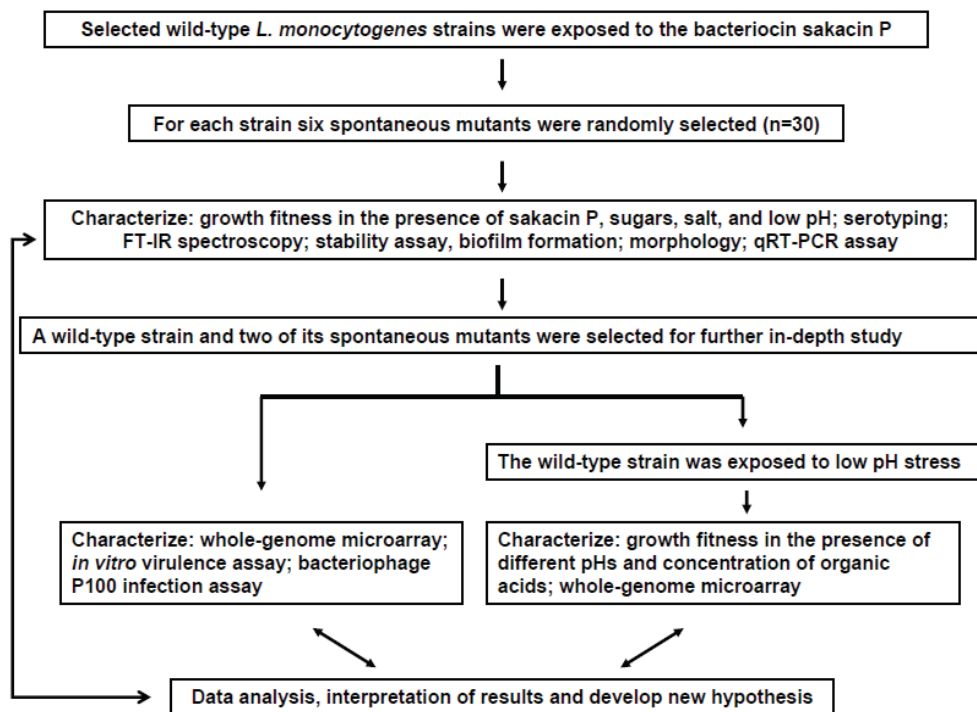


Fig. 7. Schematic presentation of the experimental design used to study the response of *L. monocytogenes* to sakacin P and low pH.

2.5.1 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy

Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy has been widely used in microbiology for a variety of applications. This includes studying the effect of stress on bacterial cells (230-233) and for identification and differentiation of microorganisms (228, 234-236). FT-IR spectroscopy records infrared spectra originating from molecular vibrations of all functional groups found in the cell at the atomic level. The spectrum as a whole represents a fingerprint of absorption peaks which related to both phenotypic as well as genotypic information about the cell. Infrared spectra of bacteria can be divided into five spectral regions, which roughly characterize the fatty acid, protein and polysaccharide content of intact cells (Fig. 8) (237). In addition, the size of the peaks in the spectrum is a direct indication of the amount of material present in the cell. Normalization of the data is essential to eliminate systematic variations (238) and the data can be analyzed and presented using different approaches such as by

principal components analysis (see below). The speed and the high-throughput quality of FT-IR spectroscopy make this method particularly suitable for taxonomic purposes.

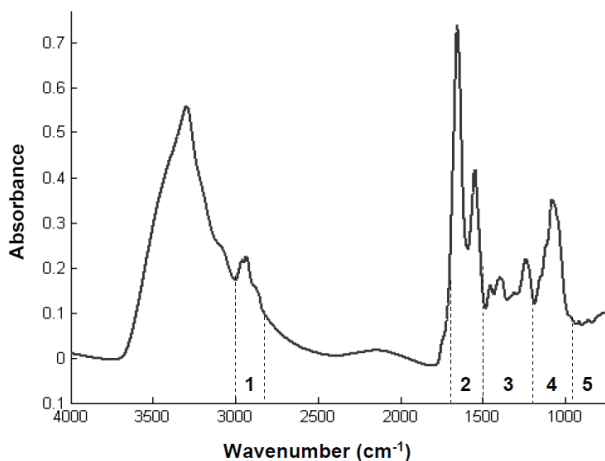


Fig. 8. A typical bacterial FT-IR spectroscopy spectrum. The various spectral regions marked with numbers are (1) 3,100-2,800 cm^{-1} , fatty acid region; (2) 1,800-1,500 cm^{-1} , protein region; (3) 1,500-1,200 cm^{-1} , mixed region of fatty acid and protein; (4) 1,200-900 cm^{-1} , polysaccharide region; and (5) 900-700 cm^{-1} , fingerprint region. Assignment of bands are according to Naumann (237).

2.5.2 Transcriptional analysis

Several methods are available to study bacterial transcript levels. DNA microarray and quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR have been used widely to study transcripts of bacteria under different conditions, including in stress response studies (169, 196).

Quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR

In a standard quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR) technique, the mRNA is copied to cDNA (complementary DNA) by the enzyme reverse transcriptase. The copied cDNA serve as a template for quantitative real-time PCR. Detection of the cDNA can be achieved using a set of specific primers and a dual-labelled reporter (e.g. TaqMan probe). The TaqMan probe consists of a fluorophore attached to the 5'-end and a quencher at the 3'-

end. The probes are designed to anneal within the target cDNA region amplified by the specific set of primers. The purpose of the quencher is to inhibit fluorescence signals while the fluorophore and the quencher are in proximity. However, as the amplification of the target cDNA proceed degradation of the probe releases the fluorophore. The amount of fluorescence detected reflects the quantity of starting cDNA present (239). The quantification is based on threshold cycle (C_T), which is the number of PCR cycles at which the fluorescence signal of the reporter dye cross a determined threshold value. The lower C_T value reflects the higher amount of target cDNA. The C_T value is normalized using a housekeeping gene and the amount of mRNA can be compared among the samples of interest (240).

The qRT-PCR is sensitive, (semi)-quantitative, and is relatively (semi-) high throughput technique for transcript quantification (239, 240). In addition, qRT-PCR is extensively used to validate microarray transcript quantification results (241), as in the present work.

DNA microarray

Transcriptomics and genetic variation analysis are the two major applications of DNA microarrays. In standard DNA microarray transcriptomics, reporters (e.g. PCR products corresponding to genes in the whole-genome) are attached to a solid surface (e.g. glass slides) in a high density fashion (242). In “two-color” technology, the mRNA samples are copied to cDNA by the enzyme reverse transcriptase and labelled with fluorophores usually with Cy3 and Cy5 (e.g. mutant versus wild-type). The fluorophore labelled samples are mixed and co-hybridized to the microarray slide. Unbound and non-specifically bound fluorophores are removed by washing and the hybridized microarray is excited by a laser and scanned at suitable wavelengths (e.g. for the detection of the red and green channels). The amount of fluorescence emitted upon laser excitation corresponds to the amount of nucleic acid bound to each spot. The composite images from scanned arrays have different colors (e.g. red, green, yellow or black color) depending on the relative amount of each sample at a given spot. The images must be analyzed to identify the spot, and to quantify the amount of fluorescence intensity in each channel. Normalization of the data is essential for proper comparison of samples, and the data has to be filtered and analyzed (242, 243).

Generally, the DNA microarray transcriptomics approach has been a powerful tool to understand the transcriptional response of bacteria at the whole genome scale (244). An

advanced application of this technology recently uncovered the complete operon map of *L. monocytogenes* (64). The increasing knowledge regarding the function of genes and pathways, as well as development of better tools to analyze the huge amount of data are making the microarray technology more robust than before (64, 245, 246). It is important to acknowledge, however, that the technology is primarily a screening tool, and do not measure posttranscriptional events. Nevertheless, a high correlation between the gene transactional profile and proteome and enzyme levels are often reported (244).

2.5.3 Data analysis

In the present work different statistical analyses and presentations of data were used. Since Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was applied in all three papers (Paper I-III), a brief account on PCA is presented below. Analysis of multivariate data that are highly correlated to each other and again consisting of a limited number of observations require good systems for presenting them in simple visual ways. PCA is an appropriate method to analyze such complex data. PCA has been used to analyze data from FT-IR spectroscopy and DNA microarray transcriptome studies (243, 247, 248). It represents an unsupervised data analysis to summarize multidimensional data sets into new and few set of variables called Principal Components (PCs). The first PC (PC1) explains the main variation in the data set followed by PC2 and so on. The PCs are uncorrelated to each other and are presented as score plot to illustrate how the samples are grouped. Loading plots are parts of PCA presentation and shows how the variables are related to the score plot (249).

3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main goal of this study was to explore the responses of *L. monocytogenes* to antimicrobial products from lactic acid bacteria, particularly to the bacteriocin sakacin P and acids. The specific tasks were:

- ❖ develop spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutant strains and perform mutant characterization using different approaches.
- ❖ further in-depth study on representative spontaneous mutant strains to elucidate the sakacin P resistance mechanisms and the global transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* exposed to sakacin P.
- ❖ explore the growth and global transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* to hydrochloric acid, acetic acid and lactic acid stress.
- ❖ compare the global transcriptional profile of sakacin P-resistant strains and acid stress response to identify common genes important under these conditions.

4. MAIN RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes* is responsible for severe and fatal illness and for significant economical losses (4, 8-10, 67). Ingestion of food contaminated with *L. monocytogenes* is the common mode of infection (3). LAB and their antimicrobial products have the potential to minimize contamination, to control the growth and eventually eliminate this bacterium from food and food related environment (17-23). *L. monocytogenes*, however, has an extraordinary ability to counteract adverse conditions including stresses due to bacteriocins and low pHs (27-33). Elucidation of how *L. monocytogenes* respond to antimicrobial products from LAB is a crucial step to devise a knowledge-based strategy to control this bacterium in food and food-related environments.

The results and discussion presented in this chapter is based on the list of papers stated by their Roman numerals (Paper I-Paper III). The work presented in Paper I and Paper II is a continuation of previous studies (92, 228). In Paper I, analysis of several spontaneous mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* originated after exposure to sakacin P revealed clues regarding different phenotypic responses of the sakacin P-resistant mutant strains. In order to obtain deep insight into the responses of the sakacin P-resistant strains, further in-depth analysis on representative wild-type and mutant strains were conducted (Paper I and Paper II). Paper III explored the response of *L. monocytogenes* to low pH and acidulants commonly encountered by this bacterium with emphasis on lactic and acetic acid stress, using a representative wild-type strain studied in Paper II. The transcriptome results (Paper II and Paper III) were compared to identify common responses.

The class IIa group bacteriocins have potential to be used as antilisterial agents, however, development of resistance to these bacteriocins is a great concern (28-30, 77, 85, 92, 126, 128-131). To elucidate the event(s) leading to resistance to the class IIa bacteriocins, 30 spontaneous mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* that acquired resistance after exposure to sakacin P, were characterized using phenotypic and transcriptomic approaches (Paper I and Paper II). For the transcriptome analysis, representative sakacin P-resistant strains were compared with the parent wild-type during growth on mannose or cellobiose (Paper II).

Based on the IC₅₀ (50% inhibitory concentration) of sakacin P, the 30 spontaneous resistant strains could be grouped into strains with high levels of resistance (IC₅₀, ≥10 µg ml⁻¹) and

strains with low levels of resistance (IC_{50} , $<10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). Resistant strains belonging to the same IC_{50} group were shown to have a certain level of similar physiological and transcriptional characteristics (Paper I and Paper II). Nevertheless, the results also indicated diversity among strains belonging to the same groups. The results from the in-depth study on representative resistant strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* L40 and *L. monocytogenes* L502 are summarized in Table 1. In the study presented in Paper I, FT-IR spectroscopy analysis was applied to characterize the *L. monocytogenes* strains. The findings from FT-IR spectroscopy revealed differences between wild-type and resistant strains, albeit in a strain type dependent manner (Paper I). Despite the differences identified in Table 1, the resistant strains had indistinguishable morphology under scanning electron microscopy (Paper I and Fig. 9). The absence of morphological differences using scanning electron microscopy between sensitive and class IIa bacteriocin-resistant cells was in accordance with the results of Duffes et al. (128). However, it has been reported that, under transmission electron microscopy, the class IIa bacteriocin divergicin M35-resistant strain showed rounder and rougher outer layers than the parental wild-type strain (250).

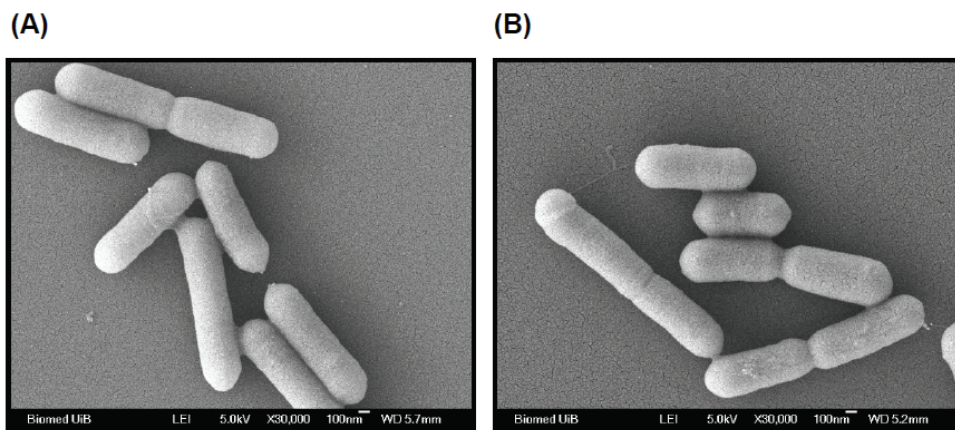


Fig. 9. Scanning electron microscopy pictures of (A) L502-1 and (B) L502-6 at exponential growth phase. The images were taken at the Molecular Imaging Center of the University of Bergen, Norway.

Interestingly, the stability of the acquired resistance during growth in the absence of bacteriocin was found to be variable (Paper I and Paper II). Previous studies also reported differences in the stability of the acquired resistance (28, 128-130, 135, 136). In the present

Table 1. The phenotypic and transcriptional profiles of representative high level sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L40-1) and low level sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-6 and L40-6) relative to their respective wild-type strains (L502 and L40) (Paper I and Paper II).

Parameters ^a	L502-1	L502-6	L40-1	L40-6
IC ₅₀ for sakacin P	high (>10 ⁶)	low (10 ³)	high (>10 ⁵)	low (10 ³)
Stability of the acquired resistance to sakacin P	unstable	stable	stable	unstable
Growth rate on mannose	82%	44%	73%	50%
Growth rate on glucose	94%	70%	87%	56%
Growth rate on lactose	112%	46%	42%	39%
Growth rate on cellobiose	107%	105%	108%	93%
Biofilm forming ability	L502>L502-1>L502-6		L40>L40-1=L40-6	
Food-related stress tolerance (salt, low temperature & low pH)	L502>L502-1>L502-6		L40>L40-1>L40-6	
Virulence potential	L502≥L502-1>L502-6		ND	
Growth in the presence of activated charcoal	L502=L502-1>L502-6		ND	
Growth in the presence of phage P100 at low MOI	L502=L502-1<L502-6		ND	
FT-IR spectroscopy profile	similar to L502	different from L502 and L502-1	different from L40 at fatty acid and polysaccharides regions	different from L40 and other L40 derivatives at fatty acid and polysaccharides regions
The bacteriocin receptor (<i>mpt</i> operon)	repressed	induced	repressed	induced
Total number of genes affected on mannose	87 up and 37 down	152 up and 42 down	ND	ND
Total number of genes affected on cellobiose	20 up and 19 down	30 up and 6 down	ND	ND
Serotype	no change	no change	no change	no change
Scanning electron microscopy	no change	no change	no change	no change

^a comparisons are relative to the wild-type strains (mutant/wild-type); ND, not determined

work, for the resistant strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* L40 and EGDe, the high level resistant strains showed a more stable phenotype than the low level resistant strains (Paper I). However, the stability in the high level sakacin P-resistant strain derived from *L. monocytogenes* L502 was lower than that of the low level resistant strain (Paper II). Together, the results suggest that in addition to the level of resistance to sakacin P, other factors may influence the stability of the acquired resistance.

In regard to elucidation of the phenotypic resistance response, the expression of the bacteriocin receptor *mptA* representing the *mpt* operon was monitored using qRT-PCR assay (Paper I and Paper II). As shown in Fig. 10, for the wild-type strains (L502 and L40), the expression of the *mpt* was induced by the presence of glucose and mannose but not by cellobiose, confirming previous reports (102, 139, 163). The *mpt* in the high level resistant strains (L502-1 and L40-1) were down-regulated, strongly suggesting that abolition of the bacteriocin receptor could be the main mechanism behind resistance in these strains (Fig. 10). This in accordance with the well established association between the presence/absence of the mannose-PTS and susceptibility/resistance to class IIa bacteriocins (28, 29, 95-97, 132, 134, 135, 138, 139, 142).

Intriguingly, the level of the bacteriocin receptor transcript (*mpt*) was significantly induced in the low level resistant strains (L502-6 and L40-6) except for strain L502-6 grown on cellobiose (Paper I and Paper II, see Fig. 10). A previous study also reported an induction of the bacteriocin receptor in a carnobacteriocin B2-resistant strain both at gene and protein levels (29). The PTS encoded by *mpt* is necessary for growth on mannose (163) and acts as a receptor for sakacin P (96, 97). Despite the induction of the *mpt*, the two low level resistant strains studied in the present work showed 1,000 times higher resistance than their respective wild-type strains. In addition, the growth of these resistant strains was reduced particularly on mannose (Table 1). Hence, this may indicate that the mannose-PTS may not be fully functional in the low level resistant strains. As outlined earlier, class II bacteriocins act on the major glucose uptake systems of target cells and inhibit the uptake of nutrients like glucose and amino acids (101, 162-164). Interestingly, this may symbolize systematic fighting of LAB against nutrient competing bacteria, including *L. monocytogenes*.

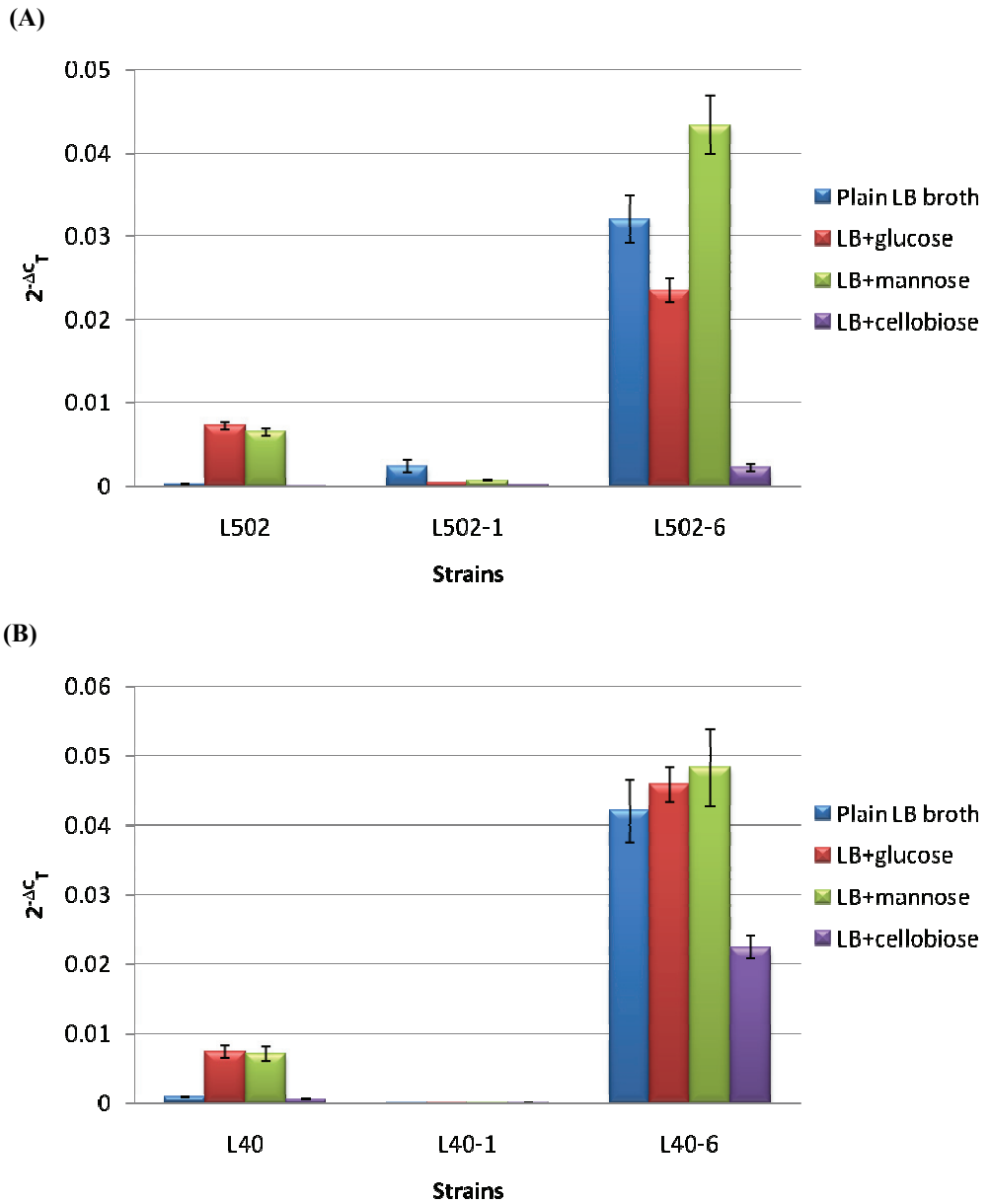


Fig. 10. The transcript level of the *mptA* gene representing the *mptACD* operon in (A) *L. monocytogenes* L502 and its sakacin P-resistant strains L502-1 and L502-6 and (B) *L. monocytogenes* L40 and its sakacin P-resistant strains L40-1 and L40-6. The strains were grown in plain Luria-Bertani broth or supplemented with glucose, mannose or cellobiose. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. The qRT-PCR data analysis was done as described by Schmittgen and Livak (240).

Our transcriptomic studies confirmed independently the results on *mpt* regulation obtained by the qRT-PCR assay (Paper II). In addition to the mannose-PTS, genes encoding proteins involved in cell envelope modifications and genes in the Twin-Arginine Translocase (TAT) system were induced particularly in L502-6 (Paper II). The link between modification of the cell envelope and resistance to class IIa bacteriocins has been shown before [Paper I and (132, 133, 148)]. The importance of the TAT system in antimicrobial resistance has been demonstrated in *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* strains (251, 252). Thus, the induced genes encoding proteins involved in cell envelope modifications and genes in the TAT system are of particular interest in connection with their possible role in resistance to class II bacteriocins.

Conceivably, most of the transcriptome changes in the sakacin P-resistant strains could be related to regulatory role of the mannose-PTS. This is largely supported by transcriptome evidences from other gram-positive bacterial strains lacking the mannose-PTS (138, 166). These studies clearly indicate the central role of mannose-PTS in regulating its own expression and the expression of other genes involved in a variety of cellular functions at global level [Paper II and references (138, 166)].

Taking into account all the results (Paper I and Paper II), the different resistant strains derived from a single strain after a single time exposure to the bacteriocin, shows substantial phenotypic and transcriptomic differences. This highlight care has to be taken before generalizations are made based on studies including a few strains and mutants.

Foodborne human pathogens such as *L. monocytogenes* frequently encounter organic acids produced from LAB in fermented food and during acidification of food products and food environment by addition of organic acids. Spontaneous mutant strains that are constitutively resistant to low pH and strains with ATR, are a challenge for the food industry (31, 33, 189, 190). The knowledge about the response of gram-positive foodborne pathogens to acetic and lactic acid stress has largely been based on studies in other bacteria than *L. monocytogenes* (253, 254). In Paper III *L. monocytogenes* L502 (the strain studied in Paper I and II) was exposed to HCl, acetic acid and lactic acid stress. The growth and transcriptome of the acid stressed cells were compared with that of cells without any acid treatment. Prior to the main experiment, a series of growth studies were performed to characterize growth conditions in the presence of the three acids. The growth of *L. monocytogenes* L502 was reduced, but not

completely inhibited at pH 5 when acidification was done by addition of HCl, 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid. Acetic acid had the highest antilisterial activity followed by lactic acid and HCl (Paper III), confirming previous report (23).

The transcriptomics were performed after the cells were allowed to adapt to the acidic environment ($OD_{600} \sim 1.2$). This was done to ensure that the cells were in similar physiological state under the growth conditions (Paper III). Common as well as unique genes were differentially regulated in the presence of the three acidulants. Many more genes were affected by the organic acids than by HCl, indicating possible additional toxicity of the organic acids other than low pH effect (Fig. 4). Studies on other related gram-positive foodborne pathogens show similar overall acidulant dependent transcriptional responses (253, 254).

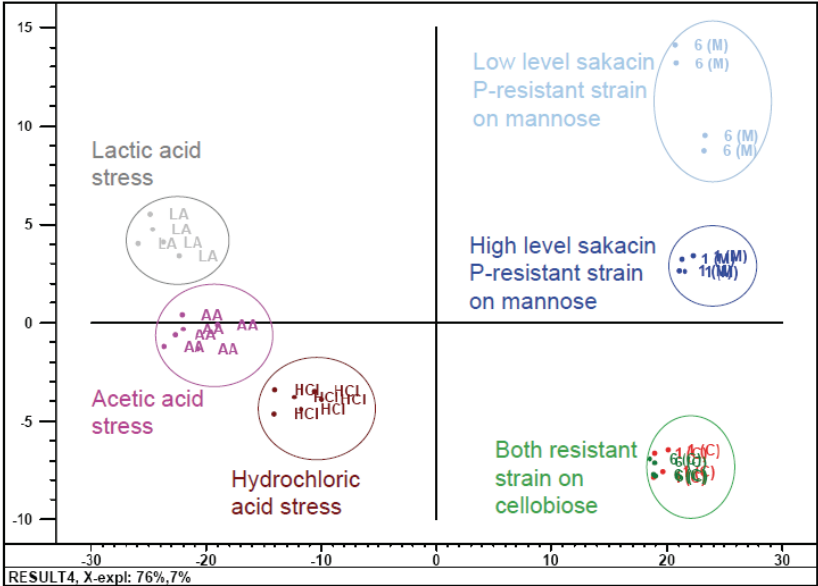
The strain responded to the acid stress by inducing confirmed and putative genes important for low pH defense (Paper III). Genes in the GAD system showed the highest induction, indicating that this is the main system in alleviating the low pH stress under the growth condition. In *L. monocytogenes*, the importance of the GAD system in acid defense has been shown using models (174, 177, 178). In addition to the GAD system, a number of genes associated with modifications of the cell envelope, with protection and repair of macromolecules, with intracellular accumulation of histidine and osmolytes as well as with genes encoding general stress proteins were induced in the acid stressed cells (Paper III). The knowledge about the importance of the above mentioned responses in acid defense and adaptation was largely based on studies on other bacterial species and their role in *L. monocytogenes* need to be confirmed (Paper III).

The acid stress also induced genes encoding proteins involved in other type of stress conditions, such as heavy metal toxicity, osmotic stress, oxidative stress and UV light stress. This is in accordance with the ATR behavior of *L. monocytogenes* in inducing protection to other types of stresses upon exposure to mild acidic condition (33, 184, 189-191, 193). The acid stress also increased the transcription of genes associated with virulence (Paper III).

Although the methodological differences influence direct comparisons, the bacteriocin resistance transcriptome (Paper II) and the acid stress response transcriptome (Paper III) were analyzed together. This was done to investigate the presences of universal stress response

important for the bacteriocin and the acids stress. As seen from the PCA score plot (Fig. 11 A), the global acid stress transcriptome is apparently different from the transcriptome of the bacteriocin-resistant strains.

(A)



(B)

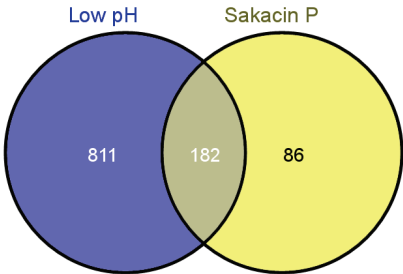


Fig. 11. Genes differentially expressed in any of the acid stressed and the sakacin P-resistant strains (A) PCA score plot and all the dye-swap and technical replicates from the two biological cultures were included in the PCA. The explained variances for PC1 and PC2 are 76% and 7% respectively. (B) Venn diagram showing the total number of genes differentially regulated in any of the transcriptomics (Paper II and Paper III).

A total of 268 genes in any of the bacteriocin-resistant transcriptomes (four conditions) and 993 genes in any of the acid stress response transcriptomes (three conditions) were differentially regulated. The Venn diagram shows 182 overlapping genes between the two transcriptomes (Fig. 11B). None of the overlapping genes were either up- or down-regulated in all growth conditions tested. Comparison of the organic acid stress response with the transcriptional response of the sakacin P-resistant mutant strains during growth on mannose showed a total of 49 core genes differentially regulated under these four conditions (not shown). Of these, an operon encoding a putative amino acid ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter (*lmo2250-lmo2252*) and a gene encoding unknown protein (*lmo0573*) were down-regulated in all the cases. In contrast, no single gene was induced under all the four conditions. The different experimental conditions employed in the two studies, as well as the disparate responses of the strain to the stresses may attribute to the disparity.

One of the key findings of the present work is the different responses of *L. monocytogenes* L502 to stresses from the sakacin P and the acids (Paper I-Paper III). One example of such difference is illustrated by regulation of genes important for acid stress defence and genes involved in virulence. While the sakacin P-resistant mutant strains showed repression of genes important for acid defence (e.g. GAD system) and other virulence related genes (Paper II), the acid stress appeared to induce these genes (Paper III). Overall, the results presented in this thesis showed strain-, growth condition-, and stress type-dependent responses of *L. monocytogenes* to the bacteriocin sakacin P and to low pH stresses.

5. MAIN CONTRIBUTION AND FUTURE WORK

The present work has provided new insight into how the foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes* respond and adapt to sakacin P and to low pH stresses. We have shown substantial diversity in phenotypic and transcriptomic characteristics of spontaneous mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* obtained after a single exposure to sakacin P. In this work we have also demonstrated FT-IR spectroscopy as potential tool to study sakacin P-resistant strains and the macromolecular changes associated with this resistance. The transcriptome analyses have rendered clues on how the bacterium respond to sakacin P and low pH stresses at genome-wide level. The transcriptome results also identified putative genes that might have a role in the examined stress responses.

The present work has disclosed several new avenues of investigation for future studies. For example, some of the sakacin P-resistant strains showed induction of the bacteriocin receptor genes (*mpt*). Further characterization of the resistant strains would provide more knowledge about the resistance mechanism to class IIa bacteriocins. In order to take full advantage of the FT-IR spectroscopy technique, bands with unknown specificity should be designated. Furthermore, the discriminatory power of the absorption bands should be improved to provide information about single specific compounds. Complementing the transcriptome data by gene functional studies (e.g. knock-out/knock-down), proteomics, metabolomics and DNA sequencing (especially for the sakacin P-resistant mutant strains) could provide a more precise picture of the response of *L. monocytogenes* to the stress conditions. It would also be interesting to study the virulence capacity of the bacteriocin-resistant and the acid adapted *L. monocytogenes* strains using animal models.

An intriguing and more practically relevant study would be to investigate the interaction between *L. monocytogenes* and LAB in co-culture studies. Initially this can be done in simple membrane separated co-culture device and eventually in more complex food system containing other computing normal flora bacteria. Comparison of more representative *L. monocytogenes* strains and characterizing them under optimal growth conditions will be useful to be able to make more generalized conclusions.

6. REFERENCES

1. **Schlech, W.F., P.M. Lavigne, R.A. Bortolussi, A.C. Allen, E.V. Haldane, A.J. Wort, A.W. Hightower, S.E. Johnson, S.H. King, E.S. Nicholls, and C.V. Broome**, Epidemic listeriosis-evidence for transmission by food. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, 1983. **308**(4): p. 203-6.
2. **Fleming, D.W., S.L. Cochi, K.L. MacDonald, J. Brondum, P.S. Hayes, B.D. Plikaytis, M.B. Holmes, A. Audurier, C.V. Broome, and A.L. Reingold**, Pasteurized milk as a vehicle of infection in an outbreak of listeriosis. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, 1985. **312**(7): p. 404-7.
3. **Allerberger, F. and M. Wagner**, Listeriosis: a resurgent foodborne infection. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.*, 2010. **16**(1): p. 16-23.
4. **Mead, P.S., L. Slutsker, V. Dietz, L.F. McCaig, J.S. Bresee, C. Shapiro, P.M. Griffin, and R.V. Tauxe**, Food-related illness and death in the United States. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.*, 1999. **5**: p. 607-25.
5. **Antal, E.-A., H.R. Høgåsen, L. Sandvik, and J. Mæhlen**, Listeriosis in Norway 1977-2003. *Scand. J. Infect. Dis.*, 2007. **39**(5): p. 398 - 404.
6. **Johnsen, B.O., E. Lingaas, D. Torfoss, E.H. Strom, and I. Nordoy**, A large outbreak of *Listeria monocytogenes* infection with short incubation period in a tertiary care hospital. *J. Infect.*, doi:10.1016/j.jinf.2010.08.007.
7. **Adak, G.K., S.M. Long, and S.J. O'Brien**, Trends in indigenous foodborne disease and deaths, England and Wales: 1992 to 2000. *Gut*, 2002. **51**(6): p. 832-841.
8. **Vazquez-Boland, J.A., M. Kuhn, P. Berche, T. Chakraborty, G. Dominguez-Bernal, W. Goebel, B. Gonzalez-Zorn, J. Wehland, and J. Kreft**, *Listeria* pathogenesis and molecular virulence determinants. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.*, 2001. **14**(3): p. 584-640.
9. **Buzby, C., T. Roberts, C. Jordan Lin, and J. MacDonald**, Bacterial foodborne disease: medical costs and productivity losses. 1996, United States Department of Agriculture: Washington.
10. **Wong, S., D. Street, S.I. Delgado, and K.C. Klontz**, Recalls of foods and cosmetics due to microbial contamination reported to the US Food and Drug Administration. *J. Food Prot.*, 2000. **63**(8): p. 1113-1116.
11. **Battcock, M. and S. Azam-Ali**, Fermented fruits and vegetables: a global perspective. 1998, Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
12. **Ross, R.P., S. Morgan, and C. Hill**, Preservation and fermentation: past, present and future. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2002. **79**(1-2): p. 3-16.
13. **Ouwehand, A.C.**, Antimicrobial components from lactic acid bacteria, in *Lactic acid bacteria: microbiology and functional aspects*, S. Salminen and A. von Wright, Editors. 1998, Marcel Dekker: New York, NY. p. 139-159.
14. **Liu, L., P. O'Conner, P.D. Cotter, C. Hill, and R.P. Ross**, Controlling *Listeria monocytogenes* in cottage cheese through heterologous production of enterocin A by *Lactococcus lactis*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2008. **104**(4): p. 1059-66.
15. **O'Sullivan, L., B. O'Connor E, R.P. Ross, and C. Hill**, Evaluation of live-culture-producing lacticin 3147 as a treatment for the control of *Listeria monocytogenes* on the surface of smear-ripened cheese. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2006. **100**(1): p. 135-43.
16. **Morgan, S.M., M. Galvin, R.P. Ross, and C. Hill**, Evaluation of a spray-dried lacticin 3147 powder for the control of *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Bacillus cereus* in a range of food systems. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2001. **33**(5): p. 387-91.
17. **Benkerroum, N., A. Daoudi, T. Hamraoui, H. Ghalfi, C. Thiry, M. Duroy, P. Evrart, D. Roblain, and P. Thonart**, Lyophilized preparations of bacteriocinogenic *Lactobacillus curvatus* and *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *lactis* as potential protective adjuncts to control *Listeria monocytogenes* in dry-fermented sausages. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2005. **98**(1): p. 56-63.

18. **Katla, T., T. Moretro, I.M. Aasen, A. Holck, L. Axelsson, and K. Naterstad**, Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* in cold smoked salmon by addition of sakacin P and/or live *Lactobacillus sakei* cultures. *Food Microbiol.*, 2001. **18**(4): p. 431-439.
19. **Katla, T., T. Moretro, I. Sveen, I.M. Aasen, L. Axelsson, L.M. Rorvik, and K. Naterstad**, Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* in chicken cold cuts by addition of sakacin P and sakacin P-producing *Lactobacillus sakei*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2002. **93**(2): p. 191-196.
20. **Bredholt, S., T. Nesbakken, and A. Holck**, Industrial application of an antilisterial strain of *Lactobacillus sakei* as a protective culture and its effect on the sensory acceptability of cooked, sliced, vacuum-packaged meats. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2001. **66**(3): p. 191-196.
21. **Ostling, C. and S. Lindgren**, Inhibition of enterobacteria and *Listeria* growth by lactic, acetic and formic acids. *J. Appl. Bacteriol.*, 1993. **75**: p. 18-24.
22. **Gravesen, A., Z. Diao, J. Voss, B.B. Budde, and S. Knochel**, Differential inactivation of *Listeria monocytogenes* by D- and L-lactic acid. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2004. **39**(6): p. 528-532.
23. **Young, K. and F. PM.**, Acetic, lactic and citric acids and pH inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A and the effect on intracellular pH. *J. Appl. Bacteriol.*, 1993. **74**: p. 515-520.
24. **Hayes, M., E. Barrett, R.P. Ross, G.F. Fitzgerald, C. Hill, and C. Stanton**, Evaluation of an antimicrobial ingredient prepared from a *Lactobacillus acidophilus* casein fermentate against *Enterobacter sakazakii*. *J. Food Prot.*, 2009. **72**(2): p. 340-6.
25. **Morgan, S.M., R.P. Ross, T. Beresford, and C. Hill**, Combination of hydrostatic pressure and lactacin 3147 causes increased killing of *Staphylococcus* and *Listeria*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2000. **88**(3): p. 414-20.
26. **Guinane, C.M., P.D. Cotter, C. Hill, and R.P. Ross**, Microbial solutions to microbial problems; lactococcal bacteriocins for the control of undesirable biota in food. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2005. **98**(6): p. 1316-1325.
27. **Bonnet, M. and T.J. Montville**, Acid-tolerant *Listeria monocytogenes* persist in a model food system fermented with nisin-producing bacteria. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2005. **40**(4): p. 237-42.
28. **Gravesen, A., A.-M. Jydegaard Axelsen, J. Mendes da Silva, T.B. Hansen, and S. Knochel**, Frequency of bacteriocin resistance development and associated fitness costs in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2002. **68**(2): p. 756-764.
29. **Gravesen, A., B. Kallipolitis, K. Holmstrom, P.E. Hoiby, M. Ramnath, and S. Knochel**, *pbp2229*-mediated nisin resistance mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes* confers cross-protection to class IIa bacteriocins and affects virulence gene expression. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2004. **70**(3): p. 1669-1679.
30. **Gravesen, A., M. Ramnath, K.B. Rechinger, N. Andersen, L. Jansch, Y. Hechard, J.W. Hastings, and S. Knochel**, High-level resistance to class IIa bacteriocins is associated with one general mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Microbiology*, 2002. **148**(8): p. 2361-2369.
31. **Conte, M.P., G. Petrone, A.M. Di Biase, M.G. Ammendolia, F. Superti, and L. Seganti**, Acid tolerance in *Listeria monocytogenes* influences invasiveness of enterocyte-like cells and macrophage-like cells. *Microb. Pathog.*, 2000. **29**(3): p. 137-144.
32. **Ryan, S., C. Hill, and C.G.M. Gahan**, Acid stress responses in *Listeria monocytogenes*, in *Advances in Applied Microbiology*, A. Laskin, S. Sariaslani, and G. Gadd, Editors. 2008, Academic Press: San Diego. p. 67-91.
33. **O'Driscoll, B., C.G.M. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Adaptive acid tolerance response in *Listeria monocytogenes*: isolation of an acid-tolerant mutant which demonstrates increased virulence. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1996. **62**(5): p. 1693-1698.

34. **Sleator, R.D. and C. Hill**, Patho-biotechnology; using bad bugs to make good bugs better. *Sci. Prog.*, 2007. **90**: p. 1-14.
35. **Sleator, R.D. and C. Hill**, 'Bioengineered Bugs' - a patho-biotechnology approach to probiotic research and applications. *Med. Hypotheses*, 2008. **70**(1): p. 167-9.
36. **Liu, D.**, Identification, subtyping and virulence determination of *Listeria monocytogenes*, an important foodborne pathogen. *J. Med. Microbiol.*, 2006. **55**(6): p. 645-659.
37. **Guillet, C., O. Join-Lambert, A. Le Monnier, A. Leclercq, F. Mechai, M.F. Mamzer-Bruneel, M.K. Bielecka, M. Scotti, O. Disson, P. Berche, J. Vazquez-Boland, O. Lortholary, and M. Lecuit**, Human listeriosis caused by *Listeria ivanovii*. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **16**(1): p. 136-8.
38. **Doumith, M., C. Cazalet, N. Simoes, L. Frangeul, C. Jacquet, F. Kunst, P. Martin, P. Cossart, P. Glaser, and C. Buchrieser**, New aspects regarding evolution and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes* revealed by comparative genomics and DNA arrays. *Infect. Immun.*, 2004. **72**(2): p. 1072-1083.
39. **McLauchlin, J., S.M. Hall, S.K. Velani, and R.J. Gilbert**, Human listeriosis and pate: a possible association. *Br Med J*, 1991. **303**(6805): p. 773-5.
40. **Doumith, M., C. Buchrieser, P. Glaser, C. Jacquet, and P. Martin**, Differentiation of the major *Listeria monocytogenes* serovars by multiplex PCR. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, 2004. **42**(8): p. 3819-3822.
41. **Hong, E., M. Doumith, S. Duperrier, I. Giovannacci, A. Morvan, P. Glaser, C. Buchrieser, C. Jacquet, and P. Martin**, Genetic diversity of *Listeria monocytogenes* recovered from infected persons and pork, seafood and dairy products on retail sale in France during 2000 and 2001. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2007. **114**(2): p. 187-194.
42. **Zhang, Y.F., E. Yeh, G. Hall, J. Cripe, A.A. Bhagwat, and J.H. Meng**, Characterization of *Listeria monocytogenes* isolated from retail foods. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2007. **113**(1): p. 47-53.
43. **Gilot, P., A. Genicot, and P. Andre**, Serotyping and esterase typing for analysis of *Listeria monocytogenes* populations recovered from foodstuffs and from human patients with listeriosis in Belgium. *J. Clin. Microbiol.*, 1996. **34**(4): p. 1007-1010.
44. **Orsi, R.H., H.C. Bakker, and M. Wiedmann**, *Listeria monocytogenes* lineages: genomics, evolution, ecology, and phenotypic characteristics. *Int. J. Med. Microbiol.*, doi: 10.1016/j.ijmm.2010.05.002.
45. **Murray, E.G.D., R.E. Webb, and M.B.R. Swann**, A disease of rabbits characterized by a large mononuclear leucocytosis, caused by a hitherto undescribed bacillus *Bacterium monocytogenes*. *J. Pathol. Bacteriol.*, 1926. **29**: p. 407- 439.
46. **Cotoni, L.**, A propos des bactéries dénommées *Listerella* rappel d'une observation ancienne de méningite chez l'homme. *Ann. Inst. Pasteur*, 1942. **68**: p. 92.
47. **Nygård, K., L. Vold, B. Tafjord Heier, T. Bruun, and G. Kapperud**, Årsrapport: matbårne infeksjoner og utbrudd i 2009. Meldingssystem for smittsomme sykdommer (MSIS) og Vevbasert system for utbruddsvarsling (Vesuv). 2010, Nasjonalt folkehelseinstitutt: Oslo. p. 22-24.
48. **Kvistholm Jensen, A., S. Ethelberg, B. Smith, E. Møller Nielsen, J. Larsson, K. Mølbak, J. Christensen, and M. Kemp**, Substantial increase in listeriosis, Denmark 2009. *Euro. Surveill.*, 2010. **15**: pii=19522.
49. **Matyas, B., A. Cronquist, M. Cartter, M. Tobin-D'Angelo, D. Blythe, D. Morse, P. Cieslak, J. Dunn, K. Holt, O. Henao, B. Mahon, P. Griffin, R. Tauxe, and A. Bhattarai**, Preliminary FoodNet data on the incidence of infection with pathogens transmitted commonly through food - 10 States, 2009, in *MMWR*. 2010, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: Atlanta. p. 418-422.

50. **Ababouch, L.**, Potential of *Listeria* hazard in African fishery products and possible control measures. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2000. **62**(3): p. 211-215.
51. **Molla, B., R. Yilma, and D. Alemayehu**, *Listeria monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* species in retail meat and milk products in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Ethiop. J. Health Dev.*, 2004. **18**(3): p. 208-212.
52. **Ahmed, A.M. and N.M.A. El-Atti**, Existence of *Listeria* species in broiler carcasses with an attempt to control *Listeria monocytogenes* using trisodium phosphate. *African Journal of Food Science*, 2010. **4**(2): p. 46-51.
53. **Mengesha, D., B.M. Zewde, M.T. Toquin, J. Kleer, G. Hildebrandt, and W.A. Gebreyes**, Occurrence and distribution of *Listeria monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* Species in ready-to-eat and raw meat products. *Berl. Munch. Tierarztl. Wochenschr.*, 2009. **122**(1-2): p. 20-24.
54. **Jacobs, M.R., H. Stein, A. Buqwane, A. Dubb, F. Segal, L. Rabinowitz, U. Ellis, I. Freiman, M. Witcomb, and V. Vallabh**, Epidemic listeriosis-report of 14 cases detected in 9 months. *S. Afr. Med. J.*, 1978. **54**(10): p. 389-392.
55. **Ramdani-Bouguessa, N. and K. Rahal**, Neonatal listeriosis in Algeria: the first two cases. *Clin. Microbiol. Infect.*, 2000. **6**(2): p. 108-111.
56. **Farber, J.M. and P.I. Peterkin**, *Listeria monocytogenes*, a food-borne pathogen. *Microbiol. Rev.*, 1991. **55**(3): p. 476-511.
57. **Cone, L.A., M.S. Somero, F.J. Qureshi, S. Kerkar, R.G. Byrd, J.M. Hirschberg, and A.R. Gauto**, Unusual infections due to *Listeria monocytogenes* in the Southern California Desert. *Int. J. Infect. Dis.*, 2008. **12**(6): p. 578-581.
58. **Gahan, C.G.M. and C. Hill**, Gastrointestinal phase of *Listeria monocytogenes* infection. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2005. **98**(6): p. 1345-1353.
59. **Frye, Douglas M., R. Zweig, J. Sturgeon, M. Tormey, M. LeCavalier, I. Lee, L. Lawani, and L. Mascola**, An outbreak of febrile gastroenteritis associated with delicatessen meat contaminated with *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Clin. Infect. Dis.*, 2002. **35**(8): p. 943-949.
60. **Carrique-Mas, J.J., I. Hokeberg, Y. Andersson, M. Arneborn, W. Tham, M.L. Danielsson-Tham, B. Osterman, M. Leffler, M. Steen, E. Eriksson, G. Hedin, and J. Giesecke**, Febrile gastroenteritis after eating on-farm manufactured fresh cheese-an outbreak of listeriosis? *Epidemiol. Infect.*, 2003. **130**(1): p. 79-86.
61. **Ooi, Say T. and B. Lorber**, Gastroenteritis due to *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Clin. Infect. Dis.*, 2005. **40**(9): p. 1327-1332.
62. **Welshimer, H.J. and J. Donker-Voet**, *Listeria monocytogenes* in nature. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1971. **21**(3): p. 516-519.
63. **Weis, J. and H.P.R. Seeliger**, Incidence of *Listeria monocytogenes* in nature. *Appl. Microbiol.*, 1975. **30**(1): p. 29-32.
64. **Toledo-Arana, A., O. Dussurget, G. Nikitas, N. Sesto, H. Guet-Revillet, D. Balestrino, E. Loh, J. Gripenland, T. Tiensuu, K. Vaitkevicius, M. Barthelemy, M. Vergassola, M.A. Nahori, G. Soubigou, B. Regnault, J.Y. Coppee, M. Lecuit, J. Johansson, and P. Cossart**, The *Listeria* transcriptional landscape from saprophytism to virulence. *Nature*, 2009. **459**(7249): p. 950-956.
65. **Camejo, A., C. Buchrieser, E. Couve, F. Carvalho, O. Reis, P. Ferreira, S. Sousa, P. Cossart, and D. Cabanes**, In vivo transcriptional profiling of *Listeria monocytogenes* and mutagenesis identify new virulence factors involved in infection. *PLoS Pathog.*, 2009. **5**(5): p. e1000449.
66. **Chaturongakul, S., S. Raengpradub, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, Modulation of stress and virulence in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Trends Microbiol.*, 2008. **16**(8): p. 388-396.
67. **Liu, D.**, Handbook of *Listeria monocytogenes*. Handbook of *Listeria monocytogenes*. 2008, Boca Raton: Taylor and Francis CRC Press.

68. **McLauchlin, J., R.T. Mitchell, W.J. Smerdon, and K. Jewell**, *Listeria monocytogenes* and listeriosis: a review of hazard characterisation for use in microbiological risk assessment of foods. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2004. **92**(1): p. 15-33.
69. **McLauchlin, J.**, The relationship between *Listeria* and listeriosis. *Food Control*, 1996. **7**(4-5): p. 187-193.
70. **Ricke, S.C., M.M. Kundinger, D.R. Miller, and J.T. Keeton**, Alternatives to antibiotics: chemical and physical antimicrobial interventions and foodborne pathogen response. *Poult. Sci.*, 2005. **84**(4): p. 667-675.
71. **Leistner, L.**, Basic aspects of food preservation by hurdle technology. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2000. **55**(1-3): p. 181-186.
72. **Holck, A. and J. Berg**, Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* in cooked ham by virulent bacteriophages and protective cultures. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2009. **75**(21): p. 6944-6946.
73. **Carlton, R.M., W.H. Noordman, B. Biswas, E.D. de Meester, and M.J. Loessner**, Bacteriophage P100 for control of *Listeria monocytogenes* in foods: genome sequence, bioinformatic analyses, oral toxicity study, and application. *Regul. Toxicol. Pharmacol.*, 2005. **43**(3): p. 301-12.
74. **Soni, K.A. and R. Nannapaneni**, Removal of *Listeria monocytogenes* biofilms with bacteriophage P100. *J. Food Prot.*, 2010. **73**: p. 1519-1524.
75. **Axelsson, L.**, Lactic acid bacteria: classification and physiology, in *Lactic acid bacteria: microbiology and functional aspects*, S. Salminen and A. von Wright, Editors. 1998, Marcel Dekker: New York, NY. p. 1-72.
76. **Eijsink, V.G.H., L. Axelsson, D.B. Diep, L.S. Håvarstein, H. Holo, and I.F. Nes**, Production of class II bacteriocins by lactic acid bacteria; an example of biological warfare and communication. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek*, 2002. **81**(1-4): p. 639-654.
77. **Nissen-Meyer, J., P. Rogne, C. Oppedard, H.S. Haugen, and P.E. Kristiansen**, Structure-function relationships of the non-lanthionine-containing peptide (class II) bacteriocins produced by gram-positive bacteria. *Curr. Pharm. Biotechnol.*, 2009. **10**(1): p. 19-37.
78. **Nes, I.F., S.S. Yoon, and D.B. Diep**, Ribosomally synthesized antimicrobial peptides (Bacteriocins) in lactic acid bacteria: a review. *Food Sci. Biotechnol.*, 2007. **16**(5): p. 675-690.
79. **Hammami, R., A. Zouhir, C. Le Lay, J. Ben Hamida, and I. Fliss**, BACTIBASE second release: a database and tool platform for bacteriocin characterization. *BMC Microbiol.*, 2010. **10**: p. 22.
80. **Cotter, P.D., C. Hill, and R.P. Ross**, Bacteriocins: developing innate immunity for food. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*, 2005. **3**(10): p. 777-788.
81. **Klaenhammer, T.R.**, Genetics of bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.*, 1993. **12**: p. 39-86.
82. **Heng, N.C.K. and J.R. Tagg**, What's in a name? Class distinction for bacteriocins. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*, 2006. **4**(2).
83. **Guder, A., I. Wiedemann, and H.G. Sahl**, Posttranslationally modified bacteriocins-the lantibiotics. *Biopolymers*, 2000. **55**(1): p. 62-73.
84. **Rodriguez, J.M., M.I. Martínez, and J. Kok**, Pediocin PA-1, a wide-spectrum bacteriocin from lactic acid bacteria. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.*, 2002. **42**(2): p. 91-121.
85. **Ennahar, S., T. Sashihara, K. Sonomoto, and A. Ishizaki**, Class IIa bacteriocins: biosynthesis, structure and activity. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.*, 2000. **24**(1): p. 85-106.
86. **Richard, C., R. Canon, K. Naghmouchi, D. Bertrand, H. Prevost, and D. Drider**, Evidence on correlation between number of disulfide bridge and toxicity of class IIa bacteriocins. *Food Microbiol.*, 2006. **23**(2): p. 175-183.

