



Contamination of beef and beef products by *Listeria* spp. and molecular characterization of *L. monocytogenes* in Mpumalanga, South Africa

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Abstract

This study determined the prevalence, risk factors, and molecular characteristics of *Listeria* species detected in beef and beef products sampled in Mpumalanga province, South Africa. Four hundred beef and beef products were collected from 30 retail outlets in three districts (Bronkhorstspuit, Emalahleni, and Middelburg) within the province. Standard bacteriological and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assays were used in the study. The overall prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* spp. in the samples was 8.3% (33/400) and 30% (120/400) ($p < .05$), respectively. For the five variables investigated, statistically significant effects were evident only for the region ($p < .001$) and type of product ($p < .0001$) for *L. monocytogenes*, the type of outlet ($p = .011$) and the type of product ($p < .0001$) for *Listeria* spp. Of the 20 types of beef and beef products tested, 15 (75%) and 17 (85%) were contaminated by *L. monocytogenes* and *Listeria* spp., respectively ($p = .429$). Among the four categories of products tested, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* was 7.3% (8/109), 10.6% (11/104), 7.5% (8/106), and 7.4% (6/81) for raw beef, ready-to-eat (RTE) products, milled beef, and offal & organs, respectively ($p > .799$). Among the 33 *L. monocytogenes* isolates, PCR genoserogroup IIa (42.4%, 1/2a-3a) was most frequently detected. All (100%) of the isolates carried one or more of the eight virulence-associated genes assessed, with genes *inlC* and *inlJ* detected in all the isolates. The overall prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* (8.3%) and the high frequency of virulent serogroups of *L. monocytogenes* commonly associated with human listeriosis pose a food safety risk to consumers of beef and beef-based products contaminated by *L. monocytogenes*.

1 | INTRODUCTION

L. monocytogenes is a gram-positive, zoonotic bacterial pathogen with the ability to survive in different environments, including soil, water, animal feed, and fresh and frozen meat (Paduro et al., 2020; Shourav, Hasan, & Ahmed, 2020). It is a causative agent of

foodborne listeriosis, both invasive and noninvasive diseases (Zamuz et al., 2021). Listeriosis rarely occurs in humans; however, the disease is associated with severe clinical manifestations such as abortion, preterm birth or stillbirth in pregnant women, meningitis or encephalitis, and death. Other clinical manifestations of the disease include fever, muscle aches, nausea, vomiting, stomach

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cramps, and diarrhea (Pinto, Novello, Montemurro, Bonerba, & Tantillo, 2010).

The genus *Listeria* currently includes 27 recognized species, but only two species, *L. monocytogenes*, and *L. ivanovii*, are considered pathogens (El Hag, El Zubeir, & Mustafa, 2021; Ledlod, Bunroddith, Areekit, Santiwatanakul, & Chansiri, 2020). To date, only *L. monocytogenes* (Gana, Gcebe, Pierneef, Moerane, & Adesiyun, 2022; Kayode & Okoh, 2022), *L. innocua* (El-Zowalaty et al., 2019; Makumbe, Tabit, & Dlamini, 2021), and *L. welshimeri* (Manqele, Gcebe, Pierneef, Moerane, & Adesiyun, 2023) have been documented as occurring in humans, foods and environmental sources in South Africa.

Serotyping is used in the epidemiological investigation field for classification, disease transformation monitoring, and identification of the source of pathogens (Li et al., 2021). Based on its flagellar (H) and somatic (O) antigens, 13 *L. monocytogenes* serotypes (1/2a, 1/2b, 1/2c, 3a, 3b, 3c, 4a, 4ab, 4b, 4c, 4d, 4e, and 7) have been identified, which are further characterized into polymerase chain reaction (PCR) genoserogroups IIa (1/2a-3a), IIb (1/2b-3b-7), IIc (1/2c-3c), IVa (4a-4c), and IVb (4ab-4b, 4d-4e) (Bouymajane et al., 2021). However, only four (1/2a, 1/2b, 1/2c, and 4b) of the 13 serotypes account for approximately 95% of human listeriosis cases (Bouymajane et al., 2021). In South Africa, the serotypes of *L. monocytogenes* identified to date include 1/2a, 3a, 4b, 4d, 4e, 1/2c, and 3c in meat and meat products across the nine provinces in the country (Matle et al., 2019), 1/2b, 3b, 4b, 4d, and 4e from meat and food processing facilities (Mafuna, Matle, Magwedere, Pierneef, & Reva, 2021) and 4b from humans (Koopmans, Brouwer, Vázquez-Boland, & van de Beek, 2022). Information on the serotypes of *L. monocytogenes* recovered from beef and beef products according to the isolates' origin (district, size of retail outlets, and type of samples) is lacking.

Virulence genes in *L. monocytogenes* have been associated with the ability of the organism to cause listeriosis in humans and animals (Gray et al., 2021). Some virulence genes are located on the *Listeria* pathogenicity island 1 (LIPI-1), including *PrfA*, *plcA*, *plcB*, *hlyA*, *mpl*, and *actA*. They provide *L. monocytogenes* with the ability to survive and spread in host cells (Sereno et al., 2019). These genes have been identified in *L. monocytogenes* isolates from imported and local meat and meat products in the country (Matle et al., 2019) and food processing facilities (Mafuna et al., 2021).

