

1 **Title:** Listeriaphages and coagulin C23 act synergistically to kill *Listeria*  
2 *monocytogenes* in milk under refrigeration conditions.

3

4 **Running Title:** Killing of *L. monocytogenes* in milk

5

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25

26 **Abstract**

27

28 Bacteriophages and bacteriocins are promising biocontrol tools in food. In this work,  
29 two *Listeria* bacteriophages, FWLLm1 and FWLLm3, were assessed in combination  
30 with the bacteriocin coagulin C23 to inhibit *Listeria monocytogenes*. Preliminary results  
31 under laboratory conditions demonstrated that both antimicrobials act synergistically  
32 when they were applied in suboptimal concentrations. The combined approach was  
33 further assessed in milk contaminated with  $5 \times 10^4$  CFU/ml *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47  
34 and stored at 4°C for 10 days. When used alone, phage FWLLm1 added at  $5 \times 10^6$   
35 PFU/ml, FWLLm3 at  $5 \times 10^5$  PFU/ml and coagulin C23 at 584 AU/ml kept *L.*  
36 *monocytogenes* 2000/47 counts lower than the untreated control throughout storage.  
37 However, when used in combination, inhibition was enhanced and in the presence of  
38 FWLLm1 and coagulin C23, *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 counts were under the  
39 detection limits (less than 10 CFU/ml) from day 4 until the end of the experiment.  
40 Resistant mutants towards phages and coagulin C23 could be obtained, but cross-  
41 resistance was not detected. Mutants resistant to FWLLm3 and coagulin C23 were also  
42 recovered from surviving colonies after cold storage in milk which may explain the  
43 failure of this combination to inhibit *L. monocytogenes*. Remarkably, the fraction of  
44 resistant mutants isolated from the combined treatment was lower than that from each  
45 antimicrobial alone, suggesting that synergy between bacteriocins and phages could be  
46 due to a lower rate of resistance development and the absence of cross-resistance.

47

48

49 **Keywords:** Bacteriophage, *Listeria monocytogenes*, bacteriocin, synergism, biocontrol,  
50 milk, resistance.

51

52 **Highlights**

53 • The combined used of bacteriocins and bacteriophages synergistically inhibits  
54 *Listeria monocytogenes* in broth

55 • Both antimicrobials enhanced safety of milk under cold storage

56 • Synergy could be linked to a lower frequency of development of resistant  
57 mutants to each antimicrobial

58 • Cross-resistance was not detected

59

60

61 **1. INTRODUCTION**

62

63 *Listeria monocytogenes* is the causative agent of listeriosis, a foodborne disease  
64 which affects the elderly, pregnant women, unborn and newborn babies and people with  
65 weakened immune systems (Allerberger and Wagner, 2010). In healthy adults and  
66 children, listeriosis causes few or no symptoms and may be mistaken for a mild viral  
67 infection or flu which makes the incidence of listeriosis difficult to establish (Bortolussi,  
68 2008). However, an increasing rate of this foodborne illness has been reported in  
69 Europe in recent years related to a higher rate of listeriosis in people  $\geq 65$  years of age  
70 (Goulet et al., 2008).

71 *L. monocytogenes* is a serious concern for the food industry as this pathogen can  
72 grow at refrigeration temperatures commonly used to control pathogens in foods (4°C to  
73 10°C) and tolerates high concentrations of salt and low pH (Ferreira et al., 2014). Many  
74 categories of food have been related with listeriosis outbreaks: milk, soft cheeses and  
75 other dairy products, sausages, smoked fish, salads, delicatessen and ready-to-eat  
76 products (Garrido et al., 2010). The majority of detected outbreaks have been caused by  
77 ready-to-eat meats and cheeses (Cartwright et al., 2013; Garrido et al., 2010). Although  
78 *L. monocytogenes* is inactivated by thermal treatments used in processed food, post-  
79 processing cross-contamination from equipment and environment may occur due to the  
80 persistence of this pathogen in processing plants (Ferreira et al., 2014; Meloni et al.,  
81 2014; Ortiz et al., 2014) as a result of the development of resistance to disinfectants and  
82 its ability to form biofilms (Ferreira et al., 2014).