87. **Eijsink, V.G.H., M. Skeie, P.H. Middelhoven, M.B. Brurberg, and I.F. Nes**, Comparative studies of class IIa bacteriocins of lactic acid bacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1998. **64**(9): p. 3275-3281.
88. **Johnsen, L., G. Fimland, and J. Nissen-Meyer**, The C-terminal domain of pediocin-like antimicrobial peptides (class IIa bacteriocins) is involved in specific recognition of the C-terminal part of cognate immunity proteins and in determining the antimicrobial spectrum. *J. Biol. Chem.*, 2005. **280**(10): p. 9243-50.
89. **Holck, A.L., L. Axelsson, K. Hühne, and L. Kröckel**, Purification and cloning of sakacin 674, a bacteriocin from *Lactobacillus sake* Lb674. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 1994. **115**: p. 143-150.
90. **Tichaczek, P.S., J. Nissen-Meyer, I.F. Nes, R.F. Vogel, and W.P. Hammes**, Characterization of the bacteriocins curvacin A from *Lactobacillus curvatus* LTH1174 and sakacin P from *L. sake* LTH673. *Syst. Appl. Microbiol.*, 1992. **15**(3): p. 460-468.
91. **Tichaczek, P.S., R.F. Vogel, and W.P. Hammes**, Cloning and sequencing of *sakP* encoding sakacin P, the bacteriocin produced by *Lactobacillus sake* LTH673. *Microbiology*, 1994. **140**: p. 361-367.
92. **Katla, T., K. Naterstad, M. Vancanneyt, J. Swings, and L. Axelsson**, Differences in susceptibility of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains to sakacin P, sakacin A, pediocin PA-I, and nisin. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2003. **69**(8): p. 4431-4437.
93. **Uteng, M., H.H. Hauge, P.R.L. Markwick, G. Fimland, D. Mantzilas, J. Nissen-Meyer, and C. Muhle-Goll**, Three-dimensional structure in lipid micelles of the pediocin-like antimicrobial peptide sakacin P and a sakacin P variant that is structurally stabilized by an inserted C-terminal disulfide bridges. *Biochemistry*, 2003. **42**(39): p. 11417-11426.
94. **Fimland, G., L. Johnsen, L. Axelsson, M.B. Brurberg, I.F. Nes, V.G. Eijsink, and J. Nissen-Meyer**, A C-terminal disulfide bridge in pediocin-like bacteriocins renders bacteriocin activity less temperature dependent and is a major determinant of the antimicrobial spectrum. *J. Bacteriol.*, 2000. **182**(9): p. 2643-8.
95. **Diep, D.B., M. Skaugen, Z. Salehian, H. Holo, and I.F. Nes**, Common mechanisms of target cell recognition and immunity for class II bacteriocins. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 2007. **104**(7): p. 2384-2389.
96. **Kjos, M., I.F. Nes, and D.B. Diep**, Class II one-peptide bacteriocins target a phylogenetically defined subgroup of mannose phosphotransferase systems on sensitive cells. *Microbiology*, 2009. **155**(9): p. 2949-2961.
97. **Kjos, M., Z. Salehian, I.F. Nes, and D.B. Diep**, An extracellular loop of the mannose phosphotransferase system component IIC is responsible for specific targeting by class IIa bacteriocins. *J. Bacteriol.*, doi:10.1128/jb.00777-10.
98. **Ramnath, M., S. Arous, A. Gravesen, J.W. Hastings, and Y. Hechard**, Expression of mptC of *Listeria monocytogenes* induces sensitivity to class IIa bacteriocins in *Lactococcus lactis*. *Microbiology*, 2004. **150**(8): p. 2663-2668.
99. **Hechard, Y. and H.-G. Sahl**, Mode of action of modified and unmodified bacteriocins from Gram-positive bacteria. *Biochimie*, 2002. **84**(5-6): p. 545-557.
100. **Naghmouchi, K., D. Drider, R. Hammami, and I. Fliss**, Effect of antimicrobial peptides divergicin M35 and nisin A on *Listeria monocytogenes* LSD530 potassium channels. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 2008. **56**(6): p. 609-612.
101. **Maftah, A., D. Renault, C. Vignoles, Y. Hechard, P. Bressollier, M.H. Ratinaud, Y. Cenatiempo, and R. Julien**, Membrane permeabilization of *Listeria monocytogenes* and mitochondria by the bacteriocin mesentericin Y105. *J. Bacteriol.*, 1993. **175**(10): p. 3232-3235.
102. **Drider, D., G. Fimland, Y. Hechard, L.M. McMullen, and H. Prevost**, The continuing story of class IIa bacteriocins. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, 2006. **70**(2): p. 564-582.

103. **Blom, H. and C. Mortvedt**, Antimicrobial substances produced by food associated microorganisms. *Biochem. Soc. Trans.*, 1991. **19**(3): p. 694-698.
104. **Ryser, T.E. and E.H. Marth**, *Listeria*, listeriosis, and food safety. Third ed. 2007, Boca Raton: Taylor and Francis CRC Press.
105. **Cherrington, C.A., M. Hinton, G.C. Mead, and I. Chopra**, Organic acids: chemistry, antibacterial activity and practical applications. *Adv. Microb. Physiol.*, 1991. **32**: p. 87-108.
106. **Carpenter, C.E. and J.R. Broadbent**, External concentration of organic acid anions and pH: key independent variables for studying how organic acids inhibit growth of bacteria in mildly acidic foods. *J. Food Sci.*, 2009. **74**(1): p. R12-R15.
107. **Thylin, I., P. Schuisky, S. Lindgren, and J.C. Gottschal**, Influence of pH and lactic acid concentration on *Clostridium tyrobutyricum* during continuous growth in a pH auxostat. *J. Appl. Bacteriol.*, 1995. **79**(6): p. 663-670.
108. **Ricke, S.**, Perspectives on the use of organic acids and short chain fatty acids as antimicrobials. *Poult. Sci.*, 2003. **82**(4): p. 632-639.
109. **Bernthsen, A. and R.K. Bansa**, Stereochemistry, in *A textbook of organic chemistry*. 2003, New Age International: New Delhi. p. 60-99.
110. **Beales, N.**, Adaptation of microorganisms to cold temperatures, weak acid preservatives, low pH, and osmotic stress: a review. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.*, 2004. **3**(1): p. 1-20.
111. **Shabala, L., B. Budde, T. Ross, H. Siegumfeldt, M. Jakobsen, and T. McMeekin**, Responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to acid stress and glucose availability revealed by a novel combination of fluorescence microscopy and microelectrode ion-selective techniques. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2002. **68**(4): p. 1794-1802.
112. **Hirshfield, I.N., S. Terzulli, and C. O'Byrne**, Weak organic acids: a panoply of effects on bacteria. *Sci. Prog.*, 2003. **86**: p. 245-69.
113. **Russell, J.B.**, Another explanation for the toxicity of fermentation acids at low pH: anion accumulation versus uncoupling. *J. Appl. Bacteriol.*, 1992. **73**(5): p. 363-370.
114. **van der Veen, S., R. Moezelaar, T. Abee, and M.H.J. Wells-Bennik**, The growth limits of a large number of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains at combinations of stresses show serotype- and niche-specific traits. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2008. **105**(5): p. 1246-1258.
115. **Koutsoumanis, K.P., P.A. Kendall, and J.N. Sofos**, A comparative study on growth limits of *Listeria monocytogenes* as affected by temperature, pH and aw when grown in suspension or on a solid surface. *Food Microbiol.*, 2004. **21**(4): p. 415-422.
116. **Miller, A.J.**, Combined water activity and solute effects on growth and survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A. *J. Food Prot.*, 1992. **55**(6): p. 414-418.
117. **Boziaris, I.S. and G.J. Nychas**, Effect of nisin on growth boundaries of *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A, at various temperatures, pH and water activities. *Food Microbiol.*, 2006. **23**(8): p. 779-784.
118. **Koutsoumanis, K.P. and J.N. Sofos**, Comparative acid stress response of *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Escherichia coli* O157 : H7 and *Salmonella* Typhimurium after habituation at different pH conditions. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2004. **38**(4): p. 321-326.
119. **Sorrells, K.M. and D.C. Enigl**, Effect of pH, acidulant, sodium chloride and temperature on the growth of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J. Food Saf.*, 1990. **11**(1): p. 31-37.
120. **Weis, J. and H.P. Seeliger**, Incidence of *Listeria monocytogenes* in nature. *Appl. Microbiol.*, 1975. **30**(1): p. 29-32.
121. **Chambel, L., M. Sol, I. Fernandes, M. Barbosa, I. Zilhao, B. Barata, S. Jordan, S. Perni, G. Shama, A. Adriano, L. Faleiro, T. Requena, C. Pelaez, P.W. Andrew, and R. Tenreiro**, Occurrence and persistence of *Listeria* spp. in the environment of ewe and cow's milk cheese dairies in Portugal unveiled by an integrated analysis of identification, typing and spatial-temporal mapping along production cycle. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2007. **116**(1): p. 52-63.

122. **Winter, P., F. Schilcher, Z. Bago, D. Schoder, M. Egerbacher, W. Baumgartner, and M. Wagner**, Clinical and histopathological aspects of naturally occurring mastitis caused by *Listeria monocytogenes* in cattle and ewes. *J. Vet. Med. B Infect. Dis. Vet. Public Health*, 2004. **51**(4): p. 176-179.
123. **Rorvik, L.M., B. Aase, T. Alvestad, and D.A. Caugant**, Molecular epidemiological survey of *Listeria monocytogenes* in seafoods and seafood-processing plants. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2000. **66**(11): p. 4779-4784.
124. **Stortz, G. and R. Hengge-Aronis**, Bacterial stress responses. 2002, Washington DC: ASM Press.
125. **Dicks, L.M.T., F.D. Mellett, and L.C. Hoffman**, Use of bacteriocin-producing starter cultures of *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Lactobacillus curvatus* in production of ostrich meat salami. *Meat Sci.*, 2004. **66**(3): p. 703-708.
126. **Rasch, M. and S. Knochel**, Variations in tolerance of *Listeria monocytogenes* to nisin, pediocin PA-1 and bavaricin A. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 1998. **27**(5): p. 275-278.
127. **Ennahar, S., N. Deschamps, and J. Richard**, Natural variation in susceptibility of *Listeria* strains to class IIa bacteriocins. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 2000. **41**(1): p. 1-4.
128. **Duffes, F., P. Jenoe, and P. Boyaval**, Use of two-dimensional electrophoresis to study differential protein expression in divercin V41-resistant and wild-type strains of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2000. **66**(10): p. 4318-4324.
129. **Dykes, G.A. and J.W. Hastings**, Fitness costs associated with class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* B73. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 1998. **26**(1): p. 5-8.
130. **Rekhif, N., A. Atrih, and G. Lefebvre**, Selection and properties of spontaneous mutants of *Listeria monocytogenes* ATCC 15313 resistant to different bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria strains. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 1994. **28**(4): p. 237-241.
131. **Vignolo, G., J. Palacios, M.E. Farias, F. Sesma, U. Schillinger, W. Holzapfel, and G. Oliver**, Combined effect of bacteriocins on the survival of various *Listeria* species in broth and meat system. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 2000. **41**(6): p. 410-416.
132. **Vadyvaloo, V., S. Arous, A. Gravesen, Y. Hechard, R. Chauhan-Haubrock, J.W. Hastings, and M. Rautenbach**, Cell-surface alterations in class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Microbiology*, 2004. **150**(9): p. 3025-3033.
133. **Vadyvaloo, V., J.W. Hastings, M.J. van der Merwe, and M. Rautenbach**, Membranes of class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* cells contain increased levels of desaturated and short-acyl-chain phosphatidylglycerols. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2002. **68**(11): p. 5223-5230.
134. **Arous, S., K. Dalet, and Y. Hechard**, Involvement of the *mpo* operon in resistance to class IIa bacteriocins in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 2004. **238**(1): p. 37-41.
135. **Ramnath, M., M. Beukes, K. Tamura, and J.W. Hastings**, Absence of a putative mannose-specific phosphotransferase system enzyme IIAB component in a leucocin A-resistant strain of *Listeria monocytogenes*, as shown by two-dimensional sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2000. **66**(7): p. 3098-3101.
136. **Naghmouchi, K., D. Drider, E. Kheadr, C. Lacroix, H. Prevost, and I. Fliss**, Multiple characterizations of *Listeria monocytogenes* sensitive and insensitive variants to divergicin M35, a new pediocin-like bacteriocin. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2006. **100**(1): p. 29-39.
137. **Vadyvaloo, V., J.L. Snoep, J.W. Hastings, and M. Rautenbach**, Physiological implications of class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Microbiology*, 2004. **150**(2): p. 335-340.

138. **Opsata, M., I. Nes, and H. Holo**, Class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Enterococcus faecalis* V583: the mannose PTS operon mediates global transcriptional responses. *BMC Microbiol.*, 2010. **10**(1): p. 224.
139. **Dalet, K., Y. Cenatiempo, P. Cossart, and Y. Hechard**, A σ^{54} -dependent PTS permease of the mannose family is responsible for sensitivity of *Listeria monocytogenes* to mesentericin Y105. *Microbiology*, 2001. **147**(12): p. 3263-3269.
140. **Dalet, K., C. Briand, Y. Cenatiempo, and Y. Hechard**, The *rpoN* gene of *Enterococcus faecalis* directs sensitivity to subclass IIa bacteriocins. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 2000. **41**(6): p. 441-443.
141. **Robichon, D., E. Gouin, M. Debarbouille, P. Cossart, Y. Cenatiempo, and Y. Hechard**, The *rpoN* (σ^{54}) gene from *Listeria monocytogenes* is involved in resistance to mesentericin Y105, an antibacterial peptide from *Leuconostoc mesenteroides*. *J. Bacteriol.*, 1997. **179**(23): p. 7591-7594.
142. **Hechard, Y., C. Pelletier, Y. Cenatiempo, and J. Frere**, Analysis of σ^B -dependent genes in *Enterococcus faecalis*: a mannose PTS permease (EII^{Man}) is involved in sensitivity to a bacteriocin, mesentericin Y105. *Microbiology*, 2001. **147**: p. 1575-1580.
143. **Larsen, M.H., B.H. Kallipolitis, J.K. Christiansen, J.E. Olsen, and H. Ingmer**, The response regulator ResD modulates virulence gene expression in response to carbohydrates in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Mol. Microbiol.*, 2006. **61**(6): p. 1622-1635.
144. **Vu-Khac, H. and K.W. Miller**, Regulation of Mannose Phosphotransferase System Permease and Virulence Gene Expression in *Listeria monocytogenes* by the EII^{Man} Transporter. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2009. **75**(21): p. 6671-6678.
145. **Calvez, S., A. Rince, Y. Auffray, H. Prevost, and D. Drider**, Identification of new genes associated with intermediate resistance of *Enterococcus faecalis* to divercin V41, a pediocin-like bacteriocin. *Microbiology*, 2007. **153**(5): p. 1609-1618.
146. **Calvez, S., H. Prevost, and D. Drider**, Relative expression of genes involved in the resistance/sensitivity of *Enterococcus faecalis* JH2-2 to recombinant divercin RV41. *Biotechnol. Lett.*, 2008. **30**(10): p. 1795-1800.
147. **Calvez, S., H. Prevost, and D. Drider**, Identification of a new molecular target of class IIa bacteriocins in *Listeria monocytogenes* EGDe. *Folia Microbiol.*, 2008. **53**(5): p. 417-422.
148. **Naghmouchi, K., E. Kheadr, C. Lacroix, and I. Fliss**, Class I/Class IIa bacteriocin cross-resistance phenomenon in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Food Microbiol.*, 2007. **24**(7-8): p. 718-727.
149. **Saier, M.H., Jr. and J. Reizer**, The bacterial phosphotransferase system: new frontiers 30 years later. *Mol. Microbiol.*, 1994. **13**(5): p. 755-64.
150. **Erni, B.**, Coupling of energy to glucose transport by the bacterial phosphotransferase system. *Res. Microbiol.*, 1990. **141**(3): p. 360-4.
151. **Barabote, R.D. and M.H. Saier, Jr.**, Comparative genomic analyses of the bacterial phosphotransferase system. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, 2005. **69**(4): p. 608-634.
152. **Postma, P.W., J.W. Lengeler, and G.R. Jacobson**, Phosphoenolpyruvate:carbohydrate phosphotransferase systems of bacteria. *Microbiol. Rev.*, 1993. **57**(3): p. 543-94.
153. **Deutscher, J., C. Francke, and P.W. Postma**, How phosphotransferase system-related protein phosphorylation regulates carbohydrate metabolism in bacteria. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, 2006. **70**(4): p. 939-1031.
154. **Fujita, Y.**, Carbon catabolite control of the metabolic network in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.*, 2009. **73**(2): p. 245-59.
155. **Gorke, B. and J. Stulke**, Carbon catabolite repression in bacteria: many ways to make the most out of nutrients. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*, 2008. **6**(8): p. 613-624.
156. **Freitag, N.E., G.C. Port, and M.D. Miner**, *Listeria monocytogenes* - from saprophyte to intracellular pathogen. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.*, 2009. **7**(9): p. 623-628.

157. **Stoll, R., S. Mertins, B. Joseph, S. Muller-Altrock, and W. Goebel**, Modulation of PrfA activity in *Listeria monocytogenes* upon growth in different culture media. *Microbiology*, 2008. **154**(12): p. 3856-3876.
158. **Joseph, B., S. Mertins, R. Stoll, J. Schar, K.R. Umeha, Q. Luo, S. Muller-Altrock, and W. Goebel**, Glycerol metabolism and PrfA activity in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J. Bacteriol.*, 2008. **190**(15): p. 5412-30.
159. **Mertins, S., B. Joseph, M. Goetz, R. Ecke, G. Seidel, M. Sprehe, W. Hillen, W. Goebel, and S. Muller-Altrock**, Interference of components of the phosphoenolpyruvate phosphotransferase system with the central virulence gene regulator PrfA of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J. Bacteriol.*, 2007. **189**(2): p. 473-490.
160. **Ripio, M., K. Brehm, M. Lara, M. Suarez, and J. Vazquez-Boland**, Glucose-1-phosphate utilization by *Listeria monocytogenes* is PrfA dependent and coordinately expressed with virulence factors. *J. Bacteriol.*, 1997. **179**(22): p. 7174-7180.
161. **Gilbreth, S.E., A.K. Benson, and R.W. Hutkins**, Catabolite repression and virulence gene expression in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Curr. Microbiol.*, 2004. **49**(2): p. 95-98.
162. **Parker, C. and R. Hutkins**, *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A transports glucose by high-affinity and low-affinity glucose transport systems. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1997. **63**(2): p. 543-546.
163. **Stoll, R. and W. Goebel**, The major PEP-phosphotransferase systems (PTSs) for glucose, mannose and cellobiose of *Listeria monocytogenes*, and their significance for extra- and intracellular growth. *Microbiology*, 2010. **156**: p. 1069-1083.
164. **Christensen, D.P. and R.W. Hutkins**, Glucose uptake by *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A and inhibition by pediocin JD. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1994. **60**(10): p. 3870-3873.
165. **Glaser, P., L. Frangeul, C. Buchrieser, C. Rusniok, A. Amend, F. Baquero, P. Berche, H. Bloeker, P. Brandt, T. Chakraborty, A. Charbit, F. Chetouani, E. Couve, A. de Daruvar, P. Dehoux, E. Domann, G. Dominguez-Bernal, E. Duchaud, L. Durant, O. Dussurget, K.-D. Entian, H. Fsihi, F.G.-D. Portillo, P. Garrido, L. Gautier, W. Goebel, N. Gomez-Lopez, T. Hain, J. Hauf, D. Jackson, L.-M. Jones, U. Kaerst, J. Kreft, M. Kuhn, F. Kunst, G. Kurapkat, E. Madueno, A. Maitournam, J.M. Vicente, E. Ng, H. Nedjari, G. Nordsiek, S. Novella, B. de Pablos, J.-C. Perez-Diaz, R. Purcell, B. Rimmel, M. Rose, T. Schlueter, N. Simoes, A. Tierrez, J.-A. Vazquez-Boland, H. Voss, J. Wehland, and P. Cossart**, Comparative genomics of *Listeria* species. *Science*, 2001. **294**(5543): p. 849-852.
166. **Abranches, J., M.M. Candella, Z.T. Wen, H.V. Baker, and R.A. Burne**, Different roles of EIIAB^{Man} and EII^{Glc} in regulation of energy metabolism, biofilm development, and competence in *Streptococcus mutans*. *J. Bacteriol.*, 2006. **188**(11): p. 3748-3756.
167. **Erni, B.**, The mannose transporter complex: an open door for the macromolecular invasion of bacteria. *J. Bacteriol.*, 2006. **188**(20): p. 7036-7038.
168. **Ryan, S., M. Begley, C.G. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Molecular characterization of the arginine deiminase system in *Listeria monocytogenes*: regulation and role in acid tolerance. *Environ. Microbiol.*, 2009. **11**(2): p. 432-45.
169. **Bowman, J.P., K.J. Lee Chang, T. Pinfold, and T. Ross**, Transcriptomic and phenotypic responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains possessing different growth efficiencies under acidic conditions. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2010. **76**(14): p. 4836-4850.
170. **Cotter, P.D., C.G.M. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Analysis of the role of the *Listeria monocytogenes* F₀F₁-ATPase operon in the acid tolerance response. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2000. **60**(2-3): p. 137-146.
171. **Heavin, S.B., O.M. Brennan, J.P. Morrissey, and C.P. O'Byrne**, Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* by acetate, benzoate and sorbate: weak acid tolerance is not influenced by the glutamate decarboxylase system. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2009. **49**(2): p. 179-85.

172. **Cotter, P., S. Ryan, C. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Presence of GadD1 glutamate decarboxylase in selected *Listeria monocytogenes* strains is associated with an ability to grow at low pH. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2005. **71**: p. 2832 - 2839.
173. **Alonso-Hernando, A., C. Alonso-Calleja, and R. Capita**, Comparative analysis of acid resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Salmonella enterica* strains before and after exposure to poultry decontaminants. Role of the glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) system. *Food Microbiol.*, 2009. **26**(8): p. 905-9.
174. **Cotter, P., C. Gahan, and C. Hill**, A glutamate decarboxylase system protects *Listeria monocytogenes* in gastric fluid. *Mol. Microbiol.*, 2001. **40**(2): p. 465 - 475.
175. **Karatzas, K.-A.G., O. Brennan, S. Heavin, J. Morrissey, and C.P. O'Byrne**, Intracellular accumulation of high levels of γ -aminobutyrate by *Listeria monocytogenes* 10403S in response to low pH: uncoupling of γ -aminobutyrate synthesis from efflux in a chemically defined medium. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2010. **76**(11): p. 3529-3537.
176. **Higuchi, T., H. Hayashi, and K. Abe**, Exchange of glutamate and gamma-aminobutyrate in a *Lactobacillus* strain. *J. Bacteriol.*, 1997. **179**(10): p. 3362-4.
177. **Cotter, P.D., K. O'Reilly, and C. Hill**, Role of the glutamate decarboxylase acid resistance system in the survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 in low pH foods. *J. Food Prot.*, 2001. **64**(9): p. 1362-1368.
178. **Francis, G.A., J. Scollard, A. Meally, D.J. Bolton, C.G.M. Gahan, P.D. Cotter, C. Hill, and D. O'Beirne**, The glutamate decarboxylase acid resistance mechanism affects survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 in modified atmosphere-packaged foods. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2007. **103**(6): p. 2316-2324.
179. **Begley, M., P.D. Cotter, C. Hill, and R.P. Ross**, Glutamate decarboxylase-mediated nisin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, doi:10.1128/AEM.00203-10.
180. **Cotter, P.D. and C. Hill**, Surviving the acid test: responses of gram-positive bacteria to low pH. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.*, 2003. **67**(3): p. 429-453.
181. **Barriuso-Iglesias, M., C. Barreiro, F. Flechoso, and J.F. Martin**, Transcriptional analysis of the F₀F₁ ATPase operon of *Corynebacterium glutamicum* ATCC 13032 reveals strong induction by alkaline pH. *Microbiology*, 2006. **152**(1): p. 11-21.
182. **Phan-Thanh, L., F. Mahouin, and S. Alige**, Acid responses of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2000. **55**(1-3): p. 121-126.
183. **Giotis, E.S., D.A. McDowell, I.S. Blair, and B.J. Wilkinson**, Role of branched-chain fatty acids in pH stress tolerance in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2007. **73**(3): p. 997-1001.
184. **Mastronicolis, S.K., A. Berberi, I. Diakogiannis, E. Petrova, I. Kiaki, T. Baltzi, and P. Xenikakis**, Alteration of the phospho- or neutral lipid content and fatty acid composition in *Listeria monocytogenes* due to acid adaptation mechanisms for hydrochloric, acetic and lactic acids at pH 5.5 or benzoic acid at neutral pH. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek*, 2010. **98**: p. 307-316.
185. **Kim, S.H., L. Gorski, J. Reynolds, E. Orozco, S. Fielding, Y.H. Park, and M.K. Borucki**, Role of *uvrA* in the growth and survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* under UV radiation and acid and bile stress. *J. Food Prot.*, 2006. **69**(12): p. 3031-3036.
186. **Gahan, C.G.M., J. O'Mahony, and C. Hill**, Characterization of the *groESL* operon in *Listeria monocytogenes*: utilization of two reporter systems (*gfp* and *hly*) for evaluating in vivo expression. *Infect. Immun.*, 2001. **69**(6): p. 3924-3932.
187. **Stack, H.M., R.D. Sleator, M. Bowers, C. Hill, and C.G.M. Gahan**, Role for HtrA in stress induction and virulence potential in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2005. **71**(8): p. 4241-4247.

188. **Bore, E., S. Langsrud, O. Langsrud, T.M. Rode, and A. Holck**, Acid-shock responses in *Staphylococcus aureus* investigated by global gene expression analysis. *Microbiology*, 2007. **153**(7): p. 2289-2303.
189. **McKinney, J.M., R.C. Williams, G.D. Boardman, J.D. Eifert, and S.S. Sumner**, Effect of acid stress, antibiotic resistance, and heat shock on the resistance of *Listeria monocytogenes* to UV light when suspended in distilled water and fresh brine. *J. Food Prot.*, 2009. **72**(8): p. 1634-40.
190. **Gahan, C.G.M., B. O'Driscoll, and C. Hill**, Acid adaptation of *Listeria monocytogenes* can enhance survival in acidic foods and during milk fermentation. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1996. **62**(9): p. 3128-3132.
191. **Skandamis, P.N., J.D. Stopforth, Y. Yoon, P.A. Kendall, and J.N. Sofos**, Heat and acid tolerance responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* as affected by sequential exposure to hurdles during growth. *J. Food Prot.*, 2009. **72**(7): p. 1412-8.
192. **van Schaik, W., C.G. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Acid-adapted *Listeria monocytogenes* displays enhanced tolerance against the lantibiotics nisin and lacticin 3147. *J. Food Prot.*, 1999. **62**(5): p. 536-9.
193. **Lou, Y. and A. Yousef**, Adaptation to sublethal environmental stresses protects *Listeria monocytogenes* against lethal preservation factors. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 1997. **63**(4): p. 1252-1255.
194. **Conte, M.P., G. Petrone, A.M. Di Biase, C. Longhi, M. Penta, A. Tinari, F. Superti, G. Fabozzi, P. Visca, and L. Seganti**, Effect of acid adaptation on the fate of *Listeria monocytogenes* in THP-1 human macrophages activated by gamma interferon. *Infect. Immun.*, 2002. **70**(8): p. 4369-4378.
195. **Sue, D., D. Fink, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, σ^B -dependent gene induction and expression in *Listeria monocytogenes* during osmotic and acid stress conditions simulating the intestinal environment. *Microbiology*, 2004. **150**(11): p. 3843-3855.
196. **Olesen, I., F.K. Vogensen, and L. Jespersen**, Gene transcription and virulence potential of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains after exposure to acidic and NaCl stress. *Foodborne Pathog. Dis.*, 2009. **6**(6): p. 669-80.
197. **Werbrouck, H., A. Vermeulen, E. Van Coillie, W. Messens, L. Herman, F. Devlieghere, and M. Uyttendaele**, Influence of acid stress on survival, expression of virulence genes and invasion capacity into Caco-2 cells of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains of different origins. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2009. **134**(1-2): p. 140-146.
198. **Ferreira, A., D. Sue, C.P. O'Byrne, and K.J. Boor**, Role of *Listeria monocytogenes* σ^B in survival of lethal acidic conditions and in the acquired acid tolerance response. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2003. **69**(5): p. 2692-2698.
199. **Loh, E., O. Dussurget, J. Gripenland, K. Vaitkevicius, T. Tiensuu, P. Mandin, F. Repoila, C. Buchrieser, P. Cossart, and J. Johansson**, A trans-acting riboswitch controls expression of the virulence regulator PrfA in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Cell*, 2009. **139**(4): p. 770-9.
200. **Oliver, H.F., R.H. Orsi, L. Ponnala, U. Keich, W. Wang, Q. Sun, S.W. Cartinhour, M.J. Filiatrault, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, Deep RNA sequencing of *L. monocytogenes* reveals overlapping and extensive stationary phase and sigma B-dependent transcriptomes, including multiple highly transcribed noncoding RNAs. *BMC Genomics*, 2009. **10**: p. 641.
201. **O'Byrne, C.P. and K.A.G. Karatzas**, The role of sigma B (σ^B) in the stress adaptations of *Listeria monocytogenes*: overlaps between stress adaptation and virulence, in *Advances in Applied Microbiology*, A. Laskin, S. Sariaslani, and G. Gadd, Editors. 2008, Academic Press: San Diego. p. 115-140.

202. **Chaturongakul, S., S. Raengpradub, M.E. Palmer, T.M. Bergholz, R.H. Orsi, Y. Hu, J. Ollinger, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, Transcriptomic and phenotypic analyses identify co-regulated, overlapping regulons among PrfA, CtsR, HrcA and the alternative sigma factors σ^B , σ^C , σ^H , and σ^L in *Listeria monocytogenes*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., doi:10.1128/aem.00952-10.
203. **Okada, Y., N. Okada, S. Makino, H. Asakura, S. Yamamoto, and S. Igimi**, The sigma factor RpoN (σ^{54}) is involved in osmotolerance in *Listeria monocytogenes*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 2006. **263**(1): p. 54-60.
204. **Liu, S., J.E. Graham, L. Bigelow, P.D. Morse, and B.J. Wilkinson**, Identification of *Listeria monocytogenes* genes expressed in response to growth at low temperature. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2002. **68**(4): p. 1697-705.
205. **Raimann, E., B. Schmid, R. Stephan, and T. Tasara**, The alternative sigma factor σ^L of *L. monocytogenes* promotes growth under diverse environmental stresses. Foodborne Pathog. Dis., 2009. **6**(5): p. 583-91.
206. **Rea, R.B., C.G. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Disruption of putative regulatory loci in *Listeria monocytogenes* demonstrates a significant role for Fur and PerR in virulence. Infect. Immun., 2004. **72**(2): p. 717-27.
207. **Zhang, C., J. Niefeldt, M. Zhang, and A.K. Benson**, Functional consequences of genome evolution in *Listeria monocytogenes*: the lmo0423 and lmo0422 genes encode σ^C and LstR, a lineage II-specific heat shock system. J. Bacteriol., 2005. **187**(21): p. 7243-53.
208. **Chan, Y.C., Y.W. Hu, S. Chaturongakul, K.D. Files, B.M. Bowen, K.J. Boor, and M. Wiedmann**, Contributions of two-component regulatory systems, alternative sigma factors, and negative regulators to *Listeria monocytogenes* cold adaptation and cold growth. J. Food Prot., 2008. **71**(2): p. 420-425.
209. **Chaussee, M.A., E.A. Callegari, and M.S. Chaussee**, Rgg regulates growth phase-dependent expression of proteins associated with secondary metabolism and stress in *Streptococcus pyogenes*. J. Bacteriol., 2004. **186**(21): p. 7091-7099.
210. **Begley, M., C. Hill, and R.P. Ross**, Tolerance of *Listeria monocytogenes* to cell envelope-acting antimicrobial agents is dependent on SigB. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2006. **72**(3): p. 2231-2234.
211. **Wiedmann, M., T. Arvik, R. Hurley, and K. Boor**, General stress transcription factor σ^B and its role in acid tolerance and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes*. J. Bacteriol., 1998. **180**: p. 3650 - 3656.
212. **Wemekamp-Kamphuis, H.H., J.A. Wouters, P.P.L.A. de Leeuw, T. Hain, T. Chakraborty, and T. Abee**, Identification of sigma factor σ^B -controlled genes and their impact on acid stress, high hydrostatic pressure, and freeze survival in *Listeria monocytogenes* EGD-e. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2004. **70**(6): p. 3457-3466.
213. **Fraser, K., D. Sue, M. Wiedmann, K. Boor, and C. O'Byrne**, Role of σ^B in regulating the compatible solute uptake systems of *Listeria monocytogenes*: osmotic induction of *opuC* is σ^B dependent. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2003. **69**: p. 2015 - 2022.
214. **Chaturongakul, S. and K.J. Boor**, RsbT and RsbV contribute to σ^B -dependent survival under environmental, energy, and intracellular stress conditions in *Listeria monocytogenes*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2004. **70**(9): p. 5349-56.
215. **Oliver, H.F., R.H. Orsi, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, *Listeria monocytogenes* σ^B has a small core regulon and a conserved role in virulence but makes differential contributions to stress tolerance across a diverse collection of strains. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2010. **76**(13): p. 4216-4232.
216. **Hain, T., H. Hossain, S. Chatterjee, S. Machata, U. Volk, S. Wagner, B. Brors, S. Haas, C. Kuenne, A. Billion, S. Otten, J. Pane-Farre, S. Engelmann, and T.**

- Chakraborty**, Temporal transcriptomic analysis of the *Listeria monocytogenes* EGD-e σ^B regulon. BMC Microbiol., 2008. **8**(1): p. 20.
217. **Ryan, E.M., C.G. Gahan, and C. Hill**, A significant role for Sigma B in the detergent stress response of *Listeria monocytogenes*. Lett. Appl. Microbiol., 2008. **46**(2): p. 148-54.
218. **Shin, J.H., M.S. Brody, and C.W. Price**, Physical and antibiotic stresses require activation of the RsbU phosphatase to induce the general stress response in *Listeria monocytogenes*. Microbiology, 2010. **156**: p. 2660-9.
219. **Ferreira, A., C.P. O'Byrne, and K.J. Boor**, Role of σ^B in heat, ethanol, acid, and oxidative stress resistance and during carbon starvation in *Listeria monocytogenes*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2001. **67**(10): p. 4454-4457.
220. **Raengpradub, S., M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, Comparative analysis of the σ^B -dependent stress responses in *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Listeria innocua* strains exposed to selected stress conditions Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2008. **74**(1): p. 158-171.
221. **Williams, T., S. Bauer, D. Beier, and M. Kuhn**, Construction and characterization of *Listeria monocytogenes* mutants with in-frame deletions in the response regulator genes identified in the genome sequence. Infect. Immun., 2005. **73**(5): p. 3152-3159.
222. **Cotter, P.D., N. Emerson, C.G.M. Gahan, and C. Hill**, Identification and disruption of *lisRK*, a genetic locus encoding a two-component signal transduction system involved in stress tolerance and virulence in *Listeria monocytogenes*. J. Bacteriol., 1999. **181**(21): p. 6840-6843.
223. **Cotter, P.D., C.M. Guinane, and C. Hill**, The LisRK signal transduction system determines the sensitivity of *Listeria monocytogenes* to nisin and cephalosporins. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother., 2002. **46**(9): p. 2784-90.
224. **Sleator, R.D. and C. Hill**, A novel role for the LisRK two-component regulatory system in listerial osmotolerance. Clin. Microbiol. Infect., 2005. **11**(8): p. 599-601.
225. **Martinez, R.C.R. and E.C.P. De Martinis**, Antilisterial activity of a crude preparation of *Lactobacillus sakei* 1 bacteriocin and its lack of influence on *Listeria monocytogenes* haemolytic activity. Food Control, 2005. **16**(5): p. 429-433.
226. **Saklani-Jusforgues, H., E. Fontan, and P.L. Goossens**, Effect of acid-adaptation on *Listeria monocytogenes* survival and translocation in a murine intragastric infection model. FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 2000. **193**(1): p. 155-9.
227. **Garner, M.R., K.E. James, M.C. Callahan, M. Wiedmann, and K.J. Boor**, Exposure to salt and organic acids increases the ability of *Listeria monocytogenes* to invade Caco-2 cells but decreases its ability to survive gastric stress. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2006. **72**(8): p. 5384-5395.
228. **Oust, A., T. Moretro, K. Naterstad, G.D. Sockalingum, I. Adt, M. Manfait, and A. Kohler**, Fourier transform infrared and Raman spectroscopy for characterization of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. Appl. Environ. Microbiol., 2006. **72**(1): p. 228-232.
229. **Kohler, A., M. Hanafi, D. Bertrand, A.O. Janbu, T. Mørretrø, K. Naterstad, E.M. Qannari, and H. Martens**, Interpreting several types of measurements in bioscience, in Modern concepts in biomedical vibrational spectroscopy, P. Lasch and J. Kneipp, Editors. 2008, John Wiley & Sons Inc: NJ p. 333-356.
230. **Zeroual, W., M. Manfait, and C. Choisy**, FT-IR spectroscopy study of perturbations induced by antibiotic on bacteria (*Escherichia coli*). Pathol. Biol., 1995. **43**(4): p. 300-305.
231. **Moën, B., A.O. Janbu, S. Langsrud, Langsrud, yvind, J.L. Hobman, C. Constantinidou, A. Kohler, and K. Rudi**, Global responses of *Escherichia coli* to adverse conditions determined by microarrays and FT-IR spectroscopy. Can. J. Microbiol., 2009. **55**: p. 714-728.
232. **Lin, M., M. Al-Holy, H. Al-Qadiri, D.H. Kang, A.G. Cavinato, Y. Huang, and B.A. Rasco**, Discrimination of intact and injured *Listeria monocytogenes* by Fourier transform

- infrared spectroscopy and principal component analysis. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 2004. **52**(19): p. 5769-72.
233. **Alvarez-Ordóñez, A., J. Halisch, and M. Prieto**, Changes in Fourier transform infrared spectra of *Salmonella enterica* serovars Typhimurium and Enteritidis after adaptation to stressful growth conditions. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 2010. **142**(1-2): p. 97-105.
234. **Oust, A., T. Moretro, C. Kirschner, J.A. Narvhus, and A. Kohler**, FT-IR spectroscopy for identification of closely related lactobacilli. *J. Microbiol. Methods*, 2004. **59**(2): p. 149-62.
235. **Janbu, A.O., T. Moretro, D. Bertrand, and A. Kohler**, FT-IR microspectroscopy: a promising method for the rapid identification of *Listeria* species. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, 2008. **278**(2): p. 164-170.
236. **Rebuffo-Scheer, C.A., J. Schmitt, and S. Scherer**, Differentiation of *Listeria monocytogenes* serovars by using artificial neural network analysis of Fourier-transformed infrared spectra. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2007. **73**(3): p. 1036-40.
237. **Naumann, D.**, Infrared spectroscopy in microbiology, in *Encyclopedia of analytical chemistry*, R.A. Meyers, Editor. 2000, John Wiley & Sons: Chichester. p. 102-131.
238. **Kohler, A., U. Böcker, J. Warringer, A. Blomberg, S. Omholt, E. Stark, and H. Martens**, Reducing inter-replicate variation in Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy by extended multiplicative signal correction. *Appl. Spectrosc.*, 2009. **63**(3): p. 296-305.
239. **Bustin, S.A.**, Absolute quantification of mRNA using real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction assays. *J. Mol. Endocrinol.*, 2000. **25**(2): p. 169-93.
240. **Schmittgen, T.D. and K.J. Livak**, Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative C_T method. *Nat. Protoc.*, 2008. **3**(6): p. 1101-1108.
241. **Morey, J., J. Ryan, and F. Van Dolah**, Microarray validation: factors influencing correlation between oligonucleotide microarrays and real-time PCR. *Biol. Proced. Online*, 2006. **8**(1): p. 175-193.
242. **Hinds, J., K.G. Laing, J.A. Mangan, and P.D. Butcher**, Glass slide microarrays for bacterial genomes, in *Methods in microbiology: functional microbial genomics*, B. Wren and N. Dorrell, Editors. 2002, Academic Press: San Diego. p. 83-99.
243. **Causton, C.H., J. Quackenbush, and A. Brazma**, *Microarray gene expression data analysis: a beginner's guide*. 2003, Oxford: Blackwell Science.
244. **Ehrenreich, A.**, DNA microarray technology for the microbiologist: an overview. *Appl. Microbiol. Biotechnol.*, 2006. **73**(2): p. 255-73.
245. **Huang, D.W., B.T. Sherman, and R.A. Lempicki**, Systematic and integrative analysis of large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nat. Protocols*, 2008. **4**(1): p. 44-57.
246. **Dieterich, G., U. Karst, E. Fischer, J. Wehland, and L. Jansch**, LEGER: knowledge database and visualization tool for comparative genomics of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Listeria* species. *Nucl. Acids Res.*, 2006. **34**: p. D402-406.
247. **Moen, B., A. Oust, O. Langsrud, N. Dorrell, G.L. Marsden, J. Hinds, A. Kohler, B.W. Wren, and K. Rudi**, Explorative multifactor approach for investigating global survival mechanisms of *Campylobacter jejuni* under environmental conditions. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, 2005. **71**(4): p. 2086-94.
248. **Oust, A., B. Moen, H. Martens, K. Rudi, T. Naes, C. Kirschner, and A. Kohler**, Analysis of covariance patterns in gene expression data and FT-IR spectra. *J. Microbiol. Methods*, 2006. **65**(3): p. 573-84.
249. **Martens, H. and M. Martens**, *Multivariate analysis of quality: an introduction*. 2001, Chichester: John Wiley & Sons LTD.
250. **Naghmouchi, K., D. Drider, and I. Fliss**, Action of divergicin M35, a class IIa bacteriocin, on liposomes and *Listeria*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 2007. **102**(6): p. 1508-1517.

251. **Rajashekara, G., M. Drozd, D. Gangaiah, B. Jeon, Z. Liu, and Q. Zhang**, Functional characterization of the twin-arginine translocation system in *Campylobacter jejuni*. Foodborne Pathog. Dis., 2009. **6**(8): p. 935-945.
252. **McDonough, J.A., K.E. Hacker, A.R. Flores, M.S. Pavelka, Jr, and M. Braunstein**, The twin-arginine translocation pathway of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* is functional and required for the export of mycobacterial β -lactamases. J. Bacteriol., 2005. **187**(22): p. 7667-7679.
253. **Mols, M., R. van Kranenburg, M.H. Tempelaars, W. van Schaik, R. Moezelaar, and T. Abee**, Comparative analysis of transcriptional and physiological responses of *Bacillus cereus* to organic and inorganic acid shocks. Int. J. Food Microbiol., 2010. **137**(1): p. 13-21.
254. **Rode, T.M., T. Møretrø, S. Langsrud, Ø. Langsrud, G. Vogt, and A. Holck**, Responses of *Staphylococcus aureus* exposed to HCl and organic acid stress. Can. J. Microbiol., 2010. **56**(9): p. 777-792.

Paper I

Complex Phenotypic and Genotypic Responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* Strains Exposed to the Class IIa Bacteriocin Sakacin P[†]

Girum Tadesse Tessema,^{1,2} Trond Møretrø,¹ Achim Kohler,^{1,3}
Lars Axelsson,¹ and Kristine Naterstad^{1*}

Nofima Mat AS, Osloveien 1, N-1430 Aas, Norway¹; Department of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, P.O. Box 5003, N-1432 Aas, Norway²; and CIGENE, Institute of Mathematical Science and Technology, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, P.O. Box 5003, N-1432 Aas, Norway³

Received 13 March 2009/Accepted 9 September 2009

Sakacin P is a class IIa bacteriocin that is active against the food-borne pathogen *Listeria monocytogenes*, and use of this compound as a biopreservative in foods has been suggested. In the present study, we characterized 30 spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutants of *L. monocytogenes* obtained after single exposure to sakacin P. The frequency of development of sakacin P resistance for all strains was in the range from 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} . Using the 50% inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) of sakacin P, the strains could be grouped into strains with high levels of resistance ($IC_{50} \geq 10^4$ ng ml⁻¹) and strains with low levels of resistance ($IC_{50} < 10^4$ ng ml⁻¹). Resistant strains belonging to the same IC_{50} group also had similar physiological and genetic characteristics. Generally, the resistant strains showed substantial variations in many parameters, such as differences in the stability of the acquired resistance to sakacin P, growth fitness, food-related stress tolerance, and biofilm-forming ability. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy revealed differences between wild-type and resistant strains in polysaccharide, fatty acid, and protein regions. A mannose-specific phosphotransferase (PTS) operon has been described for class IIa bacteriocin resistance, and the sakacin P-resistant strains displayed both up- and downregulation of the expression of the *mptA* gene encoding the PTS system. This is the first comprehensive study of the diversity of a large number of spontaneous resistant mutants obtained after one exposure to a class IIa bacteriocin, particularly to sakacin P. The great diversity among the resistant strains exposed to the same stress conditions suggests that there are different resistance mechanisms.

Listeria monocytogenes is a gram-positive human and animal pathogen, and nearly all human *L. monocytogenes* infections are due to ingestion of contaminated food (29, 30, 47). Listeriosis is a severe disease and has high hospitalization and fatality rates (30). *L. monocytogenes* is ubiquitous in nature (49), and it is relatively resistant to harsh environments, as well as to a broad range of food processing and storage conditions (16).

Bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria are antimicrobial peptides and are usually active against gram-positive species with low G+C contents (5). The bacteriocins can be grouped into different classes (12, 26), and the class IIa bacteriocins are characterized by conserved sequence motifs and high specific activity against *L. monocytogenes* (9, 13). So far, nisin (class Ia) is the only bacteriocin approved for use as a food preservative (E234). If more bacteriocins are to be approved for various industrial applications, class IIa bacteriocins are considered the next in line (15). Sakacin P is a class IIa bacteriocin produced by several strains of *Lactobacillus sakei* (22, 26, 42, 43). Sakacin P is active against *L. monocytogenes* (23–25), and unlike other class IIa bacteriocins, it has modest activity against lactic acid bacteria (13).

The presence of isolates that are resistant to bacteriocins is

of great concern for use of bacteriocins as biopreservatives (48). *L. monocytogenes* isolates that are naturally resistant to class IIa bacteriocins have been reported (14, 37). Susceptible strains can acquire resistance to class IIa bacteriocins through exposure to bacteriocins (19, 25). Depending on the conditions, the frequency of development of resistance to class IIa bacteriocin ranges from 10^{-3} to 10^{-6} (11, 19, 25, 38). The reported stability of the acquired resistance varies considerably (10, 11, 19, 36, 38). Class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants of *L. monocytogenes* have been grouped into mutants with high levels of resistance and mutants with intermediate levels of resistance (2, 10, 20, 21, 25, 44, 45).

It has been reported that in *L. monocytogenes* downregulation of either the *mpt* (mannose permease two) operon, (7, 20, 21, 36), the *mpo* (mannose permease one) operon (2), the *rpoN* gene (encoding the σ^{54} factor), or the *manR* gene (transcriptional activator for σ^{54}) (2, 6, 7, 39) led to resistance to class IIa bacteriocins. This is in contrast to results reported by Gravesen et al., who showed that there was upregulation of expression of the *mpt* and *manR* genes in class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants (20). Alterations in cell envelope fatty acid composition (33, 45) and changes in the cell surface charge (44) have also been reported to be involved in mechanisms of resistance to class IIa bacteriocins.

In numerous studies of mutants of *L. monocytogenes* strains resistant to class IIa bacteriocins only one or a few wild-type or mutant strains were included, or the mutants with acquired resistance were derived using different experimental conditions; either the strains were exposed to different types and

* Corresponding author. Mailing address: Osloveien 1, 1430 Ås, Norway. Phone: 4764970214. Fax: 4764970333. E-mail: Kristine.naterstad@nofima.no.

† Supplemental material for this article may be found at <http://aem.asm.org/>.

‡ Published ahead of print on 18 September 2009.

TABLE 1. Wild-type strains used in this study

Strain	Description	Reference(s)
<i>L. monocytogenes</i> L40	Chicken isolate, serotype 3b	25, 35; Liv M. Rørvik, personal communication
<i>L. monocytogenes</i> L688	Sheep brain isolate, serotype 4b	25, 35; Liv M. Rørvik, personal communication
<i>L. monocytogenes</i> L502	Cheese isolate, serotype 1/2a	25, 35; Liv M. Rørvik, personal communication
<i>L. monocytogenes</i> L1037	Seawater isolate, serotype 1/2a	25, 35; Liv M. Rørvik, personal communication
<i>L. monocytogenes</i> EGD-e	Laboratory reference strain, serotype 1/2a	18
<i>Lactobacillus sakei</i> Lb790(pMLS114)	Strain producing sakacin P from plasmid pMLS114	22, 32

concentrations of bacteriocins, or they were exposed successively many times (10, 11, 19, 20, 33, 38, 46).

The purpose of this study was to characterize a large number of spontaneous mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* that acquired resistance after a single exposure to sakacin P. To our knowledge, this is the first comprehensive study of the diversity of a large number of spontaneous resistant mutants obtained after a single exposure to class IIa bacteriocins, particularly to sakacin P.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions. The *L. monocytogenes* wild-type strains were selected based on their natural susceptibility to sakacin P (25). *L. monocytogenes* L502 and L1037, for which the 50% inhibitory concentrations (IC₅₀) of sakacin P are high, and *L. monocytogenes* L40 and L688, for which the IC₅₀ of sakacin P are low (25), as well as laboratory reference strain EGD-e, were used (18). *L. sakei* Lb790(pMLS114) was used to produce cell-free supernatant (CFS) containing sakacin P (32) (Table 1).

Depending on the experiment, the *L. monocytogenes* strains were grown in tryptone soy broth (TSB) (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, England), on tryptone soy agar (TSA) (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, England), in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, England), on BHI agar (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, England), in *Listeria* enrichment broth (Oxoid, Ltd., Basingstoke, England) with 0.1% Tween 80 (Sigma), or in Luria-Bertani broth (LB) (1% tryptone [Oxoid], 0.5% yeast extract [Oxoid], and 0.5% NaCl [Merck]). For *L. sakei* Lb790, deMan-Rogosa-Sharpe medium (Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, England) was used. Unless otherwise stated, cultivation in broth media was performed without shaking, and the sakacin P-resistant mutants were characterized in the absence of sakacin P. The *L. monocytogenes* and the *L. sakei* Lb790 stock cultures were stored frozen (-80°C) in BHI broth and deMan-Rogosa-Sharpe medium, respectively, in the presence of 15% glycerol.

Production of CFS containing sakacin P. CFS containing sakacin P was produced by heterologous expression in *L. sakei* Lb790 as previously described, with a slight modification (25). *L. sakei* Lb790 was grown overnight at 20°C (32) with shaking at 200 rpm, and the CFS was subjected to heat treatment (85°C for 20 min). Aliquots of the CFS and pure sakacin P (stock concentration, 490 mg liter⁻¹; kindly donated by Inga M. Aasen, SINTEF, Norway) were stored at -20°C.

Development of spontaneous mutants with resistance to sakacin P. Spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* that were resistant to sakacin P were selected after a single exposure to sakacin P as previously described (19, 25). For each strain, a total of six spontaneous mutants resistant to sakacin P (five mutants obtained after exposure to the CFS and one mutant obtained after exposure to pure sakacin P at a final concentration of 4.9 mg liter⁻¹) were selected. The sakacin P-resistant strains were designated by using the suffixes 1 to 6 following the wild-type strain designations (see Table 3).

Serotyping of *L. monocytogenes* strains. The serotypes of the wild-type and selected sakacin P-resistant strains were determined using a *Listeria* antisera kit (Denka Seiken, Japan) by following the manufacturer's instructions.

Sakacin P susceptibility test. The susceptibility of the wild-type strains and the spontaneous mutants to sakacin P was determined using a pure sakacin P solution and a slight modification of a previously described method (25). The inoculum for the IC₅₀ test was prepared by diluting a 24-h culture (0.001%, vol/vol) in *Listeria* enrichment broth. The IC₅₀ determination was done twice on different days. Spontaneous mutants for which the IC₅₀ was higher than the IC₅₀ for the wild-type strain were considered resistant to sakacin P.

Stability of sakacin P resistance. The stability of the acquired sakacin P resistance of the spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* was assessed by serial

cultivation in TSB in the absence of sakacin P. Every 12 h for 10 days, the cultures were transferred (1%, vol/vol) to fresh prewarmed TSB at 30°C. The stability was checked after the first 2 h of incubation (day 0) and then every other day. The frequency of retention of resistance was computed by dividing the number of CFU that grew on TSA with 30% CFS by the number of CFU that grew on TSA without CFS. The wild-type strains were included as controls.

Growth fitness in the presence of different sugars. LB broth supplemented with different sugars (0.5%, wt/vol; glucose, mannose, rhamnose, cellobiose, and lactose) was prepared and sterilized using 0.2- μ m polyethersulfone membrane filters (Nalge Nunc International, United States). Growth was monitored using a Bioscreen instrument (Oy Growth Curves Ab Ltd., Helsinki, Finland) at 30°C for 18 h. The growth study experiment was done at least three times on different days.

The growth rate was computed from the slope of a linear regression line of the growth curve using the logarithmic region and was expressed in h⁻¹ (31). The maximum cell density was estimated from the highest optical density at 600 nm obtained after 18 h of incubation (46). The relative fitness of a resistant strain was calculated by comparison with the wild type (resistant strain/wild-type strain). Analysis of variance in conjunction with Tukey's multiple-comparison tests was performed using Statistix 8.1 (Analytical Software Tallahassee, United States), and *P* values less than 0.05 were considered significant.

Growth fitness in the presence of food-related stresses. The protocol described above was used, with slight modifications. BHI broth media were prepared by adding hydrochloric acid (pH 4.0 to 5.5), lactic acid (pH 5; total concentration, 5 mM to 50 mM), acetic acid (pH 5; total concentration, 2 mM to 50 mM), or sodium chloride (total concentration, 0.5% to 10% [wt/vol]). Plain BHI broth was used as a control, and the growth was monitored at different temperatures (10°C, 20°C, and 30°C).

Biofilm formation. The wild-type and resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* were screened for biofilm formation essentially as described by Borucki et al. (4). The experiment was done twice on different days.

Electron microscopy. The wild-type and resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* were grown in BHI broth at 30°C, and for a study of flagellum formation the strains were grown at 20°C. The cells were harvested at mid-exponential and late stationary phases and were fixed as described by Giotis et al. (17). Two independent biological samples were collected, and the cells were examined by scanning electron microscopy using the standard protocol at the Molecular Imaging Center of the University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway.

FT-IR spectroscopy. Preparation of samples for Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy was performed as described by Oust et al. (35). A bacterial suspension was uniformly dispensed in duplicate into 96 wells of a transmittance Si microplate (Bruker, Optics, Germany), and FT-IR measurement was performed using an HTS-XT spectrometer (Bruker Optics, Germany). For each strain, three independent biological samples were measured, and this gave a total of six spectra.