Between 2017 and 2018, South Africa experienced the largest outbreak of human listeriosis in the world, and "polony," a beef-based ready-to-eat (RTE), was implicated in 2018 (Allam et al., 2018; Boatemaa et al., 2019; Olanya et al., 2019). Since then, although studies have been conducted on *L. monocytogenes* that contaminated meat products and food processing facilities across the country, information is lacking on the distribution of this pathogen according to the districts, the size of retail outlets from where the samples originated as well as the types of beef products in Mpumalanga province. This is important because 4.53% of the cases documented in the outbreak of 2017–2018 in the country originated in Mpumalanga province (Kayode, Igbinosa, & Okoh, 2020). It is, therefore, imperative to identify the possible factors associated with the contamination of beef and beef products by virulent strains of *L. monocytogenes* and the potential health risk posed to consumers.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Study design

A cross-sectional study was conducted at 30 retail outlets in Mpumalanga province, South Africa, to determine the prevalence of *Listeria* in beef and beef products. Retail outlets were selected based on the information obtained from the Consumer Goods Council of South Africa (CGCSA) regarding their location and relative sizes. Retail outlets were selected and classified based on their size (chain supermarkets, large, medium, and small outlets). Identified retail outlets were randomly selected for participation in the study. A sample size of 401 was determined using a formula by Thrusfield (2007) with a precision value of 3.5% and a prevalence of 14.7% (Matle et al., 2019). A total of 400 samples were collected for the study. The strategy used for classifying retail outlets and the types and number of beef and beef products sampled for the study is shown in Table S1. The number of samples collected was proportional to the size of the outlets as follows: 160, 128, 80, and 32 from the chain, large, medium, and small outlets, respectively. At the selected outlets, convenience sampling of the beef and beef products was done based on availability. A total of 400 beef and beef samples were collected for the study. The samples included raw, chilled, and frozen beef and beef products and dried beef RTE products. All samples were collected from November 2019 to May 2021.

2.2 | Descriptions of selected beef and beef products unique to Gauteng province, South Africa

Two of the products sampled in the current study are unique and popularly consumed in South Africa, namely:

Biltong: A South African RTE meat product prepared through a process that involves salting and spicing the strips of meat from herbivorous animals of the antelope and bovine families before being dried. Vinegar is also added in salting to inhibit microbial growth and enhance flavor (Jones, Arnaud, Gouws, & Hoffman, 2019). The presence of vinegar makes biltong different from other dried meats.

Polony: A commonly consumed deli meat in South Africa known as bologna sausage, which is produced mainly from mechanically recovered meat (Beef/pork/chicken) and processed by food manufacturers in South Africa (Olanya et al., 2019). The cooked meat products are usually stuffed into tubular nylon casings, which is removed before consumption. The extensive use of meat trimmings (beef, pork, or chicken) makes polony an inexpensive and affordable meat product (Cluff, Kobane, Bothma, Hugo, & Hugo, 2017).

2.3 | Isolation and identification of *L. monocytogenes* and *Listeria* spp.

Beef and beef products were analyzed using the *Listeria* Precip method according to a protocol described by Matle et al. (2019) with minor modifications. Beef samples (brisket/rump/steak/T-bone,

boerewors, “biltong,” Vienna, and “polony”) were aseptically cut into pieces using forceps and scissors. Ten grams of cut meat was transferred aseptically into 90 mL of ONE Broth-*Listeria* (Thermo Fisher, South Africa) in a stomacher bag and homogenized (Stomacher Lab Blender 400, Seward Ltd., West Sussex, UK) at normal speed for 2 min. The homogenate was aerobically incubated at 35°C for 48 h.

Following 48 h incubation, 10 μ L of enriched broth samples were inoculated onto chromogenic Brilliance *Listeria* Agar (BLA) (Thermo Fisher, South Africa) plates and incubated at 35°C for 48 h. Suspect colonies on BLA plates with the characteristic appearance of *Listeria* spp. (blue without a halo for *Listeria* spp. and blue with a white/cream halo for *L. monocytogenes*) were initially identified using phenotypical methods followed by molecular methods (Matle et al., 2019; Ryu et al., 2013). Confirmed *L. monocytogenes* isolates were preserved in 50% brain-heart infusion (BHI)/50% glycerol (Thermo Fisher, South Africa). The study design was to identify the *Listeria* isolates as *L. monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* spp. (i.e., non-*L. monocytogenes*).

2.4 | Molecular identification and characterization of *Listeria* spp. and *Listeria monocytogenes*

2.4.1 | Extraction of DNA from enriched broth cultures

DNA was extracted by the boiling-centrifugation method, as described by Soumet, Ermel, Fach, and Colin (1994). The DNA in the supernatant was used in PCR to characterize *Listeria* to further characterize *Listeria*.

2.4.2 | Screening of broth cultures for *Listeria* spp. by multiplex PCR (mPCR)

All enriched broth samples were screened by mPCR for the existence of *Listeria* spp., that is, *Listeria* genus. The screening was performed using an mPCR assay that targets *prs* as well as *orf2110*, *orf2818*, *imo1118*, and *imo0737* genes, as described by Doumith, Buchrieser, Glaser, Jacquet, and Martin (2004), were used to characterize *L. monocytogenes* genoserogroups (Doumith et al., 2004). The primers used in the current study are shown in Table S2. The primers were prepared as follows: 12.5 μ L of 2 \times red Taq master mix, 5 μ L nuclease-free water, 5 μ L DNA template, and 4 μ L primer mix for 1 PCR (Doumith et al., 2004). The PCR conditions used were as follows: initial denaturation step at 94°C for 3 min; 35 cycles of 94°C for .40 min; 53°C for 1.15 min, 72°C for 1.15 min, and 1 final cycle of 72°C for 7 min in a thermocycler (Eppendorf, Germany). DNA extracts were prepared as described above and were used as templates in the mPCR. The PCR products were subjected to electrophoresis on 3% agarose gel (CSL AG500, Cleaver Scientific Ltd., United Kingdom) for 3 h at 120 v. *L. monocytogenes* ATCC 19111 was used as a positive control, and distilled water as a negative control.

2.4.3 | Culture for isolation and extraction of DNA from the isolates of *Listeria* spp.

DNA was extracted from individual pure colonies typical of *Listeria* (blue without a halo for *Listeria* spp. and blue colonies with a white/cream halo for *L. monocytogenes* colonies) and confirmed as previously described by Matle et al. (2019). Before DNA extraction, the preserved *L. monocytogenes* isolates were inoculated into BHI broth, followed by overnight aerobic incubation at 35°C. A loopful from incubated BHI broth culture was used to inoculate BLA plates, which were incubated at 35°C for 48 h. For DNA extraction from the colonies, 200 μ L of sterile distilled water was aliquoted into 2 mL tubes. Each was inoculated with a colony of bacterial culture harvested from the BLA plates. The bacterial suspension was then vortexed for 10 s, heated at 95°C for 10 min, cooled at room temperature (22 \pm 2°C), and centrifuged at 15,493 \times g for 5 min. The supernatant was transferred into sterile Eppendorf tubes, and precipitate was discarded. The crude supernatant was stored at -20°C and subsequently used as a DNA template in the PCR to detect the genus *Listeria* for genoserogrouping and virulence profiling.