83 Listeriophages have been proposed as new tools for *Listeria* biocontrol.  
84 Bacteriophages or phages, the natural killers of bacteria, are widely distributed in all  
85 environments, including food, and are presumed safe for humans, animals and plants.  
86 They have been successfully assessed as new tools to reduce levels of foodborne

87 pathogens and spoilage bacteria along the food chain. *Listeria* phages have been  
88 isolated from several environments (sewage plants, silage, food processing  
89 environments, lysogenic strains) and used for detection of *L. monocytogenes* in food as  
90 well as for reducing its presence in food processing equipment and on ready-to-eat  
91 products (García et al., 2010; Hagens and Loessner, 2014).

92 Another strategy to ensure food safety is the use of bacteriocins as natural  
93 biopreservatives. Bacteriocins are ribosomally synthesized antimicrobial peptides or  
94 proteins with bactericidal or bacteriostatic activity produced by bacteria (Drider and  
95 Rebuffat, 2011). These antimicrobial peptides have been traditionally used as  
96 biopreservatives to extend the shelf life of food products without compromising their  
97 nutritional and organoleptic properties (Gálvez et al., 2010; García et al., 2010). In this  
98 context, bacteriocins are regarded as an additional barrier to inhibit growth of  
99 undesirable microorganisms (Omar et al., 2013) and have already been successfully  
100 applied in several food systems to control the growth of *L. monocytogenes* (Davies et  
101 al., 1997; Franklin et al., 2004; Wan et al., 1997).

102 In this work, two *Listeria* phages, FWLLm1 and FWLLm3, and one bacteriocin,  
103 coagulin C23, were used in combination looking for a synergistic effect to reduce or  
104 eliminate the presence of *L. monocytogenes* in milk. Coagulin C23 is produced by  
105 *Lactobacillus paraplantarum* IPLA C23 and has been reported to have antimicrobial  
106 activity against *L. monocytogenes* (Allende et al., 2007; Rilla-Villar, 2003). Coagulin  
107 C23 is identical to coagulin A, a natural variant of the class IIa bacteriocin pediocin  
108 PA1/AcH (Hyronimus et al., 1998). FWLLm1 and FWLLm3 are myoviruses isolated  
109 from sheep faeces that infect strains of the species *L. monocytogenes* as well as other  
110 species such as *Listeria ivanovii* and *Listeria welshimeri* (Bigot et al., 2011; Arachchi et  
111 al., 2013). FWLLm1 was reported to immediately reduce  $2.5 \log_{10}$  CFU/cm<sup>2</sup> a *L.*  
112 *monocytogenes* contamination after addition on the surface of vacuum-packed ready-to-

113 eat chicken breast roll (Bigot et al., 2011) suggesting its potential for biocontrol of this  
114 pathogen in food.

115

## 116 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

117

### 118 **2.1 Bacteria, phages, bacteriocin and growth conditions**

119 *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 strain, which is a subtype that has caused listeriosis  
120 sporadic cases and outbreaks in New Zealand for several years (Sim et al., 2002), was  
121 used to contaminate milk samples and as host of phages for propagation. *Listeria* cells  
122 were grown at 32°C under static conditions or at 37°C with shaking in TSB (Tryptone  
123 Soy Broth, Scharlau, Barcelona, Spain) or TSB supplemented with 2% (w/v)  
124 bacteriological agar (TSA). Phage FWLLm1 and FWLLm3 preparations were obtained  
125 from 10 ml of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 which was infected with the phages at a ratio  
126 1:1 (phage:bacteria). The infected cultures were then incubated for 3 h at 37°C with  
127 shaking. Concentrated coagulin C23 supernatants were obtained from *L. paraplantarum*  
128 IPLA C23 cultures grown overnight at 32°C in MRS broth (Scharlau, Spain). Ninety ml  
129 of the supernatant were mixed with 10 ml trichloroacetic acid 100% and incubated 1 h  
130 at 4°C. After centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded and the dried pellet was  
131 resuspended in 5 ml sodium phosphate buffer 50 mM pH 6.8 by shaking at room  
132 temperature. The insoluble fraction was removed by centrifugation and the supernatant  
133 was adjusted to pH 5.5-6.5 with NaOH and filter sterilized. Bacteriocin activity was  
134 quantified by the agar diffusion test using 20 µl of 2-fold dilutions placed in wells made  
135 on *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 indicator plates. Arbitrary units (AU) were defined as the  
136 inverse of the last dilution that gave a clear halo and expressed by ml. Coagulin C23  
137 samples routinely contained 12,800 AU/ml.