The spectra were preprocessed by taking the second derivative and applying extended multiplicative signal correction (27). The preprocessed spectra were analyzed by principal component analysis (PCA) using The Unscrambler software (The Unscrambler v9.6; CAMO AS, Norway). The PCA was performed using different biochemical fingerprint regions of the FT-IR spectra (34). The three biological samples were included in the PCA. Inspections of score plots for the first four principal components (usually PC1 and PC2) were used to determine if the wild-type strains were different from the resistant strains. Loading and line plots were used to identify chemical bands that were important for the separation of the wild-type strains from the resistant strains.

qRT-PCR. A quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR) experiment was performed to quantify the level of transcription of the *mptA* gene, and spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* representing organisms with high and low levels of resistance to sakacin P were included. The strains were grown at 30°C in plain LB broth or LB broth supplemented with glucose,

TABLE 2. Primers and probes used for qRT-PCR

Primer	Sequence ^a
MptAF	5'-CCTCGCAACTCACGGTGAAT-3'
MptAR	5'-TCTTGCTCGCCGAAAATCA-3'
MptA-Taq	5'-(6-FAM)TGCTGAAGGTATTTGCAGT CCGGAACA(TAMRA)-3'
16S rRNAF	5'-GCGCAGGCGGTCTTTAAG-3'
16S rRNAR	5'-CAATGACCTCCCGGTTA-3'
16S rRNA-Taq	5'-(6-FAM)CTGATGTGAAAGCCCCGGC (TAMRA)-3'

^a 6-FAM, 6-carboxyfluorescein (fluorophore); TAMRA, 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine (quencher).

mannose, or cellobiose (0.5%, wt/vol) with shaking. A sample used for isolation of total RNA was taken at mid-exponential phase. RNA extraction was done using an RNeasy Protect bacterial mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's recommendation with "on-column" digestion of genomic DNA. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 300 ng of total RNA using random hexamers and SuperScript III reverse transcriptase as suggested by the manufacturer (Invitrogen). In order to assess DNA contamination, a control sample with all components of the reaction mixtures except SuperScript III was included.

The primers and probes for *mptA* (lmo0096) and the 16S rRNA gene (Table 2) were designed using *L. monocytogenes* EGDe genome sequences available in the ListiList database (<http://genolist.pasteur.fr/ListiList>) using Primer Express 2.0 (Applied Biosystems). Amplification and detection of the cDNA were done as described previously (40). Data analysis was done as described by Schmittgen and Livak (41). For each gene, two biological replicates were included, and each biological replicate was measured four times. Changes were calculated relative to corresponding wild-type strains grown on glucose. *P* values less than 0.05 and changes that were ≥ 3 -fold were considered significant.

RESULTS

Development of sakacin P resistance. The natural IC_{50} of sakacin P for *L. monocytogenes* wild-type strain EGDe was high (Table 3), and this strain was assigned to the group containing *L. monocytogenes* L502 and L1037 (25). The frequency of development of sakacin P resistance for all strains ranged from 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} . The sakacin P-resistant strains displayed a wide range of levels of resistance to sakacin P (the IC_{50} were 20 to $>10^5$ times the IC_{50} for the wild-type strains). Based on the IC_{50} of sakacin P, the spontaneous mutants could be grouped into strains with high levels of resistance (IC_{50} , $\geq 10^4$ ng/ml) and strains with low levels of resistance (IC_{50} , $<10^4$ ng/ml). The available stock solution of sakacin P was not concentrated enough to determine the IC_{50} for some of the strains with high levels of resistance to sakacin P. The resistant mutants had the same serotype as the wild-type strains from which they were derived.

Characteristics of the resistant strains grown in the absence of sakacin P. (i) Stability of sakacin P resistance phenotype. The stability of the resistance phenotype differed substantially when the resistant strains were grown in the absence of selective pressure. As shown in Fig. 1, *L. monocytogenes* L40-6 started to revert after 50 generations, and *L. monocytogenes* L40-1 was stable for more than 125 generations.

(ii) Growth fitness on different carbon sources. Generally, the specific growth rates of the resistant strains on glucose, mannose, and lactose were lower than the growth rates of the corresponding wild-type strains. However, in LB broth supplemented with cellobiose, the growth of the wild-type strains and the growth of the resistant strains were similar (Fig. 2; see Table S1 in the supplemental material).

TABLE 3. IC_{50} of sakacin P for wild-type strains and spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* strains

Strain ^a	IC_{50} (ng ml ⁻¹) ^b
L502	0.32
L502-1 ^c	$>10^5$
L502-2	$>10^5$
L502-3	$>10^5$
L502-4	10^3
L502-5	10^2
L502-6	10^2
L1037	0.22
L1037-1 ^c	$>10^5$
L1037-2	10^3
L1037-3	10^2
L1037-4	10^2
L1037-5	10^2
L1037-6	10^2
EGDe	0.27
EGDe-1	$>10^5$
EGDe-2 ^c	10^2
EGDe-3	10
EGDe-4	<10
EGDe-5	<10
EGDe-6	<10
L40	0.12
L40-1	10^4
L40-2	10^3
L40-3	10^3
L40-4	10^3
L40-5 ^c	10^2
L40-6	10^2
L688	0.06
L688-1 ^c	10^4
L688-2	10^3
L688-3	10^3
L688-4	10^3
L688-5	10^3
L688-6	10^3

^a The designations of the sakacin P-resistant strains end with the suffixes 1 to 6. ^b $>10^5$ represents concentrations higher than the highest sakacin P concentration used.

^c Sakacin P-resistant strains derived from exposure to pure sakacin P.

In the presence of mannose or glucose spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* L40 and L502 could be placed in groups of resistant strains that grew fast or slow ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2). A positive correlation between the levels of sakacin P resistance and growth rates on glucose and mannose was observed for

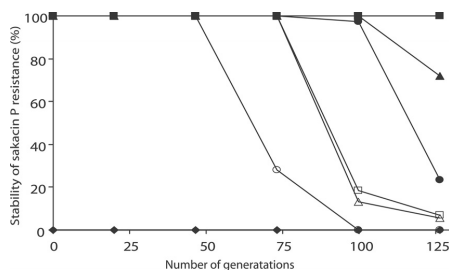


FIG. 1. Stability of sakacin P resistance phenotype in the absence of sakacin P. Symbols: ◆, L40; ■, L40-1; ▲, L40-2; □, L40-3; △, L40-4; ●, L40-5; ○, L40-6. Wild-type strain *L. monocytogenes* L40 was included as a control.

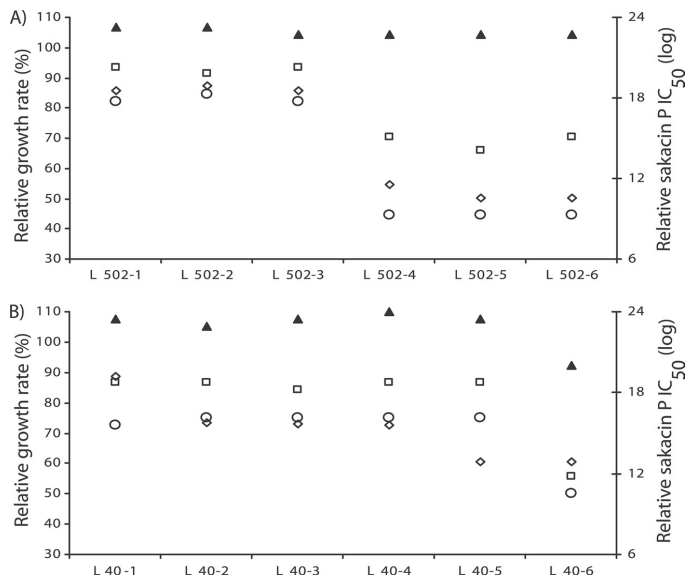


FIG. 2. Growth rates and levels of resistance to sakacin P of spontaneous bacteriocin-resistant mutants of *L. monocytogenes* L502 (A) and L40 (B). Symbols: ◇, sakacin P; □, glucose; ○, mannose; ▲, cellobiose. Values are expressed relative to the value for the wild-type strain (mutant/wild-type strain).

resistant strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* L502 ($r = 0.99$ and $P < 0.05$) (Fig. 2A). However, as shown for a representative strain in Fig. 2B, no correlation was observed for resistant strains derived from the other strains ($r = 0.3$ and $P > 0.05$). In general, the resistant strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* EGDe behaved differently than the other resistant strains (see Table S1 in the supplemental material).

The resistant and wild-type strains had similar maximum optical densities (total growth) on glucose and cellobiose (see Table S2 in the supplemental material). On mannose, with the exception of the slowly growing resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L502 (Fig. 2A), the total growth of the wild-type strains and the total growth of the resistant strains were similar ($P > 0.05$). Some of the resistant strains had unique growth fitness, particularly on rhamnose and lactose (see Tables S1 and S2 in the supplemental material).

(iii) **Food-related stresses.** Generally, the resistant strains were affected more by food-related stresses than the wild-type strains. When *L. monocytogenes* L502-6 was grown at room temperature in the presence of 2 mM acetic acid, the lag phase was prolonged by approximately 15 h and the specific growth rate was reduced by 50% compared to the lag phase and specific growth rate of *L. monocytogenes* wild-type strain L502. Under extreme stress conditions (i.e., low pH, low temperature, and high concentration of organic acids), the difference in tolerance between the wild-type strains and the resistant strains was minimal.

Variation in tolerance among the resistant strains was observed; for instance, the lengths of the lag phase for *L. monocytogenes* L502-1 and L502-6 in BHI broth at 20°C (no-stress

controls) were 40 and 80 min, respectively. In the control experiment, *L. monocytogenes* L502-1 grew 15% slower than *L. monocytogenes* L502-6. Addition of 5% NaCl prolonged the lag phases of *L. monocytogenes* L502-1 and L502-6 by 2 and 20 h, respectively. This salt also reduced the growth rate of *L. monocytogenes* L502-6 by 70% compared to that of *L. monocytogenes* L502-1. Generally, sakacin P-resistant strains showed less tolerance to salt and organic acid stresses than to stresses resulting from inorganic acid and low temperatures.

(iv) **Biofilm formation.** The resistant strains produced less biofilm than the corresponding wild-type strains, and substantial variation among the resistant strains was also observed. For example, the biofilm formation by *L. monocytogenes* L502-1 was greater than that by *L. monocytogenes* L502-6 ($P < 0.05$), and no difference was observed among resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L40 (data not shown).

(v) **Electron microscopy.** No significant difference in morphology was observed between the resistant and wild-type strains at either the exponential or stationary phase (data not shown).

(vi) **FT-IR spectroscopy.** PCA of the FT-IR spectra showed that the wild-type strains could be separated clearly from the corresponding mutants, with few exceptions (Table 4). Figure 3 shows the separation of *L. monocytogenes* wild-type strain L688 from the resistant strains in the polysaccharide region (1,200 to 900 cm^{-1}). The discriminatory power of the polysaccharide region was greater than those of the fatty acid and protein regions, in that order, and also varied from strain to strain. Surprisingly, the resistant strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* L502 clustered according to the level of resistance to sakacin P (high or low) (Fig. 4). The wild-type strain *L. mono-*

TABLE 4. FT-IR spectral regions that differentiate wild-type strains from sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes*

Spectral region ^a	L688	L502 ^c	EGDe	L1037	L40 ^d
Fatty acid (3,100-2,800 cm ⁻¹)	+ ^b	+	+	-	+
Protein (1,800-1,500 cm ⁻¹)	+	+	-	-	-
Fatty acid and protein mixed (1,500-1,200 cm ⁻¹)	+	+	+	+	-
Polysaccharide (1,200-900 cm ⁻¹)	+	+	+	+	+
Fingerprint (900-700 cm ⁻¹)	+	+	+	+	-

^a The assignment of bands is the assignment described by Naumann (34).

^b +, wild-type strain forms a cluster distinct and separate from that formed by sakacin P-resistant strains (see Fig. 3); -, no visible separation.

^c For *L. monocytogenes* L502, the clustering was according to the level of sakacin P resistance (see Fig. 4).

^d *L. monocytogenes* L40-6 was frequently separated from the other strains (see text).

cytogenes L502 clustered together with the strains resistant to high levels of sakacin P, and all the spectral regions confirmed the separation (Table 4).

The resistant strains had FT-IR spectral band intensities distinct from those of the wild-type strains. For example, the intensities of bands at ~2,922 cm⁻¹, ~2,852 cm⁻¹, and ~1,230 cm⁻¹ were higher for the resistant strains than for the wild-type strains (data not shown).

(vii) qRT-PCR. The expression of the *mptA* gene in *L. monocytogenes* strain L40-1 with a high level of resistance was downregulated at least 1,000-fold on all sugars tested compared to the expression in the corresponding wild-type strain grown on glucose ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, *mptA* gene expression was upregulated in *L. monocytogenes* strain L40-6 with a low level of resistance compared to the expression in the wild type ($P < 0.001$ and ≥ 3 -fold change). Resistant strains derived from wild-type strain *L. monocytogenes* L502 (L502-1 and L502-6) showed patterns of *mptA* gene regulation

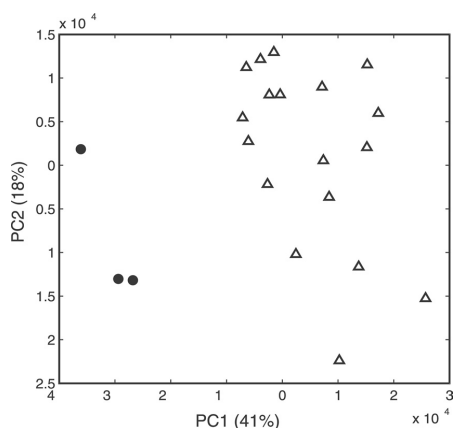


FIG. 3. PCA score plot using spectra in the polysaccharide region (1,200 to 900 cm⁻¹) as variables for wild-type and sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L688. The sakacin P-resistant strains (Δ) clustered separately from the wild-type (\bullet). Three biological replicate samples were included in the PCA.

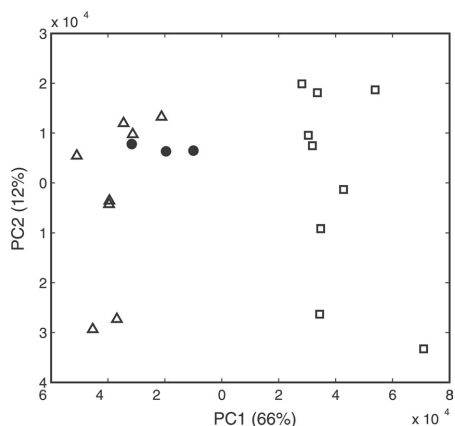


FIG. 4. PCA score plot using spectra in the polysaccharide region (1,200 to 900 cm⁻¹) as variables for wild-type and sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L502. The sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L502 clustered according to their levels of resistance to sakacin P as follows: low levels of resistance (\square) and high levels of resistance (Δ). Wild-type strain L502 (\bullet) clustered with the strains with high levels of resistance. Three biological replicate samples were included in the PCA.

with respect to the resistance level similar to those observed for *L. monocytogenes* L40 (Fig. 5B).

(viii) Spontaneous mutants obtained with pure sakacin P and CFS. Resistant strains obtained after exposure to pure sakacin P had phenotypic and gene expression profiles similar to those of the resistant strains obtained after exposure to *L. sakei* fermentate.

DISCUSSION

Spontaneous mutants of *L. monocytogenes* with acquired resistance to class IIa bacteriocins restrict the potential use of these bacteriocins as food biopreservatives. The present study is a continuation of our previous work (25, 35), in which two wild-type strains with high levels of natural susceptibility to sakacin P and two strains with low levels of natural susceptibility to sakacin P (25), as well as strain EGDe, were further

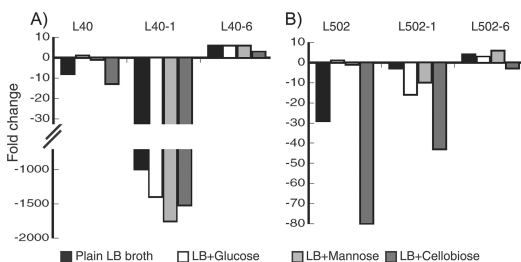


FIG. 5. Changes in *mptA* gene expression in wild-type and sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L40 (A) and L502 (B). The calculated changes are relative to the expression in the corresponding wild-type strains grown on glucose.

characterized. In order to obtain insight into the mechanisms and effects of acquired resistance to sakacin P, we included 30 spontaneous mutants derived from the five wild-type strains.

The frequency of development of resistance for all strains in the present study ranged from 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} . For class IIa bacteriocins frequencies between 10^{-3} and 10^{-6} have been reported (10, 11, 19, 25, 37, 38, 48). The observed divergence between the present study and previous studies could be due to strain variation (19, 48) and methodological differences. However, Gravesen et al. reported that the frequency of mutation to resistance to class IIa bacteriocins was not dependent on temperature, pH, salt, or the concentration of bacteriocin used (19).

In the present study, wide variation in the levels of acquired resistance was observed among the sakacin P-resistant strains (Table 3), and we divided the spontaneous mutants into strains with high levels of resistance and strains with low levels of resistance. The strains with high levels of resistance were over 10^5 times more resistant than the corresponding wild-type strains, and the strains with low levels of resistance were 20 to 10^4 times more resistant. Previous studies grouped mutants of *L. monocytogenes* that were resistant to class IIa bacteriocins into mutants with high levels of resistance (500 to 10^6 times more resistant than the wild-type strain) and mutants with intermediate levels of resistance (2 to 8 times more resistant than the wild-type strain) (2, 10, 20, 21, 44, 45).

In the present study, the sakacin P resistance phenotype was stable for at least for 50 generations (Fig. 1), and a class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strain with a stable phenotype for 20 generations has been described as a mutant (36). In addition, the resistant strains had different phenotypic and genotypic characteristics than the wild-type strains when they were tested in the absence of sakacin P (see below). Membrane adaptation has been described as a mechanism of resistance to class IIa bacteriocins, and the authors also highlighted the presence of extra resistance mechanisms among the mutants (44, 45). Taken together, these findings strongly suggest that the resistant strains obtained in the present study are mutants and that resistance due only to phenotypic adaptation is an unlikely explanation.

Sakacin P-resistant strains derived from the same strain showed differences in the stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype. The strains derived from *L. monocytogenes* L40 (Fig. 1) and EGDe (data not shown) with high levels of sakacin P resistance had a more stable resistance phenotype than the strains with low levels of resistance. In contrast to previous studies (10, 11, 19, 33, 36, 38), the present study included several resistant strains, and the strains were grown for more than 120 generations. To our knowledge, this is the first evidence that links levels of resistance to sakacin P with the stability of the resistance phenotype in spontaneous mutants derived from the same wild-type strain. The observed stability and other differences (see below) in the two groups (high and low levels of resistance) derived from same strain may indicate that there are different modes of resistance to class IIa bacteriocins, as suggested previously (10, 36).

Resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L40 and L502 were the most thoroughly studied strains, and the spontaneous mutants derived from these strains with the two different levels of resistance also had different physiological and genetic charac-

teristics. *L. monocytogenes* L502 strains, with a low level of resistance to sakacin P, generally grew slower (Fig. 2A), had reduced tolerance to stresses, and produced less biofilm than the strains with a high level of resistance to sakacin P. Representatives of the two groups of *L. monocytogenes* L40 strains showed similar tendencies. *L. monocytogenes* L40-6 was found to be the least stable strain (Fig. 1) and grew slower than *L. monocytogenes* L40-1 (Fig. 2B). In addition, the expression of the *mptA* gene was upregulated in *L. monocytogenes* L40-6 and L502-6 with low levels of resistance and downregulated in *L. monocytogenes* L40-1 and L502-1 with high levels of resistance compared to the expression in the wild-type strain (Fig. 5). Our FT-IR spectroscopy results also confirmed the grouping according to the level of resistance (Table 4 and Fig. 4).

Generally, the resistant strains had a reduced growth rate when they were grown on mannose and glucose compared to the growth on cellobiose (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). This is consistent with studies that showed the involvement of the mannose phosphotransferase (PTS) system in class IIa bacteriocin resistance (2, 21). In contrast, some of the resistant strains had growth rates on glucose (and to some extent growth rates on mannose) that were similar to those of the corresponding wild-type strains, and resistant strains with unique growth fitness on cellobiose, lactose, or rhamnose were observed (see Table S1 in the supplemental material). The relationship between the level of resistance to sakacin P and growth fitness was strain specific and sugar source dependent (Fig. 2). For example, spontaneous mutants derived from *L. monocytogenes* L502 with high levels of resistance to sakacin P grew significantly faster on glucose and mannose than the strains with low levels of resistance (Fig. 2A). However, no apparent relationship was observed among the resistant strains derived from the other wild-type strains. This substantial variation among the spontaneous mutants derived from the same strain may show that there are complex responses of the resistant strains due to alteration of the cell metabolism and/or different targets of the bacteriocin on the bacterial cell.

The results for reference strain EGDe, the only fully sequenced strain of *L. monocytogenes* (18), were often different from the results for the other four strains used. Strain Scott A, another laboratory reference strain, showed similar aberrant results (28). The EGDe strain may not be representative under the conditions of this study, and the generalizations that we made were based mainly on the results obtained with the other four strains.

In stress conditions that mimic the food environment, the resistant strains had less chance to grow, particularly in the presence of acids (organic and inorganic), salt, and low temperatures. We also found that the resistant strains had reduced abilities to form biofilms. This may suggest that the resistant strains do not compete well during harsh food processing and under storage conditions in foods when the bacteriocin is not present. More research is necessary to evaluate if resistant mutants are outcompeted in food or if their presence represents a bottleneck for use of bacteriocins in food.

Data obtained from FT-IR spectroscopy confirmed the grouping of the wild-type strains in the previously established groups (35) (data not shown). For both wild-type and resistant strains, the serotypes were accurately predicted by FT-IR spectroscopy irrespective of the observed high IC_{50} of sakacin P.

Resistance to sakacin P introduced distinct changes mainly in the polysaccharide, fatty acid, and protein regions, which represented the major cell membrane components (Table 4). The variations among the resistant strains observed by FT-IR spectroscopy also may suggest that there are pleiotropic effects of resistance to sakacin P in the intact cells.

Differences in band intensity between the wild-type and resistant strains were observed. All of the resistant strains had higher band intensities at $\sim 2,922\text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\sim 2,852\text{ cm}^{-1}$, and $1,230\text{ cm}^{-1}$ than the wild-type strains. Bands at $\sim 2,922\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\sim 2,852\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are assigned to carbon-hydrogen stretching of CH_2 in fatty acids, and bands around $1,230\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are due to double-bond stretching of the head group of phospholipids or phosphorus-containing carbohydrates, such as teichoic and lipoteichoic acids (34). It is often reported that strains of *L. monocytogenes* that are resistant to class IIa bacteriocins have alterations in the cell envelope, such as alterations in the fatty acid composition and cell surface charge (33, 44, 45). Taken together, FT-IR spectroscopy results mentioned above also strongly reflect the overall destabilized state of the cell envelope in the resistant strains.

With regard to expression of the *mptA* gene, upregulation and downregulation have previously been described for class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants (2, 20, 44). It has also been shown that components of the mannose PTS act as receptors for class IIa bacteriocins, thus explaining the mutant downregulation of *mptA* (8). This is consistent with our data for the resistant strains in the group with a high level of resistance to sakacin P (*L. monocytogenes* L40-1 and L502-1). However, in the characterized resistant strains belonging to the group of strains with low levels of resistance to sakacin P (*L. monocytogenes* L40-6 and L502-6), the *mptA* gene was upregulated. Gravesen et al. reported similar observations for a mutant with an intermediate level of resistance (20). In the present study, compared to the wild-type strains, the resistant strains with induced upregulation of the *mptA* gene were approximately 1,000 times more resistant, had reduced growth fitness, and had different FT-IR spectroscopy profiles. The present study and the report of Gravesen et al. (20) clearly showed that the level of *mptA* gene expression was not correlated to the level of resistance, in contrast to other findings (2, 44).

It is not clear whether the upregulation of *mptA* indicates a new mechanism of resistance. But since the growth in the presence of mannose and glucose still was significantly reduced in the resistant strains, it indicates that the mannose PTS system is somehow involved, although in a different manner than previously described. In bacteria, the PTS system in general (3) and the mannose PTS in particular (1) have a central role in a variety of regulatory events controlling carbon metabolism. Whether the observed upregulation of the *mptA* gene represents a new resistance mechanism itself or is due to indirect effects of an altered mannose PTS system remains to be investigated.

In conclusion, the present study showed substantial diversity among the spontaneous mutants. This finding emphasizes that care has to be taken when generalizations based on studies of a few strains and mutants are made. Spontaneous mutants with high levels of resistance to sakacin P tended to be more stable, had better growth fitness, and were more tolerant to food-related stresses than mutants with low levels of resistance.

Previously, we showed that spontaneous mutants that were resistant to sakacin P were also resistant to other members of the class IIa bacteriocin group (25). In this respect, the results obtained in the present study may apply to other related class IIa bacteriocins, and this should create significant concern with regard to application of class IIa bacteriocins to food.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by The Fund for the Research Levy on Agricultural Products.

We thank Tove Maugesten for technical assistance and Per Lea for helpful comments and statistical analysis.

REFERENCES

- Abranches, J., M. M. Candella, Z. T. Wen, H. V. Baker, and R. A. Burne. 2006. Different roles of EIIAB^{Mann} and EII^{Cdc} in regulation of energy metabolism, biofilm development, and competence in *Streptococcus mitis*. *J. Bacteriol.* **188**:3748–3756.
- Arous, S., K. Dalet, and Y. Hechard. 2004. Involvement of the *mptA* operon in resistance to class IIa bacteriocins in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **238**:37–41.
- Barabote, R. D., and M. H. Saier, Jr. 2005. Comparative genomic analyses of the bacterial phosphotransferase system. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **69**:608–634.
- Borucki, M. K., J. D. Peppin, D. White, F. Loge, and D. R. Call. 2003. Variation in biofilm formation among strains of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **69**:7336–7342.
- Cotter, P. D., C. Hill, and R. P. Ross. 2005. Bacteriocins: developing innate immunity for food. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **3**:777–788.
- Dalet, K., S. Arous, Y. Cenatiempo, and Y. Hechard. 2003. Characterization of a unique σ^{54} -dependent PTS operon of the lactose family in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Biochimie* **85**:633–638.
- Dalet, K., Y. Cenatiempo, P. Cossart, and Y. Hechard. 2001. A σ^{54} -dependent PTS permease of the mannose family is responsible for sensitivity of *Listeria monocytogenes* to salicinarin Y105. *Microbiology* **147**:3263–3269.
- Diep, D. B., M. Skaugen, Z. Salehian, H. Holo, and I. F. Nes. 2007. Common mechanisms of target cell recognition and immunity for class II bacteriocins. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **104**:2384–2389.
- Drider, D., G. Fimland, Y. Hechard, L. M. McMullen, and H. Prevost. 2006. The continuing story of class IIa bacteriocins. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **70**:564–582.
- Duffes, F., P. Jenoe, and P. Boyaval. 2000. Use of two-dimensional electrophoresis to study differential protein expression in divercin V41-resistant and wild-type strains of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **66**:4318–4324.
- Dykes, G. A., and J. W. Hastings. 1998. Fitness costs associated with class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* B73. *Lett. Appl. Microbiol.* **26**:5–8.
- Eijsink, V. G. H., L. Axelsson, D. B. Diep, L. S. Håvarstein, H. Holo, and I. F. Nes. 2002. Production of class II bacteriocins by lactic acid bacteria; an example of biological warfare and communication. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **81**:639–654.
- Eijsink, V. G. H., M. Skeie, P. H. Middelhoven, M. B. Brurberg, and I. F. Nes. 1998. Comparative studies of class IIa bacteriocins of lactic acid bacteria. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **64**:3275–3281.
- Ennahar, S., N. Deschamps, and J. Richard. 2000. Natural variation in susceptibility of *Listeria* strains to class IIa bacteriocins. *Curr. Microbiol.* **41**:1–4.
- Ennahar, S., T. Sashihara, K. Sonomoto, and A. Ishizaki. 2000. Class IIa bacteriocins: biosynthesis, structure and activity. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **24**:85–106.
- Gandhi, M., and M. L. Chikindas. 2007. *Listeria*: A foodborne pathogen that knows how to survive. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **113**:1–15.
- Giotis, E. S., I. S. Blair, and D. A. McDowell. 2007. Morphological changes in *Listeria monocytogenes* subjected to sublethal alkaline stress. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **120**:250–258.
- Glaser, P., L. Franguel, C. Buchrieser, C. Rusniok, A. Amend, F. Baquero, P. Berche, H. Bloeker, P. Brandt, T. Chakraborty, A. Charbit, F. Chetouani, E. Couve, A. de Daruvar, P. Dehoux, E. Domany, G. Dominguez-Bernal, E. Duchaud, L. Durant, O. Dussurget, K.-D. Entian, H. Fsihi, F. G.-D. Portillo, P. Garrido, L. Gautier, W. Goebel, N. Gomez-Lopez, T. Hain, J. Hauf, D. Jackson, L.-M. Jones, U. Kaerst, J. Kreft, M. Kuhn, F. Kunst, G. Kurapatk, E. Madueno, A. Maitournam, J. M. Vicente, E. Ng, H. Nedjari, G. Nordisk, S. Novella, B. de Pablos, J.-C. Perez-Diaz, R. Purcell, B. Remmel, M. Rose, T. Schluter, N. Simoes, A. Tierrez, J.-A. Vazquez-Boland, H. Voss, J. Wehland, and P. Cossart. 2001. Comparative genomics of *Listeria* species. *Science* **294**:849–852.
- Gravesen, A., A.-M. Jydegaard Axelsen, J. Mendes da Silva, T. B. Hansen,

- and S. Knochel. 2002. Frequency of bacteriocin resistance development and associated fitness costs in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **68**:756–764.
20. Gravesen, A., B. Kallipolitis, K. Holmstrom, P. E. Hoiby, M. Ramnath, and S. Knochel. 2004. *pbp2229*-mediated nisin resistance mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes* confers cross-protection to class IIa bacteriocins and affects virulence gene expression. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **70**:1669–1679.
 21. Gravesen, A., M. Ramnath, K. B. Rechinger, N. Andersen, L. Jansch, Y. Hechard, J. W. Hastings, and S. Knochel. 2002. High-level resistance to class IIa bacteriocins is associated with one general mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Microbiology* **148**:2361–2369.
 22. Holck, A. L., L. Axelsson, K. Hüfne, and L. Kräckel. 1994. Purification and cloning of sakacin 674, a bacteriocin from *Lactobacillus sake* Lb674. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* **115**:143–150.
 23. Katla, T., T. Moretro, I. Sveen, I. M. Aasen, L. Axelsson, L. M. Rorvik, and K. Naterstad. 2002. Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* in chicken cold cuts by addition of sakacin P and sakacin P-producing *Lactobacillus sakei*. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **93**:191–196.
 24. Katla, T., T. Moretro, I. M. Aasen, A. Holck, L. Axelsson, and K. Naterstad. 2001. Inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* in cold smoked salmon by addition of sakacin P and/or live *Lactobacillus sakei* cultures. *Food Microbiol.* **18**:431–439.
 25. Katla, T., K. Naterstad, M. Vancanneyt, J. Swings, and L. Axelsson. 2003. Differences in susceptibility of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains to sakacin P, sakacin A, pediocin PA-1, and nisin. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **69**:4431–4437.
 26. Klaenhammer, T. R. 1993. Genetics of bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **12**:39–86.
 27. Kohler, A., U. Böcker, J. Warringer, A. Blomberg, S. Omholt, E. Stark, and H. Martens. 2009. Reducing inter-replicate variation in Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy by extended multiplicative signal correction. *Appl. Spectrosc.* **63**:296–305.
 28. Lianou, A., J. D. Stopforth, Y. Yoon, M. Wiedmann, and J. N. Sofos. 2006. Growth and stress resistance variation in culture broth among *Listeria monocytogenes* strains of various serotypes and origins. *J. Food Prot.* **69**:2640–2647.
 29. Lunden, J., R. Tolvanen, and H. Korkeala. 2004. Human listeriosis outbreaks linked to dairy products in Europe. *J. Dairy Sci.* **87**:E6–E12.
 30. Mead, P. S., L. Slutsker, V. Dietz, L. F. McCaig, J. S. Bresee, C. Shapiro, P. M. Griffin, and R. V. Tauxe. 1999. Food-related illness and death in the United States. *Emerg. Infect. Dis.* **5**:607–625.
 31. Medircio, S. N., V. A. Leao, and M. C. Teixeira. 2007. Specific growth rate of sulfate reducing bacteria in the presence of manganese and cadmium. *J. Hazard. Mater.* **143**:593–596.
 32. Moretro, T., K. Naterstad, E. Wang, I. M. Aasen, S. Chaillou, M. Zagorec, and L. Axelsson. 2005. Sakacin P non-producing *Lactobacillus sakei* strains contain homologues of the sakacin P gene cluster. *Res. Microbiol.* **156**:949–960.
 33. Naghmouchi, K., E. Kheadr, C. Lacroix, and I. Fliss. 2007. Class I/class IIa bacteriocin cross-resistance phenomenon in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Food Microbiol.* **24**:718–727.
 34. Naumann, D. 2000. Infrared spectroscopy in microbiology, p. 102–131. In R. A. Meyers (ed.), *Encyclopedia of analytical chemistry*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd., Chichester, United Kingdom.
 35. Oust, A., T. Moretro, K. Naterstad, G. D. Sockalingum, I. Adt, M. Manfait, and A. Kohler. 2006. Fourier transform infrared and Raman spectroscopy for characterization of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **72**:228–232.
 36. Ramnath, M., M. Beukes, K. Tamura, and J. W. Hastings. 2000. Absence of a putative mannose-specific phosphotransferase system enzyme IIAB component in a leucocin A-resistant strain of *Listeria monocytogenes*, as shown by two-dimensional sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **66**:3098–3101.
 37. Rasch, M., and S. Knochel. 1998. Variations in tolerance of *Listeria monocytogenes* to nisin, pediocin PA-1 and bavaricin A. *Let. Appl. Microbiol.* **27**:275–278.
 38. Rekhif, N., A. Atrih, and G. Lefebvre. 1994. Selection and properties of spontaneous mutants of *Listeria monocytogenes* ATCC 15313 resistant to different bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria strains. *Curr. Microbiol.* **28**:237–241.
 39. Robichon, D., E. Gouin, M. Debarbouille, P. Cossart, Y. Cenatiempo, and Y. Hechard. 1997. The *spoN* (σ^{54}) gene from *Listeria monocytogenes* is involved in resistance to mesentericin Y105, an antibacterial peptide from *Leuconostoc mesenteroides*. *J. Bacteriol.* **179**:7591–7594.
 40. Rode, T. M., S. Langsrud, A. Holck, and T. Moretro. 2007. Different patterns of biofilm formation in *Staphylococcus aureus* under food-related stress conditions. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **116**:372–383.
 41. Schmittgen, T. D., and K. J. Livak. 2008. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method. *Nat. Protoc.* **3**:1101–1108.
 42. Tichaczek, P. S., J. Nissen-Meyer, I. F. Nes, R. F. Vogel, and W. P. Hammes. 1992. Characterization of the bacteriocins curvacin A from *Lactobacillus curvatus* LTH1174 and sakacin P from *L. sake* LTH673. *Syst. Appl. Microbiol.* **15**:460–468.
 43. Tichaczek, P. S., R. F. Vogel, and W. P. Hammes. 1994. Cloning and sequencing of *sakP* encoding sakacin P, the bacteriocin produced by *Lactobacillus sake* LTH673. *Microbiology* **140**:361–367.
 44. Vadyvaloo, V., S. Arous, A. Gravesen, Y. Hechard, R. Chauhan-Haubrock, J. W. Hastings, and M. Rautenbach. 2004. Cell-surface alterations in class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Microbiology* **150**:3025–3033.
 45. Vadyvaloo, V., J. W. Hastings, M. J. van der Merwe, and M. Rautenbach. 2002. Membranes of class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* cells contain increased levels of desaturated and short-acyl-chain phosphatidylglycerols. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **68**:5223–5230.
 46. Vadyvaloo, V., J. L. Snoep, J. W. Hastings, and M. Rautenbach. 2004. Physiological implications of class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Microbiology* **150**:335–340.
 47. Vazquez-Boland, J. A., M. Kuhn, P. Berche, T. Chakraborty, G. Dominguez-Bernal, W. Goebel, B. Gonzalez-Zorn, J. Wehland, and J. Kreft. 2001. *Listeria* pathogenesis and molecular virulence determinants. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **14**:584–640.
 48. Vignolo, G., J. Palacios, M. E. Farias, F. Sesma, U. Schillinger, W. Holzapfel, and G. Oliver. 2000. Combined effect of bacteriocins on the survival of various *Listeria* species in broth and meat system. *Curr. Microbiol.* **41**:410–416.
 49. Welshimer, H. J., and J. Donker-Voet. 1971. *Listeria monocytogenes* in nature. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **21**:516–519.

Paper II

Global Transcriptional Analysis of Spontaneous Sakacin P-Resistant Mutant Strains of *Listeria monocytogenes* during Growth on Different Sugars

Girum Tadesse Tessema^{1,2*}, Trond Møretrø¹, Lars Snipen², Lars Axelsson¹, and Kristine Naterstad¹

¹Nofima Mat AS, Osloveien 1, N-1430 Ås, Norway; ²Department of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, P.O. Box 5003, N-1432 Ås, Norway

* Corresponding author:

E-mail: girum.tadesse@nofima.no

Telephone: +4764970100

Fax: +4764970333

Post: Osloveien 1, 1430 Ås, Norway

Short Title: Sakacin P-Resistant Strains of *L. monocytogenes*

Keywords: *Listeria monocytogenes*; class IIa bacteriocin; sakacin P; spontaneous mutants; resistance; genome wide transcriptome; microarray; qRT-PCR; mannose; cellobiose; PTS; *mpt*; virulence; bacteriophage P100.

Abstract

Subclass IIa bacteriocins have strong antilisterial activity and can control the growth of *Listeria monocytogenes* in food. However, *L. monocytogenes* may develop resistance towards such bacteriocins. In this follow-up study, the transcriptomes of a high level (L502-1) and a low level (L502-6) spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutant strain of *L. monocytogenes* were compared to the wild-type (L502). The growth of the resistant strains was reduced on mannose but not affected on cellobiose and the transcriptomics was performed during growth on these sugars. The mannose phosphotransferase system (PTS) encoded by the *mptACD* operon (*mpt*) is known for transporting mannose and also is a receptor to class IIa bacteriocins. The *mpt* was repressed in L502-1, and this is in accordance with abolition of the bacteriocin receptor with resistance to class IIa bacteriocins. In contrast, the *mpt* was induced in L502-6. Despite the induction of the *mpt*, L502-6 showed 1,000 times resistance phenotype and reduced growth on mannose, suggesting the mannose-PTS may not be functional in L502-6. The microarray data suggests the presence of other transcriptional responses that may be linked to the sakacin P resistance phenotype particularly in L502-6. Most of commonly regulated genes encode proteins involved in transport and energy metabolism. The resistant strains displayed shift in general carbon catabolite control possibly mediated by the *mpt*. Our data suggest that the resistant strains may have a reduced virulence potential. Growth sugar- and mutant-specific responses were also revealed. The two resistant strains also displayed difference in the stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype, growth in the presence of both the lytic bacteriophage P100 and activated charcoal. Taken together, the present study showed that a single time exposure to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P may elicit contrasting phenotypic and transcriptome responses in *L. monocytogenes* possibly mediated by the *mpt*.

Introduction

Listeriosis is a rare but potentially serious infectious disease. Consumption of food contaminated with *Listeria monocytogenes* is the major route of transmission [1]. In recent years, a resurgent trend in listeriosis has been reported in many European countries [2]. *L. monocytogenes* is also responsible for substantial food product recalls and considerable economic loss to food industry [3].

Bacteriocins produced by lactic acid bacteria are of major interest as natural and safe food preservatives targeting foodborne pathogens, including *L. monocytogenes* [4-7]. The lactic acid bacteria bacteriocins are grouped into several classes and subclasses [7]. Subclass IIa bacteriocins (also called pediocin-like) are considered the most important class II bacteriocins and have strong antilisterial activity [8].

Development of resistance by target cells after exposure to class IIa bacteriocins seriously hampers the use of these bacteriocins as biopreservatives [9,10]. The molecular mechanism behind the resistance is not fully known and is important to elucidate for optimal use of the bacteriocins. In *L. monocytogenes* and other related gram-positive bacteria, it is established that the mannose specific phosphotransferase system (PTS) encoded by the *mptACD* operon (hereafter *mpt*) is the receptor for class IIa bacteriocins, and abolition of the receptor is the most common mechanism behind resistance to class IIa bacteriocins [10-17]. A more recent transcriptome study [18] on class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Enterococcus faecalis* indicated that, in addition to conferring resistance to class IIa bacteriocins, the mannose-PTS plays a key role in global carbon catabolite control. Interestingly, up-regulation of the *mpt* in three different class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants has been reported [19,20].

The virulence potential of class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains is a concern that has to be addressed. A study by Gravesen et al. has investigated the expression of 13 selected virulence genes for two class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains using targeted microarray (64 genes) and the study has shown that five of the virulence genes were significantly down-regulated in one of the resistant strains [19]. For the other resistant strain, the authors reported a non-significant induction of the tested virulence genes [19]. In another study, exposing of *L. monocytogenes* to a sakacin 1 producing strain [21] showed no apparent effect of this class IIa

bacteriocin on the hemolytic activity of *L. monocytogenes* [22]. Hence, more study is needed to understand the relationship between class IIa bacteriocin resistance with virulence potential.

We have recently shown that spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutants of *L. monocytogenes* L502 can be divided into strains with high level of resistance and strains with low level resistance [20]. The high level resistant strain *L. monocytogenes* L502-1 (hereafter L502-1) shows a slight growth reduction on mannose, with down-regulation of the bacteriocin receptor gene (*mptA*), compared to that of the wild-type. In contrast, the low level sakacin P-resistant *L. monocytogenes* L502-6 (hereafter L502-6) shows dramatic growth reduction on mannose, and the *mptA* gene is up-regulated. The two resistant strains grow as the wild-type on cellobiose [20].

The main purpose of the present study was to identify possible genes that might be involved in sakacin P resistance particularly in the mutant strain that showed induction of the bacteriocin receptor. Genome-wide transcriptome profile of the two different sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L502-6) were compared to that of the wild-type (L502) upon growth on mannose or cellobiose. The data presented here independently confirm our previous report regarding with the repression and induction of the *mpt* operon in L502-1 and L502-6 respectively. Nevertheless, the transcriptomic and phenotypic results altogether suggest the *mpt* operon could be involved in the sakacin P resistance not only in L502-1 but also in L502-6. In addition, the transcriptomics suggests the presence of other transcriptional responses that may be linked to the sakacin P resistance in L502-6. To our knowledge, the present study reports the first genome-wide transcriptome profiling in spontaneous class IIa bacteriocin resistant mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* and opens new possibilities for further studies.

Results and Discussion

The class IIa bacteriocins can inhibit unwanted microorganisms in food including the foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes* [23]. Development of spontaneous mutant strains with reduced susceptibility to the bacteriocin creates significant concern with regard to application of the bacteriocins as food preservative [24]. A deeper knowledge about the acquired resistance is crucial for optimal use of the bacteriocins in the food industry. Recently we have shown that substantial diversity among large number of *L. monocytogenes* spontaneous mutant strains obtained after a single time exposure to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P [20]. The present study is a continuation of the previous work [20], in which two different sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L502 were further characterized mainly using whole-genome DNA microarray.

Global gene expression profile and validation by quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR

In the present study we compared the transcriptome profiles of two different spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes* with their wild-type strain (Table 1). The growth of the resistant strains was reduced on mannose but the resistance strains grow as wild-type on cellobiose (Table 1, [20]). For better understanding of the incidence(s) giving rise to the sakacin P resistance, the transcriptome analysis was performed during growth on mannose or cellobiose. During growth on mannose a total of 124 (87 up and 37 down) and 194 (152 up and 42 down) genes were regulated in L502-1 and L502-6 respectively, compared to the wild-type. The total number of genes affected on cellobiose were 39 (20 up and 19 down) in L502-1 and 36 (30 up and 6 down) in L502-6. The complete list of the differentially regulated genes in any of the growth conditions is available in Table S1. The result from Principal Component Analysis (PCA) indicates main variation in global transcriptional response was due to growth sugar effect followed by difference between the two resistant strains (Figure 1). These overall global transcriptional responses of the resistant strains grown on mannose and cellobiose was in line with the fitness of the resistant strains growing on the respective sugars (Table 1, [20]).

Analysis of the differentially expressed genes according to the CMR-JCVI (Comprehensive Microbial Resource of the J. Craig Venter Institute) role categories showed that the sakacin P-resistant strains had altered expression of genes belonging to the majority of the role categories (Figure S1 and Table S1). This indicates that the incidence(s) giving rise to the sakacin P resistance also affects the overall physiology of the resistant strains, which is in agreement with our earlier finding on intact cell profile of the sakacin P-resistant strains using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy [20]. In general, genes belonging to the energy metabolism, transport and binding proteins, and amino acid biosynthesis of the CMR-JCVI role categories were overrepresented ($p < 0.001$ and odd ratios > 2) and most of them were induced (Figure S1).

The reliability of the microarray expression data was assessed by quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis. The validation assay showed strong correlation of gene expression with the microarray results under all tested conditions ($r > 0.9$, Figure S2), confirming independently the reliability of the microarray data. The microarray probes used in the present study were based on the EGD_e strain (Accession No. A-BUGS-19; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/A-BUGS-19>). More than 94% of *L. monocytogenes* L502 genes were hybridized to the EGD_e-based probes in any of experimental conditions tested so far (not shown). A recent study [25] has shown that the EGD_e strain expresses comparable number of its genes ($> 98\%$ of its open reading frames) under different growth conditions. Taken together, the microarray analysis reported in the present study unambiguously reflects the global transcriptomic profiles of the sakacin P-resistant strains.

Transcriptional responses linked to resistance to sakacin P

The sakacin P-resistance phenotype was confirmed during growth on mannose and cellobiose using selective plates containing sakacin P at the time of harvesting. The growth fitness of the resistant strains was not affected in the presence of sakacin P when cultivated on mannose and cellobiose (not shown). Consequently, genes whose expression altered in both sugars were considered as potential genes that might be linked to the resistance. Genes differentially regulated in both sugars in L502-1 and L502-6 are listed in Table 2 and Table 3 respectively.

I) Abolition of the bacteriocin receptor (mpt)

In *L. monocytogenes*, it has been shown that the gene product of *mpt* is necessary for growth on mannose [26] and act as a receptor for the bacteriocin sakacin P [17,27]. The transcriptome assay showed that during growth on mannose the *mpt* was down-regulated in the high level sakacin P-resistant strain (L502-1) compared to the wild-type (Table 2). In contrast, under similar growth condition, the *mpt* was up-regulated in the low level sakacin P-resistant strain (L502-6) (Table 3). In both sakacin P-resistant strains the *mpt* was up-regulated during growth on cellobiose (Table 2 and Table 3). However, initial analysis of the spot intensities of the microarray in the two samples separately (mutant versus wild-type) suggests the relative up-regulation of the *mpt* on cellobiose might not be as such significant. To verify this, qRT-PCR assay was performed on *mptA* gene representing the *mpt* to investigate if cellobiose induces the *mpt* among the resistant strains. No significant induction of the *mptA* gene was observed in any of the strains during growth on cellobiose. In contrast, mannose induced the *mptA* gene in the following increasing order: L502-6 > wild-type > L502-1 (Figure S3). Previously it has been shown that in wild-type *L. monocytogenes* strain the *mpt* gene is induced by the presence of mannose but not by cellobiose [11,26].

The repression of *mpt* in L502-1 reported in the present study suggests that abolition of the *mpt* could be a part of sakacin P resistance (Table 2). Indeed, several seminal studies uncovered the role of mannose-PTS in resistance/susceptibility of target cells for the class IIa bacteriocin [10-15,17-19,27,28]. The induction of the *mpt* gene which encodes the bacteriocin receptor in L502-6 was intriguing (Table 3). Previously we have shown that another low level sakacin P-resistant strain (L40-6) also displayed induction of the *mptA* gene [20]. A similar trend in induction of the bacteriocin receptor in a carnobacteriocin B2-resistant strain both at gene and protein levels has been reported [19]. Despite the induction of the *mpt*, the two low level resistant strains studied in our laboratory showed 1,000 times more resistance phenotype than their respective wild-type strains. In addition, the growth of these resistant strains was reduced significantly particularly on mannose (Table 1). This may suggest the normal function of the gene product of *mpt* is affected not only in L502-1 but also in L502-6. Hence, abolition of the receptor (no expression or modification) could be the main resistance mechanism against the sakacin P in both resistant strains. Nevertheless, how the induced *mpt* expression in L502-6 confers resistance to sakacin P is not clear and requires further investigation. The transcriptome data also suggest the presence of other transcriptional

responses that may contribute to the sakacin P resistance phenotype particularly in L502-6 (see below).

Genes known to modulate the *mpt* expression and conferring resistance to a class IIa bacteriocin were not differentially expressed in any of the sakacin P-resistant strains when compared to the wild-type. This is in contrast to previous reports on defined mutants lacking functional σ^{54} factor [29], ResD (two-component response regulator) [30], Lmo0095 (*mpt* activator) [31], or PrfA (positive regulatory factor A) [19], and having increased resistance to class IIa bacteriocin possibly through inactivation of the mannose PTS. Deletion of the *manR* gene (encoding transcriptional activator for σ^{54}) resulted in resistance to a class IIa bacteriocin [11]. In the present study and in other spontaneous class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants studied [19], the expression of *manR* was generally up-regulated in the resistant strains compared to the wild-type (Table S1). The role of ManR in spontaneous class IIa bacteriocin resistance remains to be studied. Nevertheless, factors as type of strain used (defined versus spontaneous mutants) and the growth conditions (e.g. defined culture media versus complex media) may contribute for variation in regulation of genes encoding especially the PTS [19,26,32].

II) Modification of the cell envelope and antimicrobial translocation system

Genes encoding proteins associated with the cell envelope were induced in L502-6 (Table 3 and Table S1). This includes *srtB* which encodes a sortase protein that modifies the cell envelope and *lmo0366* encoding a putative surface lipoprotein (Table 3). The link between modification of the cell envelope and resistance to class IIa bacteriocins reported previously [15,33,34]. In the present study, *tatAC* operon encoding the Twin-Arginine Translocase (TAT) system was up-regulated in L502-6 (Table 3). In other bacteria as *Mycobacterium smegmatis* and *Campylobacter jejuni*, mutation of the *tat* specific genes increased susceptibility to antimicrobials indicating the TAT dependent translocation of antimicrobials [35,36]. Our transcriptional data together with results from the previous studies may suggest modification of the cell envelop and the TAT system may contribute to the sakacin P-resistance phenotype in strain L502-6. However, it is yet unclear whether these may also represent an indirect consequence of the altered *mpt* expression (see below).

The mannose PTS in global carbon catabolite control

In the present study genes associated with energy transport and metabolism were the most affected in the resistant strains particularly upon growth on mannose (Figure S1). *In-silico* analysis for catabolite responsive element (*cre*) sequence (WWTGNAARCGNWWCAWW) described for *Bacillus subtilis* [37] indicated that most of the differentially regulated genes harbor potential *cre* sites important for carbon catabolite control *via* catabolite control protein A (CcpA) (not shown). Among the genes with potential *cre* site identified here some of them are previously described to be under carbon catabolite control in *L. monocytogenes* [31,38,39] and the closely related bacteria *B. subtilis* [40].

Known genes that are under catabolite control repression (CCR) and were induced in the resistant strains includes *lmo0027* (encode β -glucosides specific permase) [31], *lmo1254/lmo1255* (trehalose metabolism) [40], *glpK* and *glpD* (glycerol metabolism) [40], *citC*, *citZ* and *citB* (oxidation portion of tricarboxylic acid cycle) [39,40], and *lmo0847* (a putative glutamine ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporter) [39]. In addition, a number of *pts* and other transporter and utilization genes for sugars that was not present in the growth media (e.g. fructose, galacitol, ascorbate, maltose and manitol) and their transcriptional activators and antiterminators were induced (Table S1). Conversely, genes *alsS* and *alsD* which involved in acetoin biosynthesis are under carbon catabolite activation [40] and here were found to be down-regulated (Table S1). The transcriptome data indicated that none of the genes encoding proteins mediating carbon catabolite control (e.g. *ptsI*, *hprK*, *ccpA*, *ccpC*, *cggp*) were differentially regulated (not shown).

Most of the transcriptome changes observed in the present study could be linked to global carbon catabolite control mediated by the altered *mpt* as shown in previous studies [18,26,31,41]. In addition to a role in carbon catabolite control, the mannose specific PTS is involved in a variety of cellular functions including, stress tolerance [42], biofilm formation [41] and virulence [31]. In fact, the sakacin P-resistant strains studied in the present study displayed low tolerance to food related stress [20], produce less biofilm [20] and may have reduced virulence potential (see below) compared to the wild-type. Therefore, it is possible that the regulatory role of the *mpt* affected other several genes including a number of known and putative genes encoding regulatory proteins mostly associated with the PTSs (Table S1) [43]. Further studies will be required to fully define the role of the *mpt* in *L. monocytogenes*.

Common and specific transcriptional response to the high- and low-level resistant strains

As it can be seen in Figure 2, common and unique genes were differentially expressed in the high level and the low level sakacin P-resistant strains upon growth on mannose and on cellobiose. Commonly down-regulated genes in the resistant strains mostly during on mannose include genes ascribed in virulence, antimicrobial resistance, pyrimidine metabolism and amino acid biosynthesis (Figure 2B, Table S1). The reduced expression of genes encoding pyrimidine and amino acid metabolism upon growth on mannose is inline with the growth fitness of the resistant strains on this sugar (Table 1). As mentioned earlier, mostly genes encoding proteins associated with energy transport and metabolism were commonly up-regulated in the sakacin P-resistant strains during growth on mannose (Figure 2B and Table S1).