2.5 | Detection of *Listeria* genus and determination of the genoserogroups of *L. monocytogenes*

The mPCR assay that targets the five fragments of *L. monocytogenes* at the following final concentrations: *Imo1118*, *Imo0737*, *orf2110*, *orf2819*, and *prs* (specific for *Listeria* spp.) at the final concentrations of .05 μ M was used to confirm the presence of *Listeria* genus and to determine the serogroups of *L. monocytogenes* as previously described by Doumith et al. (2004). The primers and PCR conditions are indicated in Table S2. PCR preparations and conditions described for detecting *Listeria* in broth cultures were used to determine serogroups. *L. monocytogenes* ATCC 19111 was used as a positive control. The products were subjected to electrophoresis in 3% agarose gel (CSL AG500, Cleaver Scientific Ltd., UK), and a gel documentation system (Vacutec, SA) was used to capture the bands. A sample of the PCR gel images obtained in assays to detect the serogroups of *L. monocytogenes* is shown in Figure S1.

2.6 | Detection of virulence-associated genes in *L. monocytogenes* isolates

The presence of selected virulence-associated genes in the isolates of *L. monocytogenes* was determined, as described by Rawool, Malik, Shakuntala, Sahare, and Barbudde (2007). Multiplex PCR was used to detect eight virulence-associated genes of *L. monocytogenes*: *plcA*, *hlyA*, *actA*, *inlB*, *iap*, *inlA*, *inlC*, and *inlJ*, in two reactions. Reaction 1 (mPCR 1) contained five primer pairs (*plcA*, *hlyA*, *actA*, *inlB*, and *iap*), while Reaction 2 (mPCR 2) consisted of three primer sets (*inlA*, *inlC*, and *inlJ*) (Table S3) for the virulence genes. The PCR assays and agarose gel electrophoresis of the PCR products were performed using

TABLE 1 Prevalence of *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Listeria* spp. in beef and beef products by district, size of outlet, presentation to consumers, and temperature of storage.

Variable	Level	No. of samples tested	<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	<i>Listeria</i> spp.	<i>p</i> value
			No. (%) of samples positive ^a	No. (%) of samples positive ^b	
District	Bronkhorstspruit	150	1 (0.67)	37 (24.7)	<.001
	Emalahleni	149	21 (14.1)	52 (34.9)	<.001
	Middleburg	101	11 (10.9)	31 (30.7)	<.001
	<i>p</i> value		<i>p</i> < .001	.153	
Type of outlet	Chain	170	11 (6.5)	40 (23.5)	<.001
	Large	106	8 (7.6)	29 (27.4)	<.001
	Medium	101	13 (12.9)	41 (40.6)	<.001
	Small	23	1 (4.4)	10 (43.5)	.002
	<i>p</i> value		.252	.011	
Presentation for consumption	RTE ^c	103	11 (10.7)	26 (25.2)	.006
	Raw	297	22 (7.4)	94 (31.7)	<.001
	<i>p</i> value		.298	.221	
Temperature of presentation	Nonchilled ^d	32	3 (9.4)	7 (21.9)	.168
	Chilled	288	23 (8.0)	84 (29.2)	<.001
	Frozen	80	7 (8.8)	29 (36.3)	<.001
	<i>p</i> value		.948	.274	

^aBased on a total of 33 contaminated samples.

^bBased on a total of 120 contaminated samples.

^cRTE: Ready-to-eat.

^dAt room temperature.

the procedure described by Rawool et al. (2007). The PCR assay was prepared as follows: 12.5 μ L of 2 \times of red Taq master mix (Lasec, SA, Pty, Cape Town, South Africa), 5 μ L nuclease-free water, 5 μ L DNA template (prepared by adding one colony forming unit of pure culture of *Listeria* to 200 μ L of PCR water), and 3 μ L (concentration of .4 μ M for each primer) primer mix for mPCR 1 and mPCR 2 primers. The DNA amplification conditions were as follows: 2 min initial denaturation at 94°C; 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s; annealing at 55°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 1 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. A sample of the PCR gel images was obtained in assays to detect the virulence-associated genes in *L. monocytogenes* isolates is displayed in Figure S2.

2.7 | Data analysis

Results obtained from the laboratory data for the prevalence of *Listeria monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* spp., serogroups, and virulence-associated genes characterized by the survey were entered into Microsoft Excel 2016.

Data were analyzed using the Epi Info software (version 7.0), and the association of variables was determined using Fisher's Exact and chi-square tests. The significant difference was evaluated using Fisher's exact ($p < .05$), and percentages were calculated at a 95% confidence interval.

Epi Info was also used to generate percentages for categorical data on the prevalence of *Listeria* spp. in sample types, sample storage, geographical distribution, and retail groupings. Epi Info also determined the frequency of isolation of genoserogroups and virulence-associated genes.

3 | RESULTS

The overall prevalence of *Listeria* spp. from the retail outlets was 38.3% (153/400, 95% CI: 33.62–43.10). The prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in the beef and beef-based products samples was 8.3% (33/400; 95%CI: 5.93–11.36), while for the other *Listeria* spp. (non-*L. monocytogenes*), it was 30.0% (120/400, 95%CI: 25.72–34.66). The difference was statistically significant ($p < .001$).

The prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in beef and beef products in the three districts (Bronkhorstspruit, Emalahleni, and Middleburg), which were sampled was .67% (1/150), 14.1% (21/149), and 10.9% (11/101), respectively. The differences were statistically significant ($p < .001$), as shown in Table 1. There were no significant differences in the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* when comparing the effect of the size of the outlet ($p = .252$), the presentation for consumption (RTE vs. raw) ($p = .298$), and the temperature of the product displayed for sale ($p = .948$).