138

139 **2.2 Challenge test in liquid medium**

140 Two ml TSB were inoculated with a colony of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 and  
141 incubated overnight at 32°C. Then, 10 ml TSB were inoculated at 1% with the overnight  
142 culture and grown to an optical density OD<sub>600nm</sub> of 0.1 followed by a 1/10 dilution to  
143 obtain  $5 \times 10^6$  CFU/ml. The culture was divided into 2 ml aliquots, each aliquot was  
144 mixed with 1 ml of TSB containing 10 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub> and the following  
145 volumes of FWLLm1 (36 µl), FWLLm3 (820 µl), coagulin C23 (137 µl), respectively,  
146 or a mix of phage and bacteriocin to get a final 1:10 phage:bacteria ratio and coagulin  
147 C23 at 584 AU/ml final concentration. Samples were incubated at 32°C and viable  
148 counts were monitored every 2 h on TSA for a period of 6 h by serial dilutions of the  
149 samples.

150

151 **2.3 Challenge test in milk under refrigeration conditions**

152 Ten ml of Extended Shelf Life milk (ESL) were inoculated with approximately  $5$   
153  $\times 10^4$  CFU/ml of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 grown to OD<sub>600nm</sub> = 0.1. Aliquots (2 ml)  
154 were mixed with ESL milk (final volume of 1 ml) containing 10 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 10 mM  
155 MgSO<sub>4</sub> and the following volumes of FWLLm1(12.5 µl), FWLLm3 (25 µl), coagulin  
156 C23 (137 µl) or a mix of phage and bacteriocin. FWLLm3 was added at ratio  
157 phage:bacteria 10:1, FWLLm1 at 100:1 and coagulin C23 at 584 AU/ml final  
158 concentration. Samples were incubated a 4°C for 10 days. Viable counts were checked  
159 every 24 h on TSA.

160

161 **2.4 Resistance development to coagulin C23 and listeriaphages**

162 Drops (10 µl) of coagulin C23 were placed onto a *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47  
163 lawn and incubated 48 h at 32°C. Putative coagulin C23 resistant colonies were picked  
164 from the inhibition halos, grown overnight in TSB and tested against coagulin C23

165 using the agar diffusion test. *L. monocytogenes* resistant cells were grown for 5  
166 additional overnight cultures in TSB in the absence of selective pressure to allow any  
167 putative phenotype-reversion of non-genetically altered strains. Then, cultures were  
168 tested again against coagulin C23. Cross-resistance to phages was tested by dropping  
169 phages FWLLm1 and FWLLm3 (5 µl) onto lawns of the C23-resistant cultures.

170 Bacteriophage-insensitive mutants (BIMs) were also obtained from *L.*  
171 *monocytogenes* 2000/47 using phage FWLLm3. One-hundred µl of a 1:10 diluted  
172 overnight culture of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 ( $10^7$  CFU) were incubated with 100 µl  
173 of phage ( $10^8$  PFU) for 10 min at 37°C. Then, the mixture was poured onto a TSA plate  
174 and covered with 3 ml of 0.7% TSA. Plates were incubated during 16 h at 37°C. Ten  
175 surviving colonies were picked up and grown in fresh TSB for 16 h at 37°C.  
176 Bacteriophage susceptibility was tested by the drop assay. Cross-resistance  
177 development was tested by dropping coagulin C23 onto the lawns obtained from the  
178 surviving colonies.