The common genes up-regulated and down-regulated under all tested conditions were *lmo0848* and *lmo1251* respectively. The operon encoded by *lmo0847* and *lmo0848* is an ABC glutamine transporter and as mentioned earlier it is known to be under CCR [39]. The *lmo1251* is a PrfA-like putative CRP-FNR (cyclic AMP receptor protein-fumarate and nitrate reduction regulator) family transcriptional regulator. The CRP-FNR families mainly functions as positive transcriptional regulators and are known to control genes in various aspects as sugar and amino acid transport and metabolism and in pathogenesis [44].

A total of 49 genes (33 up-regulated and 16 down-regulated) were affected only in L502-1 upon growth on mannose (Table S1). The genes differentially regulated in L502-1 were mostly associated with transport and utilization of energy. In contrast, upon growth on mannose large number of genes (69 up-regulated and 28 down-regulated) encoding proteins associated with different cellular functions were differentially regulated in L502-6. In addition many genes encoding unknown proteins were induced in L2502-6. Despite the similar growth fitness of the two resistant strains on cellobiose, more genes specific to L502-6 were regulated than in L502-1 (Table S1). Together, these results may indicate that the incidence(s) giving rise to the sakacin P resistance in L502-6 resulted in a more complex trait(s) than in L502-1.

Virulence potential

In the present study, known and putative virulence determinant genes were significantly down-regulated in the resistant strains compared to that of the wild-type (Figure 3). The proteins encoded by the repressed genes have known roles in the infectious lifecycle of *L. monocytogenes* [25]. For example, the glutamate decarboxylase system (encoded by the *gadT2D2*) and the bile salt hydrolase (*bsh*) could help the bacterium to pass through the alimentary canal and the proteins encoded by *inlA*, *inlB*, *hly*, *actA*, *mpl*, and *plcA* could facilitate the adhesion, invasion and cell-to-cell spread of the bacterium [43]. The decreased expression in the *gadT2D2* operon (Figure 3) is partly in line with our earlier finding that showed an increased susceptibility of the sakacin P-resistant strains to low pH stress than the wild-type [20]. No expression data was available for *plcB* gene which encodes phospholipase C, however, the diminished lecithinase activity (Figure 4B) suggested a decrease in expression of the *plcB* gene. In the present study, the expression of *virR* (virulence regulator) and *srtB* genes were up-regulated in L502-6 compared to the wild-type (Figure 3). The VirR and SrtB are associated with modification of the cell surface [45,46], but the significance of the proteins encoded by these genes in the sakacin P-resistant strain remained to be investigated.

Although qualitative, the results in Figure 4 show that the hemolytic and lecithinase activity of L502-6 were apparently lower than that of the wild-type. In contrast, no difference was observed between L502-1 and the wild-type. The difference between the resistant strains could be attributed to the level of gene transcript (Figure 3) and/or growth fitness (Table 1, [20]). To rule out the latter possibility, an independent hemolytic assay was performed in the cell supernatant after the strains were grown in the presence of cellobiose, which gives a similar growth fitness (Table 1, [20]). In both sakacin P-resistant strains the hemolytic activity was slightly reduced compared to the wild-type, albeit statistically insignificant ($p=0.3$) (not shown). A recent study [21,22] has shown no change in the hemolytic activity after subjecting a *L. monocytogenes* strain to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin 1. Overall, it is possible that the reduced growth capacity of L502-6 might contribute to the reduced virulence. Further work on the virulence potential of the sakacin P-resistant strains using animal models will be highly informative.

In the present study, the addition of activated charcoal had no apparent effect on hemolytic and lecithinase activities of the strains (not shown). Surprisingly, activated charcoal inhibited the growth of L502-6 by approximately 95% compared to the wild-type (not shown). Removal of important culture components by activated charcoal and/or physical adsorption of the low level sakacin P-resistant strain to the activated charcoal could be the reasons. Thus, in contrast to the previous transcriptional study on class IIa bacteriocin-resistant mutants [19], the present transcriptome study was performed in the absence of activated charcoal.

Infection with the virulent phage P100

Bacteriophage P100 is a strict virulent phage of *L. monocytogenes* and infection inevitably leads to cell death [47]. We assessed if the resistance to sakacin P can cross-protect *L. monocytogenes* from phage infection using Listex P100, a commercial phage approved by the United States Food and Drug Administration as a food biopreservative for the control of *L. monocytogenes* [48]. At higher MOI all the strains were killed by the phage P100 (not shown). To our surprise, L502-6 showed reproducibly reduced susceptibility to low doses of phage P100 in contrast to the other strains. The killing effect of phage P100 was not dependent on the growth sugar (Figure 5). A similar leaky resistance type to lambda phage has been observed in *Escherichia coli* lacking the membrane components of the mannose PTS [49]. To obtain a complete understanding about the mechanism(s) that underline the reduced susceptibility in L502-6 to low doses of phage P100 requires further investigation.

Stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype

During growth in the absence of selective pressure (sakacin P), the sakacin P resistant phenotype in L502-1 started to revert after approximately 20 generations. In contrast, the sakacin P resistance in L502-6 was stable up to 100 generations (not shown). This indicates that the low level resistant strain had a more stable sakacin P resistance phenotype than the high level resistant strain. This contradicts our previous observation which showed more stable phenotype of the high level sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L40 and EGDe than the low level resistant strains [20]. As described above, the low level sakacin P-resistant strain studied in the present study (L502-6) may have additional sakacin P-resistance mechanisms, indicating a possible factor that determines the phenotype stability.

The sakacin-P resistant strains are generated after the wild-type strains were exposed to a cell free supernatant (CFS) containing sakacin P prepared by heterologous expression of sakacin P in *Lactobacillus sake* Lb790(pMLS114) [20]. In the present study, CFS from the non-bacteriocinogenic *L. sakei* Lb790(pLPV111) was used as a negative control [50] and no antilisterial effect was observed in the presence of the CFS from the non-sakacin P producer strain culture (not shown).

Concluding remarks

The present study reports the first genome-wide transcriptome changes in two different spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutant strains of *L. monocytogenes*. The experiment was done in the presence of mannose or cellobiose and this facilitated systematic identification of genes possibly related to the bacteriocin resistance. Our data suggested that, for both resistant strains, absence of a normal functional *mpt* as the major mechanism for the sakacin P resistance. In addition, modification of the cell envelope and efflux of the bacteriocin by TAT system might also contribute to the resistance phenotype in the low level sakacin P-resistant strain. The transcriptomics suggested a possible role of the mannose-PTS in global carbon catabolite control in *L. monocytogenes*.

The high level and the low level sakacin P-resistant strains show substantial difference in gene expression profile, stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype, resistance to phage P100 infection, virulence potential, and growth in the presence of activated charcoal. In our previous study [20], it was shown that the resistant strains displayed different level of resistance to sakacin P, stress tolerance capacity, biofilm formation ability, and Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy profile. Overall, this indicates that the incidence(s) giving rise to the sakacin P resistance involves a complex regulatory gene network and have pleiotropic effects on the physiology of the resistant strains. It would be of interest to extend this study to link the resistance phenotype with mutation(s) in the DNA sequence. Further works on the virulence potential of spontaneous class IIa bacteriocin-resistant strains using animal models would have a practical importance.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions. The wild-type *L. monocytogenes* strain L502, a cheese isolate of serotype 1/2a and its two spontaneous sakacin P-resistant mutants have been described previously [20,51]. The mutants were derived after exposure to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P [20], and relevant characteristics are summarized in Table 1. The sakacin P producer *L. sakei* Lb790(pMLS114) and its isogenic non-sakacin P producer *L. sakei* Lb790(pLPV111) [50] were used to produce CFS.

Growth media as well as growth and storage conditions were as previously described [20]. Briefly, *L. monocytogenes* strains were cultivated aerobically at 30°C and liquid cultures were shaken at 200 r.p.m., unless stated otherwise. For hemolytic and lecithinase activity testing, culture media were modified by adding activated charcoal to a final concentration of 0.2 % (wt/ vol) (Sigma-Aldrich, Amersfoort, The Netherlands) to the Luria-Bertani (LB) broth supplemented with cellobiose. Trypticase soy agar (TSA) was modified by adding either 5% defibrinated horse blood (TCS Biosciences Ltd, Buckingham, UK), 10 % egg yolk or 30% CFS from a *L. sakei* culture. The production of CFS from *L. sakei* was done as previously described [20].

Sampling and RNA isolation. The transcriptome study was performed on *L. monocytogenes* strains grown in LB broth supplemented with mannose or cellobiose (0.5%, wt/vol) in the absence of bacteriocin. Sampling was done at mid-exponential phase and total RNA extraction was done using an RNeasy Protect bacterial mini kit [20]. The sakacin P-resistance phenotype was verified on selective plates containing sakacin P at the time of harvesting for RNA isolation. The quantity and quality of RNA was checked using NanoDrop ND-1000 (NanoDrop Technologies, Rockland, USA) and Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA). The isolated RNA sample was used both for the microarray and for validation assays by qRT-PCR. Two independently isolated RNA samples from each growth condition were used.

Microarray analysis. The PCR based DNA microarray slides were developed and printed by The Bacterial Microarray Group at St George's (B μ G@S), University of London, UK. Protocols for the development and printing of the microarray slides have been described elsewhere [52,53]. The array design is available in B μ G@Sbase (Accession No. A-BUGS-19; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/A-BUGS-19>) and also ArrayExpress (Accession No. A-BUGS-19).

The cDNA synthesis and labeling were performed using 4 µg total RNA following guidelines from BµG@S [53]. The sakacin P-resistant mutants grown on mannose or cellobiose were compared to the wild type-strain grown on the respective sugar. Dye-swap hybridization was performed for each sample and the hybridization was done as described previously [52,53]. Scanning of the arrays was performed using Tecan LS scanner (Tecan, Männedorf, Switzerland). Spot-identification, -segmentation and -fluorescent intensity quantification were done using ImaGene 5.5 (BioDiversity, El Segundo, USA).

The microarray data analysis was done by the LIMMA package [54] in the R computing environment (<http://www.r-project.org/>). Preprocessing and normalization followed a standard procedure using methods described by Smyth and Speed [55]. Testing for differentially expressed genes was done using a linear mixed model as described [56]. A mixed-model approach was chosen to adequately describe between-array variation, and utilized the probe-replicates in each array. An empirical Bayes smoothing of gene-wise variances was conducted according to Smyth et al. [57]. For each gene, the p-value was adjusted to control the false discovery rate and the adjusted p-values were referred as q-values. Differentially expressed genes were selected using q-values less than 0.01 and with log ratio of ≥ 0.585 or ≤ -0.585 (equivalent to ≥ 1.5 -fold changes).

The preprocessed data were also analyzed using The Unscrambler software (The Unscrambler v9.8; CAMO AS, Norway), GeneSpring GX7.3 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA) and the LEGER database [58]. For the PCA, genes that were differentially expressed in any of the growth conditions were included. Hierarchical clustering (complete linkage, correlation distance metric) of all differentially expressed genes was used to generate a heatmap. Genes were grouped according to the role category of the CMR-JCVI (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>). A chi-square and odd ratios analysis was performed to determine if association exists between the differentially expressed genes and the CMR-JCVI role category (<http://faculty.vassar.edu/lowry/odds2x2.html>). Known and putative genes involved in virulence were identified from the recent genome-wide transcriptional studies [25].

Hemolytic activity assay. An agar based hemolytic assay was performed on the overnight cultures grown in the LB broth supplemented with cellobiose. The blood agar was divided into four sections, and equal volume of bacterial suspensions of the wild-type and the sakacin P-resistant strains were spotted onto each quadrant. A no-growth control (only the broth) and

parallel inoculation of the bacterial suspensions onto TSA were included as a control. All the plates were incubated at 37°C and halos due to hemolytic activity were checked visually after 16-18 h. The assay was done twice on different days in duplicate. Hemolytic activity in the supernatant from the overnight cultures grown in the LB broth supplemented with cellobiose and activated charcoal was analyzed as described previously [38]. A total of six measurements were performed on two samples collected on different days. Viable cell count was performed to check if the addition of activated charcoal had effect on growth. Statistical significance test was performed using a t-test.

Lecithinase activity assay. A lecithinase activity assay was performed on agar containing egg-yolk [59]. The TSA egg-yolk agars were inoculated with the bacterial culture suspension following the same protocol described for the agar based hemolytic activity assay. Halos due to lecithinase activity were estimated after 72 h of incubation at 37°C. The assay was done in two biological duplicates each consisting at least two technical duplicates.

Infection with Listex P100. The *L. monocytogenes* strains were infected with bacteriophage P100 in LB broth supplemented with mannose or cellobiose. Phage titration of the stock solution of Listex P100 was performed following the instruction provided by the supplier (EBI food safety, Wageningen, The Netherlands). The *L. monocytogenes* strains were prepared as described earlier [20] and were infected with 10, 10⁻¹, 10⁻⁶ and 10⁻⁹ MOI (multiplicity of infection). Growth was monitored using a Bioscreen C instrument (Oy Growth Curves Ab Ltd., Helsinki, Finland) at 30°C for 18 h as described [20]. The assay was done twice on different days each consisting six replicates.

Stability of sakacin P resistance. The stability of the sakacin P resistance phenotype of L502-1 and L502-6 was performed as described before [20] with a slight modification. In the present study, CFS from the non-bacteriocinogenic *L. sakei* Lb790(pLPV111) used as a negative control [50]. The stability assay was performed in triplicates on different days.

Validation of microarray data by qRT-PCR assay. The microarray results were validated on six selected genes by qRT-PCR performed as previously described [20]. Selection of genes for the validation assay was following the guidelines suggested by Morey et al. [60]. The primer and probe sets for *actA* (encoding actin assembly-inducing protein), *lmo1251* (encoding a putative CRP-FNR family transcriptional regulator), *glpK* (glycerol kinase) and

kdpA (potassium-transporting ATPase A chain) were designed using Primer Express 3.0. The sets for the *mptA* (mannose permease two, AB subunit) and 16S rRNA have been reported earlier [20] (Table S2).

Microarray data accession number. Microarray data are MIAME compliant. Fully annotated microarray data have been deposited in BμG@Sbase (accession number E-BUGS-110; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/E-BUGS-110>) and also ArrayExpress (accession number E-BUGS-110).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Foundation for Research Levy on Agricultural Products.

We acknowledge BμG@S (the Bacterial Microarray Group at St George's, University of London) for supply of the microarray and advice and The Wellcome Trust for funding the multi-collaborative microbial pathogen microarray facility under its Functional Genomics Resources Initiative.

We are grateful to Jason Hinds, Adam Witney, Denise Waldron, and Kate Gould from the BμG@S for additional assistance with microarrays. We thank Askild Holck for his helpful assistance with bacteriophage Listex P100 experiment.

References

1. Mead PS, Slutsker L, Dietz V, McCaig LF, Bresee JS, et al. (1999) Food-related illness and death in the United States. *Emerg Infect Dis* 5: 607-625.
2. Allerberger F, Wagner M (2010) Listeriosis: a resurgent foodborne infection. *Clin Microbiol Infect* 16: 16-23.
3. Ryser TE, Marth EH (2007) *Listeria*, listeriosis, and food safety. Boca Raton, FL: Taylor and Francis CRC Press.
4. Galvez A, Abriouel H, Lopez RL, Omar NB (2007) Bacteriocin-based strategies for food biopreservation. *Int J Food Microbiol* 120: 51-70.
5. Guinane CM, Cotter PD, Hill C, Ross RP (2005) Microbial solutions to microbial problems; lactococcal bacteriocins for the control of undesirable biota in food. *J Appl Microbiol* 98: 1316-1325.
6. Drider D, Fimland G, Hechard Y, McMullen LM, Prevost H (2006) The continuing story of class IIa bacteriocins. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 70: 564-582.
7. Nes IF, Yoon SS, Diep DB (2007) Ribosomally synthesized antimicrobial peptides (bacteriocins) in lactic acid bacteria: a review. *Food Sci Biotechnol* 16: 675-690.
8. Nissen-Meyer J, Rogne P, Opegard C, Haugen HS, Kristiansen PE (2009) Structure-function relationships of the non-lanthionine-containing peptide (class II) bacteriocins produced by gram-positive bacteria. *Curr Pharm Biotechnol* 10: 19-37.
9. Dykes GA, Hastings JW (1998) Fitness costs associated with class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* B73. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 26: 5-8.
10. Gravesen A, Jydegaard Axelsen A-M, Mendes da Silva J, Hansen TB, Knochel S (2002) Frequency of bacteriocin resistance development and associated fitness costs in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 68: 756-764.
11. Dalet K, Cenatiempo Y, Cossart P, Hechard Y (2001) A σ^{54} -dependent PTS permease of the mannose family is responsible for sensitivity of *Listeria monocytogenes* to mesentericin Y105. *Microbiology* 147: 3263-3269.
12. Diep DB, Skaugen M, Salehian Z, Holo H, Nes IF (2007) Common mechanisms of target cell recognition and immunity for class II bacteriocins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104: 2384-2389.
13. Ramnath M, Beukes M, Tamura K, Hastings JW (2000) Absence of a putative mannose-specific phosphotransferase system enzyme IIAB component in a leucocin A-resistant strain of *Listeria monocytogenes*, as shown by two-dimensional sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 66: 3098-3101.
14. Arous S, Dalet K, Hechard Y (2004) Involvement of the *mpe* operon in resistance to class IIa bacteriocins in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 238: 37-41.
15. Vadyvaloo V, Arous S, Gravesen A, Hechard Y, Chauhan-Haubrock R, et al. (2004) Cell-surface alterations in class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* strains. *Microbiology* 150: 3025-3033.
16. Hechard Y, Pelletier C, Cenatiempo Y, Frere J (2001) Analysis of σ^{54} -dependent genes in *Enterococcus faecalis*: a mannose PTS permease (EII^{Man}) is involved in sensitivity to a bacteriocin, mesentericin Y105. *Microbiology* 147: 1575-1580.
17. Kjos M, Salehian Z, Nes IF, Diep DB (2010) An extracellular loop of the mannose phosphotransferase system component IIC is responsible for specific targeting by class IIa bacteriocins. *J Bacteriol*: In press.

18. Opsata M, Nes I, Holo H (2010) Class IIa bacteriocin resistance in *Enterococcus faecalis* V583: the mannose PTS operon mediates global transcriptional responses. *BMC Microbiol* 10: 224.
19. Gravesen A, Kallipolitis B, Holmstrom K, Hoiby PE, Ramnath M, et al. (2004) *pbp2229*-mediated nisin resistance mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes* confers cross-protection to class IIa bacteriocins and affects virulence gene expression. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 70: 1669-1679.
20. Tessema GT, Moretro T, Kohler A, Axelsson L, Naterstad K (2009) Complex phenotypic and genotypic responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains exposed to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 75: 6973-6980.
21. D'Angelis CEM, Polizello ACM, Nonato MC, Spadaro ACC, Martinis ECPD (2009) Purification, characterization and N-terminal amino acid sequencing of sakacin 1, a bacteriocin produced by *Lactobacillus sakei* 1. *J Food Saf* 29: 636-649.
22. Martinez RCR, De Martinis ECP (2005) Evaluation of bacteriocin-producing *Lactobacillus sakei* 1 against *Listeria monocytogenes* 1/2a growth and haemolytic activity. *Braz J Microbiol* 36: 83-87.
23. Vignolo G, Palacios J, Farias ME, Sesma F, Schillinger U, et al. (2000) Combined effect of bacteriocins on the survival of various *Listeria* species in broth and meat system. *Curr Microbiol* 41: 410-416.
24. Rodriguez JM, Martinez MI, Kok J (2002) Pediocin PA-1, a wide-spectrum bacteriocin from lactic acid bacteria. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 42: 91-121.
25. Toledo-Arana A, Dussurget O, Nikitas G, Sesto N, Guet-Revillet H, et al. (2009) The *Listeria* transcriptional landscape from saprophytism to virulence. *Nature* 459: 950-956.
26. Stoll R, Goebel W (2010) The major PEP-phosphotransferase systems (PTSs) for glucose, mannose and cellobiose of *Listeria monocytogenes*, and their significance for extra- and intracellular growth. *Microbiology* 156: 1069-1083.
27. Kjos M, Nes IF, Diep DB (2009) Class II one-peptide bacteriocins target a phylogenetically defined subgroup of mannose phosphotransferase systems on sensitive cells. *Microbiology* 155: 2949-2961.
28. Gravesen A, Ramnath M, Rechinger KB, Andersen N, Jansch L, et al. (2002) High-level resistance to class IIa bacteriocins is associated with one general mechanism in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Microbiology* 148: 2361-2369.
29. Robichon D, Gouin E, Debarbouille M, Cossart P, Cenatiempo Y, et al. (1997) The *rpoN* (σ^{54}) gene from *Listeria monocytogenes* is involved in resistance to mesentericin Y105, an antibacterial peptide from *Leuconostoc mesenteroides*. *J Bacteriol* 179: 7591-7594.
30. Larsen MH, Kallipolitis BH, Christiansen JK, Olsen JE, Ingmer H (2006) The response regulator ResD modulates virulence gene expression in response to carbohydrates in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Mol Microbiol* 61: 1622-1635.
31. Vu-Khac H, Miller KW (2009) Regulation of mannose phosphotransferase system permease and virulence gene expression in *Listeria monocytogenes* by the EII_t^{Man} transporter. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 75: 6671-6678.
32. Stoll R, Mertins S, Joseph B, Muller-Altrock S, Goebel W (2008) Modulation of PrfA activity in *Listeria monocytogenes* upon growth in different culture media. *Microbiology* 154: 3856-3876.
33. Vadyvaloo V, Hastings JW, van der Merwe MJ, Rautenbach M (2002) Membranes of class IIa bacteriocin-resistant *Listeria monocytogenes* cells contain increased levels of desaturated and short-acyl-chain phosphatidylglycerols. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 68: 5223-5230.
34. Naghmouchi K, Kheadr E, Lacroix C, Fliss I (2007) Class I/Class IIa bacteriocin cross-resistance phenomenon in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Food Microbiol* 24: 718-727.

35. Rajashekara G, Drozd M, Gangaiah D, Jeon B, Liu Z, et al. (2009) Functional characterization of the twin-arginine translocation system in *Campylobacter jejuni*. *Foodborne Pathog Dis* 6: 935-945.
36. McDonough JA, Hacker KE, Flores AR, Pavelka MS, Jr, Braunstein M (2005) The twin-argininetranslocation pathway of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* is functional and required for the export of mycobacterial β -lactamases. *J Bacteriol* 187: 7667-7679.
37. Miwa Y, Nakata A, Ogiwara A, Yamamoto M, Fujita Y (2000) Evaluation and characterization of catabolite-responsive elements (*cre*) of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Nucleic Acids Res* 28: 1206-1210.
38. Mertins S, Joseph B, Goetz M, Ecke R, Seidel G, et al. (2007) Interference of components of the phosphoenolpyruvate phosphotransferase system with the central virulence gene regulator PrfA of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J Bacteriol* 189: 473-490.
39. Kim HJ, Mittal M, Sonenshein AL (2006) CcpC-dependent regulation of *citB* and *lmo0847* in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J Bacteriol* 188: 179-190.
40. Fujita Y (2009) Carbon catabolite control of the metabolic network in *Bacillus subtilis*. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 73: 245-259.
41. Abranches J, Candella MM, Wen ZT, Baker HV, Burne RA (2006) Different roles of EIIAB^{Man} and EIIA^{Glc} in regulation of energy metabolism, biofilm development, and competence in *Streptococcus mutans*. *J Bacteriol* 188: 3748-3756.
42. Stevens MJA, Molenaar D, de Jong A, De Vos WM, Kleerebezem M (2010) Involvement of the mannose phosphotransferase system of *Lactobacillus plantarum* WCFS1 in peroxide stress tolerance. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 76: 3748-3752.
43. Liu D (2008) *Handbook of Listeria Monocytogenes*. Boca Raton, FL: Taylor and Francis CRC Press.
44. Korner H, Sofia HJ, Zumft WG (2003) Phylogeny of the bacterial superfamily of Crp-Fnr transcription regulators: exploiting the metabolic spectrum by controlling alternative gene programs. *Fems Microbiology Reviews* 27: 559-592.
45. Mandin P, Fsihi H, Dussurget O, Vergassola M, Milohanic E, et al. (2005) VirR, a response regulator critical for *Listeria monocytogenes* virulence. *Mol Microbiol* 57: 1367-1380.
46. Bierne H, Garandeau C, Pucciarelli MG, Sabet C, Newton S, et al. (2004) Sortase B, a new class of sortase in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *J Bacteriol* 186: 1972-1982.
47. Carlton RM, Noordman WH, Biswas B, de Meester ED, Loessner MJ (2005) Bacteriophage P100 for control of *Listeria monocytogenes* in foods: genome sequence, bioinformatic analyses, oral toxicity study, and application. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol* 43: 301-312.
48. Soni KA, Nannapaneni R, Hagens S (2009) Reduction of *Listeria monocytogenes* on the surface of fresh channel catfish filets by bacteriophage Listex P100. *Foodborne Pathog Dis* 7: 427-434.
49. Elliott J, Arber W (1978) *Escherichia coli* mutants which block phage lambda DNA injection coincide with *ptsM* which determines a component of a sugar transport system. *Mol Gen Genet* 161: 1-8.
50. Moretro T, Naterstad K, Wang E, Aasen IM, Chaillou S, et al. (2005) Sakacin P non-producing *Lactobacillus sakei* strains contain homologues of the sakacin P gene cluster. *Res Microbiol* 156: 949-960.
51. Katla T, Naterstad K, Vancanneyt M, Swings J, Axelsson L (2003) Differences in susceptibility of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains to sakacin P, sakacin A, pediocin PA-1, and nisin. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 69: 4431-4437.

52. Bennett HJ, Pearce DM, Glenn S, Taylor CM, Kuhn M, et al. (2007) Characterization of *relA* and *codY* mutants of *Listeria monocytogenes*: identification of the CodY regulon and its role in virulence. *Mol Microbiol* 63: 1453-1467.
53. Hinds J, Laing KG, Mangan JA, Butcher PD (2002) Glass slide microarrays for bacterial genomes. In: Wren B, Dorrell N, editors. *Methods in microbiology: functional microbial genomics*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press. pp. 83-99.
54. Smyth GK (2005) Limma: linear models for microarray data. In: R. Gentleman, V. Carey, S. Dudoit, R. Irizarry, Huber W, editors. *Bioinformatics and computational biology solutions using R and Bioconductor*. New York, NY: Springer. pp. 397-420.
55. Smyth GK, Speed T (2003) Normalization of cDNA microarray data. *Methods* 31: 265-273.
56. Smyth GK (2004) Linear models and empirical Bayes methods for assessing differential expression in microarray experiments. *Stat Appl Genet Mol Biol* 3: 1-25.
57. Smyth GK, Michaud J, Scott HS (2005) Use of within-array replicate spots for assessing differential expression in microarray experiments. *Bioinformatics* 21: 2067-2075.
58. Dieterich G, Karst U, Fischer E, Wehland J, Jansch L (2006) LEGER: knowledge database and visualization tool for comparative genomics of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Listeria* species. *Nucl Acids Res* 34: D402-406.
59. Coffey A, Rombouts F, Abee T (1996) Influence of environmental parameters on phosphatidylcholine phospholipase C production in *Listeria monocytogenes*: a convenient method to differentiate *L. monocytogenes* from other *Listeria* species. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 62: 1252-1256.
60. Morey J, Ryan J, Van Dolah F (2006) Microarray validation: factors influencing correlation between oligonucleotide microarrays and real-time PCR. *Biol Proced Online* 8: 175-193.

Table 1. The sakacin P-resistant strains of *L. monocytogenes* L502 used in this study.

Sakacin P resistant strains	Characteristics^a			
	Level of resistance to sakacin P	Growth rate on mannose (%)	Growth rate on cellobiose (%)	<i>mptA</i> gene expression
L502-1	>10 ⁶	82	107	repressed
L502-6	10 ³	44	105	induced

^a relative to the wild-type strain (mutant/wild-type) and detail can be found in reference [20].

Table 2. Differentially regulated genes in L502-1 during growth on both sugars.

Locus (gene)	Product (similar to)	Mannose ^a		Cellobiose	
		Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0027	PTS, beta-glucosides specific enzyme IIABC	1.5	10 ⁻⁵	4.1	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0096 (<i>mptA</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIAB	-2.3	10 ⁻⁷	1.4	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0097 (<i>mptC</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIC	-2.4	10 ⁻⁹	1.5	10 ⁻⁶
lmo0098 (<i>mptD</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IID	-2.4	10 ⁻¹¹	1.4	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0204 (<i>actA</i>)	actin-assembly inducing protein precursor	-0.7	10 ⁻⁵	-0.8	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0781 (<i>mpoD</i>)	mannose-specific PTS component IID	1.2	10 ⁻⁶	1	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0782 (<i>mpoC</i>)	mannose-specific PTS component IIC	1.4	10 ⁻⁶	1.7	10 ⁻⁸
lmo0783 (<i>mpoB</i>)	mannose-specific PTS component IIB	1.2	10 ⁻⁶	1.9	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0784 (<i>mpoA</i>)	mannose-specific PTS component IIA	1.5	10 ⁻⁶	2.1	10 ⁻⁹
lmo0848	amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	0.6	10 ⁻⁴	0.7	10 ⁻⁶
lmo1251	regulator of the Fnr CRP family (including PrfA)	-1.4	10 ⁻⁷	-1.4	10 ⁻⁶
lmo1254	alpha, alpha-phosphotrehalase	2.3	10 ⁻⁸	0.6	10 ⁻⁵
lmo1255	PTS trehalose specific enzyme IIBC	2.5	10 ⁻⁹	0.6	10 ⁻⁷
lmo2250 (<i>arpJ</i>)	amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein	-0.7	10 ⁻⁷	-0.6	10 ⁻³
lmo2683	cellobiose PTS enzyme IIB component	-1.5	10 ⁻⁶	-1.4	10 ⁻⁸
lmo2684	cellobiose PTS enzyme IIC component	-1.7	10 ⁻⁹	-0.8	10 ⁻⁶
lmo2685	cellobiose PTS enzyme IIA component	-1.3	10 ⁻⁶	-1.4	10 ⁻⁸

^aDifferentially regulated genes in the high level sakacin P-resistant strain (L502-1) during growth on mannose and on cellobiose. Log2 (expression ratio) is relative to the wild-type strain and q-value is a p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate.

Table 3. Differentially regulated genes in L502-6 during growth on both sugars.

Locus (gene)	Product (similar to)	Mannose ^a		Cellobiose	
		Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0096 (<i>mptA</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIAB	1.6	10 ⁻⁷	2.6	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0097 (<i>mptC</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIC	1.6	10 ⁻⁶	2.7	10 ⁻⁷
lmo0098 (<i>mptD</i>)	PTS mannose-specific, factor IID	1.6	10 ⁻⁶	2.6	10 ⁻⁹
lmo0099	unknown	1.5	10 ⁻⁶	0.8	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0361 (<i>tatC</i>)	twin arginine translocase C	1.2	10 ⁻⁵	1.2	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0362 (<i>tatA</i>)	twin arginine translocase A	0.9	10 ⁻⁴	1.0	10 ⁻³
lmo0365	conserved hypothetical protein	1.4	10 ⁻⁴	1.5	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0366	putative lipoprotein	1.1	10 ⁻⁵	1.2	10 ⁻³
lmo0367	<i>B. subtilis</i> YwbN protein	1.4	10 ⁻⁵	1.5	10 ⁻⁴
lmo0433 (<i>inlA</i>)	internalin A	-0.8	10 ⁻⁶	-0.6	10 ⁻⁵
lmo0485	unknown	0.6	10 ⁻³	0.8	10 ⁻³
lmo0541	ABC transporter (binding protein)	0.8	10 ⁻³	1.0	10 ⁻³
lmo0847	glutamine ABC transporter (binding and transport protein)	0.7	10 ⁻⁵	1.0	10 ⁻⁵
lmo0848	amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein	0.7	10 ⁻⁵	0.9	10 ⁻⁴
lmo1007	unknown	0.7	10 ⁻⁴	0.7	10 ⁻³
lmo1251	regulator of the Fnr CRP family (including PrfA)	-2.0	10 ⁻⁶	-1.6	10 ⁻⁵
lmo1566 (<i>citC</i>)	isocitrate dehydrogenases	0.7	10 ⁻³	0.7	10 ⁻³
lmo1567 (<i>citZ</i>)	citrate synthase subunit II	0.8	10 ⁻⁵	0.8	10 ⁻⁴
lmo1641	aconitate hydratases	0.8	10 ⁻⁴	0.9	10 ⁻⁵
lmo1957 (<i>fhuG</i>)	ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)	0.6	10 ⁻⁴	0.7	10 ⁻³
lmo1958 (<i>fhuB</i>)	ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)	0.6	10 ⁻⁴	0.7	10 ⁻³
lmo1959 (<i>fhuD</i>)	ferrichrome binding protein	0.8	10 ⁻⁵	1.0	10 ⁻³
lmo1960 (<i>fhuC</i>)	ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)	0.6	10 ⁻⁴	0.6	10 ⁻³
lmo2181 (<i>srtB</i>)	Sortase B protein	0.9	10 ⁻⁴	1.0	10 ⁻³
lmo2182	ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)	0.9	10 ⁻⁴	1.1	10 ⁻³
lmo2183	ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)	0.9	10 ⁻⁵	1.0	10 ⁻³
lmo2184	ferrichrome ABC transporter (binding protein)	1.2	10 ⁻⁴	1.2	10 ⁻⁴
lmo2185 (<i>svpA</i>)	surface virulence-associated protein, substrate for SrtB	1.1	10 ⁻⁴	1.2	10 ⁻³
lmo2186 (<i>isdC</i>)	iron-regulated surface determinants, substrate for SrtB	1.3	10 ⁻⁴	1.4	10 ⁻⁴
lmo2363 (<i>gadD2</i>)	glutamate decarboxylase	-0.8	10 ⁻³	-1.1	10 ⁻³
lmo2781	beta-glucosidase	0.8	10 ⁻⁶	0.6	10 ⁻⁵

^aDifferentially regulated genes in the low level sakacin P-resistant strain (L502-6) during growth on mannose and on cellobiose. Log2 (expression ratio) is relative to the wild-type strain and q-value is a p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. PCA score plot of the differentially regulated genes in the sakacin P-resistant strains. PCA score plot displaying global transcriptome profile of L502-1 grown on mannose (◆), L502-1 grown on cellobiose (◇), L502-6 grown on mannose (●) and L502-6 grown on cellobiose (○). The two biological samples and their dye-swap replicates were included in the PCA. The explained variances for the two first components; PC1 and PC2 are 53% and 27% respectively.

Figure 2. Presentation of the differentially regulated genes using a Venn diagram and heatmap. (A) A Venn diagram showing total number of common and specific genes differentially regulated in the sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L502-6) grown on mannose (M) or cellobiose (C). (B) A heatmap showing the differentially regulated genes in the sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L502-6) during growth on mannose (M) or on cellobiose (C). The designated biological role(s) of proteins encoded by the genes with similar pattern of regulations are shown in bracket. Color code: red, up-regulated; green, down-regulated; black, not differentially expressed.

Figure 3. Differentially regulated virulence determinant genes. Virulence determinant genes regulated in the sakacin P-resistant strains in any of the growth conditions. List of virulent determinate genes were taken from reference [25].

Figure 4. *In vitro* hemolytic and lecithinase activities. (A) Hemolytic activity on thin blood agar and (B) Lecithinase activity on egg-yolk agar of the wild-type (L502) and the sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L502-6). Images are a representative of two independent experiments each consisting of duplicates with reproducible results.

Figure 5. Infection with the lytic bacteriophage P100.

Growth of the sakacin P-resistant strains and the wild-type (A) not infected with the phage P100 and (B) infected with phage P100 at MOI of 10^{-9} . Symbols: L502 grown on mannose, ▲; L502 on cellobiose, △; L502-1 on mannose, ◆; L502-1 on cellobiose, ◇; L502-6 on mannose, ●; L502-6 on cellobiose, ○. Values shown are mean and standard error of the mean (error bars) of a representative of two independent experiments with six measurements each.

Figure 1

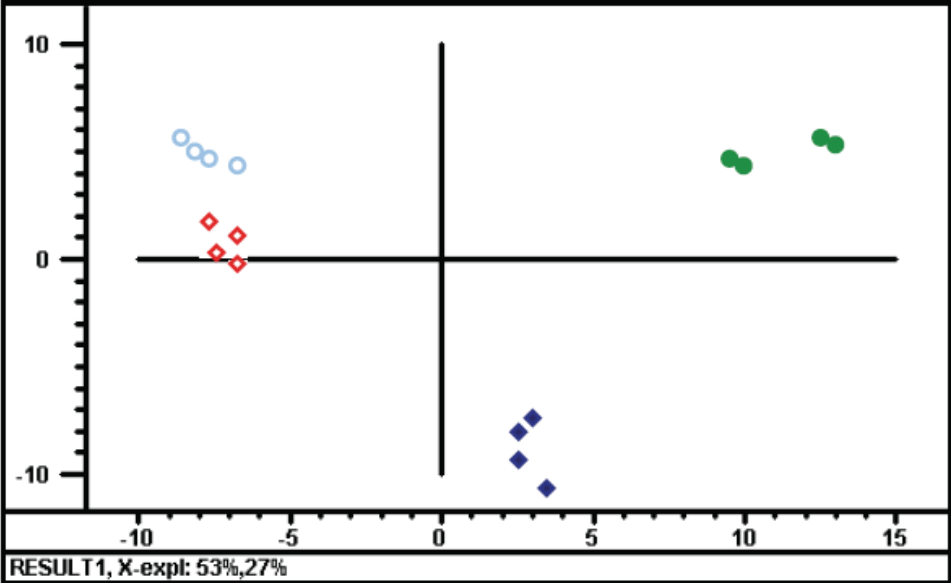
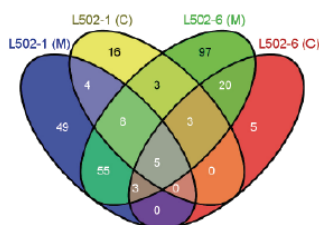


Figure 2

A



B

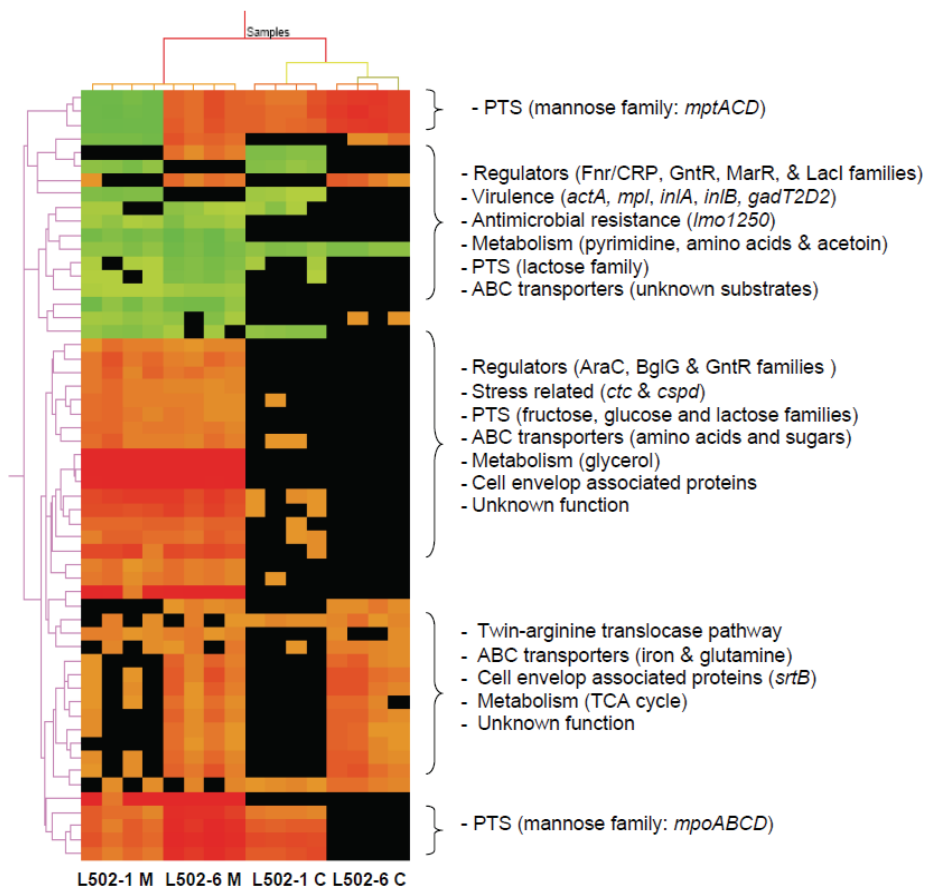


Figure 3

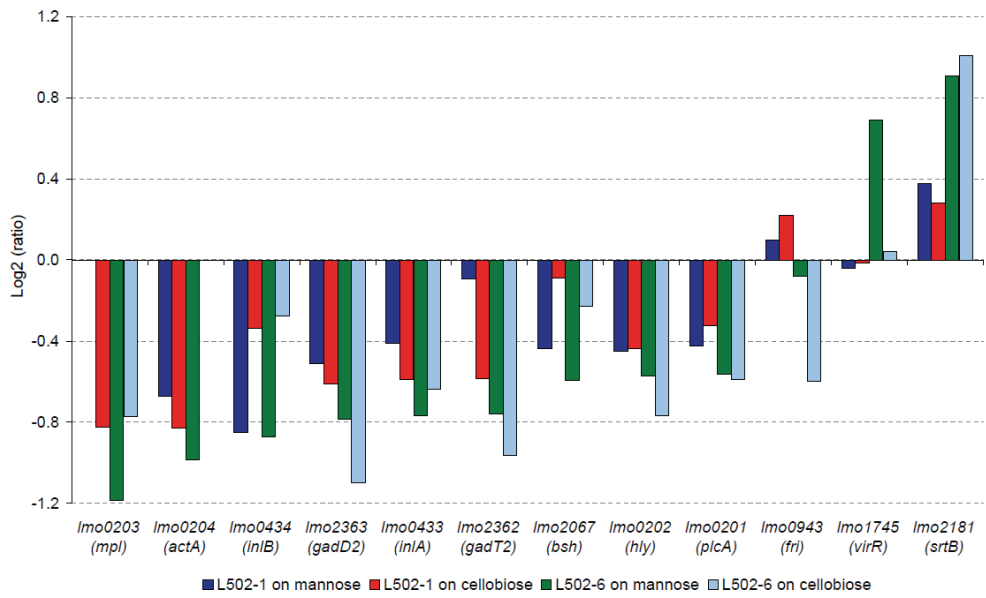


Figure 4

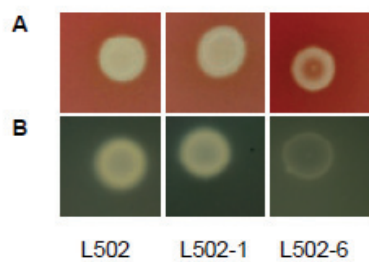
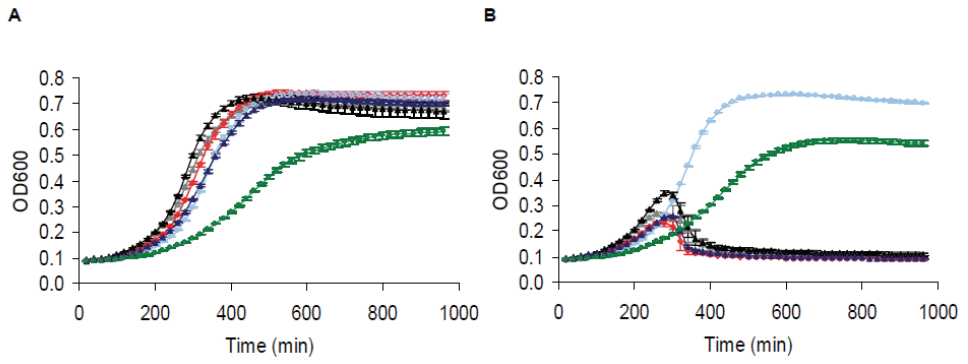
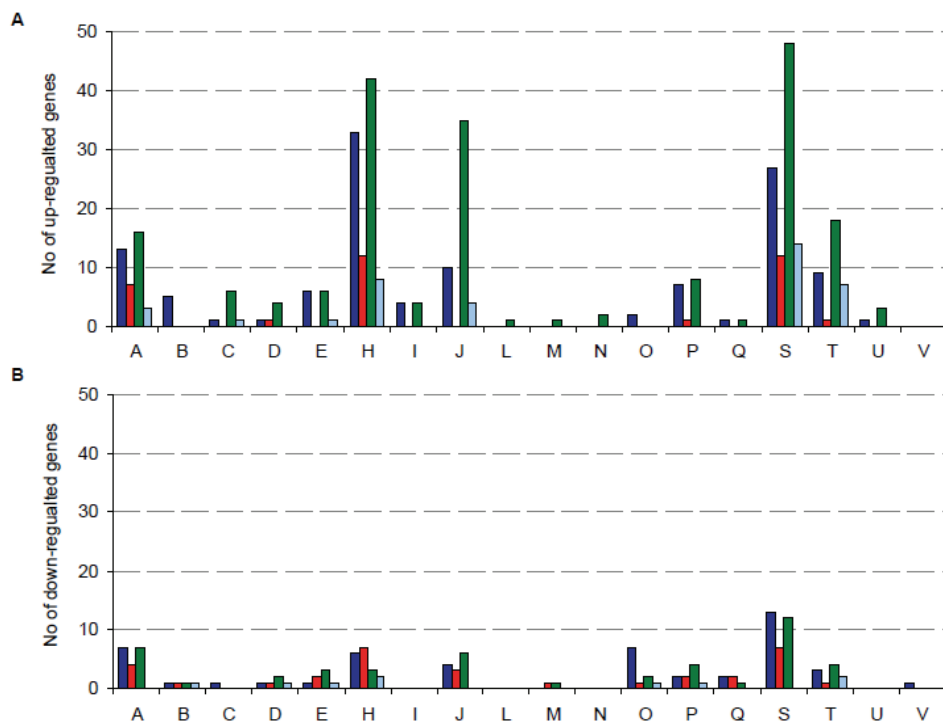


Figure 5



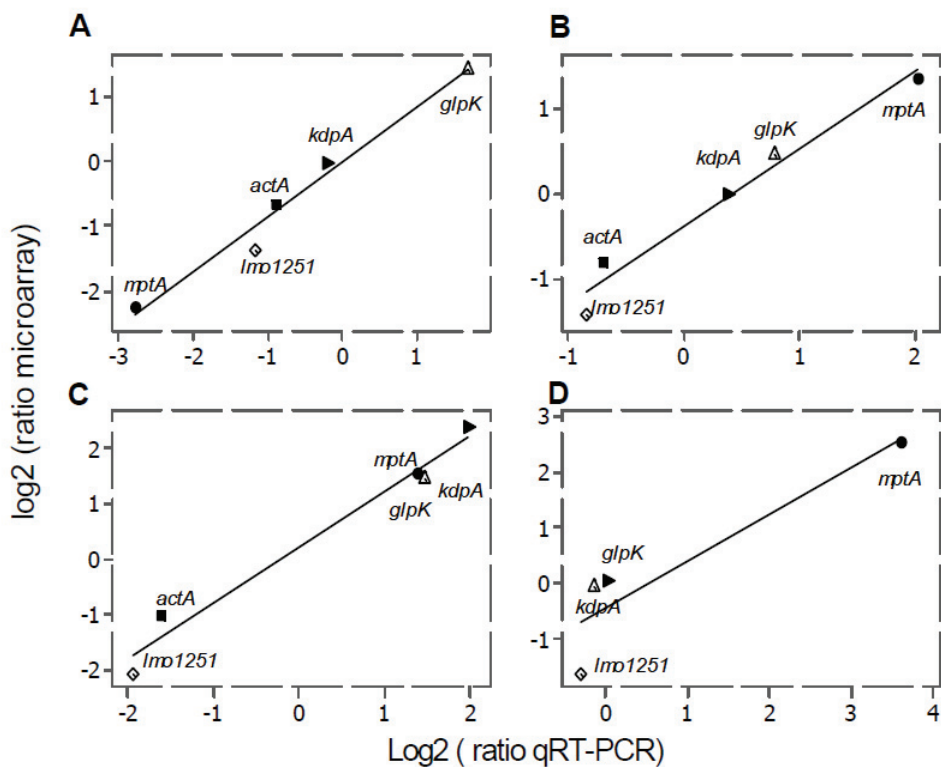
Supporting Information

Figure S1. Total number of regulated genes grouped according to their biological role.



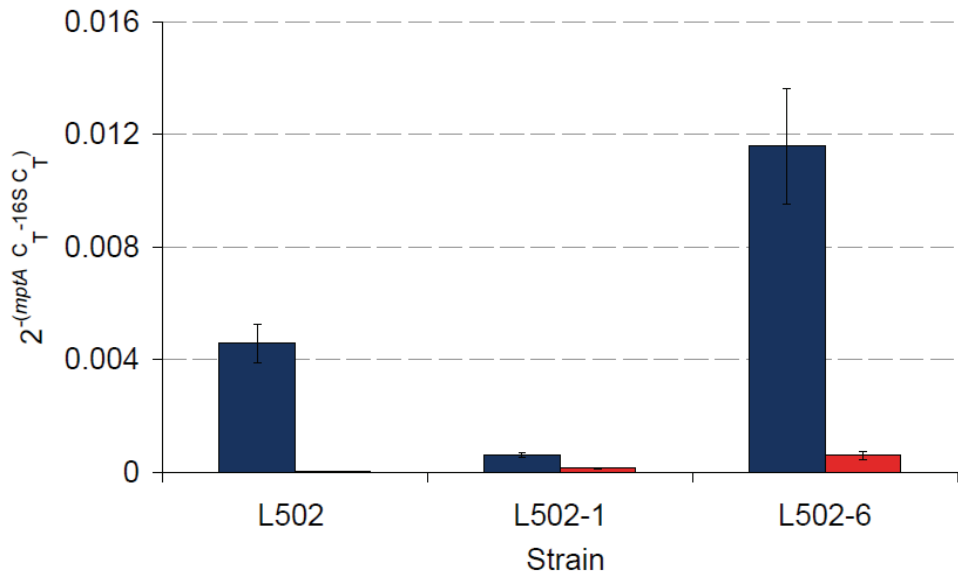
Total number of (A) up-regulated and (B) down-regulated genes in different functional role categories according to the primary annotation in CMR-JCVI *L. monocytogenes* EGDe genome database in the L502-1 grown on mannose (■), L502-1 grown on cellobiose (■), L502-6 grown on mannose (■) and L502-6 grown on cellobiose (■). A, Amino acid biosynthesis; B, Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers; C, Cell envelope; D, Cellular processes; E, Central intermediary metabolism; H, Energy metabolism; I, Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism; J, Hypothetical proteins; L, Mobile and extrachromosomal element functions; M, Protein fate; N, Protein synthesis; O, Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides; P, Regulatory functions; Q, Signal transduction; S, Transport and binding proteins; T, Unclassified; U, Unknown function; V, Viral functions.

Figure S2. Validation of the microarray data by qRT-PCR analysis.



Validation of microarray data (y-axis) by qRT-PCR analysis (x-axis) on six genes. The transcriptional studies for the sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-1 and L502-6) and the wild-type (L502) was performed during growth on mannose or cellobiose. (A) L502-1 grown on mannose (B) L502-1 grown on cellobiose, (C) L502-6 grown on mannose, and (D) L502-6 grown on cellobiose and all the \log_2 ratio values are relative to the wild-type (L502) grown on the respective sugars. The data presented here represent results from two biological replicates.

Figure S3. Transcript level of the *mptA* gene.



Transcript level of the *mptA* gene extracted from qRT-PCR analysis in the sakacin P-resistant (L502-1 and L502-6) and the wild-type (L502) strain during growth on mannose (■) or cellobiose (■). Error bar indicates the standard error of the mean of two independent experiments.