TABLE 2 Prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* and other *Listeria* species in beef and beef-based products.

Types of samples	No. of types Samples	No. of Samples tested	No. (%) of samples positive for		
			<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	<i>Listeria</i> spp.	<i>p</i> value
Raw beef	6 ^a	109	8 (7.3)	30 (27.5)	<.001
RTE	4 ^b	104	11 (10.6)	26 (25.0)	.007
Milled beef	3 ^c	106	8 (7.5)	35 (33.0)	<.001
Offal & Organs	7 ^d	81	6 (7.4)	29 (35.8)	<.001
<i>p</i> value			.799	.346	
Total	20	400	33 (8.3)	120 (30.0)	<.001

^aConsists of beef brisket ($n = 24$), beef chuck ($n = 16$), beef steak ($n = 22$), beef short rib ($n = 11$), beef stew pieces ($n = 31$), and beef stir-fry ($n = 5$).

^bComprising "Biltong" ($n = 31$), "Polony" ($n = 29$), "Russian" ($n = 18$), and Vienna ($n = 26$).

^cMade up of beef burger ($n = 16$), minced beef ($n = 45$), and boerewors ($n = 45$).

^dConsisted beef heart ($n = 4$), beef kidney ($n = 6$), beef tongue ($n = 3$), beef liver ($n = 31$), beef lung ($n = 8$), spleen ($n = 3$), and beef tripe ($n = 26$).

The prevalence of other *Listeria* spp. was statistically significantly affected by the size/type of outlets only ($p = .011$), where the prevalence ranged from 23.5% in the chain outlets to 43.5% in the small outlets (Table 1). However, no statistically significant effect was exerted by the district ($p = .153$), presentation for consumption ($p = .221$), and the temperature of displayed beef and beef products ($p = .274$).

For the 12 levels at which samples were collected, the prevalence of other *Listeria* spp. in the beef and beef products was statistically significantly ($p < .05$) higher than found for *L. monocytogenes*, except for nonchilled beef and beef products ($p = .168$) (Table 1).

For the four categories of food types (raw beef, RTE, milled beef, and offal & organs) comprising 20 different types of beef and beef products assessed, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* ranged from 7.3% (8/109) for raw beef to 10.6% (11/104) for RTE, but the differences were not statistically significant ($p > .799$) (Table 2). Similarly, the prevalence of *Listeria* spp. did not vary significantly ($p = .346$) across beef types ranging from 25% (26/104) for RTE to raw beef to 35.8% (29/81) for offal & organs. However, data analysis on each of the 20 beef and beef products revealed a statistically significant ($p < .01$) higher prevalence of *Listeria* spp. than found for *L. monocytogenes* (Table S4). For the beef and beef products for which 20 or more samples were tested, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in raw beef was 8.3% (2/24), 0% (0/22), and 6.5% (2/31) for beef brisket, beef steak, and beef stew pieces, respectively; for RTE, it was 9.7% (3/31), 6.9% (2/29), and 15.4% (4/26) for "biltong", "polony" and Vienna, respectively; for milled beef, the prevalence was 6.7% (3/45) and 6.7% (3/45) for minced beef and boerewors, respectively; for offal and organ samples, the prevalence was 3.2% (1/31) and 7.7% (2/31) for beef liver and beef tripe, respectively. For the 20 different types of beef and beef products assessed, 15 (75%) and 17 (85%) were positive for *L. monocytogenes* and *Listeria* spp., respectively, but the difference was not statistically significant ($p = .429$) (Table 2). However, the overall prevalence in the 20 types of products varied significantly for both *L. monocytogenes* ($p < .0001$) and *Listeria* spp. ($p < .0001$). For the two RTE products, namely, "Biltong" and "Polony," unique to South Africa, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes*

and *Listeria* spp., respectively, was 9.7%, and 19.4% ($p = .279$), 6.9%, and 34.5% ($p < .001$).

Of the 153 isolates of *Listeria* recovered from the 400 samples of beef and beef products assessed, *L. monocytogenes* and *Listeria* spp. constituted 21.6% (33/153) and 78.4% (120/153), respectively ($p < .0001$).

For the characterization of *L. monocytogenes* isolates by their serogroups and serotypes, the prevalence of serogroups detected was 3.5% (14/400), 1.0% (4/400), 1.3% (5/400), and 2.5% (10/400) for serogroups 1/2a-3a, 1/2b-3b, 1/2c-3c, and 4b-4d-4e, respectively. The differences were statistically significant ($p = .046$). The frequency distributions of the serogroups among the 33 isolates of *L. monocytogenes* were 42.4% (14/33, 95%CI: 25.48–60.78), 12.1% (4/33, 95%CI: 3.40–28.20), 15.12% (5/33, 95%CI: 5.11–31.90), and 30.3% (10/33, 95%CI: 15.59–48.71) for serogroups 1/2a-3a, 1/2b-3b, 1/2c-3c, and 4b-4d-4e, respectively. The differences were statistically significant ($p = .015$).

The frequencies of detection of *L. monocytogenes* serogroups by the district are presented in Table 3. Across the three districts where the samples originated, the frequency of *L. monocytogenes* serogroups varied considerably, but the differences were not statistically significant ($p > .05$). The dominant serogroup by the district was 1/2a-3a (47.6%) in Emalaheni, 1/2b-3b (14.3%) in Emalaheni, 1/2c-3c (27.3%) in Middleburg, and 4b-4d-4e (100%) in Bronkhorstspuit.

According to the size of retail outlets, although the differences in the frequencies of serogroups were not statistically significant ($p > .05$), the predominant serogroup was 1/2a-3a (100%), 1/2b-3b (37.5%), 1/2c-3c (27.3%), and 4b-4d-4e (50%) in the small, large, chain, and large outlets, respectively.