179

### 180 3. RESULTS

181

#### 182 3.1 Coagulin C23 and the listeriaphages FWLLm1 and FWLLm3 act 183 synergistically to kill *L. monocytogenes* in broth.

184 The potential synergistic effect of coagulin C23 and listeriaphages was assessed  
185 in broth at 37°C (Fig. 1). Combination of coagulin C23 and phage FWLLm1 decreased  
186 the concentration of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 by 5.9 log units after 2 h of incubation  
187 compared to the untreated control, while 3 and 4.8 log reductions were caused by  
188 FWLLm1 and C23 alone, respectively (Fig. 1A). After two hours of incubation, re-  
189 growth was observed in all samples. On the contrary, when coagulin C23 was combined  
190 with FWLLm3, *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 was under detection limits after 2 h and no



191 re-growth occurred. FWLLm3 and C23 alone were able to reduce the initial  
192 contamination by 4 and 4.4 log units, respectively (Fig. 1B) but growth resumed  
193 afterwards.

194

### 195 **3.2. Coagulin C23 and listeriaphages FWLLm1 and FWLLm3 act synergistically** 196 **to kill *L. monocytogenes* in milk under storage conditions.**

197 The synergistic effect between listeriaphages and coagulin C23 was further  
198 confirmed in milk inoculated with  $10^4$  CFU/ml of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 at 4°C for  
199 10 days of storage (Fig. 2). In the control cultures the *Listeria* strain steadily multiplied  
200 up to  $10^8$  CFU/ml at the end of the experiment. Phage FWLLm1 progressively reduced  
201 viable counts, reaching  $10^2$  CFU/ml (6 log units reduction) after 8 days of incubation. At  
202 day 10 an increase of 1 log unit was observed (Fig. 2A). Phage FWLLm3 was able to  
203 restrict the concentration to approximately  $10^4$  CFU/ml (4 log units reduction) until day  
204 8, reaching  $10^6$  CFU/ml at the end of the experiment (Fig. 2B). When coagulin C23 was  
205 used alone, a progressive reduction could be also observed reaching  $10^2$  CFU/ml in the  
206 middle of the incubation period followed by re-growth. When phage FWLLm1 and  
207 coagulin C23 were used in combination, a complete reduction of the viable counts  
208 under the detection limits after 2 days of incubation at 4°C and until the end of the  
209 assessed period was observed (Fig. 2A). On the contrary, combination of FWLLm3 and  
210 C23 led to a cell count reduction of 7.5 log units in day 4 followed by a 1.7 log units  
211 increase at the end of the experiment (Fig. 2B).

212

### 213 **3.3 Assessment of resistance development towards coagulin C23 and listeriaphage** 214 **after antimicrobial challenges**

215 *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 was exposed to the antimicrobials (coagulin C23 and  
216 FWLLm3) individually and the resistant phenotypes of surviving colonies were

217 examined. Six resistant colonies were obtained from the inhibition halo produced by  
218 coagulin C23 onto a *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 lawn. All these colonies were resistant  
219 to the bacteriocin as judged by the absence of inhibition halos by the agar spot test (data  
220 not shown). Furthermore, these mutants remained resistant to coagulin C23 after 5 days  
221 of consecutive culturing in broth without the bacteriocin, suggesting that the resistant  
222 phenotype was fairly stable. Likewise, five bacteriophage-insensitive mutants were also  
223 obtained from a plate containing *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 and FWLLm3. Cross-  
224 resistance was assessed using both coagulin C23 and FWLLm3 resistant cells. All  
225 bacteriocin resistant cells were sensitive to FWLLm3 and all BIMs were sensitive to  
226 coagulin C23 (data not shown). Therefore, no cross-resistance was observed.