Table S1. List of all differentially regulated genes.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	L502-1 (M) ^b		L502-1 (C)		L502-6 (M)		L502-6 (C)	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
Amino acid biosynthesis											
lmo1588	<i>argD</i>	N-acetylmethionine aminotransferase		-0.45	0.028	-0.26	0.046	-0.92	0.001	-0.11	0.462
lmo1589	<i>argB</i>	N-acetylglutamate 5-phosphotransferase		-0.35	0.167	-0.21	0.002	-0.98	0.001	0.02	0.862
lmo1590	<i>argJ</i>	ornithine acetyltransferase and amino-acid acetyltransferases		NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.62	0.006	-0.06	0.614
lmo2006	<i>alsS</i>	alpha-acetolactate synthase protein, AlsS		-0.93	0.000	-0.32	0.001	-1.18	0.000	0.17	0.183
lmo2090	<i>argG</i>	argininosuccinate synthase		-0.42	0.000	-0.53	0.011	-1.27	0.000	0.58	0.041
lmo2091	<i>argH</i>	argininosuccinate lyase		-0.29	0.308	-0.35	0.012	-1.35	0.001	0.18	0.422
lmo2252		aspartate aminotransferase		-0.59	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-1.44	0.000	-0.21	0.004
Bioynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers											
lmo1042		molybdopterin biosynthesis protein moeA		0.64	0.000	0.12	0.220	0.52	0.000	0.02	0.840
lmo1043		molybdopterin-guanine dinucleotide biosynthesis MobB		0.69	0.000	0.15	0.036	0.51	0.000	0.04	0.493
lmo1045		molybdopterin converting factor (subunit 1)		0.59	0.000	0.11	0.152	0.39	0.000	0.00	0.971
lmo1046	<i>moaC</i>	molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis protein C		0.60	0.000	0.14	0.066	0.50	0.000	0.04	0.568
lmo1047		molybdenum cofactor biosynthesis protein A		0.64	0.000	0.15	0.028	0.49	0.000	-0.02	0.804
lmo1194	<i>cbiD</i>	cobalamin biosynthesis protein CbiD		-0.68	0.001	-0.39	0.054	0.06	0.233	-0.02	0.832
Cell envelope											
lmo0129		autolysin: N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase		-0.73	0.000	-0.30	0.104	0.11	0.386	-0.23	0.220
lmo0195		membrane protein (putative ABC transporter)		-0.16	0.017	0.01	0.913	1.90	0.000	0.10	0.109
lmo0366		conserved hypothetical protein, putative lipoprotein		0.39	0.002	0.38	0.273	1.14	0.000	1.23	0.001
lmo0880		wall associated protein precursor (LPXTG motif)		0.12	0.155	0.06	0.883	1.02	0.001	-0.03	0.826
lmo1044		molybdopterin converting factor, subunit 2		0.66	0.000	0.13	0.298	0.53	0.000	0.00	0.990
lmo1215		N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase (autolysin)		-0.10	0.065	-0.10	0.169	1.10	0.000	-0.10	0.066
lmo2229		penicillin-binding protein		-0.06	0.483	-0.04	0.683	0.89	0.000	-0.01	0.891
lmo2484		<i>B. subtilis</i> YvID protein		-0.08	0.394	-0.09	0.214	2.73	0.000	-0.01	0.958
Cellular processes											
lmo0028		<i>E. coli</i> microcin C7 self-immunity protein (MccF)		0.07	0.398	2.24	0.000	-0.30	0.114	0.25	0.069
lmo0433	<i>inlA</i>	internalin A		-0.41	0.000	-0.59	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo0434	<i>inlB</i>	internalin B		-0.85	0.000	-0.34	0.088	-0.87	0.001	-0.27	0.035
lmo0601		cell surface protein		-0.04	0.483	-0.09	0.430	0.68	0.000	-0.01	0.951
lmo1879	<i>cspD</i>	cold shock protein		1.21	0.000	0.36	0.002	0.84	0.000	0.06	0.773
lmo1967		toxic ion resistance proteins		-0.10	0.271	-0.06	0.556	1.99	0.000	0.20	0.397
lmo2230		arsenate reductase		-0.01	0.928	0.06	0.622	0.90	0.000	0.04	0.784
Central intermediary metabolism											
lmo0372		beta-glucosidase		-1.85	0.000	0.10	0.304	-2.21	0.000	0.06	0.818
lmo0574		beta-glucosidase		0.25	0.001	-0.97	0.000	0.15	0.038	-0.21	0.019
lmo0877		<i>B. subtilis</i> NagB protein		0.61	0.001	0.21	0.053	0.50	0.011	0.04	0.515
lmo0878		oxidoreductases		0.68	0.000	0.22	0.023	0.50	0.000	0.03	0.671
lmo2555		human N-acetylglucosaminyl-phosphatidylinositol biosynthetic protein	N	-0.15	0.002	-0.09	0.215	0.80	0.000	0.03	0.620
lmo2721		glucosamine-6-phosphate isomerase		-0.50	0.001	-0.25	0.001	-0.62	0.000	-0.27	0.091
lmo2798		phosphatase		0.84	0.000	0.17	0.160	0.87	0.001	0.28	0.056
Energy metabolism											
lmo0105		chitinase B		0.56	0.033	-1.61	0.000	1.02	0.000	-0.09	0.166
lmo0261		phospho-beta-glucosidase		0.53	0.000	0.14	0.059	0.63	0.000	0.19	0.018
lmo0319		phospho-beta-glucosidase		0.31	0.000	2.61	0.000	0.25	0.010	0.49	0.014
lmo0343		transaldolase		0.84	0.000	0.32	0.003	0.81	0.000	0.25	0.006
lmo0344		dehydrogenase/reductase		0.80	0.000	0.36	0.005	0.74	0.000	0.30	0.002
lmo0345		sugar-phosphate isomerase		0.96	0.000	0.27	0.006	0.75	0.000	0.11	0.686
lmo0346		triosephosphate isomerase		0.60	0.013	0.37	0.090	0.63	0.004	0.14	0.342
lmo0347		dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	0.81	0.001	0.29	0.032	0.77	0.007	0.19	0.140
lmo0485			E	0.06	0.704	0.25	0.208	0.65	0.007	0.79	0.002
lmo0517		phosphoglycerate mutase		0.25	0.097	2.45	0.000	NA	NA	0.79	0.010
lmo0643		putative transaldolase		0.78	0.000	0.37	0.006	0.42	0.000	0.04	0.832
lmo0813		fructokinases		1.10	0.000	-0.20	0.238	0.83	0.000	0.29	0.013
lmo0917		beta-glucosidase		0.89	0.000	0.05	0.391	1.01	0.000	0.16	0.039
lmo0943	<i>fri</i>	non-heme iron-binding ferritin		0.10	0.496	0.22	0.067	-0.08	0.535	-0.60	0.008
lmo1254		alpha-alpha-phosphotriphalase		2.30	0.000	0.59	0.000	2.01	0.000	0.08	0.224
lmo1293	<i>glpD</i>	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase		1.98	0.000	0.54	0.000	2.11	0.000	0.09	0.178
lmo1406	<i>pflB</i>	pyruvate formate-lyase		-0.20	0.091	-0.64	0.000	-0.15	0.018	0.10	0.092
lmo1538	<i>glpK</i>	glycerol kinase		1.43	0.000	0.46	0.000	1.46	0.000	-0.02	0.803
lmo1566	<i>citC</i>	isocitrate dehydrogenases		0.46	0.154	0.45	0.011	0.68	0.006	0.71	0.005
lmo1567	<i>citZ</i>	citrate synthase subunit II		0.55	0.037	0.40	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.82	0.001
lmo1579		alanine dehydrogenase		-0.04	0.440	-0.14	0.226	0.80	0.009	-0.33	0.309
lmo1641	<i>citB</i>	aconitate hydratases		0.59	0.001	0.47	0.003	0.84	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo1992	<i>alsD</i>	alpha-acetolactate decarboxylase		-0.43	0.000	-0.24	0.001	-0.70	0.000	-0.07	0.506
lmo2122		maltodextrase utilization protein MalA	A	0.61	0.000	0.23	0.121	0.17	0.219	0.33	0.100
lmo2124		maltodextrin ABC-transport system (permease)		0.68	0.000	0.20	0.207	0.34	0.001	0.35	0.038
lmo2159		oxidoreductase	E	1.11	0.000	0.25	0.027	0.82	0.000	0.34	0.020
lmo2163		glutamate decarboxylase	E	1.28	0.000	0.34	0.058	1.07	0.000	0.41	0.035
lmo2363	<i>gadD2</i>	transcription antiterminator	B,E,O	-0.51	0.021	-0.61	0.006	-0.78	0.008	-1.10	0.001
lmo2436		transcription antiterminator		0.32	0.000	2.15	0.000	0.18	0.014	0.44	0.047
lmo2584		formate dehydrogenase associated protein		0.65	0.000	0.19	0.061	0.41	0.000	-0.11	0.154
lmo2586		formate dehydrogenase alpha chain		1.13	0.000	0.25	0.018	0.87	0.000	-0.11	0.128
lmo2664		sorbitol dehydrogenase	E	0.60	0.000	0.15	0.015	0.14	0.033	-0.17	0.029
lmo2695		dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	0.61	0.000	0.16	0.070	0.95	0.000	0.05	0.370
lmo2696		hypothetical dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	0.57	0.000	0.15	0.027	0.94	0.000	0.11	0.103
lmo2720	<i>acs</i>	acetate-CoA ligase		-0.66	0.000	-0.36	0.004	-1.02	0.000	-0.21	0.011
lmo2743		transaldolase		0.75	0.000	0.09	0.447	0.81	0.000	0.15	0.061
lmo2771		beta-glucosidase		0.35	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.09	0.180	0.13	0.279
lmo2836		alcohol dehydrogenase	E	0.29	0.001	0.16	0.339	0.65	0.002	0.23	0.440
lmo2840		sucrose phosphorylase	O	0.64	0.001	0.26	0.057	0.47	0.000	0.34	0.028

Table S1. continued.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	L502-1 (M) ^b		L502-1 (C)		L502-6 (M)		L502-6 (C)	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism											
lmo0110		lipase		0.90	0.001	0.36	0.041	0.74	0.005	0.06	0.858
lmo2175		dehydrogenase		0.60	0.001	0.39	0.004	0.45	0.030	-0.14	0.354
Hypothetical proteins											
lmo0099				-1.96	0.000	0.30	0.002	1.49	0.000	0.80	0.001
lmo0119				-0.70	0.000	-0.23	0.104	-0.20	0.478	NA	NA
lmo0120				-0.97	0.012	-0.69	0.004	0.09	0.442	-0.27	0.309
lmo0125				-0.63	0.004	-0.23	0.324	-0.24	0.160	-0.12	0.677
lmo0127		protein gp20 from Bacteriophage A118		-0.82	0.000	-0.17	0.491	-0.12	0.558	-0.09	0.748
lmo0193				-0.14	0.004	0.00	0.972	2.21	0.000	0.18	0.082
lmo0323		unknown proteins		0.64	0.000	0.41	0.000	0.77	0.001	0.25	0.046
lmo0335				NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.65	0.007	NA	NA
lmo0349				0.66	0.004	0.29	0.097	1.00	0.000	0.34	0.368
lmo0350				0.43	0.022	0.20	0.107	0.59	0.000	0.20	0.163
lmo0365		conserved hypothetical protein		0.41	0.009	0.46	0.212	1.38	0.000	1.52	0.000
lmo0391				0.50	0.000	0.16	0.018	0.67	0.000	0.07	0.354
lmo0397		unknown proteins		0.48	0.000	-0.07	0.305	0.70	0.000	0.07	0.309
lmo0412				-0.64	0.025	-0.39	0.002	-0.94	0.000	-0.08	0.719
lmo0477		putative secreted protein		0.45	0.000	0.18	0.009	0.60	0.000	-0.05	0.508
lmo0546		putative NAD(P)-dependent oxidoreductase		0.78	0.003	0.19	0.285	0.41	0.140	0.44	0.091
lmo0599		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.18	0.005	-0.14	0.054	0.77	0.000	0.09	0.272
lmo0600				-0.10	0.078	-0.05	0.630	0.83	0.000	0.09	0.237
lmo0864				0.27	0.049	0.15	0.100	0.76	0.001	0.13	0.141
lmo0879				0.97	0.007	0.45	0.009	0.76	0.003	-0.26	0.272
lmo0954				0.03	0.508	-0.07	0.333	3.24	0.000	0.00	0.957
lmo0955				0.06	0.573	-0.08	0.233	2.70	0.000	-0.03	0.801
lmo1007				0.20	0.084	0.17	0.283	0.66	0.001	0.70	0.005
lmo1020		<i>B. subtilis</i> YvqF protein		0.05	0.097	0.09	0.147	1.39	0.000	0.11	0.154
lmo1190				0.66	0.000	0.21	0.020	0.27	0.005	0.06	0.529
lmo1249				-0.72	0.017	-0.41	0.000	-0.73	0.000	-0.50	0.000
lmo1257				-0.30	0.002	-1.11	0.009	-0.18	0.036	-0.43	0.030
lmo1385		unknown protein		-0.08	0.074	-0.05	0.808	-0.80	0.000	-0.21	0.036
lmo1429		unknown proteins		-0.18	0.008	-0.23	0.228	-0.95	0.009	-0.23	0.111
lmo1637		membrane proteins		-0.07	0.051	-0.02	0.863	2.27	0.000	-0.05	0.604
lmo1690		hypothetical proteins		0.08	0.022	-0.25	0.001	0.67	0.000	-0.28	0.066
lmo1718		putative outer surface protein		-0.10	0.024	-1.27	0.000	-0.07	0.232	-0.16	0.043
lmo1728		cellobiose-phosphorylase		0.28	0.060	0.11	0.411	0.69	0.001	0.44	0.058
lmo1945		unknown protein		-0.29	0.007	-0.36	0.009	-0.66	0.004	-0.21	0.022
lmo2160		unknown proteins		1.18	0.000	0.34	0.006	1.03	0.000	0.40	0.011
lmo2161				1.37	0.000	0.49	0.008	1.00	0.000	0.39	0.049
lmo2162		unknown proteins		1.28	0.000	0.33	0.038	1.02	0.000	0.41	0.083
lmo2181		unknown protein		0.38	0.004	0.28	0.399	0.91	0.000	1.01	0.002
lmo2210				-0.12	0.295	-0.25	0.479	1.38	0.000	-0.21	0.372
lmo2224		unknown proteins		-0.09	0.082	-0.07	0.234	1.67	0.000	0.01	0.874
lmo2258				-0.06	0.286	-0.14	0.118	1.01	0.000	-0.32	0.044
lmo2486				-0.06	0.328	-0.06	0.703	2.78	0.000	0.17	0.030
lmo2487		<i>B. subtilis</i> YvIB protein		-0.01	0.863	-0.02	0.842	3.27	0.000	0.08	0.125
lmo2553		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.11	0.017	-0.04	0.646	0.75	0.000	0.04	0.565
lmo2567				-0.09	0.275	0.04	0.822	2.86	0.000	0.02	0.876
lmo2568				-0.08	0.355	-0.07	0.364	4.20	0.000	0.05	0.434
lmo2585		<i>B. subtilis</i> YrhD protein		1.11	0.000	0.40	0.001	0.84	0.000	-0.06	0.577
lmo2697				0.53	0.000	0.13	0.088	0.69	0.000	-0.02	0.839
lmo2835		an <i>E. coli</i> protein		0.63	0.002	0.23	0.063	0.63	0.000	0.38	0.010
Mobile and extrachromosomal element functions											
lmo2485		<i>B. subtilis</i> YviC protein		-0.06	0.268	-0.03	0.774	3.04	0.000	0.04	0.690
Protein fate											
lmo0203	<i>mpl</i>	zinc metalloproteinase precursor		NA	NA	-0.83	0.001	-1.19	0.001	-0.77	0.011
lmo0963		putative heat shock protein HtpX, Listeria epitope LemB		-0.10	0.010	-0.09	0.060	0.88	0.000	-0.18	0.158
Protein synthesis											
lmo0211	<i>etc</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> general stress protein		0.16	0.004	-0.07	0.427	0.70	0.000	-0.14	0.023
Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides											
lmo0055	<i>purA</i>	adenylosuccinate synthetase		-0.38	0.000	0.01	0.921	-0.60	0.000	-0.14	0.560
lmo1831	<i>pyrE</i>	orotate phosphoribosyltransferase		-1.18	0.000	-0.12	0.414	-0.85	0.012	0.15	0.288
lmo1832	<i>pyrF</i>	orotidine 5'-phosphate decarboxylase		-1.10	0.000	-0.11	0.479	-0.82	0.012	0.04	0.790
lmo1833	<i>pyrD</i>	dihydroorotate dehydrogenase		-1.02	0.000	-0.08	0.817	-0.82	0.044	0.04	0.880
lmo1834	<i>pyrDII</i>	dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (electron transfer subunit)		-1.32	0.000	-0.12	0.580	-0.99	0.014	0.17	0.353
lmo1835	<i>pyrAB</i>	carbamoyl-phosphate synthetase (catalytic subunit)		-1.28	0.000	-0.03	0.914	-0.87	0.022	0.24	0.232
lmo1837	<i>pyrC</i>	dihydroorotate		-1.28	0.000	0.15	0.490	-0.96	0.109	0.34	0.296
lmo1838	<i>pyrB</i>	aspartate carbamoyltransferase		-1.48	0.000	0.13	0.610	-0.70	0.100	0.26	0.230
lmo1993	<i>pdp</i>	pyrimidine-nucleoside phosphorylase		0.62	0.000	0.28	0.022	0.19	0.011	0.13	0.154
Regulatory functions											
lmo0109		transcriptional regulatory proteins, AraC family		0.92	0.000	0.25	0.001	0.75	0.000	0.22	0.047
lmo0371		transcriptional regulator, GntR family		-0.66	0.000	-0.01	0.910	-0.61	0.000	-0.13	0.196
lmo0402		transcriptional antiterminator, BglG family		4.03	0.000	-0.04	0.643	4.02	0.000	0.07	0.407
lmo0425		transcription antiterminator, BglG family		0.82	0.000	0.12	0.093	0.25	0.007	-0.16	0.047
lmo0427		PTS fructose-specific enzyme IIB component		0.73	0.000	0.21	0.017	0.18	0.328	0.02	0.820
lmo0575		transcription regulator, GntR family		0.10	0.023	-0.67	0.000	0.09	0.181	-0.21	0.011
lmo0770		transcriptional regulator, LacI family		-0.33	0.002	-0.10	0.229	-0.69	0.000	-0.07	0.231
lmo0785	<i>manR</i>	transcriptional regulator, NifA/NtrC family		0.51	0.000	0.65	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.22	0.028
lmo0873		transcriptional regulator, antiterminator		0.61	0.000	0.30	0.127	0.52	0.015	0.02	0.796
lmo1021		sensor histidine kinase, <i>B. subtilis</i> YvqE protein		0.01	0.787	0.02	0.851	1.45	0.000	0.05	0.451
lmo1022		response regulator, <i>B. subtilis</i> YvqG protein		0.07	0.064	0.04	0.421	1.39	0.000	0.03	0.596
lmo1251		regulator of the Fnr CRP family (including PrfA)		-1.39	0.000	-1.43	0.000	-2.04	0.000	-1.60	0.000
lmo1618		transcription regulator MarR family		-0.21	0.061	-0.26	0.019	-0.65	0.002	-0.31	0.053
lmo1741		two-component sensor histidine kinase		-0.05	0.396	0.00	0.978	0.59	0.000	0.07	0.354
lmo1745		two-component response regulator		-0.04	0.456	-0.02	0.900	0.69	0.000	0.04	0.573
lmo2668		transcriptional antiterminator, BglG family		0.86	0.000	0.22	0.004	0.22	0.015	-0.12	0.039
lmo2851		AraC-type regulatory protein		0.72	0.000	0.02	0.936	0.72	0.000	0.12	0.224

Table S1. continued.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	L502-1 (M) ^b		L502-1 (C)		L502-6 (M)		L502-6 (C)	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
Transport and binding proteins											
lmo0027		PTS, beta-glucosidase specific enzyme IIABC	A,H	1.49	0.000	4.09	0.000	0.81	0.012	1.13	0.030
lmo0096	<i>nptA</i>	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIAB	A,H	-2.27	0.000	1.37	0.000	1.58	0.000	2.56	0.000
lmo0097	<i>nptC</i>	PTS mannose-specific, factor IIC	A,H	-2.38	0.000	1.49	0.000	1.58	0.000	2.70	0.000
lmo0098	<i>nptD</i>	PTS mannose-specific, factor IID	A,H	-2.36	0.000	1.41	0.000	1.58	0.000	2.61	0.000
lmo0194		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.11	0.055	0.01	0.890	2.04	0.000	0.14	0.111
lmo0298		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIC		0.74	0.035	-0.07	0.684	0.95	0.001	NA	NA
lmo0299		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIB	A,H	0.76	0.013	NA	NA	0.65	0.005	0.13	0.411
lmo0301		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIA	A,H	1.02	0.000	-0.35	1.05	1.10	0.002	-0.07	0.763
lmo0373		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIC	Q	-1.71	0.000	0.28	0.126	-1.81	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0398		PTS enzyme IIA		3.60	0.000	NA	NA	4.31	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0399		fructose-specific PTS enzyme IIB		4.65	0.000	0.10	0.432	4.60	0.000	0.32	0.106
lmo0400		fructose-specific PTS enzyme IIC		4.30	0.000	0.22	0.083	4.44	0.000	0.18	0.327
lmo0426		PTS fructose-specific enzyme IIC		0.59	0.000	0.14	0.042	0.15	0.184	0.01	0.548
lmo0541		ABC transporter (binding protein)		0.23	0.098	0.15	0.592	0.78	0.005	0.96	0.007
lmo0573		conserved hypothetical protein		-1.04	0.000	0.05	0.795	-1.06	0.000	0.55	0.000
lmo0738		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIABC	A,H	0.42	0.000	0.35	0.005	0.59	0.001	0.35	0.042
lmo0781	<i>npoD</i>	mannose-specific PTS component IID	A,H	1.24	0.000	0.96	0.000	2.97	0.000	0.11	0.196
lmo0782	<i>npoC</i>	mannose-specific PTS component IIC		1.43	0.000	1.68	0.000	3.26	0.000	0.23	0.017
lmo0783	<i>npoB</i>	mannose-specific PTS component IIB		1.21	0.000	1.86	0.000	3.06	0.000	0.49	0.013
lmo0784	<i>npoA</i>	mannose-specific PTS component IIA		1.51	0.000	2.11	0.000	3.56	0.000	0.40	0.000
lmo0798		lysine-specific permease		-0.25	0.001	-0.11	0.068	-0.88	0.000	-0.03	0.837
lmo0847		glutamine ABC transporter		0.56	0.001	0.72	0.000	0.68	0.000	1.02	0.000
lmo0848		amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		0.62	0.000	0.72	0.000	0.67	0.000	0.90	0.001
lmo0859		sugar ABC transporter, periplasmic sugar-binding protein		0.71	0.000	0.26	0.003	0.64	0.009	0.19	0.089
lmo0860		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		0.60	0.006	0.33	0.142	0.95	0.000	0.17	0.193
lmo0874		PTS enzyme IIA component		0.63	0.004	0.23	0.056	0.46	0.003	0.20	0.141
lmo0875		PTS, beta-glucoside enzyme IIB component	A,H	0.72	0.008	0.26	0.174	0.81	0.002	0.65	0.040
lmo0876		PTS, lichenan-specific enzyme IIC	A,H	0.87	0.003	0.17	0.324	0.38	0.176	NA	NA
lmo0897		transport proteins		-0.28	0.004	-0.25	0.016	-0.68	0.000	-0.08	0.306
lmo0914		PTS, IIB component	A,H	0.91	0.002	-0.03	0.807	0.90	0.000	0.17	0.206
lmo0915		PTS enzyme IIC	A,H	0.96	0.012	0.04	0.774	1.30	0.002	0.10	0.738
lmo0916		PTS enzyme IIA		0.92	0.000	0.03	0.822	1.07	0.000	0.14	0.138
lmo0997	<i>clpE</i>	ATP-dependent protease		-0.20	0.001	-0.01	0.934	-0.88	0.000	-0.17	0.156
lmo1023		a bacterial K(+)-uptake system	H	0.03	0.515	0.01	0.911	1.37	0.000	0.05	0.493
lmo1131		ABC transporters, ATP-binding proteins	H	-0.11	0.675	0.01	0.978	0.39	0.031	0.94	0.003
lmo1250		antibiotic resistance protein		-0.62	0.003	-0.47	0.000	-0.86	0.000	-0.48	0.043
lmo1255		PTSstrehalose specific enzyme IIBC	A,H	2.48	0.000	0.64	0.000	2.27	0.000	0.13	0.048
lmo1539		glycerol uptake facilitator		1.44	0.000	0.53	0.000	1.40	0.000	-0.02	0.843
lmo1636		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.01	0.790	-0.01	0.916	2.05	0.000	0.06	0.284
lmo1719		PTS lichenan-specific enzyme IIA component	A,H	-0.03	0.426	-1.38	0.000	-2.03	0.010	-0.10	0.173
lmo1720		PTS lichenan-specific enzyme IIB component	A,H	-0.03	0.346	-1.36	0.000	-0.05	0.483	-0.18	0.015
lmo1730		sugar ABC transporter binding protein		0.66	0.001	0.13	0.417	0.91	0.000	0.29	0.046
lmo1731		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		0.58	0.000	0.09	0.160	0.72	0.000	0.31	0.004
lmo1732		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		0.66	0.024	0.33	0.128	0.63	0.003	0.37	0.126
lmo1746		ABC transporter (permease)		-0.06	0.274	-0.07	0.515	1.16	0.000	-0.05	0.440
lmo1747		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.02	0.700	0.00	0.977	1.19	0.000	-0.01	0.892
lmo1839	<i>pyrP</i>	uracil permease		-1.66	0.000	0.21	0.301	-0.06	0.025	0.41	0.088
lmo1846		conserved hypothetical proteins		-0.13	0.438	0.00	0.998	-0.64	0.002	-0.13	0.660
lmo1884		xanthine permeases		-0.59	0.000	0.24	0.057	-0.37	0.008	0.55	0.002
lmo1957	<i>fluG</i>	ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)		0.18	0.021	0.22	0.247	0.63	0.000	0.65	0.001
lmo1958	<i>fluB</i>	ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)		0.15	0.099	0.18	0.417	0.60	0.000	0.73	0.002
lmo1959		ferrichrome binding protein		0.24	0.052	0.22	0.259	0.77	0.000	0.97	0.001
lmo1960	<i>fluC</i>	ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.20	0.079	0.06	0.677	0.64	0.001	0.62	0.005
lmo1973		PTS enzyme II A component	A,H	0.60	0.000	0.09	0.376	0.27	0.001	0.14	0.149
lmo2105		ferrous iron transport protein B		-0.42	0.115	-0.25	0.085	-0.44	0.016	0.71	0.007
lmo2183		ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)		0.42	0.003	0.34	0.259	0.94	0.000	1.04	0.001
lmo2184		ferrichrome ABC transporter (binding protein)		0.41	0.005	0.39	0.222	1.16	0.000	1.18	0.001
lmo2250	<i>arpJ</i>	amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.66	0.000	-0.59	0.002	-1.74	0.000	0.08	0.588
lmo2251		amino acid ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.61	0.000	-0.46	0.000	1.65	0.000	0.00	0.968
lmo2254		unknown proteins		-0.37	0.000	0.04	0.519	-0.64	0.000	-0.06	0.359
lmo2362	<i>gadT2</i>	amino acid antiporter (acid resistance)		-0.09	0.258	-0.58	0.004	-0.76	0.005	-0.97	0.022
lmo2469		amino acid transporter		-0.47	0.000	-0.23	0.216	-0.91	0.000	-0.33	0.033
lmo2665		PTS galactitol-specific enzyme IIC component	A,H	0.68	0.000	0.14	0.015	0.18	0.069	-0.23	0.005
lmo2667		PTS galactitol-specific enzyme IIA component	A,H	0.79	0.000	0.19	0.058	0.29	0.001	-0.15	0.037
lmo2680	<i>kdpC</i>	potassium-transporting ATPase c chain		-0.01	0.884	-0.05	0.502	1.27	0.000	-0.09	0.156
lmo2681	<i>kdpB</i>	potassium-transporting ATPase b chain	H	-0.01	0.928	0.05	0.557	1.19	0.000	0.03	0.744
lmo2682	<i>kdpA</i>	potassium-transporting ATPase a chain		-0.04	0.600	0.01	0.946	2.40	0.000	0.07	0.280
lmo2683		cellobiose PTS enzyme IIB	A,H	-1.50	0.000	-1.42	0.000	-0.36	0.075	-0.01	0.832
lmo2684		cellobiose PTS enzyme IIC	Q	-1.71	0.000	-0.80	0.000	-0.53	0.010	0.01	0.839
lmo2685		cellobiose PTS enzyme IIA	A,H	-1.34	0.000	-1.37	0.000	-0.58	0.006	-0.08	0.445
lmo2708		PTS, cellobiose-specific enzyme IIC	Q	-0.16	0.041	-1.30	0.000	0.22	0.076	0.23	0.005
lmo2762		PTS cellobiose-specific enzyme IIB	A,H	0.57	0.000	0.21	0.120	0.84	0.003	0.29	0.237
lmo2763		PTS cellobiose-specific enzyme IIC	Q	0.62	0.000	0.21	0.016	0.79	0.001	0.23	0.908
lmo2772		beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIABC	A,H	0.30	0.010	0.82	0.000	-0.10	0.214	-0.02	0.952
lmo2780		cellobiose PTS enzyme IIA	A,H	NA	NA	0.07	0.510	0.66	0.007	0.23	0.242
lmo2782		PTS, cellobiose-specific IIB component	A,H	0.52	0.006	0.33	0.045	0.76	0.002	0.43	0.002
lmo2783		cellobiose PTS enzyme IIC	A,H	0.71	0.000	0.21	0.055	0.86	0.000	0.48	0.001
lmo2797		PTS mannitol-specific enzyme IIA	A,H	1.05	0.000	0.40	0.003	1.06	0.000	0.44	0.022
Unclassified (role category not yet assigned)											
lmo0118	<i>lmaA</i>	antigen A		-0.95	0.000	-0.41	0.099	-0.02	0.917	-0.42	0.046
lmo0130		5'-nucleotidase, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		0.77	0.000	0.36	0.000	0.48	0.000	0.26	0.002
lmo0202	<i>hly</i>	listeriolysin O precursor		-0.45	0.019	-0.44	0.061	-0.57	0.003	-0.77	0.004
lmo0204	<i>actA</i>	actin-assembly inducing protein precursor		-0.67	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-0.99	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0361	<i>tatC</i>	twin arginine translocase C		0.40	0.002	0.32	0.300	1.23	0.000	1.19	0.001
lmo0362	<i>tatA</i>	twin arginine translocase A		0.37	0.000	0.28	0.471	0.89	0.000	0.98	0.001
lmo0367		conserved hypothetical protein B. subtilis YwbN protein		0.51	0.001	0.54	0.169	1.39	0.000		

Table S1. continued.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	L502-1 (M) ^b		L502-1 (C)		L502-6 (M)		L502-6 (C)	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0385		<i>B. subtilis</i> lolC protein and to fructokinase		0.64	0.000	0.23	0.038	0.60	0.000	0.15	0.247
lmo0401		<i>E. coli</i> YbgG protein, a putative sugar hydrolase		4.30	0.000	0.33	0.055	4.33	0.000	0.12	0.443
lmo0429		sugar hydrolase		0.59	0.000	0.21	0.037	0.18	0.011	-0.05	0.354
lmo0593		transport proteins (formate?)		-0.70	0.000	-0.22	0.104	-0.83	0.000	-0.10	0.195
lmo1369	<i>ptb</i>	phosphotransbutyrylase		-0.32	0.000	-0.13	0.073	-0.60	0.000	0.00	0.952
lmo1966		unknown proteins		0.02	0.863	0.04	0.666	2.02	0.000	-0.06	0.629
lmo1968		creatinine amidohydrolases		0.25	0.099	0.00	0.985	0.92	0.002	-0.09	0.719
lmo2067	<i>hsh</i>	conjugated bile acid hydrolase		-0.44	0.116	-0.09	0.442	-0.59	0.010	-0.23	0.321
lmo2125		maltose/maltodextrin ABC-transporter		0.63	0.000	0.23	0.065	0.41	0.000	0.68	0.031
lmo2158		<i>B. subtilis</i> YwmG protein		0.66	0.003	0.22	0.244	0.80	0.001	0.30	0.123
lmo2182		ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.34	0.016	0.36	0.217	0.89	0.000	1.12	0.001
lmo2185	<i>svpA</i>	surface virulence-associated protein, substrate for SrtB		0.48	0.003	0.47	0.180	1.11	0.000	1.24	0.001
lmo2186	<i>isdC</i>	iron-regulated surface determinants, substrate for SrtB		0.47	0.003	0.48	0.161	1.25	0.000	1.41	0.001
lmo2207		unknown protein		-0.07	0.271	0.00	0.974	1.26	0.000	0.02	0.875
lmo2257		hypothetical CDS		0.09	0.078	-0.03	0.748	0.73	0.000	-0.15	0.379
lmo2648		phosphotriesterase		0.33	0.021	0.21	0.067	0.76	0.010	0.45	0.166
lmo2679		the two components sensor protein kdpD		-0.04	0.463	-0.03	0.852	0.93	0.000	-0.08	0.296
lmo2742				0.58	0.000	0.08	0.425	0.68	0.000	0.08	0.601
lmo2745		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.05	0.279	-0.09	0.258	2.02	0.000	0.12	0.049
lmo2773		transcription antiterminator		0.46	0.000	0.70	0.000	-0.09	0.134	0.00	0.989
lmo2781		beta-glucosidase		0.80	0.000	0.20	0.067	0.85	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo2785	<i>kat</i>	catalase		0.13	0.426	0.45	0.002	-0.51	0.002	-0.73	0.007
lmo2788	<i>bvrA</i>	transcription antiterminator		0.61	0.000	0.30	0.001	0.32	0.000	0.18	0.140
Unknown function											
lmo0042		<i>E. coli</i> DedA protein		-0.15	0.668	-0.10	0.099	0.88	0.001	-0.02	0.860
lmo0776		transcription regulator (repressor)		0.69	0.000	-0.20	0.004	0.39	0.000	-0.12	0.138
lmo0962	<i>lemA</i>	Listeria epitope LemA		-0.08	0.066	-0.11	0.046	0.92	0.000	-0.03	0.607
lmo1230		<i>B. subtilis</i> YshB protein		0.02	0.738	-0.01	0.900	0.59	0.000	-0.09	0.361
Viral functions											
lmo0115	<i>lmaD</i>	antigen D		-0.61	0.004	-0.03	0.900	-0.05	0.835	-0.05	0.839

^a Description of genes according to the annotation of the Comprehensive Microbial Resource of the J. Craig Venter Institute (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>) and published literature resources. The functional role categories are also according to the primary annotation in CMR-JCVI *L. monocytogenes* EGDe genome database. A, Amino acid biosynthesis; B, Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers; E, Central intermediary metabolism; H, Energy metabolism; I, Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism; J, Hypothetical proteins; N, Protein synthesis; O, Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides; Q, Signal transduction.

^b Log₂ expression ratio [a high level sakacin P-resistant strain (L502-1) and a low level sakacin P-resistant strains (L502-6) grown on mannose (M) or cellobiose (C) relative to the wild-type (L502) grown on the respective sugars]; values in bold face indicate differentially expressed genes as defined as log₂ ratios ≥ 0.585 or ≤ -0.585 and with q-value < 0.01 , p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate). NA, no data available. Fully annotated microarray data have been deposited in BμG@Sbase (accession number E-BUGS-110; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/E-BUGS-110>) and also ArrayExpress (accession number E-BUGS-110).

Table S2. Primer and probe sets used for qRT-PCR.

Target	Primer and probe name	Sequence^a (5'→3')	Reference
<i>mptA</i> (lmo0096)	MptAF	CCTCGCAACTCACGGTGAAT	[20]
	MptAR	TCTTGCTCGCCGAAAATCA	
	MptA-Taq	TGCTGAAGGTATTTTGCAGTCCGGAACA	
<i>actA</i> (lmo0204)	lmo0204F	CGACCGACCAGCTATACAAGTG	This study
	lmo0204R	AATTTCCGCTGCGCTATCC	
<i>lmo1251</i>	lmo0204-Taq	AGCGTCGTCATCCAGGATTGCCA	This study
	lmo1251F	TGGAAATAGCGCCTGATCAAT	
	lmo1251R	TCCCGCAAAAATGACCAATT	
<i>glpK</i> (lmo1538)	lmo1251-Taq	TTTTCTAGTAAGCAATGAAG)	This study
	lmo1538F	GAAAGCAATGCTGCCAGAAGT	
	lmo1538R	GCAATACCTGCAACCGGAACT	
<i>kdpA</i> (mo2682)	lmo1538-Taq	ATCCTCTGAAGTATATGCGGACACAGTGCC	This study
	lmo2682F	GTTGGTGGTTCGTCGCTTTT	
	lmo2682R	TGTCGTGCATTGCGTTCAC	
16S rRNA	lmo2682-Taq	CGGCTTCCACAACGGCAGCC	[20]
	16S rRNAF	GCGCAGGCGGTCTTTTAAG	
	16S rRNAR	CAATGACCCTCCCCGGTTA	
	16S rRNA-Taq	CTGATGTGAAAGCCCCGGC	

^aTaq probes, 6-FAM, 6-carboxyfluorescein (fluorophore); TAMRA, 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine (quencher).

Paper III

Global transcriptional responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to hydrochloric acid, acetic acid and lactic acid stress

Girum Tadesse Tessema^{1,2*}, Lars Axelsson¹, Trond Møretø¹, Lars Snipen², Even Heir¹, Askild Holck¹ and Kristine Naterstad¹

¹Nofima Mat AS, Osloveien 1, N-1430 Ås, Norway; ²Departement of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, P.O. Box 5003, N-1432 Ås, Norway

* Corresponding author:

E-mail: girum.tadesse@nofima.no

Telephone: +4764970100

Fax: +4764970333

Post: Osloveien 1, 1430 Ås, Norway

Running title: Transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* to acids

Key words: *L. monocytogenes*, hydrochloric acid, lactic acid, acetic acid, stress, transcriptome, microarray

ABSTRACT

This study presents global transcriptional responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to low pH and acidulants commonly encountered by this foodborne pathogen in fermented foods and food environments. Growth in brain heart infusion broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid was investigated. Microarray analyses showed a remarkable overlapping in transcriptional response among the acid stressed cultures. Despite the similarity, the overall transcriptional responses to organic acids were more pronounced than those of HCl. Transcripts associated with sugar uptake systems were reduced in the organic acids stressed cultures but not affected in the HCl stressed culture. The most highly up-regulated genes were *gadT2* and *gadD2* (> 38-folds) suggesting the glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) is the main resistance system against low pH under the studied growth conditions. In addition to the GAD system, other genes encoding known and putative proteins associated with acid stress survival including modification of the cell envelope, protection and repair of macromolecules, intracellular accumulation of histidine and osmolytes as well as general stress proteins were induced. The acid stress also induced genes encoding proteins described to be involved in virulence, protection against other types of stress and proteins with unknown functions. Genes encoding proteins associated with macromolecule synthesis and nutrient transporters were down-regulated and this corresponded well with growth inhibition under acidic conditions. In summary, this study identified large number of genes with direct and indirect role in acid stress defense and other types of stress which also opens the possibilities for more specific and in-depth future studies. Although the data confirmed numerous previous results on acid stress, this is, to our knowledge, the first study on the global transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* to acetic acid and lactic acid stress.

INTRODUCTION

Listeria monocytogenes is a gram-positive foodborne pathogen that is responsible for severe and often life-threatening disease with a high economic burden to both public health services and the food industry (29). This foodborne pathogen grows optimally in the pH range of 6 to 7 (38). Acidic environment, however, is a common condition *L. monocytogenes* may encounter outside the host (e.g. low pH soil and foods) and inside the host (e.g. during gastric transit and in the phagosome of macrophages) (14).

Organic acids such as acetic- and lactic-acid may be naturally present in foods, but are also commonly used as food additives to extend shelf life and to control the growth of undesirable microorganisms, including *L. monocytogenes* (10, 46). Despite the widespread use of organic acids, the exact mode of their antimicrobial action still has not been fully elucidated (25, 41). It is presumed that the undissociated form of organic acids can transverse the cell membrane and once inside, the acids dissociate and affect acid and anion sensitive cellular functions (10). Organic acids are suggested to interfere with cell membrane integrity and functions, enzyme activities, macromolecules syntheses and may act as uncouplers (10, 41). In contrast, strong acids as hydrochloric acids (HCl), exert their antimicrobial effect by denaturing enzymes present on the cell surface and by lowering the cytoplasmic pH due to increased protons permeability caused by a large pH gradient (3).

In gram-positive bacteria a combination of constitutive and inducible strategies including consumption and efflux of protons (H^+), cell envelope modifications, protein and DNA repair and production of alkali can contribute survival during low pH stress [reviewed in (14, 45)]. *L. monocytogenes* has been shown to exhibit adaptive tolerance to low pH, termed as acid tolerance response, upon exposure to mild acid, which may protect the bacterium against extreme low pH and other adverse conditions (19, 33, 37). Spontaneous acid-tolerant mutants of *L. monocytogenes* that are constitutively resistant to low pH in the absence of adaption can be also recovered following exposure to extreme low pH (11, 37).

The global responses of *L. monocytogenes* to organic acids and HCl after shock stress and during adaptation have been investigated using a proteomic approach (38, 39, 58). These studies have indicated the presence of common as well as unique protein expression profiles under the acid stress conditions. However, most of the differentially expressed proteins were

not fully identified. A more recent genome wide transcriptional study on *L. monocytogenes* has analyzed the responses of this bacterium to the organic acid salt sodium diacetate and HCl (6). The global transcriptional responses of other gram-positive foodborne pathogens including *Bacillus cereus* (34) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (5, 42) to HCl, acetic acid and lactic acid stress have been investigated. These have given insight into how these foodborne pathogens combat stress due to the different acids. However, we are unaware of any reports that assess the global transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* to acetic acid or lactic acid stress.

Microorganisms are commonly exposed to acetic- and lactic-acid, and a pH of 5 is representative of the mildly acidic environment bacteria may encounter in foods during production and processing (10, 22, 30). In the present exploratory descriptive study, growth characteristics and transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* in medium acidified to pH 5 by addition of HCl, 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid are reported.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strain and culture media. *L. monocytogenes* L502 isolated from cheese, provided by The Norwegian Veterinary Institute, Oslo, Norway, has been described in detail earlier (53). The strain has the same serotype (1/2a) as the EGDe strain, which was used to generate the PCR based microarray slides used in this study (see below). *L. monocytogenes* L502 was grown in Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) broth or BHI agar plate (Oxoid Ltd., England) at 25°C. Growth in broth culture was with continuous shaking at 250 r.p.m. (Innova 4230, Refrigerated Incubator Shaker, New Brunswick Scientific, USA). The stock culture was stored frozen (-80°C) in BHI broth in the presence of 15% glycerol.

Stock solutions of 1M acetic acid (Merck, Germany) and DL-lactic acid (Sigma, Germany) were prepared and added to autoclaved BHI broth to a final total concentration of 2 mM to 50 mM. For the HCl stress, BHI broth was acidified using 6 M HCl (Merck, Germany). The acidified BHI broths were adjusted to pHs 4.0 to 5.5 at intervals of 0.5 pH units (PHM210, Standard pH Meter, Radiometer Analytical SAS, France) using the HCl and 6 M sodium hydroxide (Merck, Germany), and sterilized by filtration through 0.2 µm polyethersulfone membrane filters (Nalge Nunc International, USA). The reference BHI broth was adjusted to pH of 7.2. All broth cultures were freshly made and pre-warmed to 25°C before use.

Acid stress experiment. The *L. monocytogenes* L502 was streaked on a BHI agar plate and incubated at 25°C for 18-20 h. An overnight culture was prepared from the agar plate in 10 ml BHI broth (pH 7.2) and incubated for 18-20 h. The stationary-phase culture was diluted 1:100 (vol/vol) in four sterilized baffled Erlenmeyer flasks (500 ml) containing 99 ml of fresh BHI broth (pH 7.2). Exponentially growing cultures (OD₆₀₀ of 0.4) were centrifuged at 5000g for 5 min at 25°C using a Sorvall model RC 5C Plus (Du Pont Instruments, USA). The cells were resuspended in 100 ml BHI broth containing (i) HCl (herein HCl stress), (ii) 10 mM acetic acid (herein acetic acid stress), (iii) 20 mM lactic acid (herein lactic acid stress) all at pH 5 and (iv) BHI pH 7.2 (herein reference) and transferred to Erlenmeyer flasks for further incubation. Harvesting for RNA isolation was performed when growth reached OD₆₀₀ ~1.2. Schematic presentation of the experimental design is presented in supplementary materials (Supplementary Fig. S1).

Aliquot samples were regularly removed to monitor pH and growth using OD₆₀₀ and total viable cells measurements. Cell viability was estimated on BHI agar plates using two biological replicates, each involving the analysis of two technical replicates. The plates were incubated at 30°C for 48 h and colonies were counted. The pH and OD were measured in three independent experiments.

RNA isolation. Total RNA extraction was done using an RNeasy Protect bacterial mini kit (53). The quantity and quality of RNA was checked using NanoDrop ND-1000 (NanoDrop Technologies, USA) and Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, USA). The isolated RNA sample was used both for the microarray and for validation assay by quantitative real-time reverse transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR). For the transcriptional studies, the experiments were done twice on different days with dye swapping in each microarray experiment.

Microarray analysis. The PCR based DNA microarray slides were developed and printed by The Bacterial Microarray Group at St George's (BμG@S), University of London, UK. Protocols for the development and printing of the microarray slides have been described previously (4, 24). The array design is available in BμG@Sbase (Accession No. A-BUGS-19; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/A-BUGS-19>) and also ArrayExpress (Accession No. A-BUGS-19). The cDNA synthesis and labeling were performed using 4 μg total RNA following guidelines from BμG@S (24). Samples from each acid stress condition were compared with the reference sample as described previously (4, 24) and a total of at least four paired competitive hybridizations were performed. Scanning of the arrays was performed using Tecan LS scanner (Tecan, Switzerland). Spot-identification, -segmentation and -fluorescent intensity quantification were done using ImaGene 5.5 (BioDiversity, USA).

The microarray data analysis was done by the LIMMA package (48) in the R computing environment (<http://www.r-project.org/>). Preprocessing and normalization followed a standard procedure using methods described by Smyth and Speed (51). Testing for differentially expressed genes was done using a linear mixed model as described (49). A mixed-model approach was chosen to adequately describe between-array variation, and utilized the probe-replicates in each array. An empirical Bayes smoothing of gene-wise variances was conducted according to Smyth et al. (50). For each gene, the p-value was adjusted to control false discovery rate and the adjusted p-values were referred as q-values.

Differentially expressed genes were selected using q-values less than 0.01 and with log ratio of ≥ 0.585 or ≤ -0.585 (equivalent to ≥ 1.5 -fold changes).

The Unscrambler software (The Unscrambler v9.8; CAMO AS, Norway), GeneSpring GX7.3 (Agilent Technologies, USA), and the LEGER database (16) were used for visualization, clustering and further analyses of the preprocessed microarray data. For the principal component analysis (PCA), genes that were differentially expressed in any of the growth conditions were included. Genes were grouped according to the category role of the Comprehensive Microbial Resource (CMR) of the J. Craig Venter Institute (JCVI) (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>). A chi-square and odd ratios analyses were performed to determine which role categories were significantly affected by the acid stress (<http://faculty.vassar.edu/lowry/odds2x2.html>). Genes belonging to a given operon were identified based on the recent *L. monocytogenes* operon map (54) and other literature sources were used to designate gene functions.

qRT-PCR. The microarray results were validated using qRT-PCR as previously described (53). The primer and probe sets for *actA* (encoding actin assembly-inducing protein), *lmo1251* [a putative CRP (cyclic AMP receptor protein)-FNR (fumarate and nitrate reduction regulator) family transcriptional regulator], *glpK* (glycerol kinase) and *kdpA* (potassium-transporting ATPase A chain) were designed using Primer Express 3.0. The sets for the *mptA* (mannose permease two, AB subunit) and 16S rRNA have been reported earlier (53) (Supplementary Table S1).

Microarray data accession number. Fully annotated microarray data have been deposited in BμG@Sbase (accession number E-BUGS-109; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/E-BUGS-109>) and also ArrayExpress (accession number E-BUGS-109).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this exploratory descriptive study, the growth characteristics as well as the global transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* L502 to HCl, acetic acid and lactic acid stress were investigated.

Listeria monocytogenes growth in acidic conditions

Inhibitory acidic conditions leading to reduced growth rate for the strain were identified from growth studies using different pHs and concentrations of acetic acid, lactic acid and HCl. The growth of *L. monocytogenes* L502 was reduced but not completely inhibited at pH 5 when acidification was done by addition of HCl, 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid (Fig. 1). To obtain a similar growth rate of the strain in the organic acid treated cultures (Fig. 1), the concentration of total lactic acid was doubled compared to that of acetic acid. This is in line with the stronger antilisterial activity of acetic acid compared to lactic acid at equal pH and equimolar total acids (59). The pH of the reference culture decreased gradually from 7.2 to 6.3 during the course of growth. The pH of the HCl-, acetic acid-, and lactic acid-stressed cultures (herein acid stressed cultures), however, remained constant at pH 5 (Fig. 1C). According to the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation, the concentrations of the initial undissociated and anion forms of acetic acid (assuming $pK_a = 4.76$ and no effect from the BHI broth) were approximately 3.7 mM and 6.3 mM, respectively at pH 5. Under the same conditions, approximately 1.4 mM and 18.6 mM of the lactic acid ($pK_a = 3.86$) were expected to be in the undissociated and anion forms, respectively.

Following the acid treatments, the growth of the strain was arrested temporarily (Fig. 1). When the growth resumed, the specific growth rate (μ) of the strain in the reference culture (0.54 h^{-1}) was higher than that of the HCl stressed culture (0.3 h^{-1} , $p < 0.05$), which again was higher than in the organic acid stressed cultures ($\mu = 0.18 \text{ h}^{-1}$, $p < 0.05$). The observed difference in the antimicrobial potency among the three acids at a given pH is in agreement with results from previous studies (34, 59).

Global gene expression profile and validation by qRT-PCR

The transcriptome profiling was performed during similar growth states of the strain under the different acidic conditions. Both stressed and reference cells were harvested at $OD_{600} \sim 1.2$ (Fig. 1). The pH difference between the acid stressed cultures and the reference culture at the time of harvesting was approximately 1.7 pH units. A total of 511, 774 and 873 genes were differentially expressed in the HCl-, acetic acid-, and lactic acid-stressed cultures respectively, compared with the reference (q-values < 0.01 and with ≥ 1.5 -fold changes).

The microarray probes used in the present study were based on the EGDe strain and more than 94% of *L. monocytogenes* L502 genes were hybridized to the EGD-e based probes in any of experimental conditions tested so far (not shown). A recent study by Toledo-Arana et al. (54) showed that the EGDe strain expresses comparable number of its genes ($> 98\%$ of its open reading frames) under different growth conditions. In the present study, the reliability of the microarray expression data was assessed by qRT-PCR analysis using six genes selected following the guidelines suggested by Morey et al. (35). The qRT-PCR validation assay showed a strong correlation of gene expression with the microarray results under all conditions tested ($r > 0.9$, Supplementary Fig. S2), confirming independently the reliability of the microarray data set.

As can be seen in Fig. 2, a large number of differentially expressed genes were common to all acid type stress; 204 up-regulated and 247 down-regulated compared with the reference. Further comparison of the transcriptional responses against each other revealed a high correlation between the acid treatments ($r > 0.9$, Supplementary Fig. S3). The similarity in the transcriptional response from the organic acids was highest ($r = 0.98$, Supplementary Fig. S3C). The overall striking similarity in transcriptional responses from the three acids may be attributed partly both to the equal pH effect (pH 5) and similar growth states of the strain at the time of harvesting. Despite the similarities, a PCA plot of the differentially expressed genes revealed a fairly high variation (47%) in transcriptional response between the HCl- and the organic acids-stressed cultures (Fig. 3). The next variation in the data set (12%) was mainly due to the transcriptional difference from the lactic acid and acetic acid. Our data is consistent with results from a recent study (34) that showed the presence of similar as well as distinct transcriptional response of *B. cereus* subjected to HCl, lactic acid and acetic acid stress.

Analysis of the differentially expressed genes according to the classification scheme of the CMR-JCVI role categories revealed that growth under acidic conditions triggered the expression of genes belonging to all functional categories (Fig. 4). The largest impact of the acid stress was on genes sets belonging to the cellular process and the transport and binding proteins functional groups ($p < 0.001$, odd ratios ≥ 1.5). Differentially expressed genes in the overrepresented role categories include genes associated with adaptations to atypical conditions (e.g. acid resistance, detoxification, and osmoregulatory) nutrient transport and virulence. These groups are described in greater detail below. In addition, a large number of genes coding for hypothetical proteins were also differentially regulated (Fig. 4).

Apart from genes differentially regulated in acid type-specific manner (see below), the key difference in the transcriptional responses from the three acids was on the level of expression. Thus, genes that showed identical or similar transcriptional profiles in the three acid stressed cultures were presented together.

Transcriptional responses to counteract the acidification

1) Glutamate Decarboxylase (GAD), Arginine Deiminase (ADI) and proton efflux systems

In *L. monocytogenes*, the Glutamate Decarboxylase (GAD) system comprises the glutamate decarboxylase enzymes (encoded by *gadD1*, *gadD2* or *gadD3*) and the membrane associated glutamate/ γ -aminobutyrate (GABA) antiporter (encoded by *gadT1* or *gadT2*) (13). Here we found that *gadT2* and *gadD2* were the most highly induced genes in the acid treated cultures (> 38 -folds), suggesting glutamate decarboxylation to be major defense mechanism against low pH under the studied growth conditions (Table 1). A recent study (6) showed a similar induction of the *gadT2D2* operon for two different strains exposed to HCl (pH 5), albeit with low fold changes (4.2 to 9.8-folds). Our data set showed no change in the expression of other genes designated for the GAD system (not shown). The GAD system reduces acidification of the cell cytoplasm by consuming protons during decarboxylation of acidic glutamate to a natural GABA by the glutamic acid decarboxylase. The GABA may be exchanged for another extracellular glutamate by the antiporter (12, 26). In the present study, *lmo0913* encoding a putative succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase enzyme which may further metabolize the GABA to succinate (13) was also significantly induced in the lactic acid stressed culture (Table 1). The role of the putative succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase enzyme during

growth under acidic conditions has been demonstrated using a deletion mutant lacking *lmo0913* gene (1). Generally, the importance of the GAD system has also been proven by model studies including low pH foods (15), modified atmosphere-packed foods (17) and gastric fluid (12). Our transcriptional data together with results from the previous studies strongly suggest that the GAD system is a primary defense against low pH stress.

Listeria monocytogenes has the ability to extrude protons to maintain the cytoplasmic pH homeostasis (47). However, the expressions of genes associated with the F₀F₁-ATPase and the electron transport systems were not affected in the present study by the presence of the acids (not shown). In addition, genes encoding proteins for the Arginine Deiminase (ADI) system (*arcA*, *arcB*, *arcC* and *arcD*) showed inconsistent expression pattern (Supplementary Table S2). Ryan et al. (44) demonstrated simultaneous increase in transcription of all the *arc* genes during growth at acidic pH relative to the growth at pH 7. A recent study (6) showed strain dependent expression of genes associated with the F₀F₁-ATPase and the ADI systems in *L. monocytogenes* in responses to growth in acidic conditions. Overall, for the strain used in the present study and under the conditions tested, the proton efflux and the ADI systems appear to be of less importance.