The distribution of the serogroups of *L. monocytogenes* varied considerably by the type of beef and beef products. The highest frequency of detecting the four serogroups by sample type was as follows: Serogroup 1/2a-3a (50%; 4/8) in RTE and milled beef, 1/2b-3b (27.3%, 3/11) in RTE, 1/2c-3c (18.2%, 2/11) in RTE, and 4b-4d-4e (50%, 3/6) in offal & organ isolates. The frequency of distribution of the four serogroups across the types of beef and beef products varied significantly ($p < .05$).

District	No. of isolates tested ^b	No. (%) positive ^a for serogroup by the district of outlet			
		1/2a-3a	1/2b-3b	1/2c-3c	4b-4d-4e
Bronkhorstspuit	1	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100.0)
Emalahleni	21	10 (47.6)	3 (14.3)	2 (9.5)	6 (28.6)
Middleburg	11	4 (36.7)	1 (9.1)	3 (27.3)	3 (27.3)

Size of outlet	No. of isolates Tested	No. (%) Positive for serogroup by the size of outlet			
		1/2a-3a	1/2b-3b	1/2c-3c	4b-4d-4e
Chain	11	6 (54.6)	0 (0.0)	3 (27.3)	2 (18.2)
Large	8	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)	0 (0.0)	4 (50.0)
Medium	13	6 (46.2)	1 (7.7)	2 (15.4)	4 (30.8)
Small	1	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)

Type of product	No. of isolates Tested	No. (%) Positive for serogroup by the type of product			
		1/2a-3a	1/2b-3b	1/2c-3c	4b-4d-4e
Raw beef	8	4 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)
RTE	11	4 (36.4)	3 (27.3)	2 (18.2)	2 (18.2)
Milled beef	8	4 (50.0)	1 (12.5)	1 (12.5)	2 (25.0)
Offal and organs	6	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	1 (16.7)	3 (50.0)

TABLE 3 Frequency distribution of *Listeria monocytogenes* serogroups by the district, size of outlets, and type of product.

^aOf a total of 33 isolates of *L. monocytogenes*.

^bAll the 42 samples of the following beef and beef products tested were negative for *L. monocytogenes*, namely, beef heart ($n = 4$), beef lungs ($n = 8$), beef spleen ($n = 3$), beef steak ($n = 22$), and beef stir-fry ($n = 5$).

TABLE 4 Frequency of selected virulence genes in *Listeria monocytogenes* according to the district, size of outlets and type of beef and beef products.

District	No. of isolates tested ^a	No. (%) ^b of isolates of <i>L. monocytogenes</i> positive for virulence-associated genes by the district of outlet							
		<i>hlyA</i>	<i>inlB</i>	<i>plcA</i>	<i>actA</i>	<i>iap</i>	<i>inlA</i>	<i>inlC</i>	<i>inlJ</i>
Bronkhorstspuit	1	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
Emalahleni	21	16 (76.2)	9 (42.9)	3 (14.3)	14 (66.7)	11 (52.4)	20 (95.2)	21 (100.0)	21 (100.0)
Middleburg	11	10 (90.9)	6 (54.5)	4 (36.4)	8 (72.7)	8 (72.7)	11 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	11 (100.0)

Size of outlet	No. of isolates tested	No. (%) of isolates of <i>L. monocytogenes</i> positive for virulence genes by size of outlet							
		<i>hlyA</i>	<i>inlB</i>	<i>plcA</i>	<i>actA</i>	<i>iap</i>	<i>inlA</i>	<i>inlC</i>	<i>inlJ</i>
Chain	11	10 (90.9)	1 (9.1)	2 (18.2)	5 (45.5)	5 (45.5)	11 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	11 (100.0)
Large	8	4 (50.0)	5 (62.5)	0 (0.0)	6 (75.0)	4 (50.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)
Medium	13	12 (92.3)	9 (69.2)	5 (38.5)	11 (84.6)	11 (84.6)	12 (92.3)	13 (100.0)	13 (100.0)
Small	1	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)

Type of meat and meat products	No. of isolates tested	No. (%) of isolates of <i>L. monocytogenes</i> positive for virulence genes by type of beef and beef products							
		<i>hlyA</i>	<i>inlB</i>	<i>plcA</i>	<i>actA</i>	<i>iap</i>	<i>inlA</i>	<i>inlC</i>	<i>inlJ</i>
Raw beef	8	7 (87.5)	4 (50.0)	2 (25.0)	7 (87.5)	4 (50.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)
RTE	11	7 (63.6)	6 (54.5)	3 (27.3)	7 (63.6)	8 (72.7)	10 (90.9)	11 (100.0)	11 (100.0)
Milled beef	8	7 (87.5)	3 (37.5)	0 (0.0)	4 (50.0)	4 (50.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)	8 (100.0)
Offal & Organs	6	6 (100.0)	2 (33.3)	2 (33.3)	4 (66.7)	4 (66.7)	6 (100.0)	6 (100.0)	6 (100.0)

^aAll the 42 samples of the following beef and beef products tested were negative for *L. monocytogenes*, namely, beef heart ($n = 4$), beef lungs ($n = 8$), beef spleen ($n = 3$), beef steak ($n = 22$), and beef stir-fry ($n = 5$).

^bOf a total of 33 isolates of *L. monocytogenes*.

TABLE 5 Frequency of detection of selected virulence genes in *Listeria monocytogenes* according to serogroup.