227 To determine if the bacterial re-growth observed in milk challenges could be due  
228 to the selection of resistant variants, resistance development was also assessed at the  
229 end of the incubation period (10 days) in those samples where re-growth was observed.  
230 Ten surviving colonies from FWLLm1, FWLLm3, C23 and FWLLm3+C23 counting  
231 plates were cultured in TSB to prepare lawns and drops of the corresponding  
232 antimicrobial were spotted. In case of colonies isolated from FWLLm1 plates, all of  
233 them were sensitive to this phage (Table 1) while half of the colonies isolated from  
234 FWLLm3 plates were phage-resistant. Similarly, 55% of the colonies isolated from C23  
235 plates were resistant to the bacteriocin. When FWLLm3 was used in combination with  
236 C23, all the colonies were sensitive to the phage and only 40% were resistant to C23  
237 (Table 1).

238

#### 239 **4. DISCUSSION**

240

241 The potential of phages as biocontrol agents in food is supported by several studies that  
242 indicate an efficient reduction of pathogens levels in meat, fresh fruits, vegetables and

243 processed foods (Endersen et al., 2014). For reducing *L. monocytogenes* contamination  
244 in food, there are already commercially available phage preparations against *L.*  
245 *monocytogenes*, which have been approved by the US FDA as processing-aids (U.S.  
246 FDA/CFSAN, 2007). On the other hand, the use of bacteriocins in food safety has been  
247 addressed along the whole production chain, as well as their use as food  
248 biopreservatives; authorized bacteriocin-containing products, including nisin and  
249 pediocin PA1/AcH, are also marketed (Gálvez et al., 2010; Omar et al., 2013). Starter  
250 and non-starter bacteriocin-producing strains have been successfully used to control *L.*  
251 *monocytogenes* in fresh cheese (Coelho et al., 2014; Vera Pingitore et al., 2012). As  
252 with any other potential food additive or processing aid, safety studies must be  
253 conducted on a case-by case basis according to regulations in force in each country.  
254 Moreover, the use of food biopreservatives must also be cost-effective. One way to  
255 lower the effective concentrations without compromising activity is to use the  
256 synergistic effects that are often observed between two antimicrobial agents that feature  
257 different mechanisms of action or attack different targets. For example, combination of  
258 nisin and polymyxin B allows a considerable reduction in the amount of nisin needed  
259 for the effective inhibition of *Listeria* spp. (Naghmouchi et al., 2010).

260 In this work, we have assessed the combinations of two lytic listeriaphages and  
261 an anti-*Listeria* bacteriocin to reduce or eliminate this foodborne pathogen under  
262 laboratory conditions, i.e. optimal growth conditions, and in milk under refrigeration  
263 conditions. Phages FWLLm1 and FWLLm3, and coagulin C23 alone were able to  
264 reduce the amount of *L. monocytogenes* cells compared with the untreated control in  
265 both broth at 37°C and milk at 4°C. However, the combination resulted in a higher  
266 reduction or complete elimination of the viable counts, which suggests a synergistic  
267 effect between the listeriaphages and coagulin C23. Enhanced killing activity by  
268 combining phages and the bacteriocin nisin has been reported against *L. monocytogenes*

269 in artificially contaminated fresh-cut melons and apples (Leverentz et al., 2003) and  
270 against *S. aureus* in pasteurized milk (Martínez et al., 2008), supporting the potency of  
271 this approach in food biopreservation.

272         When keeping the same phage to bacteria ratio *in vitro*, the combination  
273 FWLLm3+C23 was more effective than FWLLm1+C23 in eliminating *L.*  
274 *monocytogenes* since re-growth was observed with the latter, while FWLLm3+C23  
275 viable counts were under the detection limits after 2 h and onwards. Therefore, in order  
276 to improve the lytic ability of phage FWLLm1, challenge assays in milk were  
277 performed using a 100:1 phage:bacteria ratio. In these conditions, FWLLm1+C23  
278 effectively inhibited *L. monocytogenes* while surviving cells were recovered in samples  
279 treated with FWLLm3+C23. Failure to completely inhibit bacterial growth has been  
280 reported in phage-treated solid food, which has been explained by the immobilization of  
281 the phage particles on the food surfaces and matrix, and their inability to reach the  
282 bacterial targets (Chibeu et al., 2013; Guenther et al., 2012; Guenther et al., 2009;  
283 Guenther and Loessner, 2011). Even when FWLLm1 was used to control *L.*  
284 *monocytogenes* in RTE chicken breast roll at 30°C, re-growth was observed after 5 h of  
285 incubation (Bigot et al., 2011). Milk may also present barriers to phage and bacteriocin  
286 biocontrol. For example, milk proteins or fat globules may hamper contact between  
287 phages and their target cells, resulting in inactivation of the phages (García et al., 2009;  
288 O'Flaherty et al., 2005). In addition, the negative effect of milk fat on the antimicrobial  
289 potency of bacteriocins, caused by adsorption of these hydrophobic molecules onto fat  
290 globules has also been reported (Sobrino-López and Martín-Belloso, 2008).