II) Modification of the cell membrane

Exposure of the strain to acid stress resulted in differential regulation of a number of genes encoding proteins described to be associated with metabolism of the cell envelope, of fatty acids and of phospholipids (Fig. 4, Supplementary Table S2). Interestingly, *dltABCD* operon was 1.6 to 2.7-fold higher in the acid stressed cultures (Table 1). The Dlt proteins are required for the metabolism of cell wall-associated teichoic acids, and several studies on other gram-positive bacteria have shown that deletion of the *dlt* increased sensitivity towards to environmental stress including acid stress (7, 57). Previously it has been shown that *L. monocytogenes* reduce the amount of branched fatty acids in response to low pH stress (21, 32). Here we found that genes designated for the biosynthesis of branched chain fatty acids (*ptb-buk-lpd-bkdA1-bkdA2-bkdB*) were generally down-regulated (Table 1). The overall results suggest modification of the cell envelope architecture and composition may contribute to the acid response in the present study. Verification of the role of the *dlt* operon in *L. monocytogenes* deserves further investigations.

III) Protection and repair of macromolecules

Generally, several genes encoding proteins involved in DNA metabolism (specifically DNA repair and recombination) were up-regulated (Fig. 4, Table 1). Interestingly, the expression of *uvrB* and *uvrC* were significantly, and the *uvrA* moderately induced during growth under acidic conditions (Table 1). The UvrABC protein complex is involved in nucleotide excision repair and the importance of this protein complex during low pH stress has been demonstrated in *L. monocytogenes* and in other gram-positive bacteria (23, 27). The over-expressed genes associated with DNA metabolism in the present study may play a role in the repairing of acid-induced damage to DNA and are possibly also involved in protection against UV light stress (see below).

The proteases and the peptidases degrade aberrant proteins synthesized under stressful conditions (14) and a group of genes belonging to the protein fate functional category exhibited increase in transcripts during under acidic growth conditions (Fig. 4, Supplementary Table S2). For example, *htrA*, encoding a protease (Table 1) and other genes encoding different peptidases (*lmo1578*, *lmo1611*, *lmo1780*, *lmo2188*, *lmo2462*, and *lmo2338*) (Supplementary Table S2) were over-expressed in the acid stressed cultures. The induction of genes encoding proteases and peptidases during acid stress was shown in previous studies (5, 6, 52).

Chaperonins are protein complexes that assist folding of malformed proteins resulted from exposure to adverse conditions (31). The present study showed down-regulation of *groESL* genes encoding molecular chaperonin (Table 1), confirming a previous report on acid adapted strain of *Lactobacillus casei* (8). This contrasts numerous other studies that showed induction of genes encoding chaperonins (e.g. *groESL*) in response to acid stress [(20, 34) and others]. This may be due to a difference in sampling time point. Studies using our strain have shown that the expression of *groESL* and other chaperonins (the *dnaK* operon) was induced shortly after acid shock compared to a reference culture taken before the acid treatment (our unpublished result). This suggests that the transcriptional level of genes encoding chaperonins may vary after the onset of acid stress. Interestingly, the expression of *prsA1* (similar to a protein post-translocation molecular chaperonin) was induced (Table 1). The role of this extracellular, but cell-associated, folding chaperonin in acid adaptation remains to be elucidated.

IV) Intracellular histidine and osmolytes accumulation

Genes encoding proteins for histidine biosynthesis were generally up-regulated among the acid stressed cultures (Table 1). A contradicting microarray result from a recent acid stress study showed down-regulation of these genes in two different strains of *L. monocytogenes* (6). However, our data is consistent with the results of Broadbent et al. (8) that showed induction of genes associated with histidine metabolism in acid adapted *L. casei*. In addition, the authors demonstrated that supplementation of the growth medium with histidine conferred protection against acid challenge (8). The role of histidine in acid stress defense could be related to the basic nature of the amino acid. In the present study, genes encoding proteins implicated in osmotolerance including the *kdp* operon encoding a high affinity K⁺ uptake system were over-expressed (Table 1). A recent study (6) showed that induction of the *kdp* operon in a strain-specific manner during growth under acidic conditions and *L. monocytogenes* tend to accumulate K⁺ to counteract acid stress. A role of osmolytes in the cytoplasmic pH homeostasis of *Escherichia coli* has been shown previously (28). Verification of the role of histidine and osmolytes intracellular pool in acid tolerance in *L. monocytogenes* is thus of great interest.

V) Response involving general stress proteins

During growth under acidic conditions, induction of genes encoding general (universal) stress proteins was observed (Table 1). A recent study by Abram et al. (1) demonstrated the role of a general stress protein encoded by *lmo2391* in acid tolerance and interestingly our data showed induction of the *lmo2391* gene (Table 1). In addition, comparison of our data set with a previous heat shock response transcriptional study (55) revealed a total of 29 common up-regulated genes (not shown). This includes genes encoding universal stress proteins such as *lmo1580*, *lmo2673*, and *lmo2748* (Table 1), suggesting the contribution of general stress proteins in protection against acid as well as other non-specific stresses.

Genes associated with management of other stress conditions

It is well established that acid adapted *L. monocytogenes* exhibit cross-protection against other environmental stresses (19, 33, 37). In the present study, known and putative genes encoding

proteins associated with the management of stress conditions such as heavy metal toxicity, osmotic stress, oxidative stress, and UV light stress exhibited increases in expression (Table 1, Supplementary Table S3). Further research is necessary to elucidate a possible link between the induced genes and modulation in resistance to the stress conditions.

Influence of acid stress on virulence determinates

In order to investigate the effect of acid stress on virulence, a comprehensive list of known and potential virulence determinate genes were identified from a recent study (54). As shown in Fig. 5, an overall induction in virulence associated genes (24 up-regulated and 6 down-regulated) was observed. The proteins encoded by the up-regulated genes reported in the present study are known to have a role in adaptation in food, in the gastrointestinal tract as well as during the infection processes (18, 19, 56). Further studies using representative strains and appropriate models would give a better understanding on the effect of acid exposure on virulence properties.

Macromolecule syntheses and energy metabolism

The majority of genes encoding proteins involved in purine metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, protein synthesis, sugar transport and citric acid cycle (particularly the oxidative portion) were down-regulated (Fig. 4, Supplementary Table S2) and this is in line with the reduced growth under acidic conditions (Fig. 1). Previous studies (8, 34) have demonstrated a similar repression of genes encoding proteins involved in active-energy consuming processes. The reason for this repression might be the need to use the available energy to maintain the internal pH homeostasis.

To elucidate the effect of acid stress on pyruvate metabolism, which is a key intersection in several pathways, genes encoding proteins involved in the pyruvate metabolism were examined. *L. monocytogenes* produce formate and ethanol under anaerobic growth condition but not during aerobic growth (43). However, the induction of *pflA* encoding the pyruvate formate-lyase that converts pyruvate to formate as well as the repression of *lmo2586* encoding a putative formate dehydrogenase that further catalyze the oxidation of formate to bicarbonate may suggest accumulation of formate during growth at acidic conditions (Supplementary Table S2). In addition, *lap* which encodes the enzyme alcohol-acetaldehyde dehydrogenase

that catalyzes the conversion of acetyl-CoA to ethanol *via* acetaldehyde exhibited a large increase in expression in the presence of the lactic acid (Supplementary Table S2). These results suggest that under acid stress, the pyruvate metabolism is shifted to a heterofermentative type resembling growth under “anaerobic” condition (43).

Synthesis of acetoin from pyruvate is suggested to alleviate acid stress (6). In the present study, however, the transcription of genes encoding the acetoin synthesis enzymes acetolactate synthase (*alsS*) and acetolactate decarboxylase (*alsD*) remained unchanged (not shown), and this contrast a recent study by Bowman et al. (6) that showed increase in the expression of *alsS* and *alsD* during growth under acidic conditions. Interestingly, these genes were induced for the same strain shortly after acid shock (our unpublished result), suggesting the transcriptional level of these genes may vary after the onset of acid stress. Further studies are necessary to support the transcriptional data with metabolic analyses.

Other responses

In addition to the genes described so far, genes encoding proteins involved in various roles such as transportation, signal transduction and regulation were influenced by the acid stress (Fig. 4, Supplementary Table S2). The expression of *sigL* (also known as *rpoN*) encoding σ^{54} (also called SigL) was found to be induced (Supplementary Table S2) but not the other four sigma factors described for *L. monocytogenes* (36). The induction of the *sigL* by lactic acid stress, as well as, the reported impaired growth of *sigL* null mutant during growth in the presence of this acid, particular at low temperature has suggested a possible role of σ^{54} in acid stress (40). In contrast to this, a more recent study has showed a higher survival rate of *sigL* null mutant under acidic stress compared to the parental strain (9). The σ^{54} is known to control the transcription of genes encoding proteins involved in carbohydrate and amino acid metabolisms (2). A number of two-component signal transduction system genes were also differentially regulated (Supplementary Table S2). Interestingly, several genes encoding proteins with unknown functions showed a marked increase in transcription under acidic growth conditions, suggesting more genes yet to be characterized related to acid stress response.

Transcriptional responses specific to the organic acids

Interestingly, the expression of genes encoding the mannose phosphotransferase system (encoded by *mptACD*), the maltose and maltodextrin ABC transporter (*lmo2121-lmo2126*) and a protein similar to beta-glucosidase (*lmo0917*) were down-regulated in the organic acid stressed cultures but were not affected in the HCl stressed culture (Supplementary Table S2). The reduced transcription of genes associated with sugar transport may be attributed to the pronounced growth inhibition of the strain particularly in the presence of the organic acids (Fig. 1). Comparison of transcriptional responses between the two organic acid stressed cultures showed difference only in six genes (Supplementary Table S2). Three of the genes, *lap* (encoding alcohol-acetaldehyde dehydrogenase), *lmo0989* (similar to a regulatory protein), and *lmo1257* (with unknown function) were up-regulated. *lmo2721* (similar to glucosamine-6-phosphate isomerase) was down-regulated in the lactic acid stressed culture. *lmo2145* and *lmo2742* (encoding proteins of unknown functions) were repressed in the presence of acetic acid. The exact roles of these specific genes in resistance to the organic acids remain to be investigated.

Concluding remarks

The growth study and the transcriptomic analyses provided insights regarding the response of the foodborne pathogen *L. monocytogenes* to acidulants and pH relevant to the food industry. This is, to our knowledge, the first study on the transcriptional responses of *L. monocytogenes* to acetic acid and lactic acid stress. The present study identified a number of known and putative genes that are linked to acid resistance including the GAD system, modification of the cell envelope, protection and repair of macromolecules, intracellular accumulation of histidine and osmolytes as well as general stress proteins. The cross-resistance of acid adapted cells to other stress conditions is of great concern and the present study identified possible genes that could be linked to acid induced cross-protection against a number of stress conditions. Low pH (in certain food and gastric juice) could be a signal to lead foodborne pathogens to a pathogenic lifestyle and both HCl and organic acids induced genes associated with virulence. The key differences between the HCl and the organic acid stress responses includes overall pronounced transcriptional responses in the presence of organic acids than in the HCl stressed culture and the transcripts associated with sugar uptake systems were reduced in the organic acids stressed cultures but not changed in the HCl stressed culture. In

conclusion, this study identified large number of genes with direct and indirect role in acid stress defense and other types of stress which also opens the possibilities for more specific and in-depth future studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Foundation for Research Levy on Agricultural Products, the Norwegian Research Council and by the EU framework VI programme on Food Quality and Safety, “ProSafebeef” Food-CT-2006-36241 research programme. We acknowledge BμG@S (the Bacterial Microarray Group at St George’s, University of London) for supply of the microarray and advice and The Wellcome Trust for funding the multi-collaborative microbial pathogen microarray facility under its Functional Genomics Resources Initiative.

We are grateful to Jason Hinds, Adam Witney, Denise Waldron, and Kate Gould from the BμG@S for additional assistance with microarrays.

REFERENCES

1. **Abram, F., E. Starr, K. A. G. Karatzas, K. Matlawska-Wasowska, A. Boyd, M. Wiedmann, K. J. Boor, D. Connally, and C. P. O'Byrne.** 2008. Identification of components of the sigma B regulon in *Listeria monocytogenes* that contribute to acid and salt tolerance. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **74**:6848-6858.
2. **Arous, S., C. Buchrieser, P. Folio, P. Glaser, A. Namane, M. Hebraud, and Y. Hechard.** 2004. Global analysis of gene expression in an *rpoN* mutant of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Microbiology* **150**:1581-1590.
3. **Beales, N.** 2004. Adaptation of microorganisms to cold temperatures, weak acid preservatives, low pH, and osmotic stress: a review. *Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf.* **3**:1-20.
4. **Bennett, H. J., D. M. Pearce, S. Glenn, C. M. Taylor, M. Kuhn, A. L. Sonenshein, P. W. Andrew, and I. S. Roberts.** 2007. Characterization of *relA* and *codY* mutants of *Listeria monocytogenes*: identification of the CodY regulon and its role in virulence. *Mol. Microbiol.* **63**:1453-1467.
5. **Bore, E., S. Langsrud, O. Langsrud, T. M. Rode, and A. Holck.** 2007. Acid-shock responses in *Staphylococcus aureus* investigated by global gene expression analysis. *Microbiology* **153**:2289-2303.
6. **Bowman, J. P., K. J. Lee Chang, T. Pinfeld, and T. Ross.** 2010. Transcriptomic and phenotypic responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains possessing different growth efficiencies under acidic conditions. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76**:4836-4850.
7. **Boyd, D. A., D. G. Cvitkovitch, A. S. Bleiweis, M. Y. Kiriukhin, D. V. Debabov, F. C. Neuhaus, and I. R. Hamilton.** 2000. Defects in D-alanyl-lipoteichoic acid synthesis in *Streptococcus mutans* results in acid sensitivity. *J. Bacteriol.* **182**:6055-6065.
8. **Broadbent, J. R., R. L. Larsen, V. Deibel, and J. L. Steele.** 2010. Physiological and transcriptional response of *Lactobacillus casei* ATCC 334 to acid stress. *J. Bacteriol.* **192**:2445-2458.
9. **Chaturongakul, S., S. Raengpradub, M. E. Palmer, T. M. Bergholz, R. H. Orsi, Y. Hu, J. Ollinger, M. Wiedmann, and K. J. Boor.** 2010. Transcriptomic and phenotypic analyses identify co-regulated, overlapping regulons among PrfA, CtsR, HrcA and the alternative sigma factors σ^B , σ^C , σ^H , and σ^L in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*:doi:10.1128/aem.00952-10.

10. **Cherrington, C. A., M. Hinton, G. C. Mead, and I. Chopra.** 1991. Organic acids: chemistry, antibacterial activity and practical applications. *Adv. Microb. Physiol.* **32**:87-108.
11. **Conte, M. P., G. Petrone, A. M. Di Biase, M. G. Ammendolia, F. Superti, and L. Seganti.** 2000. Acid tolerance in *Listeria monocytogenes* influences invasiveness of enterocyte-like cells and macrophage-like cells. *Microb. Pathog.* **29**:137-144.
12. **Cotter, P., C. Gahan, and C. Hill.** 2001. A glutamate decarboxylase system protects *Listeria monocytogenes* in gastric fluid. *Mol. Microbiol.* **40**:465 - 475.
13. **Cotter, P., S. Ryan, C. Gahan, and C. Hill.** 2005. Presence of GadD1 glutamate decarboxylase in selected *Listeria monocytogenes* strains is associated with an ability to grow at low pH. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **71**:2832 - 2839.
14. **Cotter, P. D., and C. Hill.** 2003. Surviving the acid test: responses of gram-positive bacteria to low pH. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **67**:429-453.
15. **Cotter, P. D., K. O'Reilly, and C. Hill.** 2001. Role of the glutamate decarboxylase acid resistance system in the survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 in low pH foods. *J. Food Prot.* **64**:1362-1368.
16. **Dieterich, G., U. Karst, E. Fischer, J. Wehland, and L. Jansch.** 2006. LEGER: knowledge database and visualization tool for comparative genomics of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Listeria* species. *Nucl. Acids Res.* **34**:D402-406.
17. **Francis, G. A., J. Scollard, A. Meally, D. J. Bolton, C. G. M. Gahan, P. D. Cotter, C. Hill, and D. O'Beirne.** 2007. The glutamate decarboxylase acid resistance mechanism affects survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28 in modified atmosphere-packaged foods. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **103**:2316-2324.
18. **Gahan, C. G. M., and C. Hill.** 2005. Gastrointestinal phase of *Listeria monocytogenes* infection. *J. Appl. Microbiol.* **98**:1345-1353.
19. **Gahan, C. G. M., B. O'Driscoll, and C. Hill.** 1996. Acid adaptation of *Listeria monocytogenes* can enhance survival in acidic foods and during milk fermentation. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **62**:3128-3132.
20. **Gahan, C. G. M., J. O'Mahony, and C. Hill.** 2001. Characterization of the *groESL* operon in *Listeria monocytogenes*: utilization of two reporter systems (*gfp* and *hly*) for evaluating in vivo expression. *Infect. Immun.* **69**:3924-3932.
21. **Giotis, E. S., D. A. McDowell, I. S. Blair, and B. J. Wilkinson.** 2007. Role of branched-chain fatty acids in pH stress tolerance in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **73**:997-1001.

22. **Greenacre, E. J., T. F. Brocklehurst, C. R. Waspe, D. R. Wilson, and P. D. G. Wilson.** 2003. *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium and *Listeria monocytogenes* acid tolerance response induced by organic acids at 20°C: optimization and modeling. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **69**:3945-3951.
23. **Hanna, M. N., R. J. Ferguson, Y. H. Li, and D. G. Cvitkovitch.** 2001. *uvrA* is an acid-inducible gene involved in the adaptive response to low pH in *Streptococcus mutans*. *J. Bacteriol.* **183**:5964-5973.
24. **Hinds, J., K. G. Laing, J. A. Mangan, and P. D. Butcher.** 2002. Glass slide microarrays for bacterial genomes, p. 83-99. *In* B. Wren and N. Dorrell (ed.), *Methods in microbiology: functional microbial genomics*, vol. 33. Academic Press, San Diego, CA.
25. **Hirshfield, I. N., S. Terzulli, and C. O'Byrne.** 2003. Weak organic acids: a panoply of effects on bacteria. *Sci. Prog.* **86**:245-69.
26. **Karatzas, K.-A. G., O. Brennan, S. Heavin, J. Morrissey, and C. P. O'Byrne.** 2010. Intracellular accumulation of high levels of γ -aminobutyrate by *Listeria monocytogenes* 10403S in response to low pH: uncoupling of γ -aminobutyrate synthesis from efflux in a chemically defined medium. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **76**:3529-3537.
27. **Kim, S. H., L. Gorski, J. Reynolds, E. Orozco, S. Fielding, Y. H. Park, and M. K. Borucki.** 2006. Role of *uvrA* in the growth and survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* under UV radiation and acid and bile stress. *J. Food Prot.* **69**:3031-3036.
28. **Kitko, R. D., J. C. Wilks, G. M. Garduque, and J. L. Slonczewski.** 2010. Osmolytes contribute to pH homeostasis of *Escherichia coli*. *PLoS One* **5**:e10078.
29. **Liu, D.** 2008. *Handbook of Listeria monocytogenes*. Taylor and Francis CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
30. **Lou, Y., and A. Yousef.** 1997. Adaptation to sublethal environmental stresses protects *Listeria monocytogenes* against lethal preservation factors. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **63**:1252-1255.
31. **Lund, P. A.** 2009. Multiple chaperonins in bacteria-why so many? *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* **33**:785-800.
32. **Mastronicolis, S. K., A. Berberi, I. Diakogiannis, E. Petrova, I. Kiaki, T. Baltzi, and P. Xenikakis.** 2010. Alteration of the phospho- or neutral lipid content and fatty acid composition in *Listeria monocytogenes* due to acid adaptation mechanisms for hydrochloric, acetic and lactic acids at pH 5.5 or benzoic acid at neutral pH. *Antonie van Leeuwenhoek* **98**: 307-316.

33. **McKinney, J. M., R. C. Williams, G. D. Boardman, J. D. Eifert, and S. S. Sumner.** 2009. Effect of acid stress, antibiotic resistance, and heat shock on the resistance of *Listeria monocytogenes* to UV light when suspended in distilled water and fresh brine. *J. Food Prot.* **72**:1634-40.
34. **Mols, M., R. van Kranenburg, M. H. Tempelaars, W. van Schaik, R. Moezelaar, and T. Abee.** 2010. Comparative analysis of transcriptional and physiological responses of *Bacillus cereus* to organic and inorganic acid shocks. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **137**:13-21.
35. **Morey, J., J. Ryan, and F. Van Dolah.** 2006. Microarray validation: factors influencing correlation between oligonucleotide microarrays and real-time PCR. *Biol. Proced. Online* **8**:175-193.
36. **O'Byrne, C. P., and K. A. G. Karatzas.** 2008. The role of sigma B (σ^B) in the stress adaptations of *Listeria monocytogenes*: overlaps between stress adaptation and virulence, p. 115-140. In A. Laskin, S. Sariaslani, and G. Gadd (ed.), *Advances in Applied Microbiology*, vol. 65. Academic Press, San Diego, CA.
37. **O'Driscoll, B., C. G. M. Gahan, and C. Hill.** 1996. Adaptive acid tolerance response in *Listeria monocytogenes*: isolation of an acid-tolerant mutant which demonstrates increased virulence. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **62**:1693-1698.
38. **O'Driscoll, B., C. G. M. Gahan, and C. Hill.** 1997. Two-dimensional polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis analysis of the acid tolerance response in *Listeria monocytogenes* LO28. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **63**:2679-2685.
39. **Phan-Thanh, L., F. Mahouin, and S. Alige.** 2000. Acid responses of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* **55**:121-126.
40. **Raimann, E., B. Schmid, R. Stephan, and T. Tasara.** 2009. The alternative sigma factor σ^L of *L. monocytogenes* promotes growth under diverse environmental stresses. *Foodborne Pathog. Dis.* **6**:583-91.
41. **Ricke, S.** 2003. Perspectives on the use of organic acids and short chain fatty acids as antimicrobials. *Poult. Sci.* **82**:632-639.
42. **Rode, T. M., T. Møretro, S. Langsrud, Ø. Langsrud, G. Vogt, and A. Holck.** 2010. Responses of *Staphylococcus aureus* exposed to HCl and organic acid stress. *Can. J. Microbiol.* **56**:777-792.
43. **Romick, T., H. Fleming, and R. McFeeters.** 1996. Aerobic and anaerobic metabolism of *Listeria monocytogenes* in defined glucose medium. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **62**:304-307.

44. **Ryan, S., M. Begley, C. G. Gahan, and C. Hill.** 2009. Molecular characterization of the arginine deiminase system in *Listeria monocytogenes*: regulation and role in acid tolerance. *Environ. Microbiol.* **11**:432-45.
45. **Ryan, S., C. Hill, and C. G. M. Gahan.** 2008. Acid stress responses in *Listeria monocytogenes*, p. 67-91. In A. Laskin, S. Sariaslani, and G. Gadd (ed.), *Advances in Applied Microbiology*, vol. 65. Academic Press, San Diego, CA.
46. **Ryser, T. E., and E. H. Marth.** 2007. *Listeria*, listeriosis, and food safety, Third ed. Taylor and Francis CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL.
47. **Shabala, L., B. Budde, T. Ross, H. Siegmund, M. Jakobsen, and T. McMeekin.** 2002. Responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* to acid stress and glucose availability revealed by a novel combination of fluorescence microscopy and microelectrode ion-selective techniques. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **68**:1794-1802.
48. **Smyth, G. K.** 2005. Limma: linear models for microarray data, p. 397-420. In R. Gentleman, V. Carey, S. Dudoit, R. Irizarry, and W. Huber (ed.), *Bioinformatics and computational biology solutions using R and Bioconductor*. Springer, New York, NY.
49. **Smyth, G. K.** 2004. Linear models and empirical Bayes methods for assessing differential expression in microarray experiments. *Stat. Appl. Genet. Mol. Biol.* **3**:1-25.
50. **Smyth, G. K., J. Michaud, and H. S. Scott.** 2005. Use of within-array replicate spots for assessing differential expression in microarray experiments. *Bioinformatics* **21**:2067-2075.
51. **Smyth, G. K., and T. Speed.** 2003. Normalization of cDNA microarray data. *Methods* **31**:265-273.
52. **Stack, H. M., R. D. Sleator, M. Bowers, C. Hill, and C. G. M. Gahan.** 2005. Role for HtrA in stress induction and virulence potential in *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **71**:4241-4247.
53. **Tessema, G. T., T. Moretro, A. Kohler, L. Axelsson, and K. Naterstad.** 2009. Complex phenotypic and genotypic responses of *Listeria monocytogenes* strains exposed to the class IIa bacteriocin sakacin P. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **75**:6973-6980.
54. **Toledo-Arana, A., O. Dussurget, G. Nikitas, N. Sesto, H. Guet-Revillet, D. Balestrino, E. Loh, J. Gripenland, T. Tiensuu, K. Vaitkevicius, M. Barthelemy, M. Vergassola, M. A. Nahori, G. Soubigou, B. Regnault, J. Y. Coppee, M. Lecuit, J. Johansson, and P. Cossart.** 2009. The *Listeria* transcriptional landscape from saprophytism to virulence. *Nature* **459**:950-956.
55. **van der Veen, S., T. Hain, J. A. Wouters, H. Hossain, W. M. de Vos, T. Abee, T. Chakraborty, and M. H. J. Wells-Bennik.** 2007. The heat-shock response of *Listeria*

monocytogenes comprises genes involved in heat shock, cell division, cell wall synthesis, and the SOS response. *Microbiology* **153**:3593-3607.

56. **Vazquez-Boland, J. A., M. Kuhn, P. Berche, T. Chakraborty, G. Dominguez-Bernal, W. Goebel, B. Gonzalez-Zorn, J. Wehland, and J. Kreft.** 2001. *Listeria* pathogenesis and molecular virulence determinants *Clin. Microbiol. Rev.* **14**:584-640.

57. **Walter, J., D. M. Loach, M. Alqumber, C. Rockel, C. Hermann, M. Pfitzenmaier, and G. W. Tannock.** 2007. D-alanyl ester depletion of teichoic acids in *Lactobacillus reuteri* 100-23 results in impaired colonization of the mouse gastrointestinal tract. *Environ. Microbiol.* **9**:1750-1760.

58. **Wemekamp-Kamphuis, H. H., J. A. Wouters, P. P. L. A. de Leeuw, T. Hain, T. Chakraborty, and T. Abee.** 2004. Identification of sigma factor σ^B -controlled genes and their impact on acid stress, high hydrostatic pressure, and freeze survival in *Listeria monocytogenes* EGD-e. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **70**:3457-3466.

59. **Young, K., and F. PM.** 1993. Acetic, lactic and citric acids and pH inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* Scott A and the effect on intracellular pH. *J. Appl. Bacteriol.* **74**:515-520.

Table 1. Genes differentially regulated during growth in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Log2 ratio ^b		
			HCl	AA	LA
GAD system					
lmo2362	<i>gadT2</i>	amino acid antiporter	5.64	5.49	5.28
lmo2363	<i>gadD2</i>	glutamate decarboxylase	5.60	5.56	5.51
lmo0913		conserved hypothetical protein	0.22	0.49	0.90
Modification of the cell envelope					
lmo0971	<i>dltD</i>	DltD protein	0.86	1.11	1.12
lmo0972	<i>dltC</i>	D-alanyl carrier protein	0.65	0.85	1.05
lmo0973	<i>dltB</i>	DltB protein	0.84	1.15	1.42
lmo0974	<i>dltA</i>	D-alanine-activating enzyme	0.89	1.15	1.24
lmo1369	<i>ptb</i>	phosphotransbutyrylase	-0.69	-0.16	-1.37
lmo1370	<i>buk</i>	branched-chain fatty-acid kinase	-0.48	-0.32	-0.59
lmo1371	<i>lpd</i>	branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E3 subunit	-0.61	-0.25	-0.55
lmo1372	<i>bkdA1</i>	branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E1 subunit	-0.61	-0.16	-0.57
lmo1374	<i>bkdB</i>	branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E2 subunit	-0.74	-0.25	-0.53
lmo1373	<i>bkdA2</i>	branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E1 subunit	-0.56	-0.16	-0.58
Protection and repair of macromolecules					
lmo0846		excinuclease ABC, chain C (UvrC)	0.72	0.75	0.85
lmo1234	<i>uvrC</i>	excinuclease ABC subunit C	1.14	1.21	1.35
lmo1248	<i>mutT</i>	8-oxo-dGTPase (mutT)	0.71	1.10	2.07
lmo1460	<i>recO</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> RecO protein involved in DNA repair and homologous recombination	0.25	0.60	0.57
lmo1824	<i>priA</i>	primosomal replication factor Y	0.59	0.84	0.90
lmo1881		5-3 exonuclease	1.06	1.40	1.60
lmo2242		O ⁶ -methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase	0.41	0.82	1.01
lmo2488	<i>uvrA</i>	excinuclease ABC (subunit A)	0.18	0.41	0.31
lmo2489	<i>uvrB</i>	excinuclease ABC (subunit B)	0.59	0.94	0.95
lmo2702	<i>recR</i>	recombination protein recR	0.60	0.74	0.77
lmo0292	<i>htrA</i>	heat-shock protein htrA serine protease	1.07	1.12	1.26
lmo1444	<i>prsA1</i>	protein secretion PrsA	0.67	1.05	0.97
lmo2068	<i>groEL</i>	class I heat-shock protein (chaperonin) GroEL	-0.71	-0.74	-0.86
lmo2069	<i>groES</i>	class I heat-shock protein (chaperonin) GroES	-0.50	-0.44	-0.60
Intracellular histidine and osmolytes accumulation					
lmo0565	<i>hisH</i>	amidotransferases	0.77	0.86	0.72
lmo0569	<i>hisZ</i>	histidyl-tRNA synthetase	0.60	0.68	0.70
lmo0561	<i>hisE</i>	phosphorybosil-AMP-cyclohydrolase (HisI2 protein)	0.47	0.67	0.80
lmo0562	<i>hisI</i>	phosphoribosyl-AMP cyclohydrolase (HisI1 protein)	0.50	0.48	0.55
lmo0563	<i>hisF</i>	cyclase HisF	0.55	0.62	1.05
lmo0564	<i>hisA</i>	phosphoribosylformimino-5-aminoimidazole carboxamide ribotide isomerase	0.52	1.08	0.90
lmo0566	<i>hisB</i>	imidazoleglycerol-phosphate dehydratase	0.55	0.57	0.74
lmo0567	<i>hisD</i>	histidinol dehydrogenases	0.47	0.56	0.81
lmo0568	<i>hisG</i>	ATP phosphoribosyltransferase	0.58	0.82	0.75

Table 1. Continued ..

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Log2 ratio ^b		
			HCl	AA	LA
lmo1425	<i>opuCD</i>	betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (membrane p)	0.40	0.75	0.98
lmo1426	<i>opuCC</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (osmoprotectant-binding protein)	0.47	0.95	0.95
lmo1427	<i>opuCB</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (membrane protein)	0.47	0.99	1.30
lmo1428	<i>opuCA</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)	0.57	0.99	1.36
lmo2680	<i>kdpC</i>	potassium-transporting ATPase c chain	0.91	1.52	2.09
lmo2681	<i>kdpB</i>	potassium-transporting ATPase b chain	1.01	2.18	3.28
lmo2682	<i>kdpA</i>	highly potassium-transporting ATPase a chain	1.19	2.58	3.53
General stress proteins					
lmo0211	<i>ctc</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> general stress protein	1.12	1.74	2.36
lmo1580		unknown protein	0.29	0.69	0.87
lmo2391		<i>B. subtilis</i> YhfK protein	1.48	1.40	1.52
lmo2398	<i>ltrC</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> YutG protein	0.95	0.93	0.95
lmo2673		conserved hypothetical protein	0.22	0.49	0.90
lmo2748		<i>B. subtilis</i> stress protein YdaG	0.42	0.86	1.37

^a Description of genes according to the annotation of the Comprehensive Microbial Resource of the J. Craig Venter Institute (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>) and published literature sources.

^b Log₂ expression ratio (HCl, hydrochloric acid; AA, acetic acid; or LA, lactic acid/reference culture); bold type values with log₂ ratios ≥ 0.585 or ≤ -0.585 and with q-value < 0.01 (p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate). Extended list of genes with q-values are given in Supplementary Table S2.

CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Growth of *L. monocytogenes* L502 (A) OD₆₀₀ (B) total viable count and (C) the pH of the corresponding cultures in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl) (◇), 10 mM acetic acid (Δ), or 20 mM lactic acid (■). Growth in BHI broth pH 7.2 (●) was used as reference. The solid and the dashed arrows indicate time of exposure to the acids and harvesting, respectively. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

Fig. 2. Venn diagram showing total number of genes (A) up-regulated and (B) down-regulated during growth in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with HCl, 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA).

Fig. 3. PCA score plot of genes differentially expressed in any of the acid stressed cultures during growth in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA). All the dye-swap and technical replicates from the two biological cultures were included in the PCA. The explained variances for PC1 and PC2 are 47% and 12% respectively.

Fig. 4. Total number of (A) up-regulated and (B) down-regulated genes in different functional role categories according to the primary annotation in CMR-JCVI *L. monocytogenes* EGDe genome database during growth in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with HCl (white bars), 10 mM acetic acid (gray bars) or 20 mM lactic acid (black bars).

Fig. 5. Virulence determinants expressed in any of the acid stressed cultures during growth in BHI broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA). List of virulence determinant genes were taken from reference (54).

Fig. 1

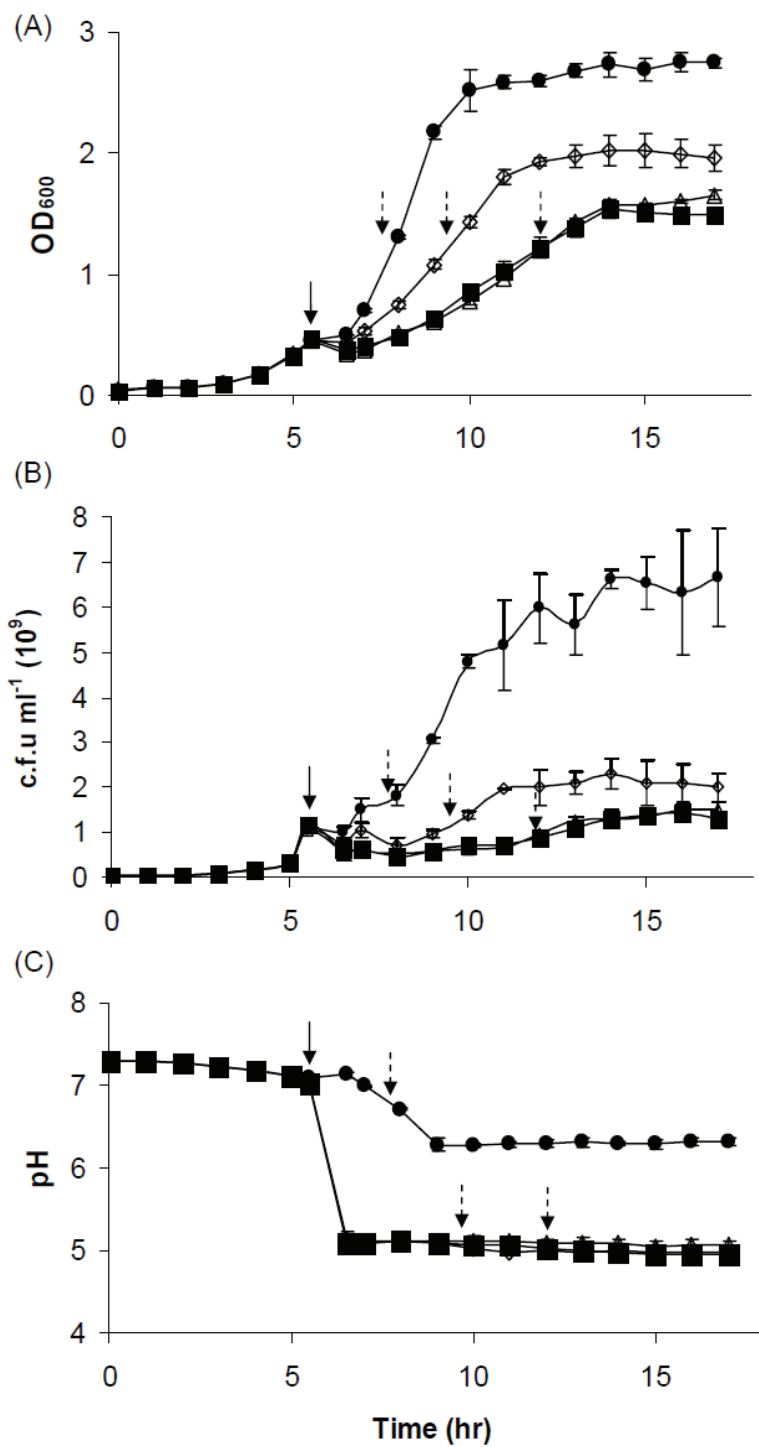
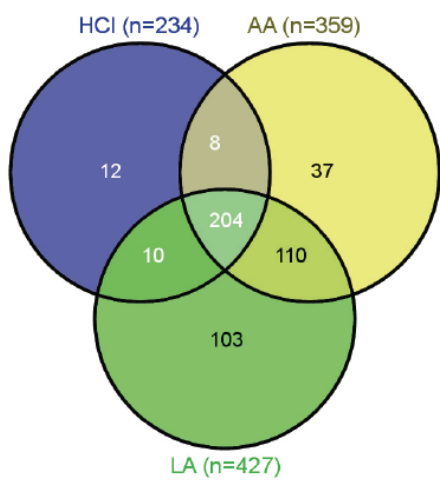


Fig. 2

(A)



(B)

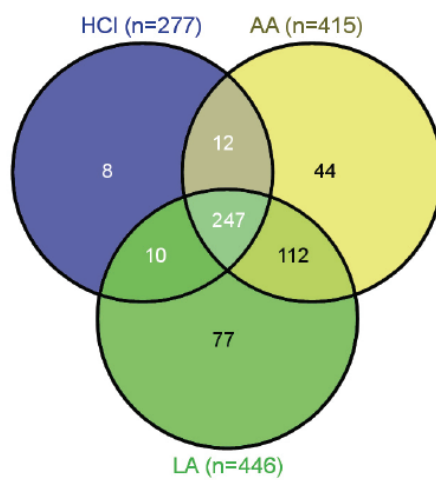


Fig. 3

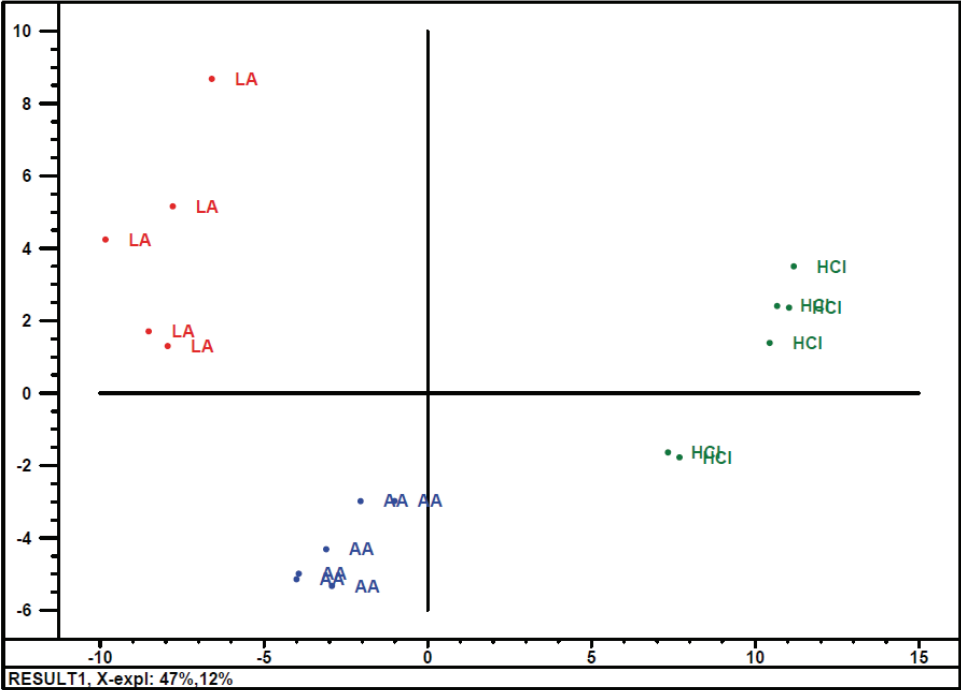


Fig. 4

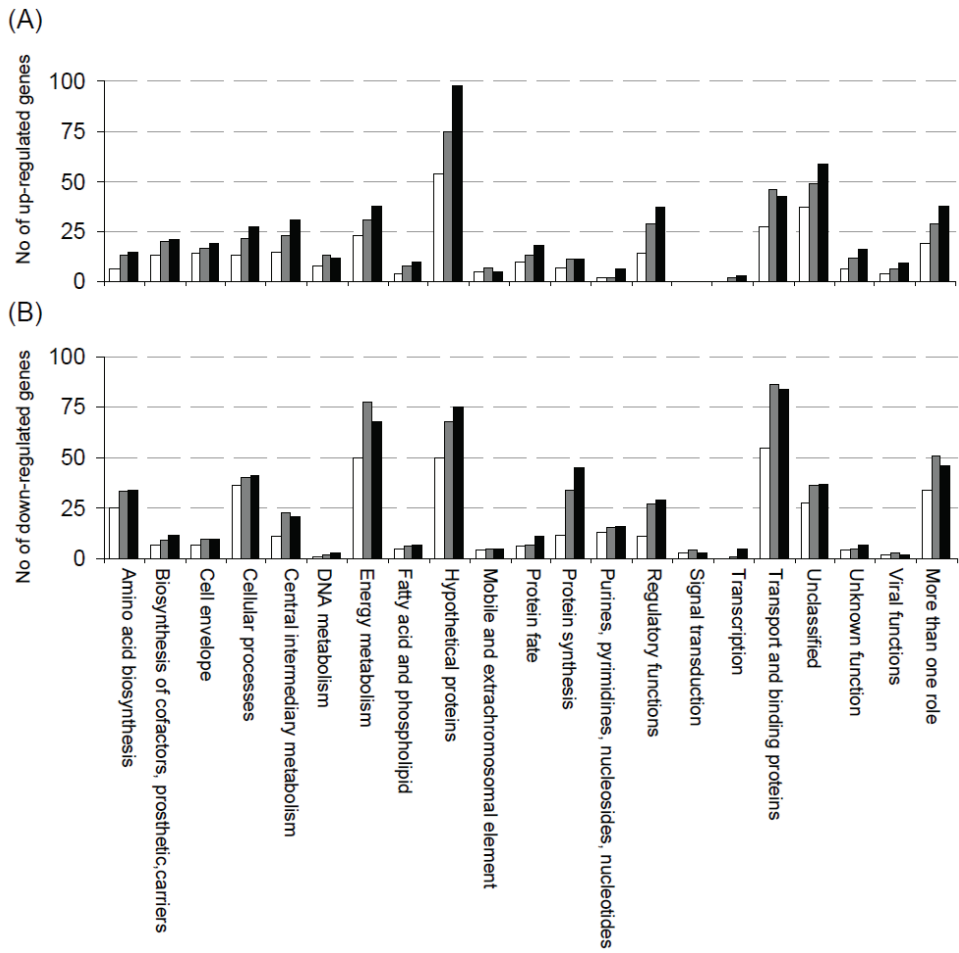
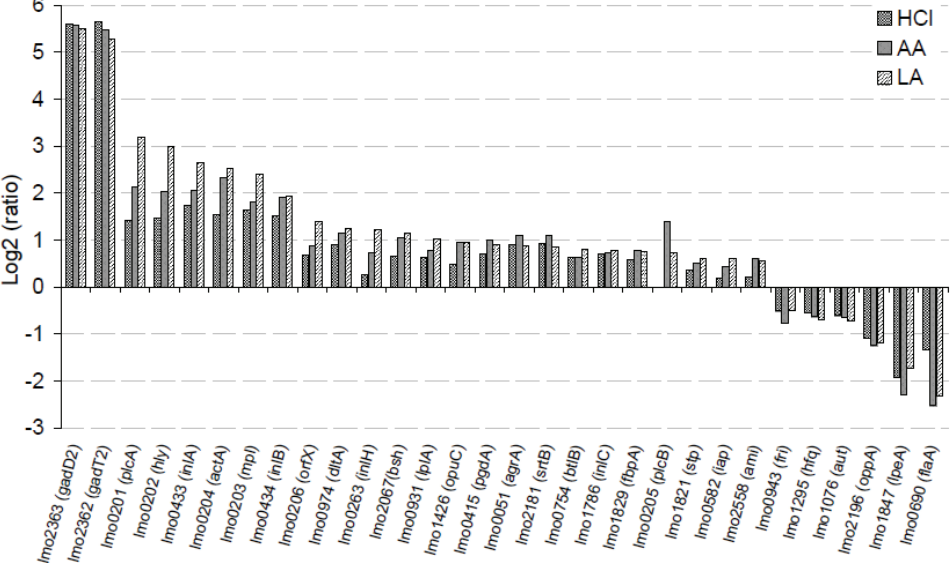


Fig. 5



SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

Table S1. Primer and probe sets used for qRT-PCR

Target	Primer and probe name	Sequence ^a (5'→3')	Reference ^b
<i>mptA</i> (lmo0096)	MptAF	CCTCGCAACTCACGGTGAAT	Tessema et al.
	MptAR	TCTTGCTCGCCGAAAATCA	
	MptA-Taq	TGCTGAAGGTATTTTGCAGTCCGGAACA	
<i>actA</i> (lmo0204)	lmo0204F	CGACCGACCAGCTATACAAGTG	This study
	lmo0204R	AATTTCCGCTGCGCTATCC	
	lmo0204-Taq	AGCGTCGTCATCCAGGATTGCCA	
<i>lmo1251</i>	lmo1251F	TGGAAATAGCGCCTGATCAAT	This study
	lmo1251R	TCCCGCAAAAATGACCAATT	
	lmo1251-Taq	TTTTCTAGTAAGCAATGAAG)	
<i>glpK</i> (lmo1538)	lmo1538F	GAAAGCAATGCTGCCAGAAGT	This study
	lmo1538R	GCAATACCTGCAACCGGAACT	
	lmo1538-Taq	ATCCTCTGAAGTATATGCGGACACAGTGCC	
<i>kdpA</i> (mo2682)	lmo2682F	GTTGGTGGTTTCGTCGCTTTT	This study
	lmo2682R	TGTCGTGCATTGCGTTCAC	
	lmo2682-Taq	CGGCTTCCACAACGGCAGCC	
16S rRNA	16S rRNAF	GCGCAGGCGGTCTTTTAAG	Tessema et al.
	16S rRNAR	CAATGACCCTCCCGGTTA	
	16S rRNA-Taq	CTGATGTGAAAGCCCCGGC	

^aTaq probes, 6-FAM, 6-carboxyfluorescein (fluorophore); TAMRA, 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine (quencher)

^b Tessema et al. 2009. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 75:6973-6980.

Table S2. Genes differentially regulated in *L. monocytogenes* L502 during growth in brain heart infusion broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA) compared to reference culture pH 7.2.