Serogroup	No. of isolates tested	No. (%) of <i>L. monocytogenes</i> isolates positive for virulence gene							
		<i>hlyA</i>	<i>inlB</i>	<i>plcA</i>	<i>actA</i>	<i>iap</i>	<i>inlA</i>	<i>inlC</i>	<i>inlJ</i>
1/2a-3a	14	12 (85.7)	4 (28.6)	4 (28.6)	10 (71.4)	7 (50.0)	13 (92.9)	14 (100.0)	14 (100.0)
4b-4d-4e	10	9 (90.0)	5 (50.0)	1 (10.0)	7 (70.0)	7 (70.0)	10 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	10 (100.0)
1/2c-3c	5	5 (100.0)	3 (60.0)	2 (40.0)	3 (60.0)	4 (80.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
1/2b-3b	4	1 (25.0)	3 (75.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (50.0)	2 (50.0)	4 (100.0)	4 (100.0)	4 (100.0)
<i>p</i> value		0.018	0.317	0.381	0.851	0.571	1	1	1
Total	33	27 (81.8)	15 (45.5)	7 (21.2)	22 (66.7)	20 (60.6)	32 (97.0)	33 (100.0)	33 (100.0)

Regarding the frequency of detection of virulence-associated genes in the isolates of *L. monocytogenes*, the frequency of the eight virulence-associated genes assessed in *L. monocytogenes* recovered from the 400 beef and beef products sampled was *inlC*, 8.3% (33/400), *inlJ*, 8.3% (33/400), *inlA*, 8% (32/400), *hlyA*, 6.8% (27/400), *actA*, 5.5% (22/400), *iap*, 5.0% (20/400), *inlB*, 3.8% (15/400), and *plcA*, 1.8% (7/400). The differences were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

The frequency distribution of the virulence-associated genes among the 33 positive isolates was as follows: *inlC*, 100% (33/33, 95%CI: 89.42–100.00), *inlJ*, 100% (33/33, 95%CI: 89.42–100.00), *inlA*, 96.97% (32/33, 95%CI: 84.24–99.92), *hlyA*, 81.82% (27/33, 95%CI: 64.54–93.02), *actA*, 66.67% (22/33, 95%CI: 48.17–82.04), *iap*, 60.61% (20/33, 95%CI: 42.15–71.09), *inlB*, 45.45% (15/33, 95%CI: 28.11–63.65), and *plcA*, 21.2% (7/33, 95%CI: 9.28–39.97). The differences were statistically significant ($p < .001$).

The distribution of virulence-associated genes according to the district, size of outlets, and type of beef products revealed that for each of the three districts (Bronkhorstspuit, Emalahleni, and Middleburg), virulence-associated genes *hlyA*, *inlA*, *inlC*, and *inlJ* were predominantly (76.2%–100%) detected. However, the districts did not significantly ($p > .05$) affect the frequency of detection of virulence-associated genes (Table 4). The frequency of detection ranged from (76.2%–100%; $p = .527$) for *hlyA*, (0%–54.5%; $p = .533$) for *inlB*, (0%–36.4%; $p = .335$) for *plcA*, (0%–72.7%; $p = .335$) for *actA* (52.4%–100%; $p = .382$) for *iap*, (95.2%–100%; $p = .744$) for *inlA*, (100%; $p = 1$) for *inlC* and *inlJ*.

The size of the outlets had a significant ($p = .014$) effect only on the detection of virulence genes *inlB* (range: 0.0%–69.2%; $p = .014$). For each of the four types of retail outlets assessed, high frequencies (>75%) of detection of *inlA*, *inlC*, and *inlJ* were observed (Table 4).

For the four categories of beef and beef products, the frequencies of detection of virulence-associated genes were comparatively low for *inlB*, where the range for positive samples was 33.3% (2/6) in offal & organs to 54.5% (6/11) for RTEs, and for *plcA*, the frequency ranged from 0% (0/8) in milled beef to 33.3% (2/6) in offal & organs. However, the detection frequency of *inlC* and *inlJ* was high, where regardless of the type of beef and beef products, all (100%) of the 33 isolates of *L. monocytogenes* were positive for the virulence-associated genes. The frequency of the samples positive for virulence-associated genes varied significantly across the eight genes ($p = .047$).

The frequency distribution of carriage of virulence-associated genes among the four serogroups is shown in Table 5. Of the eight

virulence-associated genes assessed, statistically significant differences ($p = .018$) were detected across the four serogroups only for the virulence-associated gene *hlyA*. The gene detection frequency ranged from 25% in serogroup 1/2b-3b to 100% in serogroup 1/2c-3c. The detection frequencies for the other seven virulence-associated genes were generally high across the serogroups, but the differences were not statistically significant ($p > .05$).

4 | DISCUSSION

Considering that listeriosis is an important foodborne bacterial zoonosis globally, coupled with the fact that South Africa in 2017–2018 experienced the largest outbreak of human listeriosis, which was associated with consuming a contaminated meat product, makes the findings in the current study of public health are significant. In this study, 8.3% of beef and beef products were contaminated with *L. monocytogenes*, emphasizing the fact that these products still have the potential to cause human listeriosis, particularly as 48 (4.53%) of the 1,060 cases of human listeriosis in the most recent outbreak in the country originated from Mpumalanga province (Kayode et al., 2020).

In the first reported study after the recent outbreak (Thomas et al., 2020) in the country, Matle et al. (2019), using the same methodology applied in the current study, documented a comparable prevalence of 8.6% (13/151) for *L. monocytogenes* in meat and meat products in Mpumalanga province, which originated from poultry, cattle, sheep, pork, and game, unlike this study where only beef and beef products were sampled. It is, however, pertinent to mention that in the earlier study conducted on meat and meat products tested across the nine provinces in South Africa, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* was 14.1% (147/1039), ranging from 0% (Western Cape) to 27.9% (Gauteng province), an indication that the risk of meatborne human listeriosis is still present in South Africa, albeit at different frequencies. In other countries, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in beef and beef products using similar methods has been reported to be variable, such as a prevalence of 0.3% in Italy (Latorre et al., 2007), 6.5% in Markurdi, Nigeria (Peter, 2016), 19.4% in Poland (Wieczorek, Dmowska, & Osek, 2012), and 20.0% in China (Wu et al., 2015). It has been documented that beef and beef products could be contaminated to varying degrees by *L. monocytogenes* during processing (Demaitre et al., 2021).