291         Another reason which may explain failure of bacteriocins and phages to inhibit  
292 pathogen growth is the development of resistance (García et al., 2010). Bacterial  
293 resistance to phage may be due to a number of mechanisms, including absence or  
294 masking of phage receptors, prevention of injection of the phage genome into the host

295 cells, immunity to superinfection, and restriction-modification (RM) systems that  
296 degrade phage DNA while the host DNA is protected by methylation (Hyman and  
297 Abedon, 2010). Recently, a novel type of CRISPR system of phage resistance has been  
298 described in *L. monocytogenes* (Sesto et al., 2014). The development of resistance  
299 towards pediocin-like bacteriocins such as coagulin C23 is typically caused by a  
300 decreased expression of the mannose phosphotransferase system and by an altered cell  
301 surface (Drider et al., 2006; Kjos et al., 2011; Vadyvaloo et al., 2004). In *L.*  
302 *monocytogenes*, exposure to sublethal concentrations of pediocin (Laursen et al., 2014)  
303 or environmental stresses (Bergholz et al., 2013) promotes an adaptive response that  
304 facilitates resistance development.

305 In this context, we explore resistance towards coagulin C23 and the  
306 listeriaphages within the surviving colonies in our experiments as well as the risk of  
307 cross-resistance. In the milk challenge with the phages alone, phage resistance was only  
308 detected against FWLLm3 where 50% of the tested colonies were phage-insensitive  
309 (Table 1). Thus, failure of inhibiting *L. monocytogenes* could be also explained by  
310 interference with the food matrix and the inability of the phage to reach its target. On  
311 the other hand, and in line with previous reports (Drider et al., 2006; Kjos et al., 2011),  
312 resistant mutants to coagulin C23 were frequently isolated which would preclude the  
313 use of this bacteriocin alone. Remarkably, the fraction of resistant mutants was lower  
314 when the bacteriocin was combined with FWLLm3. Likewise, surviving colonies from  
315 the combined FWLLm3+C23 treatment were all phage sensitive in contrast to the  
316 higher frequency of phage resistant mutants when the phage was used alone. These  
317 results support the notion that synergy between phages and bacteriocins could be  
318 explained by a lower rate of resistance development. Nevertheless, further research is  
319 needed to decipher the mechanisms involved.

320 No cross-resistance was observed between coagulin C23 and the listeriaphages.  
321 Phage-insensitive cells were sensitive to coagulin C23 and coagulin C23 resistant cells  
322 were sensitive to listeriaphages, which further ensures the efficacy of the combination.  
323 It seems that access to phage receptors was not hindered by the cell envelope changes  
324 involved in resistance to coagulin C23. Previous results for *S. aureus* showed that nisin-  
325 adapted cells seriously compromised bacteriophage activity (Martinez et al., 2008).  
326 Similarly, resistant-mutants to the bacteriocin lactococin 972 were not infected by lytic  
327 phage c2 (Roces et al., 2012).

328 Overall, we have demonstrated that the combination of listeriaphages and the  
329 bacteriocin coagulin C23 is more effective as a biopreservative in milk against *L.*  
330 *monocytogenes* under refrigeration conditions than each antimicrobial alone, and thus it  
331 could be a smart strategy to ensure milk safety during storage conditions.