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^b		HCl ^b		AA		LA	
			Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value		
Amino acid metabolism up-regulated										
lmo0238	<i>cysE</i>	serine O-acetyltransferase	0.26	0.006	0.59	0.000	0.40	0.000		
lmo0561		phosphorybosil-AMP-cyclohydrolase (HisI2 protein)	0.47	0.001	0.67	0.001	0.80	0.000		
lmo0563	<i>hisF</i>	cyclase HisF	0.55	0.000	0.62	0.000	1.05	0.000		
lmo0564	<i>hisA</i>	phosphorybosylformimino-5-aminoimidazole carboxamide ribotide isomerase	0.52	0.000	1.08	0.000	0.90	0.000		
lmo0565	<i>hisH</i>	amidotransferases	0.77	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.72	0.000		
lmo0566	<i>hisB</i>	imidazoleglycerol-phosphate dehydratase	0.55	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.74	0.000		
lmo0567	<i>hisD</i>	histidinol dehydrogenases	0.47	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.81	0.000		
lmo0568	<i>hisG</i>	ATP phosphorybosyltransferase	0.58	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.75	0.000		
lmo0594		homoserine O-acetyltransferase	0.66	0.000	0.84	0.000	1.20	0.000		
lmo0978		branched-chain amino acid aminotransferase	0.49	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.70	0.000		
lmo1387		pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase	0.49	0.000	0.66	0.000	0.90	0.000		
lmo1513		iron-sulfur cofactor synthesis protein	E	0.47	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.79	0.000	
lmo1600	<i>araA</i>	deoxy-D-arabino-heptulosonate 7-phosphate synthase	0.29	0.014	0.61	0.002	0.47	0.001		
lmo1681		cobalamin-independent methionine synthase	1.11	0.000	1.49	0.000	1.70	0.000		
Amino acid metabolism down-regulated										
lmo0036	<i>arcB</i>	ornithine carbamoyltransferase	-0.82	0.004	-0.75	0.003	NA	NA		
lmo1588	<i>argD</i>	N-acetylmithine aminotransferase	-1.06	0.000	-1.48	0.002	-1.47	0.001		
lmo1589	<i>argB</i>	N-acetylglutamate 5-phosphotransferase	-1.92	0.000	-1.32	0.000	-1.02	0.009		
lmo1591	<i>argC</i>	N-acetylglutamate gamma-semialdehyde dehydrogenases	-0.87	0.002	-0.35	0.055	-0.73	0.015		
lmo1627	<i>trpA</i>	tryptophan synthase (alpha subunit)	-0.45	0.016	-0.65	0.008	NA	NA		
lmo1628	<i>trpB</i>	tryptophan synthase (beta subunit)	-0.47	0.000	-0.53	0.003	-0.65	0.000		
lmo1983	<i>livD</i>	dihydroxy-acid dehydratase	-0.59	0.016	-0.77	0.038	-0.86	0.005		
lmo1990	<i>leuD</i>	3-isopropylmalate dehydratase (small subunit)	-0.74	0.000	-0.41	0.019	-1.10	0.000		
lmo2090	<i>argG</i>	argininosuccinate synthase	-1.81	0.000	-1.92	0.000	-2.01	0.000		
lmo2091	<i>argH</i>	argininosuccinate lyase	-2.00	0.000	-2.30	0.000	-2.01	0.000		
lmo2252		aspartate aminotransferase	-1.31	0.000	-1.53	0.000	-1.73	0.000		
lmo2524		hydroxymyristoyl-(acyl carrier protein) dehydratase	-0.56	0.000	-0.74	0.000	-0.79	0.000		
lmo2539	<i>glyA</i>	glycine hydroxymethyltransferase	B	-0.51	0.000	-0.67	0.000	-0.68	0.000	
lmo2545	<i>thrB</i>	homoserine kinase	-0.50	0.000	-0.48	0.000	-0.82	0.000		
lmo2546	<i>thrC</i>	threonine synthase	-0.61	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-1.00	0.000		
lmo2547	<i>hom</i>	homoserine dehydrogenase	-0.23	0.000	-0.17	0.001	-0.61	0.000		
Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers up-regulated										
lmo0316		hydroxyethylthiazole kinase (ThiM)	0.91	0.000	0.91	0.000	1.58	0.000		
lmo0317		phosphomethylpyrimidine kinase (ThiD)	0.40	0.080	0.93	0.000	1.27	0.000		
lmo0318		thiamin-phosphate pyrophosphorylase (ThiE)	0.84	0.000	0.74	0.001	1.22	0.000		
lmo0884		protoporphyrinogen IX and coproporphyrinogen III oxidase (HemY)	0.60	0.000	0.90	0.000	1.09	0.000		
lmo1038		mylbdopterin-guanine dinucleotide biosynthesis protein A	0.75	0.000	0.79	0.000	1.08	0.000		
lmo1147		bifunctional cobalamin biosynthesis protein CopB, (cobinamide kinase; cobinamide phosphatase guanylyltransferase)	0.66	0.000	0.78	0.000	0.95	0.000		
lmo1148		cobalamin (5-phosphatase) synthetase	0.69	0.000	0.97	0.000	0.91	0.000		
lmo1365	<i>tktB</i>	D-1-deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate synthase	0.56	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.85	0.000		
lmo1553	<i>hemL</i>	glutamate-1-semialdehyde 2,1-aminotransferases	0.28	0.137	0.87	0.012	0.84	0.005		
lmo1554	<i>hemB</i>	delta-aminolevulinic acid dehydratases (porphobilinogen synthase)	0.98	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.78	0.000		
lmo1555		uroporphyrinogen III cosynthase (HemD)	0.31	0.000	0.52	0.000	0.68	0.000		
lmo1556	<i>hemC</i>	porphobilinogen deaminases (hydroxymethylbilane synthase)	0.30	0.000	0.40	0.000	0.62	0.000		
lmo1557	<i>hemA</i>	glutamyl-tRNA reductase	0.31	0.000	0.33	0.000	0.59	0.000		
lmo1676	<i>menF</i>	menaquinone-specific isochorismate synthase	0.41	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.59	0.000		
lmo1901	<i>panC</i>	panthotenate synthetases	0.57	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.57	0.000		
lmo2211	<i>hemH</i>	ferrochelatase	0.51	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.57	0.000		
lmo2212	<i>hemE</i>	uroporphyrinogen III decarboxylase	0.52	0.000	0.68	0.000	0.55	0.000		
lmo2256		unknown protein	0.62	0.000	0.40	0.000	0.51	0.000		
lmo2571		nicotinamide	0.29	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.47	0.000		
lmo2770		gamma-glutamylcysteine synthetase (for the N-terminal part) and to cyanophycin synthetase (C-terminal part)	0.43	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.44	0.000		
Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers down-regulated										
lmo0637		methyltransferase	-0.33	0.003	-0.44	0.000	-0.61	0.001		
lmo1042		mylbdopterin biosynthesis protein moeA	-0.37	0.000	-0.50	0.000	-0.66	0.000		
lmo1043		mylbdopterin-guanine dinucleotide biosynthesis MobB	-0.40	0.000	-0.54	0.000	-0.67	0.000		
lmo1045		mylbdopterin converting factor (subunit 1)	-0.41	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.78	0.000		
lmo1046	<i>moaC</i>	mylbdenum cofactor biosynthesis protein C	-0.66	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-0.78	0.000		
lmo1047	<i>moaA</i>	mylbdenum cofactor biosynthesis protein A	-0.68	0.000	-0.93	0.000	-0.83	0.000		
lmo1048	<i>moaB</i>	mylbdenum cofactor biosynthesis protein B	-0.65	0.000	-0.91	0.000	-0.84	0.000		
lmo1315		undecaprenyl diphosphate synthase	-0.63	0.000	-1.01	0.000	-0.86	0.000		
lmo1930		heptaprenyl diphosphate synthase component II (menaquinone biosynthesis)	-0.76	0.000	-1.03	0.000	-0.88	0.000		
lmo2046		ketopantoate reductase involved in thiamin biosynthesis	-0.61	0.000	-1.04	0.000	-0.97	0.000		
lmo2101		protein required for pyridoxine synthesis	-0.72	0.000	-0.98	0.000	-1.04	0.000		
Cell envelope up-regulated										
lmo0366		conserved hypothetical protein, putative lipoprotein	0.85	0.000	0.92	0.000	0.80	0.000		
lmo0415		endo-1,4-beta-xylanase	0.70	0.000	1.01	0.000	0.89	0.000		

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0481		unknown protein		0.19	0.168	0.72	0.001	0.60	0.000
lmo0603		unknown		0.40	0.000	0.42	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0610		internalin proteins, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		2.05	0.000	1.84	0.000	1.60	0.000
lmo0880		wall associated protein precursor (LPXTG motif)		0.73	0.000	1.15	0.000	1.51	0.000
lmo0886	<i>dal</i>	alanine racemase		0.43	0.000	0.65	0.000	0.69	0.000
lmo0971	<i>dtlD</i>	DltD protein for D-alanine esterification of lipoteichoic acid and wall teichoic acid		0.86	0.000	1.11	0.000	1.12	0.000
lmo0972	<i>dlcC</i>	D-alanyl carrier protein		0.65	0.000	0.85	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo0973	<i>dtlB</i>	DltB protein for D-alanine esterification of lipoteichoic acid and wall teichoic acid		0.84	0.000	1.15	0.000	1.42	0.000
lmo1062		ABC transporters (permease protein)		0.72	0.000	0.61	0.000	NA	NA
lmo1216		N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase (autolysin)		0.96	0.000	0.95	0.000	1.10	0.000
lmo1290		internalin proteins, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		0.81	0.000	1.33	0.000	0.98	0.000
lmo1413		putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		1.21	0.000	1.48	0.000	1.53	0.000
lmo1438		penicillin-binding protein		0.65	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.56	0.000
lmo1605	<i>murC</i>	UDP-N-acetyl muramate-alanine ligases		0.22	0.001	0.49	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo1713		cell-shape determining proteins		0.62	0.000	0.49	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo1799		putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		0.64	0.000	0.37	0.000	0.41	0.000
lmo1829		fibronectin binding proteins		0.57	0.000	0.79	0.000	0.76	0.004
lmo2043		integral membrane proteins		0.52	0.000	0.56	0.030	0.73	0.004
lmo2691		autolysin, N-acetylmuramidase		0.26	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.44	0.000
Cell envelope down-regulated									
lmo0514		internalin protein, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		-0.62	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.57	0.004
lmo0688		unknown protein		-0.88	0.000	-1.12	0.000	-1.29	0.000
lmo0695		unknown	N,V	-0.94	0.000	-1.52	0.000	-1.52	0.000
lmo0789		conserved hypothetical proteins		-0.25	0.000	-0.52	0.000	-0.75	0.000
lmo1044		molybdopterin converting factor, subunit 2		-0.88	0.000	-1.24	0.000	-1.21	0.000
lmo1076		autolysin (EC 3.5.1.28) (N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase)		-0.61	0.000	-0.64	0.000	-0.72	0.000
lmo1521		N-acetylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase		-0.34	0.000	-0.53	0.000	-0.62	0.000
lmo2130		unknown protein		-0.46	0.000	-0.97	0.000	-1.26	0.000
lmo2147		unknown protein		-0.05	0.076	-0.46	0.000	-0.72	0.000
lmo2312		unknown		-0.14	0.279	-0.59	0.007	-0.38	0.004
lmo2590		ATP binding proteins		-0.35	0.015	-1.00	0.001	NA	NA
lmo2854		<i>B. subtilis</i> SpoIIIJ protein		-0.77	0.000	-1.06	0.000	-1.26	0.000
Cellular process up-regulated									
lmo0153		probable high-affinity zinc ABC transporter (Zn(II)-binding lipoprotein)	C,M	0.11	0.245	0.60	0.000	0.70	0.003
lmo0201	<i>plcA</i>	phosphatidylinositol-specific phospholipase c	I	1.41	0.000	2.14	0.000	3.19	0.000
lmo0205	<i>plcB</i>	phospholipase C	I	NA	NA	1.40	0.002	0.72	0.008
lmo0263	<i>inlH</i>	internalin H		0.27	0.067	0.74	0.000	1.22	0.001
lmo0291		conserved hypothetical protein <i>B. subtilis</i> YycJ protein	U	1.01	0.000	1.33	0.000	1.30	0.000
lmo0389	<i>ltrA</i>	low temperature requirement protein A	M	0.61	0.000	0.59	0.000	0.63	0.002
lmo0433	<i>inlA</i>	Internalin A		1.74	0.000	2.06	0.000	2.66	0.000
lmo0434	<i>inlB</i>	Internalin B		1.50	0.000	1.90	0.000	1.92	0.000
lmo0669		oxidoreductase		0.54	0.000	0.88	0.002	1.32	0.000
lmo0906		glutathione reductase	B	0.62	0.000	0.81	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo0983		glutathione peroxidase		0.35	0.000	0.39	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo1400		N-acetyltransferase		0.58	0.000	1.13	0.000	1.11	0.000
lmo1433		glutathione reductase	B	2.02	0.000	2.09	0.000	1.84	0.000
lmo1580		unknown protein		0.29	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo1694		CDP-abequose synthase		0.65	0.000	1.11	0.000	1.44	0.000
lmo1786	<i>inlC</i>	internalin C		0.71	0.000	0.72	0.000	0.79	0.000
lmo2167		unknown protein	U	0.41	0.000	0.36	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo2189		putative competence protein from streptococcus pneumoniae		0.58	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.92	0.000
lmo2190	<i>mecA</i>	competence negative regulator mecA		0.33	0.010	0.34	0.003	0.66	0.000
lmo2230		arsenate reductase		0.34	0.000	0.81	0.000	1.30	0.000
lmo2398	<i>ltrC</i>	low temperature requirement C protein, also <i>B. subtilis</i> YutG protein	M	0.95	0.000	0.93	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo2399		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.89	0.000	0.96	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo2512	<i>comFC</i>	late competence protein comFC		0.30	0.021	NA	NA	1.27	0.001
lmo2673		conserved hypothetical protein		0.22	0.000	0.49	0.001	0.90	0.000
Cellular process down-regulated									
lmo0152		oligopeptide ABC transporter-binding protein	L	-1.56	0.000	-1.59	0.000	-2.18	0.000
lmo0196		<i>B. subtilis</i> SpoVG protein		-0.42	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo0197		<i>B. subtilis</i> SpoVG protein		-0.59	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-0.79	0.000
lmo0275		C-terminal part <i>B. subtilis</i> ComEC protein		-0.56	0.000	-0.58	0.000	-0.60	0.000
lmo0331		internalin, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		-0.31	0.003	-0.54	0.001	-0.66	0.000
lmo0601		cell surface protein		-0.65	0.000	-0.45	0.001	-0.79	0.000
lmo0682		flagellar hook-basal body protein FlgG		-0.56	0.000	-0.75	0.000	-0.93	0.000
lmo0683		chemotactic methyltransferase CheR		-0.84	0.000	-1.17	0.000	-0.97	0.002
lmo0685		motility protein (flagellar motor rotation) MotA	C	-0.65	0.000	-0.95	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo0686	<i>motB</i>	motility protein (flagellar motor rotation) MotB		-0.70	0.000	-0.96	0.000	-1.21	0.000
lmo0689		CheA activity-modulating chemotaxis protein CheV		-0.95	0.000	-1.24	0.000	-1.51	0.000
lmo0690	<i>flaA</i>	flagellin protein		-1.33	0.000	-2.53	0.000	-2.32	0.000
lmo0691	<i>cheY</i>	Chemotaxis response regulator CheY	P	-0.88	0.000	-1.41	0.000	-1.37	0.000
lmo0692	<i>cheA</i>	two-component sensor histidine kinase CheA		-0.58	0.000	-1.05	0.000	-0.98	0.000
lmo0693		flagellar motor switch protein FltY C-terminal part		-1.04	0.000	-1.65	0.000	-1.65	0.000
lmo0696		flagellar hook assembly protein		-1.12	0.000	-1.81	0.000	-1.91	0.000
lmo0697		flagellar hook protein FlgE		-0.91	0.000	-1.65	0.000	-1.80	0.000
lmo0698		flagellar switch protein		-1.16	0.000	-1.79	0.000	-1.89	0.000
lmo0699		flagellar switch protein FltM		-0.96	0.000	-1.73	0.000	-1.85	0.000
lmo0700		flagellar motor switch protein FltY		-1.33	0.000	-1.99	0.000	-2.09	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0705		flagellar hook-associated protein FlgK		-1.01	0.000	-1.54	0.000	-1.58	0.000
lmo0706		flagellar hook-associated protein 3 FlgL		-1.51	0.000	-2.12	0.000	-2.09	0.000
lmo0707		flagellar hook-associated protein 2 FlhD		-1.61	0.000	-2.28	0.000	-2.16	0.000
lmo0708		hypothetical flagellar protein		-1.61	0.000	-2.20	0.000	-2.22	0.000
lmo0710		flagellar basal-body rod protein FlgB		-1.59	0.000	-2.22	0.000	-2.24	0.000
lmo0711		flagellar basal-body rod protein FlgC		-1.70	0.000	-2.34	0.000	-2.18	0.000
lmo0712		flagellar hook-basal body complex protein FlhE		-1.53	0.000	-2.11	0.000	-2.12	0.000
lmo0713		flagellar basal-body M-ring protein FlhF		-1.42	0.000	-1.98	0.000	-1.91	0.000
lmo0714		flagellar motor switch protein FlhG		-1.32	0.000	-1.72	0.000	-1.72	0.000
lmo0723		methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein		-1.59	0.000	-2.42	0.000	-2.11	0.000
lmo1245		unknown		-0.71	0.000	-1.05	0.000	-1.26	0.000
lmo1364	<i>cspL</i>	cold shock protein		-0.65	0.000	-0.74	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo1625		putative transporters	M	-0.67	0.000	-0.56	0.000	-0.44	0.001
lmo1638		unknown protein		-0.58	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-1.08	0.000
lmo1699		some similarities to methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins		-1.11	0.000	-1.60	0.000	-1.43	0.000
lmo1700		unknown		-1.17	0.000	-1.72	0.000	-1.52	0.000
lmo1729		beta-glucosidases	E,H,I	-0.80	0.001	-1.32	0.000	-0.98	0.005
lmo1879	<i>cspD</i>	cold shock protein		-1.84	0.000	-2.46	0.000	-2.06	0.000
lmo2016	<i>cspB</i>	major cold-shock protein		-0.84	0.000	-0.88	0.001	-0.91	0.001
lmo2196	<i>oppA</i>	pheromone ABC transporter (binding protein)	L	-1.08	0.000	-1.25	0.000	-1.20	0.000
lmo2569		dipeptide ABC transporter (dipeptide-binding protein)	L	-3.03	0.000	-4.17	0.000	-3.80	0.000
lmo2687		cell division protein FtsW		-0.50	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.56	0.000
lmo2688		cell division protein FtsW		-0.43	0.000	-0.59	0.000	-0.52	0.000
Central intermediary metabolism up-regulated									
lmo0030		conserved hypothetical protein		0.28	0.000	0.65	0.001	0.65	0.001
lmo0050	<i>agrC</i>	sensor histidine kinase (AgrC from <i>Staphylococcus</i>)		1.01	0.000	1.44	0.000	1.56	0.000
lmo0078		phosphoglycerate dehydrogenase		0.36	0.001	0.56	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo0134		<i>E. coli</i> YjdJ protein		0.57	0.000	0.89	0.000	0.88	0.003
lmo0271		phospho-beta-glucosidase		0.27	0.000	0.51	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0339		inorganic pyrophosphatase		0.29	0.000	0.45	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0493		acylase		0.38	0.000	0.43	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo0574		beta-glucosidase		0.48	0.000	1.11	0.000	1.36	0.000
lmo0609		<i>E. coli</i> phage shock protein E		0.72	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo0663		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.63	0.000	0.76	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo0792		conserved hypothetical protein		0.62	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo0823		oxydoreductases		0.83	0.000	0.69	0.000	1.10	0.000
lmo0849		amidases		0.63	0.000	0.36	0.002	0.40	0.019
lmo1006		aminotransferases (<i>B. subtilis</i> PatA protein)		0.44	0.000	0.59	0.000	0.56	0.000
lmo1145		<i>Salmonella enterica</i> PduV protein		NA	NA	0.75	0.019	0.75	0.008
lmo1258		unknown		0.32	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo1477		oxidoreductase		1.03	0.000	1.24	0.000	0.91	0.001
lmo1684		glycerate dehydrogenases		0.83	0.000	1.18	0.000	1.47	0.000
lmo1961		oxidoreductases		0.68	0.000	0.80	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo2370		aminotransferase		0.39	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo2400		acetyltransferase		0.92	0.000	1.15	0.000	1.04	0.000
lmo2453		lipolytic enzyme		0.72	0.000	0.95	0.000	1.11	0.000
lmo2540		phosphatases		0.29	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo2592		oxidoreductase, aldo/keto reductase family		0.54	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.90	0.000
Central intermediary metabolism down-regulated									
lmo0018		beta-glucosidase		-0.16	0.265	-0.59	0.000	-0.37	0.046
lmo0536		6-phospho-beta-glucosidase		-0.61	0.000	-1.06	0.000	-1.10	0.000
lmo0727		L-glutamine-D-fructose-6-phosphate amidotransferase		-0.28	0.000	-0.42	0.000	-1.01	0.000
lmo0877		<i>B. subtilis</i> NagB protein (glucosamine-6-phosphate isomerase)		-1.06	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-0.73	0.001
lmo0878		oxidoreductases		-0.68	0.000	-0.91	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo0956		N-acetylglucosamine-6P-phosphate deacetylase (EC 3.5.1.25)		-0.41	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.41	0.000
lmo0957		glucosamine-6-Phosphate isomerase (EC 5.3.1.10)		-0.31	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.24	0.001
lmo1384		unknown protein		-0.54	0.000	-0.90	0.000	-0.83	0.000
lmo2350		<i>B. subtilis</i> YtmI protein		-1.50	0.000	-2.31	0.000	-2.59	0.000
lmo2721		glucosamine-6-phosphate isomerase		-0.06	0.353	-0.15	0.129	-0.89	0.000
lmo2761		beta-glucosidase		-0.95	0.000	-1.51	0.000	-1.58	0.000
lmo2786	<i>bvrC</i>	bvrC		-2.54	0.000	-3.36	0.000	-3.41	0.000
lmo2798		phosphatase		-1.52	0.000	-1.74	0.000	-0.84	0.000
lmo2831		phosphoglucumutase		-0.57	0.000	-1.12	0.000	-1.19	0.000
DNA metabolism up-regulated									
lmo0846		excinuclease ABC, chain C (UvrC)		0.72	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo1234	<i>uvrC</i>	excinuclease ABC subunit C		1.14	0.000	1.21	0.000	1.35	0.000
lmo1248		8-oxo-dGTPase (MutT)		0.71	0.000	1.10	0.000	2.07	0.000
lmo1460		<i>B. subtilis</i> RecO protein involved in DNA repair and homologous recombination		0.25	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.57	0.000
lmo1509		exodeoxyribonuclease V	V	0.14	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo1824	<i>priA</i>	primosomal replication factor Y		0.59	0.000	0.84	0.000	0.90	0.000
lmo1825		pantothenate metabolism flavoprotein homolog	B	0.57	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo1872		methyltransferases	A,B,E,N	0.75	0.000	0.85	0.000	0.75	0.000
lmo1881		5-3 exonuclease		1.06	0.000	1.40	0.000	1.60	0.000
lmo2231		unknown protein		0.57	0.002	0.74	0.005	0.81	0.001
lmo2242		O ⁶ -methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase		0.41	0.000	0.82	0.000	1.01	0.000
lmo2489	<i>uvrB</i>	excinuclease ABC (subunit B)		0.59	0.000	0.94	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo2702	<i>recR</i>	recombination protein RecR		0.60	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo2757		ATP-dependent DNA helicases		0.57	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.57	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
DNA metabolism down-regulated									
lmo0045	<i>ssb</i>	single-strand binding protein (SSB)		-0.48	0.000	-0.71	0.000	-0.96	0.000
lmo1639		dna-3-methyladenine glycosidase		-0.42	0.000	-0.52	0.000	-0.83	0.000
lmo2308		single-stranded DNA-binding protein		-0.63	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.99	0.000
Energy metabolism up-regulated									
lmo0031		transcriptional regulator LacI family		0.30	0.012	0.62	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo0043	<i>arcA</i>	arginine deiminase		0.61	0.000	0.48	0.020	0.38	0.010
lmo0295		FMN-containing NADPH-linked nitro/flavin reductase	E	0.58	0.000	0.83	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo0406		<i>B. subtilis</i> YyaH protein		0.48	0.000	0.63	0.000	0.58	0.000
lmo0539		tagatose-1,6-diphosphate aldolase		0.37	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo0773		alcohol dehydrogenase	E	0.87	0.000	1.02	0.000	1.39	0.000
lmo0788		unknown	P	0.94	0.000	0.94	0.000	1.64	0.000
lmo0817		<i>E. coli</i> PhnB protein		0.69	0.000	1.11	0.000	1.30	0.000
lmo0913		succinate semialdehyde dehydrogenase		0.99	0.000	2.32	0.000	2.48	0.000
lmo0934		<i>B. subtilis</i> YhbA protein		0.69	0.000	1.05	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo0936		Nitroflavin-reductase		0.85	0.000	1.27	0.000	1.12	0.000
lmo0975		ribose 5-phosphate isomerase		1.07	0.000	1.33	0.000	1.46	0.000
lmo1233	<i>trxA</i>	thioredoxin		0.50	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo1511		unknown protein		0.23	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo1534		L-lactate dehydrogenase		0.55	0.000	0.59	0.000	0.81	0.000
lmo1579		alanine dehydrogenase		0.96	0.000	1.23	0.000	1.77	0.000
lmo1609		thioredoxin		0.43	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.83	0.000
lmo1678		5-methyltetrahydrofolate-homocysteine methyltransferase (MetH)		1.04	0.000	1.56	0.000	1.90	0.000
lmo1679		cystathionine beta-lyase		1.04	0.000	1.55	0.000	1.85	0.000
lmo1800		protein-tyrosine phosphatase		1.29	0.000	1.01	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo1917	<i>pflA</i>	pyruvate formate-lyase		1.23	0.000	1.23	0.000	1.63	0.000
lmo1935		protein-tyrosine/serine phosphatase		0.75	0.000	0.37	0.035	0.70	0.002
lmo2110		mannose-6 phosphate isomerase		0.19	0.179	0.60	0.001	0.55	0.001
lmo2363	<i>gadD2</i>	glutamate decarboxylase	B,E,O	5.60	0.000	5.56	0.000	5.51	0.000
lmo2404		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.76	0.000	0.72	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo2424		thioredoxin		1.03	0.000	1.08	0.000	1.31	0.000
lmo2457	<i>tpi</i>	triose phosphate isomerase		0.32	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo2475		phosphomannomutase and phosphoglucomutase		0.55	0.000	0.65	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo2477	<i>galE</i>	UDP-glucose 4-epimerase		0.50	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.64	0.000
lmo2478	<i>trxB</i>	thioredoxin reductase		0.64	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo2494		negative regulator of phosphate regulon		0.22	0.044	0.39	0.019	0.77	0.002
lmo2573		zinc-binding dehydrogenase	E	0.47	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo2695		dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	0.11	0.006	0.36	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo2696		hypothetical dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	0.20	0.000	0.34	0.000	0.74	0.000
lmo2712		gluconate kinase		0.84	0.000	1.02	0.000	0.99	0.000
Energy metabolism down-regulated									
lmo0039	<i>arcC</i>	carbamate kinase		-0.37	0.003	-0.47	0.001	-0.79	0.002
lmo0105		chitinase B		-1.43	0.000	-1.99	0.000	-2.05	0.000
lmo0183		alpha-glucosidase		-0.31	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.75	0.000
lmo0342		transketolase		-1.25	0.000	-1.75	0.000	-1.80	0.000
lmo0343		transaldolase		-1.95	0.000	-2.54	0.000	-2.48	0.000
lmo0344		dehydrogenase/reductase		-1.81	0.000	-1.93	0.000	-2.40	0.000
lmo0345		sugar-phosphate isomerase		-2.00	0.000	-2.50	0.000	-2.16	0.000
lmo0346		triosephosphate isomerase		-1.34	0.000	-1.83	0.001	-0.71	0.053
lmo0347		dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	-1.46	0.000	-1.76	0.000	-1.53	0.000
lmo0348		dihydroxyacetone kinase	I	-1.34	0.002	-1.89	0.000	-1.74	0.000
lmo0499		ribulose-5-phosphate 3 epimerase		-0.31	0.001	-0.93	0.000	-0.45	0.126
lmo0500		transaldolase		NA	NA	-0.75	0.008	NA	NA
lmo0517		phosphoglycerate mutase		NA	NA	-1.60	0.001	NA	NA
lmo0557		phosphoglycerate mutase		-0.28	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.61	0.000
lmo0643		putative transaldolase		-0.70	0.000	-1.16	0.000	-0.83	0.001
lmo0735		Ribulose-5-Phosphate 3-Epimerase		-0.87	0.000	-1.33	0.000	-1.29	0.000
lmo0736		ribose 5-phosphate isomerase		-1.02	0.000	-1.33	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo0813		fructokinases		-0.69	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-0.66	0.000
lmo0837	<i>uhpT</i>	hexose phosphate transport protein		-0.29	0.000	-0.45	0.000	-1.04	0.000
lmo0862		oligo-1,6-glucosidase		-0.87	0.000	-1.30	0.006	-0.47	0.003
lmo0865		phosphomannomutase		-0.79	0.000	-0.87	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo0917		beta-glucosidase		0.40	0.010	-0.70	0.000	-0.63	0.000
lmo0943	<i>fri</i>	non-heme iron-binding ferritin		-0.51	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.50	0.000
lmo0948		transcription regulator		-0.62	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-1.03	0.000
lmo1032		transketolase		-0.58	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-0.96	0.000
lmo1033		transketolase		-0.52	0.000	-0.95	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo1142		Salmonella enterica PduS protein		-0.48	0.000	-0.58	0.000	-0.96	0.001
lmo1254		alpha, alpha-phosphotriethylase		-4.64	0.000	-4.84	0.000	-4.49	0.000
lmo1293	<i>glpD</i>	glycerol 3 phosphate dehydrogenase		0.68	0.001	-0.78	0.000	-0.43	0.000
lmo1305	<i>tkl</i>	transketolase		-1.34	0.000	-1.65	0.000	-1.14	0.000
lmo1349		glycine dehydrogenase (decarboxylating) subunit 1	E	-0.37	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.63	0.000
lmo1350		glycine dehydrogenase (decarboxylating) subunit 2	E	-0.46	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo1371		branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E3 subunit		-0.61	0.000	-0.25	0.000	-0.55	0.000
lmo1374		branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E2 subunit (lipamide acyltransferase)		-0.74	0.000	-0.25	0.000	-0.53	0.000
lmo1538	<i>glpK</i>	glycerol kinase		-0.40	0.000	-1.44	0.000	-1.08	0.000
lmo1566	<i>citC</i>	isocitrate dehydrogenases		-0.78	0.000	-0.82	0.002	-0.64	0.012

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCl ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo1581	<i>ackA</i>	acetate kinase	E	-0.46	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.68	0.000
lmo1634		Alcohol-acetaldehyde dehydrogenase		-0.38	0.009	-0.35	0.007	1.52	0.007
lmo1641	<i>citB</i>	aconitate hydratases		-1.39	0.000	-1.35	0.000	-1.42	0.000
lmo1789		Nad(P)h Oxidoreductase chain B	E	-0.47	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.46	0.000
lmo1867		pyruvate phosphate dikinase		-0.86	0.000	-1.05	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo1868		conserved hypothetical proteins		-0.65	0.001	-0.76	0.000	-0.20	0.032
lmo1883		chitinases		-0.64	0.000	-1.26	0.000	-1.59	0.000
lmo1936	<i>gpsA</i>	NAD(P)H-dependent glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase		-0.58	0.000	-0.67	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo2094		L-fuculose-phosphate aldolase		-0.43	0.000	-0.75	0.000	-0.64	0.003
lmo2122		maltodextrase utilization protein MalA	A	0.48	0.014	-2.28	0.000	-1.67	0.000
lmo2123		maltodextrin ABC-transport system (permease)		0.14	0.478	-2.71	0.000	-2.09	0.000
lmo2124		maltodextrin ABC-transport system (permease)		0.39	0.049	-2.89	0.000	-2.37	0.000
lmo2126		maltoigenic amylase		0.55	0.001	-1.79	0.000	-1.64	0.000
lmo2159		oxidoreductase	E	-2.63	0.000	-3.28	0.000	-3.13	0.000
lmo2163		oxidoreductase	E	-2.40	0.000	-3.07	0.000	-2.90	0.000
lmo2436		transcription antiterminator		-0.43	0.000	-0.71	0.000	-0.52	0.000
lmo2437		unknown		-0.55	0.000	-0.69	0.000	-0.23	0.015
lmo2584		formate dehydrogenase associated protein		-0.71	0.000	-0.93	0.000	-0.78	0.000
lmo2586		formate dehydrogenase alpha chain		-1.38	0.000	-2.12	0.000	-1.90	0.000
lmo2664		sorbitol dehydrogenase	E	-0.49	0.000	-0.68	0.000	-0.78	0.000
lmo2720		acetate-CoA ligase		-0.99	0.000	-0.35	0.000	-1.87	0.000
lmo2730		phosphatase		-0.87	0.007	-0.96	0.001	-0.67	0.002
lmo2771		beta-glucosidase		-0.63	0.000	-1.05	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo2834		oxidoreductases	E	-0.88	0.004	-0.87	0.002	-0.78	0.003
lmo2836		alcohol dehydrogenase	E	-0.57	0.010	-0.69	0.001	-0.77	0.001
Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism up-regulated									
lmo0786		acyl-carrier protein phosphodiesterase and to NAD(P)H dehydrogenase		0.78	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo0885		holo-acyl-carrier protein synthase		0.48	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo1381		unknown		0.51	0.000	0.88	0.000	1.07	0.000
lmo2452		carboxylesterase		0.62	0.000	0.70	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo2471		NADH oxidase		0.48	0.000	0.77	0.000	0.87	0.000
Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism down-regulated									
lmo0110		lipase		-0.98	0.000	-1.81	0.000	-1.62	0.000
lmo1186		ethanolamine utilization protein EutH - Escherichia coli		-0.28	0.004	-0.60	0.000	-0.34	0.001
lmo1806	<i>acpA</i>	acyl carrier proteins		-0.44	0.000	-0.41	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo2175		dehydrogenase		-0.49	0.003	-0.99	0.002	-0.72	0.020
lmo2201		3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier protein synthase		-0.22	0.000	-0.28	0.002	-0.75	0.000
lmo2202		3-oxoacyl-acyl-carrier protein synthase		-0.70	0.000	-0.46	0.000	-1.08	0.000
Hypothetical protein up-regulated									
lmo0049		unknown		0.39	0.000	0.65	0.000	0.72	0.000
lmo0095		unknown		0.55	0.012	0.97	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0119		unknown		0.33	0.007	0.59	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0120		unknown		0.26	0.049	0.82	0.000	0.49	0.004
lmo0138		unknown		0.90	0.002	1.23	0.000	0.99	0.000
lmo0140		unknown		NA	NA	0.62	0.007	0.43	0.023
lmo0149		unknown		0.76	0.000	1.29	0.000	1.15	0.000
lmo0170		unknown		0.63	0.000	0.79	0.000	0.96	0.000
lmo0206		unknown		0.67	0.000	0.86	0.000	1.39	0.000
lmo0209		unknown		1.13	0.000	1.32	0.000	1.48	0.000
lmo0247		unknown		1.08	0.000	0.83	0.000	0.57	0.000
lmo0260		unknown		0.55	0.000	0.49	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0270		unknown		-0.06	0.549	0.40	0.027	0.67	0.000
lmo0335		unknown		0.81	0.000	1.35	0.000	1.62	0.000
lmo0337		unknown		0.87	0.000	0.88	0.052	1.56	0.000
lmo0338		unknown		0.66	0.000	0.84	0.000	1.22	0.000
lmo0340		unknown		0.31	0.054	0.82	0.000	1.08	0.000
lmo0363		<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> peptidase E		0.63	0.000	0.85	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo0364		transcription regulator		0.24	0.002	0.54	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo0365		conserved hypothetical protein		0.88	0.000	1.00	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo0375		unknown		0.89	0.000	1.27	0.000	1.49	0.000
lmo0376		putative transcription regulator		0.81	0.000	1.24	0.000	1.33	0.000
lmo0377		unknown		0.66	0.000	0.87	0.000	1.04	0.000
lmo0380		unknown		0.67	0.007	1.23	0.000	1.25	0.000
lmo0381		unknown		0.44	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.39	0.003
lmo0439		module of peptide synthetase		NA	NA	NA	NA	0.99	0.003
lmo0457		unknown		0.19	0.207	0.70	0.025	0.59	0.009
lmo0478		putative secreted protein		-0.12	0.020	0.42	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo0479		putative secreted protein		-0.13	0.060	0.49	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0551		unknown		0.64	0.000	0.58	0.000	0.64	0.000
lmo0552		unknown		1.84	0.000	1.51	0.000	1.95	0.000
lmo0578		putative conserved membrane protein		0.54	0.000	0.67	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo0596		unknown protein		0.07	0.702	0.68	0.002	0.77	0.004
lmo0604		<i>B. subtilis</i> YviA protein		0.87	0.000	0.89	0.000	1.41	0.000
lmo0628		unknown		NA	NA	NA	NA	1.15	0.000
lmo0654		unknown		0.70	0.000	0.90	0.000	1.18	0.000
lmo0670		unknown		NA	NA	0.84	0.002	1.15	0.000
lmo0794		<i>B. subtilis</i> YwnB protein		1.18	0.000	1.07	0.000	0.83	0.000
lmo0804		unknown		0.63	0.000	0.94	0.000	1.01	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0805		unknown		0.54	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo0851		unknown		0.87	0.000	1.11	0.000	1.38	0.000
lmo0868		unknown		0.64	0.001	0.57	0.003	0.09	0.606
lmo0869		unknown		0.94	0.000	0.79	0.000	1.04	0.000
lmo0870		unknown		0.80	0.000	0.72	0.000	0.78	0.000
lmo0905		unknown		0.57	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.96	0.000
lmo0920		<i>B. subtilis</i> YcgR protein		1.46	0.000	1.36	0.000	1.74	0.000
lmo0921		<i>B. subtilis</i> YcgQ protein		1.46	0.000	1.37	0.000	1.72	0.000
lmo0932		conserved hypothetical protein		0.87	0.000	0.93	0.000	1.02	0.000
lmo0953		unknown		1.01	0.000	1.28	0.000	1.44	0.000
lmo0964		<i>B. subtilis</i> YjbH protein		0.43	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo0977		<i>B. subtilis</i> YjcH protein		0.50	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.74	0.000
lmo0982		glucanase and peptidase		0.48	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.75	0.000
lmo0984		two-component response regulator		0.57	0.000	0.78	0.000	1.16	0.000
lmo0985		unknown		0.52	0.000	0.81	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo0994		unknown		0.30	0.000	0.63	0.000	0.89	0.000
lmo0995		<i>B. subtilis</i> YkrP protein		0.31	0.001	0.60	0.000	0.47	0.002
lmo1056		unknown		0.99	0.000	0.84	0.000	0.92	0.000
lmo1123		unknown		0.84	0.000	0.70	0.009	0.80	0.010
lmo1137		unknown		1.05	0.000	0.96	0.000	0.92	0.000
lmo1140		unknown		0.71	0.000	1.05	0.000	1.52	0.000
lmo1146		unknown		0.48	0.008	0.72	0.000	0.93	0.002
lmo1241		unknown		0.72	0.000	1.64	0.000	1.91	0.000
lmo1249		unknown		2.80	0.000	3.64	0.000	4.81	0.000
lmo1257		unknown		0.01	0.950	0.07	0.757	0.85	0.000
lmo1281		<i>B. subtilis</i> YneP protein		0.53	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo1401		conserved hypothetical protein		0.43	0.000	0.87	0.000	0.89	0.000
lmo1402		<i>B. subtilis</i> YmcA protein		0.45	0.000	0.92	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo1535		unknown protein		0.45	0.000	0.48	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo1608		unknown protein		0.35	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.78	0.000
lmo1610		hypothetical gene		0.65	0.000	0.98	0.000	1.33	0.000
lmo1650		hypothetical proteins		0.39	0.000	0.43	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo1656		unknown		0.71	0.000	0.79	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo1670		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.41	0.002	0.49	0.000	0.66	0.000
lmo1690		hypothetical proteins		0.83	0.000	0.83	0.000	1.47	0.000
lmo1776		unknown protein		0.51	0.000	0.43	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo1841		unknown		0.41	0.002	0.84	0.009	1.24	0.000
lmo2049		unknown protein		0.56	0.000	0.53	0.023	0.97	0.000
lmo2115		ABC transporter (permease)		0.89	0.000	0.63	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo2120		unknown protein		0.40	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.74	0.000
lmo2156		unknown		0.57	0.000	0.54	0.001	0.85	0.000
lmo2169		unknown		0.15	0.127	0.64	0.014	0.60	0.001
lmo2177		unknown protein		0.98	0.000	0.83	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo2181		unknown protein		0.91	0.000	1.10	0.000	0.86	0.000
lmo2187		unknown		1.07	0.000	1.16	0.000	1.41	0.000
lmo2204		unknown protein		0.56	0.000	0.79	0.000	0.72	0.000
lmo2210		unknown		0.97	0.000	0.27	0.046	0.96	0.003
lmo2213		unknown protein		1.03	0.000	1.25	0.000	1.95	0.000
lmo2258		unknown		0.36	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.81	0.000
lmo2339		conserved hypothetical protein		0.52	0.000	0.67	0.000	1.14	0.000
lmo2340		<i>Erwinia chrysanthemi</i> IndA protein		0.62	0.000	0.32	0.006	0.42	0.000
lmo2364		Hypothetical protein		0.29	0.002	0.43	0.006	0.86	0.001
lmo2375		unknown		0.58	0.000	0.33	0.000	0.61	0.001
lmo2387		conserved hypothetical protein		1.41	0.000	1.34	0.000	1.28	0.000
lmo2388		<i>B. subtilis</i> YwqG protein		1.06	0.000	1.00	0.000	1.03	0.000
lmo2391		conserved hypothetical protein <i>B. subtilis</i> YhfK protein		1.48	0.000	1.40	0.000	1.52	0.000
lmo2420		unknown		0.37	0.000	0.51	0.000	0.76	0.000
lmo2432		unknown		0.55	0.000	0.77	0.002	0.80	0.001
lmo2454		unknown		0.78	0.000	1.11	0.000	0.97	0.000
lmo2472		conserved hypothetical protein		0.56	0.000	0.88	0.000	0.92	0.000
lmo2474		conserved hypothetical protein		0.65	0.000	0.92	0.000	1.02	0.000
lmo2570		unknown		0.34	0.000	0.49	0.000	0.83	0.000
lmo2572		Chain A, Dihydrofolate Reductase		0.36	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.71	0.000
lmo2639		unknown		0.60	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.54	0.000
lmo2669		unknown		0.59	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo2697		unknown		0.18	0.003	0.26	0.001	0.74	0.000
lmo2701		<i>B. subtilis</i> YaaL protein		0.64	0.000	0.82	0.000	0.90	0.000
lmo2709		unknown		0.42	0.000	0.45	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo2729		unknown protein		0.66	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.75	0.000
lmo2748		<i>B. subtilis</i> stress protein YdaG		0.42	0.000	0.86	0.000	1.37	0.000
lmo2808		hypothetical secreted protein		NA	NA	0.65	0.007	NA	NA
Hypothetical protein down-regulated									
lmo0038		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.16	0.170	-0.52	0.000	-0.76	0.004
lmo0099		unknown		0.21	0.092	-0.50	0.000	-0.78	0.000
lmo0269		transporter		-0.60	0.000	-0.31	0.003	-0.49	0.023
lmo0322		unknown protein		-0.26	0.001	-0.90	0.000	-0.57	0.001
lmo0323		unknown protein		-0.53	0.000	-1.28	0.000	-0.95	0.000
lmo0349		unknown		-1.26	0.000	-1.51	0.001	-1.31	0.003
lmo0350		unknown		-1.51	0.000	-1.60	0.001	-1.53	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCl ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0351		unknown protein		-0.61	0.015	-0.90	0.008	-0.54	0.005
lmo0391		unknown		-0.83	0.000	-1.22	0.000	-1.44	0.000
lmo0392		<i>B. subtilis</i> YqfA protein		-0.90	0.000	-1.38	0.000	-1.58	0.000
lmo0393		unknown		-0.80	0.000	-1.13	0.000	-1.28	0.000
lmo0546		putative NAD(P)-dependent oxidoreductase		-0.96	0.000	-1.66	0.000	-1.44	0.001
lmo0589		unknown		-0.59	0.000	-0.75	0.000	-0.70	0.000
lmo0599		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.58	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-1.02	0.000
lmo0600		unknown		-0.73	0.000	-0.72	0.000	-1.02	0.000
lmo0634		<i>E. coli</i> putative tagatose 6-phosphate kinase		-0.39	0.002	-0.54	0.024	-0.68	0.002
lmo0642		unknown		-0.23	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo0684		unknown		-0.86	0.000	-1.12	0.000	-1.42	0.000
lmo0687		unknown		-0.73	0.000	-0.95	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo0701		unknown		-1.09	0.000	-1.80	0.000	-1.90	0.000
lmo0702		unknown		-1.24	0.000	-1.83	0.000	-1.96	0.000
lmo0703		unknown		-1.13	0.000	-1.73	0.000	-1.88	0.000
lmo0704		unknown		-1.31	0.000	-1.87	0.000	-1.97	0.000
lmo0709		unknown		-1.63	0.000	-2.29	0.000	-2.25	0.000
lmo0715		unknown		-1.28	0.000	-1.69	0.000	-1.86	0.000
lmo0718		unknown		-1.39	0.000	-1.53	0.000	-1.70	0.000
lmo0724		<i>B. subtilis</i> YvpB protein		-1.68	0.000	-2.54	0.000	-2.27	0.000
lmo0726		Hypothetical CDS		-0.09	0.086	-0.11	0.086	-0.61	0.000
lmo0731		unknown		-1.34	0.000	-1.34	0.000	-1.48	0.000
lmo0737		unknown		-1.25	0.000	-1.49	0.000	-1.60	0.000
lmo0748		unknown		-0.48	0.000	-0.59	0.000	-0.72	0.000
lmo0751		unknown		-0.46	0.001	-0.40	0.005	-0.62	0.001
lmo0765		unknown		-0.71	0.005	-0.79	0.000	-0.66	0.049
lmo0780		unknown		-0.73	0.000	-0.49	0.004	-0.60	0.009
lmo0791		unknown		-0.98	0.000	-0.96	0.000	-1.00	0.000
lmo0796		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.37	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.61	0.000
lmo0863		unknown		-1.03	0.000	-1.57	0.000	-0.88	0.001
lmo0864		unknown		-0.91	0.000	-1.43	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo0867		unknown		-0.45	0.000	-0.84	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo0879		unknown		-0.94	0.000	-1.00	0.000	-0.78	0.008
lmo0882		<i>B. subtilis</i> YdbS protein		-0.78	0.000	-0.98	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo0883		<i>B. subtilis</i> YbtB protein		-0.82	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-1.09	0.000
lmo0903		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.54	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.98	0.000
lmo1031		hypothetical proteins		-0.62	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo1188		unknown		-0.65	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-0.66	0.000
lmo1190		unknown		-0.44	0.000	-0.80	0.000	-0.52	0.000
lmo1210		unknown protein		-0.14	0.006	-0.50	0.000	-0.68	0.000
lmo1211		unknown protein		-0.23	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-0.75	0.000
lmo1242		<i>B. subtilis</i> YdeI protein		-0.19	0.001	-0.61	0.000	-0.59	0.000
lmo1306		<i>B. subtilis</i> YneF protein		-0.32	0.000	-0.39	0.000	-0.71	0.000
lmo1310		<i>E. coli</i> YbdN protein		-0.48	0.000	-0.76	0.000	-0.72	0.001
lmo1312		unknown		-0.40	0.000	-0.63	0.000	-0.75	0.000
lmo1323		<i>B. subtilis</i> YlxR protein		-0.36	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.83	0.000
lmo1326		conserved hypothetical protein <i>B. subtilis</i> YlxP protein		-0.70	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.97	0.000
lmo1452		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.58	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo1453		conserved hypothetical protein		-0.56	0.000	-0.56	0.000	-0.81	0.000
lmo1470		unknown protein		-0.32	0.000	-0.40	0.000	-0.66	0.000
lmo1489		unknown protein		-0.39	0.000	-0.40	0.000	-0.62	0.000
lmo1541		unknown protein		-0.52	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.97	0.000
lmo1584		unknown protein		-0.86	0.000	-0.39	0.044	-0.84	0.001
lmo1626		unknown		-0.38	0.000	-0.67	0.001	-0.35	0.010
lmo1637		membrane proteins		-0.34	0.000	-0.66	0.000	-0.51	0.000
lmo1728		some similarities to cellobiose-phosphorylase		-0.66	0.002	-0.77	0.000	-0.90	0.014
lmo1762		unknown		-0.37	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-0.61	0.000
lmo1972		pentitol PTS system enzyme II B component		-0.49	0.000	-0.86	0.000	-0.58	0.012
lmo2079		unknown		-0.62	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.84	0.000
lmo2160		unknown protein		-2.71	0.000	-3.41	0.000	-3.15	0.000
lmo2161		unknown		-2.56	0.000	-2.50	0.000	-2.85	0.000
lmo2162		unknown protein		-2.48	0.000	-2.90	0.000	-2.44	0.000
lmo2223		unknown protein		-0.38	0.000	-0.74	0.000	-0.80	0.000
lmo2226		unknown protein		-0.75	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.88	0.000
lmo2343		nitrotriacetate monooxygenase		-1.69	0.000	-2.38	0.000	-2.65	0.000
lmo2344		<i>B. subtilis</i> YtnI protein		-1.80	0.000	-2.52	0.000	-2.76	0.000
lmo2351		NADH-dependent FMN reductase		-1.70	0.000	-2.37	0.000	-2.22	0.000
lmo2416		unknown		-0.96	0.000	-1.03	0.000	-1.30	0.000
lmo2567		unknown		-0.62	0.000	-0.73	0.000	-0.58	0.027
lmo2568		unknown		-1.10	0.000	-1.22	0.000	-1.27	0.000
lmo2585		<i>B. subtilis</i> YrhD protein		-1.16	0.000	-1.61	0.000	-1.64	0.000
lmo2646		unknown		-1.89	0.000	-2.13	0.000	-2.31	0.000
lmo2686		unknown		-0.34	0.007	-0.68	0.000	-0.66	0.001
lmo2731		transcription regulator (RpiR family)		-0.93	0.000	-0.98	0.000	-0.77	0.000
lmo2775		hypothetical membrane protein		-0.57	0.000	-0.70	0.000	-0.62	0.000
lmo2832		unknown protein		-0.57	0.000	-1.10	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo2835		<i>E. coli</i> protein		-0.98	0.000	-1.38	0.000	-1.15	0.000
lmo2852		unknown		-0.78	0.000	-1.01	0.000	-1.34	0.000

Mobile and extrachromosomal element up-regulated

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0174		transposase		NA	NA	1.06	0.002	NA	NA
lmo0329		transposase		0.19	0.100	0.85	0.002	0.46	0.028
lmo0330		transposase		0.72	0.000	0.81	0.000	1.13	0.000
lmo0660		transposases		0.73	0.000	0.65	0.000	1.08	0.000
lmo0827		transposases		0.63	0.000	0.83	0.000	0.76	0.000
lmo0828		transposases		0.65	0.000	1.08	0.000	1.02	0.000
lmo2360		transmembrane protein	V	2.97	0.000	3.47	0.000	3.44	0.000
Mobile and extrachromosomal element down-regulated									
lmo1295		host factor-1 protein	P	-0.54	0.000	-0.63	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo1955		integrase/recombinase		-0.70	0.000	-1.18	0.000	-1.06	0.000
Protein fate up-regulated									
lmo0203	<i>mpl</i>	Zinc metalloproteinase precursor		1.63	0.000	1.82	0.000	2.40	0.000
lmo0292		heat-shock protein htrA serine protease		1.07	0.000	1.12	0.000	1.26	0.000
lmo0655		phosphoprotein phosphatases	P	0.50	0.000	0.54	0.001	0.79	0.000
lmo0931		lipote protein ligase A	B,I	0.63	0.000	0.78	0.000	1.01	0.000
lmo1217		endo-1,4-beta-glucanase and to aminopeptidase		0.46	0.000	0.58	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo1578		X-Pro dipeptidase		0.64	0.000	0.76	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo1611		aminopeptidase		0.61	0.000	0.88	0.000	1.01	0.000
lmo1780		aminotripeptidase (peptidase T)		0.54	0.000	0.84	0.000	1.08	0.000
lmo1821		putative phosphoprotein phosphatase		0.36	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo1864		hemolysinIII proteins, putative integral membrane protein		0.47	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.69	0.000
lmo2157	<i>sepA</i>	sepA		1.32	0.000	1.14	0.000	1.53	0.000
lmo2188		oligoendopeptidase		0.44	0.000	0.42	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo2338	<i>pepC</i>	aminopeptidase C		0.94	0.000	1.04	0.000	1.30	0.000
lmo2462		dipeptidases		0.78	0.000	1.06	0.000	1.40	0.000
lmo2510	<i>secA</i>	translocase binding subunit (ATPase)		0.14	0.113	0.31	0.005	0.63	0.001
Protein fate down-regulated									
lmo0245	<i>secE</i>	preprotein translocase subunit		-0.56	0.000	-0.43	0.000	-0.71	0.000
lmo0680		flagella-associated protein FlhA		-0.52	0.000	-0.89	0.000	-1.25	0.000
lmo0681		flagellar biosynthesis protein FlhF		-0.51	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.96	0.000
lmo0942		heat shock protein HtpG		-0.23	0.000	-0.58	0.000	-0.61	0.000
lmo1267	<i>tig</i>	trigger factor (prolyl isomerase)		-0.59	0.000	-0.90	0.000	-0.94	0.000
lmo1375		aminotripeptidase		-0.98	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-1.00	0.000
lmo1529		unknown protein		-0.68	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-0.98	0.000
lmo1585		proteases		-0.62	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo1666		peptidoglycan linked protein (LPxTG)		-0.53	0.001	-0.47	0.000	-0.68	0.000
lmo2068	<i>groEL</i>	class I heat-shock protein (chaperonin) GroEL		-0.71	0.000	-0.74	0.000	-0.86	0.000
lmo2069	<i>groES</i>	class I heat-shock protein (chaperonin) GroES		-0.50	0.000	-0.44	0.000	-0.60	0.000
Protein synthesis up-regulated									
lmo0211	<i>cic</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> general stress protein		1.12	0.000	1.74	0.000	2.36	0.000
lmo0239	<i>cysS</i>	cysteinyI-tRNA synthetase		0.22	0.003	0.70	0.000	0.50	0.000
lmo0486	<i>rpmF</i>	ribosomal protein L32		0.74	0.000	0.82	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo0569	<i>hisZ</i>	histidyl-tRNA synthetase		0.60	0.000	0.68	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo0933		sugar transferase	E	0.41	0.000	0.67	0.000	0.69	0.000
lmo0935		<i>B. subtilis</i> CspR protein, rRNA methylase homolog		0.78	0.000	1.10	0.000	1.01	0.000
lmo1512		putative tRNA (5-methylaminomethyl-2-thiouridyate)-methyltransferase		0.42	0.000	0.54	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo1822		RNA-binding Sun protein		0.48	0.000	0.67	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo1823	<i>fnt</i>	methionyl-tRNA formyltransferase		0.42	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo1882		ribosomal protein S14		1.23	0.000	1.89	0.000	1.81	0.000
lmo2555		human N-acetylglucosaminyl-phosphatidylinositol biosynthetic protein	E	0.82	0.000	0.92	0.000	0.90	0.000
Protein synthesis down-regulated									
lmo0044	<i>rpsF</i>	ribosomal protein S6		-0.72	0.000	-0.92	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo0046	<i>rpsR</i>	ribosomal protein S18		-0.59	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo0248	<i>rplK</i>	ribosomal protein L11		-0.57	0.000	-1.04	0.000	-1.11	0.000
lmo0249	<i>rplA</i>	ribosomal protein L1		-0.65	0.000	-1.02	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo0250	<i>rplJ</i>	ribosomal protein L10		-0.81	0.000	-1.24	0.000	-1.45	0.000
lmo0251	<i>rplL</i>	ribosomal protein L12		-0.73	0.000	-1.12	0.000	-1.26	0.000
lmo0716		H ⁺ -transporting ATP synthase alpha chain Flil, flagellar-specific, -		-1.45	0.000	-1.84	0.000	-1.90	0.000
lmo1314	<i>frr</i>	ribosome recycling factors		-0.45	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-0.60	0.000
lmo1324		conserved hypothetical protein, <i>B. subtilis</i> YlxQ protein		-0.54	0.000	-0.76	0.000	-0.85	0.000
lmo1325	<i>infB</i>	translation initiation factor IF-2		-0.44	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.82	0.000
lmo1328	<i>truB</i>	tRNA pseudouridine 55 synthase		-0.73	0.000	-1.01	0.000	-1.19	0.000
lmo1330	<i>rpsO</i>	ribosomal protein S15		-0.60	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.92	0.000
lmo1458	<i>glyS</i>	glycyl-tRNA synthetase beta chain		-0.51	0.000	-0.71	0.000	-0.92	0.000
lmo1459	<i>glyQ</i>	glycyl-tRNA synthetase alpha chain		-0.48	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.71	0.000
lmo1471		ribosomal protein L11 methyltransferase		-0.40	0.000	-0.49	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo1480	<i>rpsT</i>	ribosomal protein S20		-0.42	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo1540	<i>rpmA</i>	ribosomal protein L27		-0.50	0.000	-0.70	0.000	-0.92	0.000
lmo1542	<i>rplU</i>	ribosomal protein L21		-0.50	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo1596	<i>rpsD</i>	ribosomal protein S4		-0.47	0.000	-0.64	0.000	-0.92	0.000
lmo1657	<i>tsf</i>	translation elongation factor		-0.52	0.000	-0.73	0.000	-0.87	0.000
lmo1658	<i>rpsB</i>	30S ribosomal protein S2		-0.39	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo1783	<i>rplT</i>	ribosomal protein L20		-0.61	0.000	-1.01	0.000	-1.27	0.000
lmo1784	<i>rpmI</i>	ribosomal protein L35		-0.64	0.000	-1.11	0.000	-1.42	0.000
lmo1785	<i>infC</i>	translation initiation factor IF-3		-0.05	0.466	-0.44	0.000	-0.63	0.000
lmo1787	<i>rplS</i>	ribosomal protein L19		-0.38	0.000	-0.63	0.000	-0.74	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo1797	<i>rpsP</i>	ribosomal protein S16		-0.78	0.000	-1.14	0.000	-1.43	0.000
lmo1816	<i>rpmB</i>	ribosomal protein L28		-0.57	0.000	-0.57	0.000	-0.80	0.000
lmo1949		unknown protein		-0.38	0.000	-0.42	0.000	-0.76	0.000
lmo2121		maltosephosphorylase	E	0.16	0.498	-2.99	0.000	-2.41	0.000
lmo2548	<i>rpmE</i>	ribosomal protein L31		-0.51	0.000	-0.86	0.000	-1.07	0.000
lmo2596	<i>rpsI</i>	ribosomal protein S9		-0.45	0.000	-0.66	0.000	-0.84	0.000
lmo2605	<i>rplQ</i>	ribosomal protein L17		-0.32	0.000	-0.51	0.000	-0.59	0.000
lmo2614	<i>rpmD</i>	ribosomal protein L30		-0.48	0.000	-0.66	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo2619	<i>rpsN</i>	ribosomal protein S14		-0.51	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-0.90	0.000
lmo2623	<i>rpsQ</i>	ribosomal protein S17		-0.38	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-0.85	0.000
lmo2624	<i>rpmC</i>	ribosomal protein L29		-0.28	0.000	-0.72	0.000	-0.74	0.000
lmo2625	<i>rplP</i>	ribosomal protein L16		-0.29	0.000	-0.67	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo2628	<i>rpsS</i>	ribosomal protein S19		-0.26	0.000	-0.61	0.000	-0.80	0.000
lmo2630	<i>rplW</i>	ribosomal protein L23		-0.16	0.001	-0.45	0.000	-0.66	0.000
lmo2631	<i>rplD</i>	ribosomal protein L4		-0.29	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.74	0.000
lmo2632	<i>rplC</i>	ribosomal protein L3		-0.18	0.000	-0.40	0.000	-0.60	0.000
lmo2633	<i>rpsJ</i>	ribosomal protein S10		-0.42	0.000	-0.85	0.000	-1.02	0.000
lmo2656	<i>rpsL</i>	ribosomal protein S12		-0.50	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-1.05	0.000
lmo2856	<i>rpmH</i>	ribosomal protein L34		-0.31	0.000	-0.37	0.000	-0.66	0.000
Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides up-regulated									
lmo0812		unknown	P	0.26	0.000	0.38	0.000	0.86	0.000
lmo1770	<i>purL</i>	phosphoribosylformylglycinamide synthetase II		0.50	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo1772	<i>purC</i>	phosphoribosylaminoimidazole succinocarboxamide synthetase		0.50	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo1774	<i>purK</i>	phosphoribosylaminoimidazole carboxylase II		0.42	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo2694		lysine decarboxylase	B,E,H	0.42	0.000	0.58	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo2758	<i>guaB</i>	inosine-monophosphate dehydrogenase		0.66	0.000	0.81	0.000	0.29	0.001
Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides down-regulated									
lmo0199	<i>prs</i>	phosphoribosyl pyrophosphate synthetase		-0.45	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.78	0.000
lmo0812		unknown	P	0.26	0.000	0.38	0.000	0.86	0.000
lmo1770	<i>purL</i>	phosphoribosylformylglycinamide synthetase II		0.50	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo1772	<i>purC</i>	phosphoribosylaminoimidazole succinocarboxamide synthetase		0.50	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo1774	<i>purK</i>	phosphoribosylaminoimidazole carboxylase II		0.42	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.68	0.000
lmo1831	<i>pyrE</i>	orotate phosphoribosyltransferases		-1.41	0.000	-2.15	0.000	-3.06	0.000
lmo1832	<i>pyrF</i>	orotidine 5-phosphate decarboxylases		-1.30	0.000	-1.99	0.000	-3.14	0.000
lmo1833	<i>pyrD</i>	dihydroorotase dehydrogenase		-1.22	0.000	-2.05	0.000	-2.89	0.000
lmo1834	<i>pyrDII</i>	dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (electron transfer subunit)		-1.23	0.000	-2.22	0.000	-3.71	0.000
lmo1835	<i>pyrAB</i>	carbamoyl-phosphate synthetase (catalytic subunit)		-1.04	0.000	-2.18	0.000	-3.95	0.000
lmo1836	<i>pyrAa</i>	carbamoyl-phosphate synthetase (glutamine subunit)		-0.87	0.006	-1.67	0.001	-1.27	0.000
lmo1837	<i>pyrC</i>	dihydroorotase		-0.89	0.000	-1.87	0.000	-3.24	0.000
lmo1838	<i>pyrB</i>	aspartate carbamoyltransferase		-0.71	0.000	-1.94	0.000	-3.49	0.000
lmo1840	<i>pyrR</i>	pyrimidine operon regulatory protein		-0.65	0.000	-1.39	0.000	-2.49	0.000
lmo1885		xanthine phosphoribosyltransferase		-0.59	0.000	-1.23	0.000	-1.66	0.000
lmo1929	<i>ndk</i>	nucleoside diphosphate kinase		-0.55	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.85	0.000
lmo1953	<i>pnp</i>	purine-nucleoside phosphorylase		-0.75	0.000	-1.20	0.000	-1.24	0.000
lmo1954	<i>drm</i>	phosphopentomutase		-0.86	0.000	-1.37	0.000	-1.32	0.000
lmo1993	<i>pdp</i>	pyrimidine-nucleoside phosphorylase		-0.44	0.000	-0.73	0.000	-0.95	0.000
lmo2694		lysine decarboxylase	B,E,H	0.42	0.000	0.58	0.000	0.73	0.000
lmo2758	<i>guaB</i>	inosine-monophosphate dehydrogenase		0.66	0.000	0.81	0.000	0.29	0.001
lmo2840		Sucrose phosphorylase	H	-1.02	0.000	-1.34	0.000	-0.92	0.002
Regulatory functions up-regulated									
lmo0048		<i>Staphylococcus</i> two-component sensor histidine kinase AgrB		0.60	0.000	0.91	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo0051	<i>agrA</i>	two-components response regulator protein (AgrA from <i>Staphylococcus</i>)		0.91	0.000	1.11	0.000	0.88	0.000
lmo0255		unknown protein	V	1.02	0.000	0.92	0.000	0.78	0.000
lmo0315		thiamin biosynthesis protein		0.70	0.000	0.87	0.000	1.08	0.000
lmo0325		transcriptional regulators		0.56	0.000	0.30	0.001	0.70	0.000
lmo0430		transcriptional regulator (LysR family)		0.44	0.001	0.60	0.000	0.79	0.000
lmo0480		putative transcriptional regulator		0.36	0.000	0.68	0.001	0.84	0.000
lmo0526		transcription regulator (TipA from <i>Streptomyces coelicolor</i>)		0.36	0.043	0.66	0.001	0.76	0.025
lmo0575		transcription regulator GntR family		0.39	0.000	0.78	0.000	1.13	0.000
lmo0606		transcription regulator MarR family		0.56	0.000	0.82	0.000	1.18	0.000
lmo0639		transcription regulator (surface protein PAg negative regulator par)		0.24	0.021	0.54	0.000	0.88	0.002
lmo0659		transcription regulator (Rgg type)		0.97	0.000	1.13	0.000	1.64	0.000
lmo0740		putative transcriptional regulator		0.61	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo0753		transcription regulator Crp/Fnr family		0.51	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.69	0.000
lmo0770		transcriptional regulator (LacI family)		0.29	0.000	0.51	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo0799		unknown		0.65	0.000	0.77	0.000	0.91	0.000
lmo0802		GTP-pyrophosphokinase		0.47	0.000	0.77	0.000	0.61	0.004
lmo0822		transcriptional regulators		0.81	0.000	1.17	0.000	1.55	0.000
lmo0989		regulatory proteins (MarR family)		0.17	0.006	0.10	0.158	0.81	0.000
lmo1251		regulator of the Fnr CRP family (including PrfA)		1.51	0.000	1.47	0.000	1.28	0.000
lmo1517		nitrogen regulatory PII protein		0.57	0.001	0.50	0.004	0.81	0.000
lmo1693		hypothetical proteins		0.28	0.000	0.68	0.001	0.63	0.000
lmo1721		transcriptional regulator (NiFA/NtrC family)		0.09	0.243	0.59	0.000	0.45	0.004
lmo1820		putative serine/threonine-specific protein kinase		0.33	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo1962		transcription regulators (TetR family)		0.31	0.003	0.47	0.013	1.14	0.000
lmo2021		unknown protein		0.45	0.000	0.47	0.003	0.79	0.001
lmo2176		transcriptional regulator (tetR family)		0.47	0.018	0.80	0.002	0.73	0.029
lmo2178		putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		0.58	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.36	0.056