The overall prevalence of *Listeria* spp. (other than *L. monocytogenes*) in the beef and beef products sampled in the current study was 30%,

which was statistically significantly higher than the 8.3% for *L. monocytogenes*, as well as being detected at all levels of sampling of the five variables (district, type of outlet, presentation for consumption, temperature of display, and types of products) investigated. Other studies have reported detecting the detection of different species of *Listeria*, such as *L. innocua*, at higher frequencies than *L. monocytogenes* in beef and beef products. For example, the prevalence of *Listeria* spp. and *L. monocytogenes*, respectively, was in meat and meat products 4.6% and 1.2% in Iran (Jalali & Abedi, 2008), 45.8% and 0% in Nigeria (Okorie-Kanu et al., 2020), 28.4% and 4% in Egypt (El-Malek, Ali, Hassanein, Mohamed, & Elsayh, 2010), and 50% and 0% in Saudi Arabia (Yehia, Ibraheim, & Hassanein, 2016), respectively. However, a higher prevalence (80.8%) of *L. monocytogenes* than a combined prevalence of 69.2% for eight other *Listeria* spp. in raw beef in Nigeria (Chuku, Obande, & Eya, 2019). Although *L. monocytogenes* is the most critical *Listeria* species responsible for animal and human listeriosis, it has been demonstrated that other species of *Listeria*, specifically *L. ivanovii*, cause listeriosis and mortalities in animals (Guillet et al., 2010; Sergeant, Love, & McInnes, 1991; Snapir, Vaisbein, & Nassar, 2006; Zamuz et al., 2021), and *L. innocua* has been reported to cause listeriosis in immuno-compromised humans (Perrin, Bemer, & Delamare, 2003) and is known to possess virulence genes (Moura et al., 2019).

The district locations of the outlets and the types of beef and beef products were the only factors significantly associated with the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes*. Others have reported similar findings regarding the significance of the outlets in South Africa (Matle et al., 2019), in China (Liu et al., 2020), and in Bangladesh (Islam, Husna, Islam, & Khatun, 2016). These findings could be accounted for by differences in the sources, practices, and handling of beef at slaughterhouses and abattoirs, as well as during processing at processing plants and retail outlets (Demaitre et al., 2020, 2021; Terentjeva et al., 2021).

It was not unexpected that the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* varied significantly across the types of beef and beef products, considering how they are handled prepresentation for sale at retail outlets. For example, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in raw beef (8.3%: brisket), minced beef (6.7%), and RTE products (15.4%: Vienna) in this study. The differences in the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* among the individual types of samples processed may be partly due to factors such as the geographical location, as documented by the significant differences according to districts as documented by others (Chapin, Nightingale, Worobo, Wiedmann, & Strawn, 2014; Maktabi, Pourmehdi, Zarei, & Fooladgar, 2016; Strawn et al., 2013), hygienic factors during processing, and the ways the products are prepared (Aalto-Arnedo, Lundén, Markkula, Hakola, & Korkeala, 2019). It was evident that RTE products in our study had a higher prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* (10.6%) than either raw beef (7.3%) or offal & organs (7.4%). The fact that RTEs included products such as minced beef, where machines for grinding beef have been known to contribute to the contamination of products (Belias, Sullivan, Wiedmann, & Ivanek, 2022; Ripolles-Avila, Hascoët, Martínez-Suárez, Capita, & Rodríguez-Jerez, 2019), and “polony”, which is essentially raw beef spiced and solar dried in the open air, thus, exposed to environmental contamination as reported by others (Mogomotsi & Chinsebu, 2012). The findings in other studies agree

with ours; for example, Matle et al. (2019) reported a prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in raw processed beef and RTEs to be 19.5% and 13.5%, respectively, for packaged minced beef/meat by others: 0.0% in Turkey (Öktem, Bayram, Ceylan, & Yentür, 2006), 1% in Switzerland (Fantelli & Stephan, 2001), 42.1% in Belgium (Van Coillie, Werbrouck, Heyndrickx, Herman, & Rijpens, 2004), 48.7% in Brazil (Ristori et al., 2014). Compared to the overall prevalence of 10.6% for *L. monocytogenes* detected in RTE beef products in this study, significantly lower prevalence has been documented by others such as the 0.0% in the Republic of Ireland (Khen, Lynch, Carroll, McDowell, & Duffy, 2015), .52%–3.09% in the USA (Levine, Rose, Green, Ransom, & Hill, 2001), 1.5% in Jordan (Osaili et al., 2014), 3.2% in China (Liu et al., 2020) but lower than the 17.1% recorded in Jordan (Awaisheh, 2010). The differences in the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* across the types of beef and beef products among countries can be attributed to many factors, including the geographical locations, carriage of *Listeria* spp. in cattle on farms, and cattle presented for slaughter, hygienic practices during slaughter, processing, and retailing, and the types of beef and beef products as well as the methods used to analyze the samples in the laboratory (Maktabi et al., 2016).

Others have implicated RTE foods as the cause of human listeriosis (Allam et al., 2018; Buchanan, Gorris, Hayman, Jackson, & Whiting, 2017; Lopez-Valladares, Danielsson-Tham, & Tham, 2018). In this study, the prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in RTE beef products (biltong, Vienna, “polony,” etc.) was 10.7% which is much higher than the 4.4% reported for RTE meat products sampled in Mpumalanga province by Matle et al. (2019), and the 8.1% documented in Trinidad and Tobago (Syne, Ramsubhag, & Adesiyun, 2011). The high prevalence of *L. monocytogenes* in RTE products in our study suggests that cross-contamination may have occurred during the handling and processing of the products. Our finding of relevance to South Africa is that two RTE products (“biltong” and “polony”), unique to our country and popularly consumed by the population, were contaminated with *L. monocytogenes*. This is important because these two products are mainly consumed without further heat treatment. “Biltong” is a product that is like the American dried meat product known as Jerky (Matsheka et al., 2014); and is sold in the dried or moist form at retail outlets across the district and is contaminated by *L. monocytogenes* (9.7%) and *Listeria* spp. (19.4%), thus posing a food safety concern to consumers. The source of beef, open-air solar drying, and the level of sanitation during preparation have been reported to have an impact on the product's microbial quality (Cherono, Mwithiga, & Schmidt, 2016). “Biltong” in South Africa has also been contaminated by *Salmonella* spp. (Manqele, 2018), and Shiga-toxin *Escherichia coli* (STEC) (Onyeka et al., 2020). Another beef RTE product assessed in our study is “polony”, which is produced by one of the largest companies in South Africa and which was confirmed, through bacteriological and molecular analysis, to be the vehicle for the *L. monocytogenes* strain responsible for the recent large human outbreak of listeriosis in the country (Thomas et al., 2020). The fact that 6.9% and 34.5% of the “polony” samples collected from the retail outlets in Mpumalanga province were contaminated by *L. monocytogenes* and *isteria* spp.,

respectively, is of food safety importance. These findings suggest that “polony” continues to pose a risk of listeriosis in human consumers in the country.