332

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334

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478 **7. TABLES**

479

480 **Table 1.** Percentage of sensitive/resistant colonies isolated from milk samples treated  
481 with each antimicrobial (n=10).

482

Antimicrobial	Sensitive (%)	Resistant (%)
FWLLm1	100	-
FWLLm3	50	50
Coagulin C23	45	55
FWLLm3+C23	60 (to C23)	40
	100 (to FWLLm3)	-

483

484

485 **8. FIGURES**

486

487 **Figure 1. Killing of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 at 37°C in broth.** Samples were  
488 inoculated with  $5 \times 10^6$  CFU/ml of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 and incubated for 6 h at  
489 37°C without antimicrobials (control; ♦) or in the presence of A) bacteriophage  
490 FWLLm1 ( $5 \times 10^5$  PFU/ml) (□), coagulin C23 (584 AU/ml) (▲), combination  
491 FWLLm1+C23 (■); B) bacteriophage FWLLm3 ( $5 \times 10^5$  PFU/ml) (□), coagulin C23  
492 (584 AU/ml) (▲), combination FWLLm3+C23 (■). Values are the means of two  
493 independent experiments with standard deviation indicated by vertical bars.

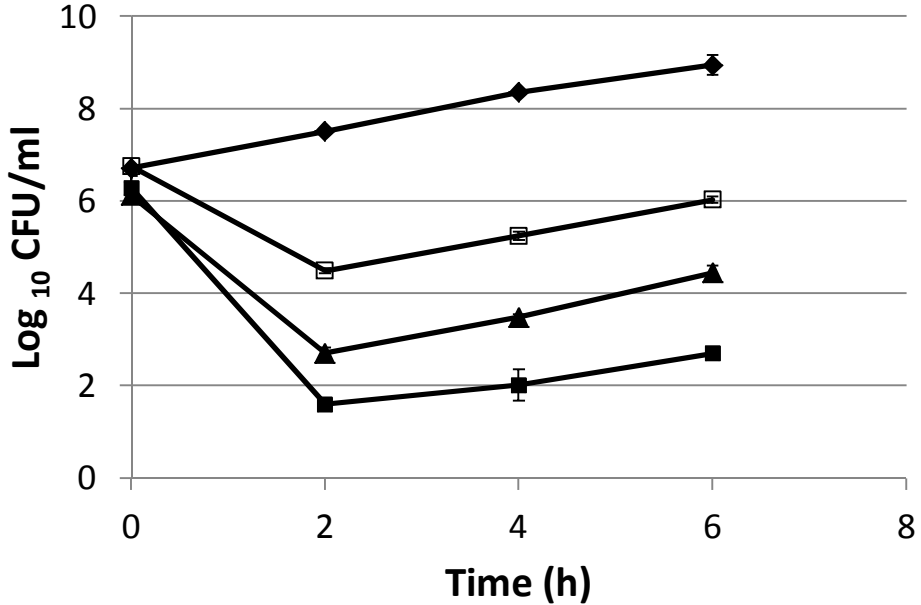
494

495 **Figure 2. Killing of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 at 4°C in Extended Shelf Life (ESL)**  
496 **milk.** Samples were inoculated with  $5 \times 10^4$  CFU/ml of *L. monocytogenes* 2000/47 and  
497 incubated for 10 days at 4°C without antimicrobials (control; black bars) or in the

498 presence of A) bacteriophage FWLLm1 ( $5 \times 10^6$  PFU/ml) (light grey bars), coagulin  
499 C23 (584 AU/ml) (white bars), combination FWLLm1+C23 (dark grey bars); B)  
500 bacteriophage FWLLm3 ( $5 \times 10^5$  PFU/ml) (light grey bars), coagulin C23 (584 AU/ml)  
501 (white bars), combination FWLLm3+C23 (dark grey bars). Values are the means of two  
502 independent experiments with standard deviation indicated by vertical bars.