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo2179		putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		1.23	0.000	1.59	0.000	0.66	0.002
lmo2366		transcription regulator DeoR family		0.68	0.000	0.83	0.000	0.85	0.000
lmo2421	<i>cesK</i>	two-component sensor histidine kinase		0.56	0.000	0.76	0.000	0.93	0.000
lmo2460		<i>B. subtilis</i> CggR hypothetical transcriptional regulator		0.48	0.000	0.81	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo2593		transcription regulators (MerR family)		0.81	0.000	1.10	0.000	1.35	0.000
lmo2678		two components response regulator		0.57	0.000	1.06	0.000	1.54	0.000
lmo2728		transcription regulator MerR family		0.68	0.000	0.74	0.000	0.84	0.000
lmo2784		lichen operon transcription antiterminator licR		0.58	0.000	0.59	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo2792		unknown		0.31	0.000	0.38	0.000	0.68	0.000
Regulatory functions down-regulated									
lmo0109		transcriptional regulatory proteins, AraC family		-0.71	0.000	-1.29	0.000	-1.15	0.000
lmo0192		PurR, transcription repressor of purine operon of <i>B. subtilis</i>		-0.40	0.000	-0.71	0.000	-0.76	0.000
lmo0297		transcriptional antiterminator (BglG family)		-0.34	0.000	-0.50	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo0425		transcription antiterminator BglG family		-0.89	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-1.32	0.000
lmo0427		PTS fructose-specific enzyme IIB component		-1.03	0.000	-1.27	0.000	-0.70	0.005
lmo0785	<i>manR</i>	transcriptional regulator (NiFA/NtrC family)		-0.19	0.037	-0.44	0.000	-0.78	0.000
lmo0806		transcription regulator		-0.18	0.000	-1.13	0.000	-1.46	0.000
lmo0873		transcriptional regulator (antiterminator)		-0.73	0.000	-1.29	0.000	-0.67	0.001
lmo0958		transcription regulator (GntR family)		-0.42	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.41	0.000
lmo1150		Regulatory protein Salmonella typhimurium PooR protein		-0.55	0.000	-1.16	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo1172		two-component response regulator		-0.54	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo1173		two-component sensor histidine kinase		-0.53	0.000	-0.76	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo1280	<i>codY</i>	<i>B. subtilis</i> CodY protein		-0.35	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.68	0.000
lmo1311		unknown		-0.28	0.000	-0.79	0.000	-0.74	0.000
lmo1788		transcription regulator		-0.47	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.50	0.000
lmo1994		transcription regulators (LacI family)		-0.49	0.000	-0.71	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo2003		transcription regulator GntR family		-0.86	0.000	-0.90	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo2004		transcription regulator GntR family		-0.46	0.000	-0.55	0.001	-0.75	0.000
lmo2088		transcription regulators		-0.84	0.000	-1.05	0.000	-1.20	0.000
lmo2099		transcription antiterminator		-0.66	0.017	-0.61	0.017	-0.62	0.004
lmo2100		transcriptional regulator (GntR family) and to aminotransferase (MocR-like)		-0.88	0.000	-1.09	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo2144		transcription regulator GntR family		-0.52	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo2145		unknown protein		-0.25	0.007	-0.71	0.000	0.07	0.564
lmo2146		transcription regulator LysR family		-0.50	0.000	-0.63	0.000	-0.71	0.000
lmo2173		sigma-54-dependent transcriptional activator		-0.52	0.011	-0.67	0.007	-0.27	0.164
lmo2233		transcriptional regulators (LysR family)		-0.43	0.000	-0.55	0.001	-0.61	0.000
lmo2447		transcription regulator		-0.75	0.000	-0.99	0.000	-0.94	0.000
lmo2668		transcriptional antiterminator (BglG family)		-0.53	0.000	-0.65	0.000	-0.82	0.000
lmo2690		transcription regulator, TetR family		-0.48	0.000	-0.56	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo2764		xylose operon regulatory protein and to glucose kinase		-1.19	0.000	-1.59	0.000	-1.68	0.000
lmo2851		AraC-type regulatory protein		-1.10	0.000	-1.63	0.000	-1.79	0.000
Transcription up-regulated									
lmo1706		transport proteins		0.44	0.000	0.63	0.000	0.46	0.000
lmo1880		RNase HI		0.25	0.000	0.27	0.001	0.68	0.000
lmo2275		Portein gp28 [Bacteriophage A118]	V	0.31	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo2461	<i>sigL</i>	RNA polymerase sigma-54 factor (sigma-L)		0.50	0.000	0.79	0.000	0.93	0.000
Transcription down-regulated									
lmo0246	<i>nusG</i>	transcription antitermination factor		-0.33	0.000	-0.58	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo0258	<i>rpoB</i>	RNA polymerase (beta subunit)		-0.35	0.000	-0.52	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo1322	<i>nusA</i>	N utilization substance protein A (NusA protein)		-0.32	0.000	-0.49	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo1327	<i>rbfA</i>	ribosome-binding factor A		-0.58	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-0.96	0.000
lmo2855	<i>rnpA</i>	ribonuclease P protein component		-0.29	0.000	-0.57	0.000	-0.78	0.000
Transport and binding up-regulated									
lmo0003		conserved hypothetical protein		0.83	0.000	1.17	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo0169		glucose uptake protein		0.98	0.000	1.28	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo0301		PTS beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIA component	A,H	0.61	0.010	0.50	0.002	0.60	0.014
lmo0341		unknown	D	0.51	0.000	0.71	0.000	1.43	0.000
lmo0405		phosphate transport protein		0.70	0.000	0.86	0.000	0.86	0.000
lmo0641		heavy metal-transporting ATPase		0.58	0.000	0.65	0.000	0.51	0.000
lmo0667		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.68	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.83	0.000
lmo0668		putative ABC transporter, permease protein		0.51	0.000	0.62	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo0787		amino acid transporter		0.54	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.32	0.000
lmo0841		cation (calcium) transporting ATPase		0.22	0.000	0.40	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo0876		PTS system, Lichenan-specific enzyme IIC component	A,H	-1.34	0.001	NA	NA	NA	NA
lmo0986		antibiotic ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		0.26	0.000	0.45	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo1039		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		0.67	0.000	0.92	0.000	1.03	0.000
lmo1040		molybdenum ABC transporters (permease)		0.47	0.000	0.70	0.000	0.87	0.000
lmo1063		ABC transporter (ATP binding protein)		1.22	0.000	1.16	0.000	1.07	0.000
lmo1095		PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIB component (cel A)	A,H	0.60	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo1250		antibiotic resistance protein		3.42	0.000	4.02	0.000	4.49	0.000
lmo1300		arsenic efflux pump protein	D	1.10	0.000	1.16	0.000	1.55	0.000
lmo1425	<i>opuCD</i>	betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (membrane p)		0.40	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.98	0.000
lmo1426	<i>opuCC</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (osmoprotectant-binding protein)		0.47	0.000	0.95	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo1427	<i>opuCB</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (membrane protein)		0.47	0.000	0.99	0.000	1.30	0.000
lmo1428	<i>opuCA</i>	glycine betaine/carnitine/choline ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.57	0.000	0.99	0.000	1.36	0.000
lmo1446	<i>zurM</i>	metal (zinc) transport protein (ABC transporter, permease protein)		0.45	0.000	0.62	0.000	0.76	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo1447	<i>zurA</i>	metal (zinc) transport protein(ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein)		0.57	0.000	0.78	0.000	0.82	0.000
lmo1514		unknown protein	H	0.57	0.000	0.95	0.000	0.90	0.000
lmo1738		amino acid ABC transporter (binding protein)		0.94	0.000	1.12	0.000	1.27	0.000
lmo1739		amino acid (glutamine) ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.65	0.000	0.71	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo1740		amino acid (glutamine) ABC transporter, permease protein		0.81	0.000	0.89	0.000	1.01	0.000
lmo1889		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.66	0.001	0.71	0.009	0.58	0.001
lmo1960	<i>fnuC</i>	ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.89	0.000	1.00	0.000	0.90	0.000
lmo1963		unknown protein		0.29	0.063	0.75	0.001	0.65	0.010
lmo2059		potassium channel subunit		0.42	0.036	0.75	0.001	0.57	0.006
lmo2105		ferrous iron transport protein B		0.54	0.000	1.14	0.000	1.03	0.000
lmo2114		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		1.05	0.000	0.81	0.000	1.07	0.000
lmo2183		ferrichrome ABC transporter (permease)		0.76	0.000	0.99	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo2184		ferrichrome ABC transporter (binding protein)		0.77	0.000	0.97	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo2259		phosphotransferase system (PTS) beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIA		0.41	0.000	0.59	0.000	0.84	0.000
lmo2362	<i>gadT2</i>	amino acid antiporter (acid resistance)		5.64	0.000	5.49	0.000	5.28	0.000
lmo2369		<i>B. subtilis</i> general stress protein 13 containing a ribosomal S1 protein domain	C,U	0.54	0.000	0.80	0.000	0.84	0.000
lmo2470		internalin proteins	D,V	0.64	0.000	0.73	0.000	0.66	0.004
lmo2483		HPr-P(Ser) kinase/phosphatase	P	0.48	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo2497		phosphate ABC transporter (permease protein)		NA	NA	0.63	0.007	0.41	0.038
lmo2499		phosphate ABC transporter (binding protein)		NA	NA	0.43	0.023	0.76	0.001
lmo2558	<i>ami</i>	autolysin, amidase		0.22	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.56	0.000
lmo2580		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		1.05	0.000	1.65	0.000	2.32	0.000
lmo2581		conserved hypothetical protein		1.23	0.000	1.99	0.000	2.56	0.000
lmo2652		transcriptional antiterminator	A,H	0.56	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.77	0.000
lmo2680	<i>kdpC</i>	potassium-transporting atpase c chain		0.91	0.000	1.52	0.000	2.09	0.000
lmo2681	<i>kdpB</i>	potassium-transporting atpase b chain	H	1.01	0.000	2.18	0.000	3.28	0.000
lmo2682	<i>kdpA</i>	potassium-transporting atpase a chain		1.19	0.000	2.58	0.000	3.53	0.000
lmo2799		phosphotransferase system mannitol-specific enzyme IIBC		NA	NA	NA	NA	-0.80	0.006
lmo2816		transport protein		0.77	0.002	0.28	0.018	0.60	0.002
lmo2845		transmembrane efflux proteins		0.90	0.000	1.15	0.000	0.94	0.000
Transport and binding down-regulated									
lmo0022		PTS system, fructose-specific IIB component	A,H	NA	NA	-0.72	0.010	NA	NA
lmo0027		PTS system, beta-glucosidase specific enzyme IIBC	A,H	-1.88	0.000	-3.24	0.000	-2.76	0.000
lmo0096	<i>mptA</i>	PTS system mannose-specific, factor IIAB	A,H	0.16	0.317	-0.65	0.000	-1.02	0.000
lmo0097	<i>mptC</i>	PTS system mannose-specific, factor IIC	A,H	0.06	0.721	-0.87	0.000	-1.22	0.000
lmo0098	<i>mptD</i>	PTS system mannose-specific, factor IID	A,H	0.07	0.600	-0.92	0.000	-1.28	0.000
lmo0135		oligopeptide ABC transport system substrate-binding proteins		-1.25	0.000	-1.85	0.000	-2.54	0.000
lmo0136		oligopeptide ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.63	0.000	-1.14	0.000	-1.76	0.000
lmo0137		oligopeptide ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.51	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-1.48	0.000
lmo0179		sugar ABC transporters, permease proteins		-0.77	0.000	-1.00	0.000	-1.14	0.000
lmo0180		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.56	0.012	-0.74	0.001	NA	NA
lmo0181		sugar ABC transporter, sugar-binding protein		-0.42	0.000	-0.69	0.013	-0.68	0.003
lmo0278		sugar ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.20	0.080	-1.16	0.000	-1.26	0.000
lmo0399		fructose-specific phosphotransferase enzyme IIB		0.17	0.279	-0.77	0.000	-0.31	0.077
lmo0400		fructose-specific phosphotransferase enzyme IIC		0.23	0.190	-0.59	0.002	-0.46	0.009
lmo0426		PTS fructose-specific enzyme IIA component		-1.22	0.000	-1.37	0.000	-1.56	0.000
lmo0428		PTS fructose-specific enzyme IIC component		-1.00	0.000	-1.09	0.000	-1.52	0.000
lmo0519		multidrug resistance protein		-0.43	0.000	-0.86	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo0544		PTS system, glucitol/sorbitol-specific enzyme II CII component	A,H	NA	NA	-0.93	0.005	NA	NA
lmo0559		putative membrane protein		-0.99	0.000	-1.55	0.000	-1.62	0.000
lmo0573		conserved hypothetical protein		-1.13	0.000	-2.07	0.000	-2.48	0.000
lmo0738		phosphotransferase system (PTS) beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIBC component	A,H	-1.71	0.000	-2.01	0.000	-2.20	0.000
lmo0767		ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.47	0.001	-0.74	0.007	-0.48	0.014
lmo0781	<i>mpoD</i>	mannose-PTS component IID	A,H	-0.54	0.000	-1.16	0.000	-1.06	0.000
lmo0782	<i>mpoC</i>	mannose-PTS component IIC		-0.22	0.163	-0.84	0.000	-0.72	0.000
lmo0783	<i>mpoB</i>	mannose-PTS component IIB		-0.31	0.049	-1.01	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo0784	<i>mpoA</i>	mannose-PTS component IIA		-0.32	0.064	-0.91	0.000	-0.75	0.000
lmo0798		lysine-specific permease		-0.46	0.000	-0.69	0.000	-0.40	0.001
lmo0807		spermidine/putrescine ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.11	0.032	-0.71	0.000	-1.11	0.000
lmo0808		spermidine/putrescine ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.16	0.002	-0.94	0.000	-1.44	0.000
lmo0809		spermidine/putrescine ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.28	0.000	-0.93	0.000	-1.39	0.000
lmo0810		spermidine/putrescine-binding protein		-0.20	0.000	-1.00	0.000	-1.41	0.000
lmo0847		Glutamine ABC transporter (binding and transport protein)		-1.99	0.000	-2.26	0.000	-2.63	0.000
lmo0848		amino acid ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-2.17	0.000	-2.44	0.000	-2.75	0.000
lmo0859		putative sugar ABC transporter, periplasmic sugar-binding protein		-1.23	0.000	-1.93	0.000	-1.54	0.000
lmo0860		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.86	0.000	-0.59	0.012	-0.83	0.001
lmo0874		PTS system enzyme IIA component		-1.11	0.000	-1.19	0.000	-0.93	0.000
lmo0875		PTS system, beta-glucosidase enzyme IIB component	A,H	-0.50	0.002	-0.69	0.001	-0.70	0.002
lmo0901		PTS system, cellobiose-specific IIC component	Q	-0.58	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.51	0.002
lmo0916		phosphotransferase system enzyme IIA		0.34	0.001	-0.68	0.000	-0.40	0.000
lmo0947		hypothetical transport protein		-0.53	0.000	-0.76	0.000	-0.89	0.000
lmo0981		efflux transporter		-0.53	0.000	-0.53	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo1073		metal binding protein (ABC transporter)		-0.58	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-1.24	0.000
lmo1255		PTS system trehalose specific enzyme IIBC	A,H	-5.69	0.000	-5.82	0.000	-5.55	0.000
lmo1370		branched-chain fatty-acid kinase		-0.48	0.000	-0.32	0.000	-0.59	0.000
lmo1372		branched-chain alpha-keto acid dehydrogenase E1 subunit (2-oxoisovalerate dehydrogenase alpha subunit)		-0.61	0.000	-0.16	0.009	-0.57	0.000
lmo1389		sugar ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.21	0.000	-0.36	0.000	-0.60	0.000
lmo1390		ABC transporter (permease proteins)		-0.36	0.000	-0.47	0.000	-0.72	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo1391		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		-0.38	0.000	-0.55	0.000	-0.73	0.000
lmo1409		multidrug-efflux transporter		-0.41	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-0.95	0.000
lmo1424		manganese transport proteins NRAMP		-1.23	0.000	-1.47	0.000	-1.78	0.000
lmo1431		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.89	0.000	-1.00	0.000	-1.12	0.000
lmo1539		glycerol uptake facilitator		-0.29	0.000	-1.25	0.000	-1.02	0.000
lmo1682		transmembrane transport proteins		-0.23	0.087	-0.28	0.027	-0.86	0.002
lmo1730		sugar ABC transporter binding protein		-1.31	0.000	-2.03	0.000	-1.48	0.002
lmo1731		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		-1.08	0.000	-1.64	0.000	-1.35	0.000
lmo1732		sugar ABC transporter, permease protein		-1.03	0.000	-1.41	0.000	-1.48	0.000
lmo1761		putative sodium-dependent transporter		-0.46	0.000	-0.64	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo1839	<i>pyrP</i>	uracil permease		-0.88	0.000	-2.49	0.000	-3.79	0.000
lmo1848		similar metal cations ABC transporter (permease protein)		-2.25	0.000	-2.62	0.000	-2.55	0.000
lmo1849		metal cations ABC transporter, ATP-binding proteins		-2.46	0.000	-2.89	0.000	-3.03	0.000
lmo1884		xanthine permeases		-0.77	0.000	-1.43	0.000	-1.74	0.000
lmo1973		PTS system enzyme II A component	A,H	-0.82	0.000	-0.68	0.000	-0.86	0.000
lmo1997		PTS mannose-specific enzyme IIA component		-1.27	0.000	-1.24	0.004	-0.95	0.001
lmo2001		PTS mannose-specific enzyme IIC component	A,H	-0.68	0.000	-1.04	0.000	-0.50	0.005
lmo2002		PTS mannose-specific enzyme IIB component	A,H	-1.00	0.000	-1.15	0.002	-1.12	0.000
lmo2084		unknown	D	-0.73	0.000	-1.24	0.000	-1.09	0.000
lmo2087		unknown protein		-0.92	0.000	-0.99	0.000	-1.01	0.001
lmo2097		PTS system galactitol-specific enzyme IIB component	A,H	-0.62	0.003	-0.78	0.000	-0.43	0.001
lmo2227		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.70	0.000	-0.80	0.000	-0.83	0.000
lmo2238		transport system permease protein		-0.39	0.001	-0.72	0.000	-0.66	0.000
lmo2250	<i>arpJ</i>	amino acid ABC transporter, permease protein		-1.84	0.000	-2.19	0.000	-2.50	0.000
lmo2251		amino acid ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-1.78	0.000	-2.06	0.000	-2.39	0.000
lmo2346		amino acid ABC-transporter, ATP-binding protein		-1.71	0.000	-2.34	0.000	-2.39	0.000
lmo2347		amino acid ABC transporter (permease)		-1.85	0.000	-2.64	0.000	-2.98	0.000
lmo2349		amino acid ABC transporter (binding protein)		-1.80	0.000	-1.91	0.000	-2.61	0.000
lmo2372		ABC-transporter ATP binding proteins		-0.40	0.000	-0.78	0.000	-0.67	0.000
lmo2575		cation transport protein (efflux)		-0.86	0.000	-0.93	0.000	-1.53	0.000
lmo2591		surface protein (GW repeat) N-acetylmuramidase		-0.47	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.56	0.000
lmo2650		hypothetical PTS enzyme IIB component	A,H	-1.49	0.000	-1.50	0.000	-1.98	0.000
lmo2651		mannitol-specific PTS enzyme IIA component		-1.77	0.000	-2.16	0.000	-2.33	0.000
lmo2665		PTS system galactitol-specific enzyme IIC component	A,H	-0.63	0.000	-0.84	0.000	-1.04	0.000
lmo2666		PTS system galactitol-specific enzyme IIB component	A,H	-0.60	0.000	-0.72	0.000	-0.82	0.000
lmo2667		PTS system galactitol-specific enzyme IIA component	A,H	-0.45	0.000	-0.49	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo2683		cellobiose phosphotransferase enzyme IIB component	A,H	-1.62	0.000	-1.99	0.000	-2.92	0.000
lmo2684		cellobiose phosphotransferase enzyme IIC component	Q	-2.21	0.000	-2.91	0.000	-3.67	0.000
lmo2685		cellobiose phosphotransferase enzyme IIA component	A,H	-1.76	0.000	-2.16	0.000	-2.84	0.000
lmo2689		Mg ²⁺ transport ATPase		-0.66	0.000	-0.77	0.000	-0.60	0.000
lmo2708		PTS system, cellobiose-specific enzyme IIC	Q	-2.85	0.000	-3.23	0.000	-3.16	0.000
lmo2762		PTS cellobiose-specific enzyme IIB	A,H	-1.15	0.000	-1.60	0.000	-1.45	0.000
lmo2763		PTS cellobiose-specific enzyme IIC	Q	-0.84	0.000	-1.01	0.000	-1.26	0.000
lmo2765		PTS cellobiose-specific enzyme IIA		-0.82	0.000	-1.17	0.000	-1.45	0.000
lmo2772		beta-glucoside-specific enzyme IIABC	A,H	-0.51	0.000	-1.02	0.000	-0.90	0.000
lmo2787	<i>bvrB</i>	beta-glucoside-specific phosphotransferase enzyme II ABC component	A,H	-2.52	0.000	-3.14	0.000	-2.99	0.000
lmo2797		phosphotransferase system mannitol-specific enzyme IIA	A,H	-1.67	0.000	-2.19	0.000	-2.39	0.000
lmo2837		sugar ABC transporter permease protein		-0.32	0.072	-0.73	0.000	-0.70	0.001
lmo2838		sugar ABC transporter permease protein		-1.11	0.001	-1.25	0.000	-1.12	0.000
Unclassified (role category not yet assigned) up-regulated									
lmo0102		unknown		0.78	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.78	0.001
lmo0139		unknown		0.64	0.000	1.10	0.000	0.98	0.000
lmo0172		transposase C-terminal part		0.64	0.008	0.48	0.016	NA	NA
lmo0173		transposase (N-terminal part)		0.83	0.000	1.38	0.000	NA	NA
lmo0175		putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		0.52	0.003	0.91	0.002	1.08	0.000
lmo0185		conserved hypothetical proteins		0.38	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.65	0.000
lmo0189		<i>B. subtilis</i> Veg protein		0.25	0.000	0.70	0.000	0.52	0.000
lmo0202	<i>hly</i>	listeriolysin O precursor		1.46	0.000	2.04	0.000	3.00	0.000
lmo0204	<i>actA</i>	actin-assembly inducing protein precursor		1.54	0.000	2.32	0.000	2.52	0.000
lmo0208		conserved hypothetical protein		0.64	0.000	0.81	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo0265		succinyldiaminopimelate desuccinylase		NA	NA	0.46	0.133	1.09	0.002
lmo0336		unknown		0.80	0.000	1.48	0.000	1.47	0.000
lmo0354		fatty-acid-CoA ligase		0.38	0.000	0.66	0.000	0.53	0.000
lmo0361		conserved hypothetical integral membrane protein		1.17	0.000	1.36	0.000	1.37	0.000
lmo0362		conserved hypothetical protein		1.30	0.000	1.28	0.000	1.28	0.000
lmo0367		conserved hypothetical protein <i>B. subtilis</i> YwbN protein		0.75	0.000	0.91	0.000	0.83	0.000
lmo0368		different proteins		0.57	0.000	0.62	0.000	0.55	0.000
lmo0473		pseudogene		0.65	0.000	1.15	0.011	1.22	0.000
lmo0553		unknown		0.37	0.000	0.62	0.000	1.14	0.000
lmo0582	<i>iap</i>	P60 extracellular protein, invasion associated protein Iap		0.20	0.000	0.43	0.000	0.60	0.000
lmo0586		unknown		0.67	0.000	0.76	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo0595		O-acetylhomoserine sulphydrylase		0.71	0.000	1.01	0.000	1.24	0.000
lmo0607		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		0.77	0.000	1.26	0.000	1.54	0.000
lmo0608		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		0.38	0.000	0.67	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo0621		conserved hypothetical protein		0.94	0.000	1.08	0.000	1.16	0.000
lmo0625		unknown		0.37	0.000	0.64	0.000	0.72	0.000
lmo0661		unknown protein		2.52	0.000	2.67	0.000	2.69	0.000
lmo0664		acetyl transferase		0.47	0.000	0.44	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo0754		bile acid 7-alpha dehydratase		0.64	0.000	0.63	0.000	0.79	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCT ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo0800		<i>B. subtilis</i> YqkB protein		1.68	0.000	2.07	0.000	2.27	0.000
lmo0829	<i>nifJ</i>	pyruvate-flavodoxin oxidoreductase		0.73	0.000	0.95	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo0871		<i>B. subtilis</i> YtcD protein		0.38	0.000	0.48	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo0930		conserved hypothetical protein, <i>B. subtilis</i> YhfI protein		0.70	0.000	0.89	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo0974	<i>dltA</i>	D-alanine-activating enzyme (dae), D-alanine-D-alanyl carrier protein ligase (dcl)		0.89	0.000	1.15	0.000	1.24	0.000
lmo1018		<i>E. coli</i> copper homeostasis protein CutC		0.49	0.000	0.52	0.000	0.64	0.000
lmo1252		<i>B. subtilis</i> YxkD protein		0.87	0.000	1.46	0.000	1.17	0.000
lmo1336		5-formyltetrahydrofolate cyclo-ligase		0.64	0.000	0.50	0.000	0.43	0.000
lmo1380		unknown		0.20	0.000	0.48	0.000	0.69	0.000
lmo1397	<i>cinA</i>	competence-damage inducible protein CinA		0.78	0.000	0.73	0.000	0.66	0.000
lmo1430		unknown protein		0.30	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.59	0.000
lmo1510		unknown protein		0.26	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo1655		unknown protein		0.91	0.000	1.03	0.001	0.67	0.003
lmo1680		cystathionine gamma-synthase		0.95	0.000	1.29	0.000	1.63	0.000
lmo1705		deoxyguanosine kinase/deoxyadenosine kinase(I) subunit		0.75	0.000	0.97	0.000	1.16	0.000
lmo1895	<i>dnaD</i>	chromosome replication initiation protein		0.17	0.001	0.31	0.000	0.69	0.004
lmo1968		creatinine amidohydrolase		0.50	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.74	0.000
lmo2067		conjugated bile acid hydrolase		0.67	0.001	1.06	0.000	1.14	0.002
lmo2170		unknown protein		0.78	0.002	0.98	0.003	0.72	0.003
lmo2180		unknown protein		1.19	0.000	1.40	0.000	1.08	0.002
lmo2182		ferrichrome ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		0.77	0.000	1.00	0.000	0.67	0.000
lmo2287		putative tape-measure [Bacteriophage A118]		0.71	0.000	0.75	0.001	0.53	0.011
lmo2300		putative terminase large subunit from Bacteriophage A118		0.58	0.000	0.90	0.000	0.95	0.000
lmo2304		Bacteriophage A118 gp65 protein		NA	NA	NA	NA	0.79	0.001
lmo2317		protein gp49 [Bacteriophage A118]		0.56	0.015	0.88	0.000	1.04	0.000
lmo2403		<i>B. subtilis</i> YunD protein		0.53	0.000	0.72	0.000	0.84	0.000
lmo2406		<i>B. subtilis</i> YunF protein		0.57	0.000	0.86	0.000	1.12	0.000
lmo2439		unknown		0.66	0.000	0.53	0.000	0.86	0.000
lmo2473		conserved hypothetical protein		0.42	0.000	0.61	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo2522		hypothetical cell wall binding protein from <i>B. subtilis</i>		1.59	0.000	2.13	0.000	3.28	0.000
lmo2541		yeast translation initiation protein		0.38	0.000	0.69	0.000	0.67	0.000
lmo2602		conserved hypothetical protein		0.60	0.000	1.01	0.000	1.43	0.000
lmo2671		unknown		0.25	0.000	0.56	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo2679		the two components sensor protein kdpD		0.66	0.000	1.20	0.000	1.70	0.000
lmo2740		unknown		0.53	0.000	0.78	0.000	0.75	0.000
lmo2759		unknown protein		0.40	0.000	0.32	0.000	0.61	0.000
lmo2817		peptidases		0.32	0.027	0.20	0.319	0.75	0.001
lmo2850		sugar transport proteins		NA	NA	-0.80	0.008	NA	NA
Unclassified (role category not yet assigned) down-regulated									
lmo0107		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.84	0.000	-0.75	0.005	-0.61	0.022
lmo0108		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-1.04	0.000	-1.06	0.000	-1.12	0.000
lmo0130		5-nucleotidase, putative peptidoglycan bound protein (LPXTG motif)		-2.50	0.000	-3.39	0.000	-3.70	0.000
lmo0385		<i>B. subtilis</i> lolC protein and to fructokinase		-0.69	0.000	-0.84	0.000	-0.91	0.000
lmo0591		unknown membrane proteins		-0.82	0.000	-1.17	0.000	-1.22	0.000
lmo0768		sugar ABC transporter, periplasmic sugar-binding protein		-0.71	0.000	-0.85	0.000	-0.84	0.000
lmo0769		alpha-1,6-mannanase		-0.53	0.000	-0.58	0.000	-0.62	0.001
lmo1001		<i>B. subtilis</i> protein Ykvs		-0.55	0.000	-0.70	0.000	-0.65	0.000
lmo1075		teichoic acid translocation ATP-binding protein TagH (ABC transporter)		-0.36	0.000	-0.62	0.000	-0.47	0.000
lmo1143		Salmonella enterica PduT protein		-0.41	0.000	-0.64	0.000	-0.66	0.001
lmo1303		<i>B. subtilis</i> YneA protein		-0.55	0.000	-0.48	0.000	-0.61	0.000
lmo1321		conserved hypothetical protein, <i>B. subtilis</i> YkxS protein		-0.27	0.000	-0.45	0.000	-0.64	0.000
lmo1369		phosphotransbutyrylase		-0.69	0.000	-0.16	0.031	-1.37	0.000
lmo1388	<i>icsA</i>	CD4+ T cell-stimulating antigen, lipoprotein		-0.67	0.000	-0.83	0.000	-0.62	0.000
lmo1651		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-0.95	0.000	-1.08	0.000	-1.32	0.000
lmo1652		ABC transporter (ATP-binding protein)		-1.14	0.000	-1.39	0.000	-1.77	0.000
lmo1790		unknown protein		-0.54	0.000	-0.60	0.000	-0.48	0.000
lmo1796		unknown protein		-0.76	0.000	-1.11	0.000	-1.33	0.000
lmo1847		adhesion binding proteins and lipoproteins with multiple specificity for metal cations (ABC transporter)		-1.94	0.000	-2.30	0.000	-1.72	0.005
lmo1970		putative phosphotriesterase related proteins		-0.69	0.000	-0.68	0.016	-0.61	0.006
lmo1998		opine catabolism protein		-1.02	0.000	-1.60	0.000	-1.30	0.000
lmo1999		glucosamine-fructose-6-phosphate aminotransferase		-0.99	0.000	-1.55	0.000	-1.44	0.001
lmo2102		unknown		-0.57	0.000	-0.82	0.000	-0.79	0.001
lmo2125		maltose/maltodextrin ABC-transporter (binding protein)		0.17	0.321	-2.88	0.000	-2.10	0.000
lmo2158		<i>B. subtilis</i> YwmG protein		-1.17	0.000	-0.54	0.000	-0.19	0.095
lmo2207		unknown protein		-0.44	0.000	-0.49	0.000	-0.69	0.000
lmo2264		unknown protein		-0.56	0.000	-0.76	0.000	-0.80	0.000
lmo2333		pseudogene		-0.91	0.000	-1.00	0.001	-0.95	0.000
lmo2345		conserved hypothetical protein		-1.97	0.000	-2.58	0.000	-2.96	0.000
lmo2348		amino acid ABC-transporter (permease)		-1.85	0.000	-2.54	0.000	-2.95	0.000
lmo2433		acetyltransferase		-1.34	0.000	-1.43	0.000	-1.90	0.000
lmo2647		creatinine amidohydrolase		-1.27	0.000	-1.50	0.000	-1.36	0.001
lmo2648		Phosphotriesterase		-1.44	0.000	-1.81	0.000	-1.65	0.000
lmo2732		unknown		-0.58	0.000	-1.10	0.000	-1.17	0.000
lmo2742		unknown		-0.07	0.310	-0.60	0.000	-0.06	0.503
lmo2751		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.32	0.000	-0.72	0.000	-0.82	0.000
lmo2752		ABC transporter, ATP-binding protein		-0.65	0.000	-0.98	0.000	-0.95	0.000
lmo2773		transcription antiterminator		-1.45	0.000	-2.11	0.000	-2.21	0.000
lmo2785	<i>kat</i>	catalase		-1.31	0.000	-1.59	0.000	-1.35	0.000

Locus	Gene	Description (similar to) ^a	Role(s) ^a	HCl ^b		AA		LA	
				Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value	Log2	q-value
lmo2788	<i>bvrA</i>	transcription antiterminator		-1.23	0.000	-1.82	0.000	-1.74	0.000
lmo2801		putative N-acetylmannosamine-6-phosphate epimerase		-1.62	0.000	-1.99	0.000	-1.23	0.004
lmo2853		<i>B. subtilis</i> Jag protein		-0.67	0.000	-0.93	0.000	-1.12	0.000
Unknown function up-regulated									
lmo0212		unknown		0.38	0.000	0.55	0.000	0.80	0.000
lmo0602		transcription regulator		0.61	0.000	0.71	0.000	0.96	0.000
lmo0624		unknown protein		0.24	0.000	0.47	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo0795		conserved hypothetical protein		0.85	0.000	0.67	0.000	0.38	0.000
lmo0919		ABC transporter ATP-binding protein (antibiotic resistance)		0.56	0.000	0.75	0.000	0.70	0.000
lmo0976		<i>B. subtilis</i> YjcF protein		0.42	0.000	0.45	0.000	0.63	0.000
lmo1569		unknown protein		0.40	0.000	0.60	0.000	0.81	0.000
lmo2005		oxidoreductase		1.33	0.001	1.98	0.000	1.82	0.000
lmo2109		hydrolase		0.23	0.088	0.59	0.004	0.79	0.000
lmo2127		unknown		0.82	0.000	0.87	0.000	1.05	0.000
lmo2165		transcription regulator CRP/FNR family		0.52	0.002	0.90	0.000	0.63	0.001
lmo2260		unknown protein		0.54	0.000	0.80	0.000	0.89	0.000
lmo2361		conserved hypothetical protein		2.61	0.000	3.78	0.000	3.51	0.000
lmo2397		NifU protein		0.44	0.003	0.43	0.035	0.61	0.000
Unknown function down-regulated									
lmo0590		fusion of two types of conserved hypothetical protein	conserved hypothetical	-0.54	0.001	-0.50	0.014	-0.86	0.001
lmo0694		unknown		-0.89	0.000	-1.27	0.000	-1.18	0.000
lmo0776		transcription regulator (repressor)		-0.83	0.000	-1.20	0.000	-1.23	0.000
lmo1049		molybdopterin biosynthesis protein MoeB		-0.33	0.000	-0.64	0.000	-0.51	0.000
lmo1937		unknown protein		-0.41	0.001	-0.46	0.000	-0.63	0.000
lmo2649		hypothetical PTS enzyme IIC component		-1.91	0.000	-2.37	0.000	-2.34	0.000
lmo2796		transcription regulator		-0.85	0.000	-1.39	0.000	-1.23	0.001
lmo2829		yeast protein Frn2p involved in fatty acid signaling		-0.13	0.074	-0.43	0.000	-0.77	0.000
Viral functions up-regulated									
lmo0255		unknown protein	P	1.02	0.000	0.92	0.000	0.78	0.000
lmo1444		protein secretion PrsA (post-translocation molecular chaperone)		0.67	0.000	1.05	0.000	0.97	0.000
lmo2112		unknown		0.58	0.000	0.68	0.000	0.78	0.000
lmo2275		protein gp28 [Bacteriophage A118]	R	0.31	0.000	0.57	0.000	0.62	0.000
lmo2283		protein gp20 [Bacteriophage A118]		0.55	0.000	0.68	0.005	0.91	0.000
lmo2286		protein gp17 [Bacteriophage A118]		0.21	0.051	0.35	0.107	0.74	0.007
Viral functions down-regulated									
lmo0717		transglycosylase		-1.48	0.000	-1.83	0.000	-2.08	0.000
lmo2072		putative DNA binding proteins		-0.37	0.000	-0.63	0.000	-0.54	0.000

^a Description of genes according to the annotation of the Comprehensive Microbial Resource of the J. Craig Venter Institute (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>). The functional role categories are also according to the primary annotation in CMR-JCVI *L. monocytogenes* EGDe genome database. A, Amino acid biosynthesis; B, Biosynthesis of cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers; C, Cell envelope; D, Cellular processes; E, Central intermediary metabolism; G, DNA metabolism; H, Energy metabolism; I, Fatty acid and phospholipid metabolism; J, Hypothetical proteins; L, Mobile and extrachromosomal element functions; M, Protein fate; N, Protein synthesis; O, Purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, and nucleotides; P, Regulatory functions; Q, Signal transduction; R, Transcription; S, Transport and binding proteins; T, Unclassified; U, Unknown function; V, Viral functions.

^b Log₂ expression ratio (HCl, hydrochloric acid; AA, acetic acid; or LA, lactic acid/reference culture); values in bold face indicate differentially expressed genes as defined as log₂ ratios ≥ 0.585 or ≤ -0.585 and with q-value < 0.01 (p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate). NA, no data available. Fully annotated microarray data have been deposited in BμG@Sbase (accession number E-BUGS-109; <http://bugs.sgul.ac.uk/E-BUGS-109>) and also ArrayExpress (accession number E-BUGS-109).

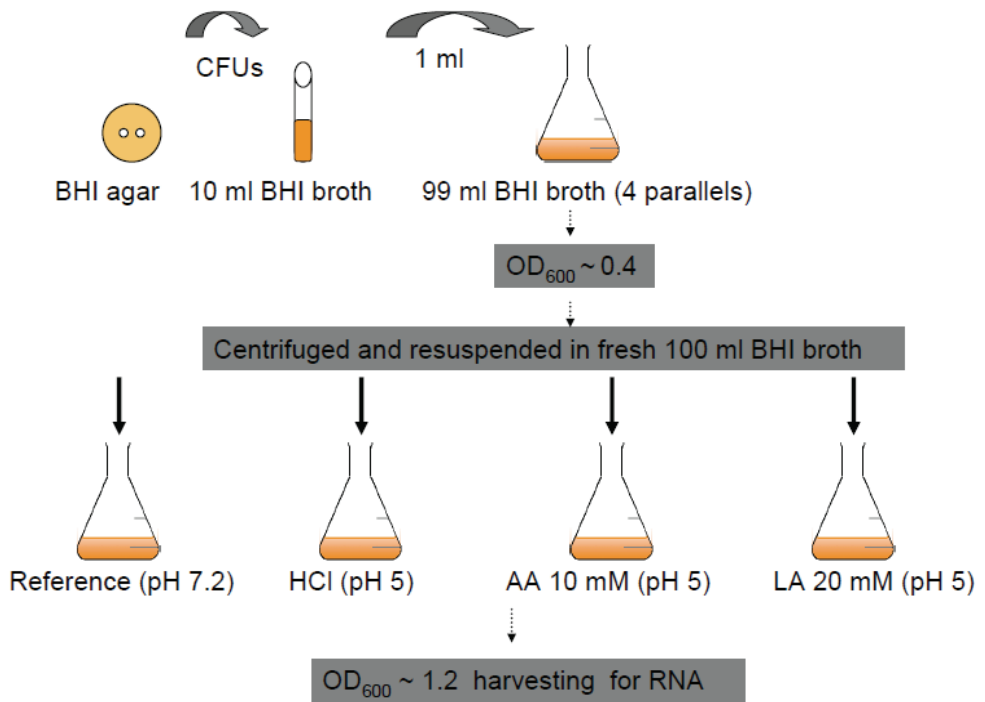
Table S3. Up-regulated known and putative genes encoding proteins implicated in cross-protection against other stress conditions in *L. monocytogenes* L502 grown in Brain Heart Infusion broth acidified to pH 5 with HCl, 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA).

Locus	Gene	Product (similar to) ^a	Log2 ratio ^b		
			HCl	AA	LA
Heavy metal resistance					
lmo0641		heavy metal-transporting ATPase	0.58	0.65	0.51
lmo1300		arsenic efflux pump protein	1.10	1.16	1.55
lmo2230		arsenate reductase	0.34	0.81	1.30
lmo2231		divalent cations efflux	0.57	0.74	0.81
Oxidative stress					
lmo0906		glutathione reductase	0.62	0.81	1.05
lmo0983		glutathione peroxidase	0.35	0.39	0.70
lmo1233	<i>trxA</i>	thioredoxin	0.50	0.64	0.87
lmo1433		glutathione reductase	2.02	2.09	1.84
lmo1609		thioredoxin	0.43	0.61	0.83
lmo2424		thioredoxin	1.03	1.08	1.31
lmo2478	<i>trxB</i>	thioredoxin reductase	0.64	0.64	0.85

^a Description of genes according to the annotation of the Comprehensive Microbial Resource of the J. Craig Venter Institute (<http://cmr.jcvi.org>) and published literature sources.

^b Log2 expression ratio (HCl, hydrochloric acid; AA, acetic acid; or LA, lactic acid/reference culture); bold type values log2 ratios ≥ 0.585 and with q-value < 0.01 (p-value adjusted to control false discovery rate).

(A)



(B)

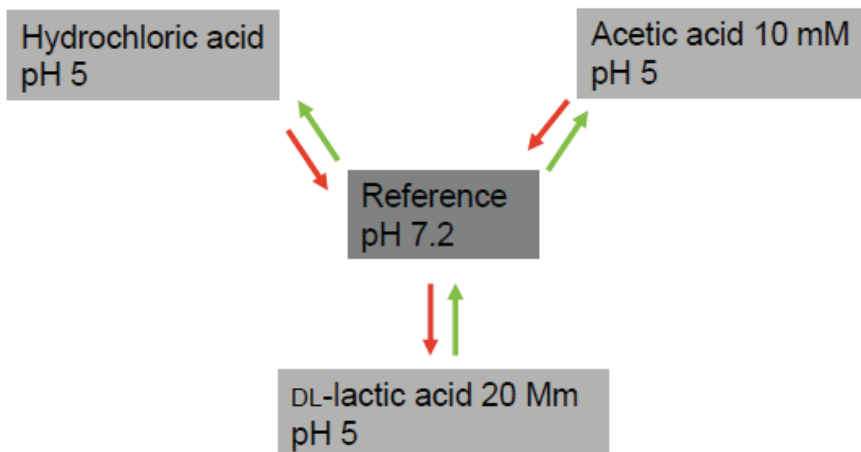


Fig. S1. (A) Schematic presentation of the experimental design. The *L. monocytogenes* L502 was streaked on a BHI agar plate and incubated at 25°C for 18-20 h. An overnight culture was prepared from the agar plate in 10 ml BHI broth (pH 7.2) and incubated for 18-20 h. The stationary-phase culture was diluted 1:100 (vol/vol) in four sterilized baffled Erlenmeyer flasks (500 ml) containing 99 ml of fresh BHI broth (pH 7.2). Exponentially growing cultures (OD₆₀₀ of 0.4) were centrifuged at 5000g for 5 min at 25°C and the cells were resuspended in 100 ml BHI broth containing: BHI pH 7.2 reference, (flask no 1), HCl pH 5 (flask no 2), 10 mM acetic acid pH 5 (AA) (flask no 3), and 20 mM lactic acid pH 5 (LA) (flask no 4). Harvesting for RNA isolation was performed when growth reached OD₆₀₀ ~1.2. **(B)** The microarray hybridization scheme. The double arrows indicate dye swapping hybridizations. The microarray was repeated twice on different days, each experiment consisting of dye-swap and at least one technical replicate (a minimum of four hybridizations per a given acid stress condition).

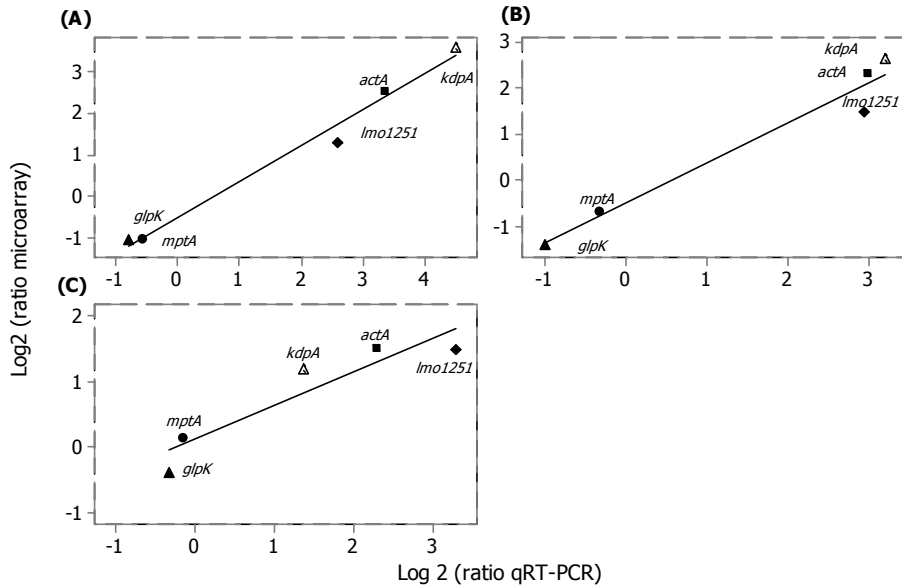


Fig. S2. Validation of microarray data (y-axis) by qRT-PCR analysis (x-axis). The transcriptional studies were performed during growth in brain heart infusion broth acidified to pH 5 with hydrochloric acid (HCl), 10 mM acetic acid (AA) or 20 mM lactic acid (LA). (A) LA (B) AA and (C) HCl stressed culture and the log₂ ratio values are relative to the reference culture (initial pH 7.2).

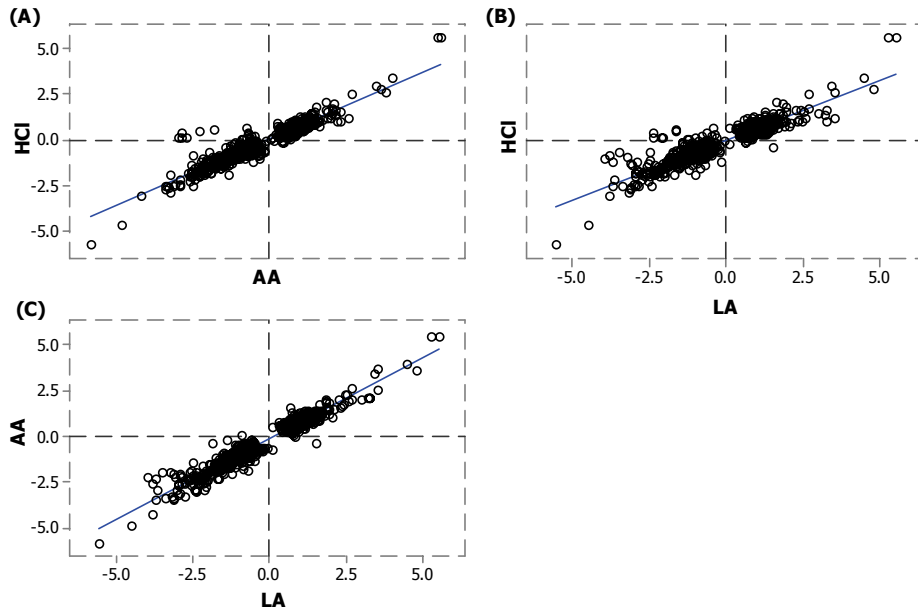


Fig. S3. Scatter plot on microarray data set using genes differentially expressed in set any of the acid growth conditions (A) hydrochloric acid (HCl) versus acetic acid (AA); (B) HCl versus lactic acid and (LA) (C) AA versus LA. The transcriptional studies were performed during growth in brain heart infusion broth acidified to pH 5 with HCl, 10 mM acetic acid or 20 mM lactic acid and the log₂ ratio values are relative to the reference culture (pH 7.2).