The predominant serogroups of *L. monocytogenes*, comprising serotypes 1/2a, 3a, 1/2c, 3c, 1/2b, 3b, 4b, 4d, and 4e isolated in this study, have been recovered from beef and beef products elsewhere (Althaus et al., 2014; Arslan & Baytur, 2019; Khen et al., 2015). In the earlier study conducted in South Africa, Matle et al. (2019) reported serotype 1/2a to be predominant followed by 4b and 1/2b and 1/2c. This agrees with the current findings. However, in the 2017–2018 outbreak of human listeriosis, the predominant serotype of *L. monocytogenes* detected was 4b (ST6) (Allam et al., 2018). Variability in the predominant serotypes of *L. monocytogenes* have been reported by others, for example, the predominance of serotypes as follows: 1/2a (58%) in the Republic of Ireland (Khen et al., 2015), 1/2a (44.2%) in Switzerland (Fantelli & Stephan, 2001), 1/2a (61.7%) in Poland (Wieczorek et al., 2012), and 1/2a (57.6%) in Turkey (Arslan & Baytur, 2019). The differences in the distribution of serotypes of *L. monocytogenes* in several countries may be attributed, in part, to circulating serotypes of the pathogen as well as to varying laboratory techniques (phenotypic and molecular) used (Borucki & Call, 2003; Morobe, Obi, Nyila, Matsheka, & Gashe, 2012; Nadon, Woodward, Young, Rodgers, & Wiedmann, 2001). Our results confirm the presence of the main serotypes of *L. monocytogenes*, suggesting that these strains may be pathogenic to exposed humans. This emphasizes the importance of improving the control measures, zero-tolerance policy, and surveillance of microorganisms in South Africa. Sporadic cases of listeriosis are associated with serogroups 1/2a-3a and 1/2c-3c (Todd & Notermans, 2011), which were among the serogroups detected in the current study. It has been reported by Lopez-Valladares et al. (2018) that in the mid-1990s and early 2000s, a shift from *L. monocytogenes* serovar 4b to serovar 1/2a causing human listeriosis occurred, and serovar 1/2a is becoming more frequently linked to outbreaks of listeriosis, particularly in Europe and Northern America.

The widespread distribution of virulence genes at high frequencies (81.8%–100.0%), particularly *inlC*, *inlJ*, *inlA*, and *hlyA*, could have food safety and clinical significance if expressed following infection by the strains of *L. monocytogenes*. In a study conducted on *L. monocytogenes* recovered from meat products of domestic sources in South Africa, Matle et al. (2019) reported a relatively low occurrence of virulence-associated genes *plcA* (20.3%) and *inlA* (32.4%) but high frequencies for *iap* (95.6%) and *inlJ* (98.7%). These findings are slightly different from those in this study. The differences between both studies could be accounted for by the geographical locations of the retail outlets sampled, types of samples, natural genetic variation of the strains, and sources of samples. Compared to the reports from other studies, all the isolates of *L. monocytogenes* recovered from beef products sampled at retail outlets in Poland were positive for virulence-associated genes *inlC*, *inlJ*, and *inlA* (Maćkiw et al., 2020). Arslan and Baytur (2019) found that the isolates of *L. monocytogenes* from retail outlets in Turkey were positive for all the eight virulence-associated genes assessed, a finding slightly different from our study,

where only isolates from the beef chuck, beef tongue, beef short rib, beef tripe, “biltong,” “polony” and Vienna were positive for virulence-associated gene *plcA*. The virulence-associated genes in isolates of *L. monocytogenes* recovered from beef and beef products in our study indicate their virulence potential and food safety concerns. However, considering that not all virulence-associated genes documented in the literature were investigated in our study, coupled with the fact that not all virulence-associated genes are expressed, should be considered in assessing the food safety, and clinical risks posed by the *L. monocytogenes* strains positive for virulence-associated genes. Notwithstanding the limitation associated with the extrapolation of data on virulence-positive *L. monocytogenes* to food safety, several of the virulence-associated genes in our study were detected at high frequencies, particularly, *inlC* and *inlJ*, which were present in all 33 isolates of *L. monocytogenes*, the health risk posed to consumers cannot be ignored. This is because these virulence-associated genes have been detected in strains of *L. monocytogenes* recovered from foods and human listeriosis outbreaks. The eight virulence-associated genes detected in the *L. monocytogenes* isolates in our study have been recovered from foods and human cases of listeriosis by others (Pournajaf et al., 2016). Furthermore, the modes of action of these virulence genes have been documented in the literature (Quereda et al., 2021), and it has been shown that the virulence genes in *L. monocytogenes* are necessary for their pathogenesis (Rawool et al., 2007).

In conclusion, demonstrating the presence and distribution of *L. monocytogenes* (8.3%) and *Listeria* spp. (30.0%) in various sample types collected from retail outlets in Mpumalanga province, South Africa, is indicative of the risk of human exposure to the pathogen following consumption of *L. monocytogenes*-contaminated beef and beef products. Furthermore, the detection of serogroups of *L. monocytogenes* usually associated with human listeriosis and their possession of virulence-associated genes suggests the potential of the isolates being pathogenic for exposed humans. The contamination of beef RTE products by virulent *L. monocytogenes* suggests the need to implement improved sanitary practices at retail outlets and at abattoirs or processing plants from where the raw beef originates.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

Authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author.

INFORMED CONSENT

The consent of the managers/owners of the retail outlets was received before the study was started.

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