Figure 1

A



B

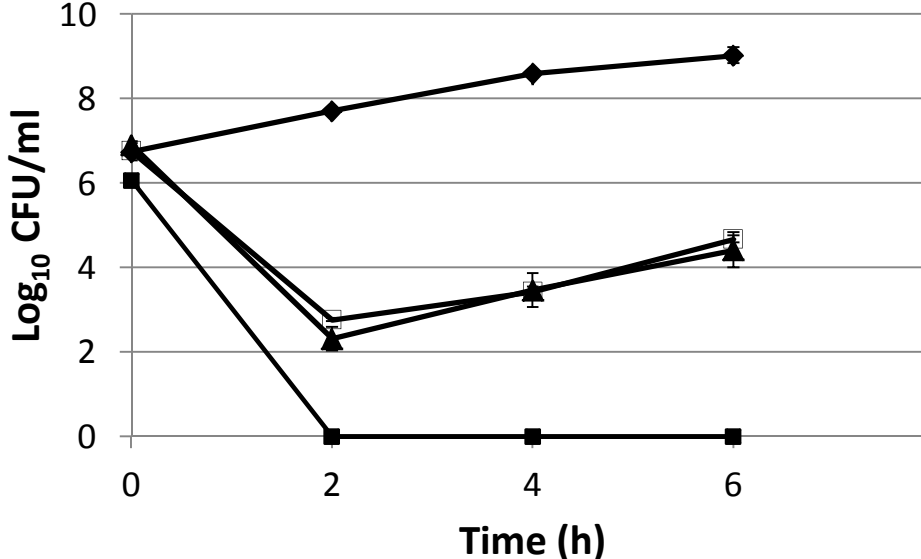
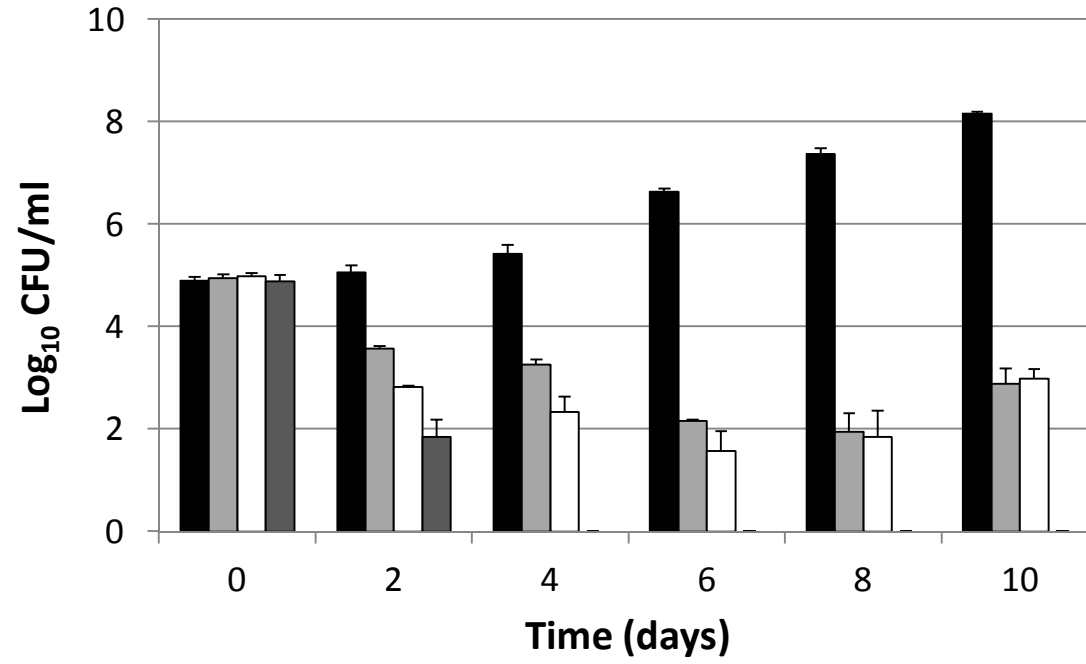


Figure 2

A



B

