

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

Antimicrobial peptide cocktail activity in minced turkey meat / Palman, Yael; De Leo, Riccardo; Pulvirenti, Andrea; Green, Stefan J.; Hayouka, Zvi. - In: FOOD MICROBIOLOGY. - ISSN 0740-0020. - 92:(2020), pp. 103580-103600. [10.1016/j.fm.2020.103580]

Terms of use:

The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website.

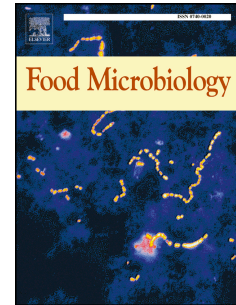
18/09/2024 16:31

(Article begins on next page)

Journal Pre-proof

Antimicrobial peptide cocktail activity in minced turkey meat

Yael Palman, Riccardo De Leo, Andrea Pulvirenti, Stefan J. Green, Zvi Hayouka



PII: S0740-0020(20)30169-6

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2020.103580>

Reference: YFMIC 103580

To appear in: *Food Microbiology*

Received Date: 19 November 2019

Revised Date: 22 June 2020

Accepted Date: 23 June 2020

Please cite this article as: Palman, Y., De Leo, R., Pulvirenti, A., Green, S.J., Hayouka, Z., Antimicrobial peptide cocktail activity in minced turkey meat, *Food Microbiology* (2020), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2020.103580>.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

Antimicrobial peptide cocktail activity in minced turkey meatYael Palman^a, Riccardo De Leo^b, Andrea Pulvirenti^b, Stefan J. Green^c, and Zvi Hayouka^{a*}

^aInstitute of Biochemistry, Food Science and Nutrition, The Robert H. Smith Faculty of Agriculture, Food and Environment, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Rehovot 76100, Israel; ^bDepartment of Life Sciences, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, via Amendola 2, 42124, Reggio Emilia, Italy; ^cSequencing Core, Research Resources Center, University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA

Abstract:

Meat products contain valuable nutrients that are important for human health and development but are also highly susceptible to colonization by microorganisms. This can lead to spoilage and serious foodborne illnesses. Natural antimicrobial peptides, produced by many organisms as part of their innate immune system to fight microbial infections, have great potential as food preservatives. In this study, we explored the effect of ternary antimicrobial random peptide mixtures (RPMs) on food spoilage bacteria in minced turkey meat. Amendment of RPMs to meat led to significant reductions in bacterial abundance in experimental tests, and RPMs worked synergistically with nitrite to reduce bacterial loads. Using high-throughput 16S ribosomal RNA gene amplicon sequencing, we characterized the effect of RPMs and nitrite on meat microbial community structure before and during incubation under refrigerated conditions. Our findings reveal strong antimicrobial activity for RPMs against spoilage bacteria in meat, including *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Pseudomonas putida*. These results demonstrate the potential of RPMs as a safer preservative for reducing spoilage in meat and other food products.

1. Introduction:

Meat products are part of the recommended human diet and contain valuable nutrients that are important for health and development (Hyldgraad, *et al.* 2015). However, microorganisms easily colonize and proliferate in fresh meat due to an excess of nutrients and a moist environment, which leads to spoilage (Hyldgraad, *et al.* 2015; Lamas, *et al.* 2016). The contamination and spoilage of food products is a problem of global concern, since the growth and metabolism of microorganisms can cause serious foodborne illnesses and food loss (Böhme, *et al.* 2012; Borch, *et al.* 1996). Therefore, maximum allowable levels of mesophilic aerobic and facultative anaerobic microorganisms have been mandated by health agencies worldwide (Stieglmeier, *et al.* 2009).

To suppress microbial growth in meat, preservatives such as sodium nitrite are used (Lamas, *et al.* 2016; Serrano, *et al.* 2012; Müller-Herbst, *et al.* 2016). As a food additive, sodium nitrite has three key functions: (i) contributing to flavor by inhibiting the development of rancid off-flavors; (ii) preserving the strong pink color of meat via reactions with myoglobin; and (iii) preventing the growth of pathogenic bacteria such as the toxin-forming *Clostridium botulinum* (Cammack, *et al.* 1999; Crosby, *et al.* 1976). Although the activity of sodium nitrite has been extensively studied, its mode of action is still not completely understood. Inhibition of respiration has been proposed as one possible mode of action of nitrite toward *C. botulinum* (McMindes, *et al.* 1988). Nitric oxide (NO), formed via nitrite reduction, has been suggested as the primary bacteriostatic compound in nitrite-amended food. NO interacts with the iron-sulfur proteins of bacteria (*e.g.*, cytochromes), which are important for microbial energy metabolism (Cammack, *et al.* 1999; Tompkin, *et al.* 1978). Nitrite may also inhibit pyruvate-ferredoxin reductases, leading to bacterial cell death (McMindes, *et al.* 1988).

Although the preservative function of sodium nitrite has been well established, there has 49
recently been a greater focus on its toxicity to humans. Nitrites are toxic at high 50
concentrations as are *N*-nitroso compounds (nitrosamines) which form when nitrites react 51
with secondary amines in the acidic conditions of the stomach. Compounds such as 52
N-nitrosodimethylamine have been shown to be carcinogenic in several animal species 53
(Lamas, *et al.* 2016; Cammack, *et al.* 1999; Honikel, 2008). Thus, there is an urgent need to 54
replace nitrite in the meat industry with safer preservatives (Rydlo, *et al.* 2008; Anderson, *et* 55
al. 2004). 56

Natural antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) and host defense peptides (HDPs) are produced by 57
eukaryotic innate immune systems. Their biological role in eukaryotic organisms is to 58
eliminate Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, as well as fungi and viruses. In 59
bacterial infections, these compounds are a component of the host immune response, and act 60
primarily by disrupting bacterial cell membranes. As a result, these classes of peptides have 61
great potential as effective and safe preservatives (Diamond, *et al.* 2009; Malheiros, *et al.* 62
2010; Nakatsuji, and Gallo, 2012; Cleveland, *et al.* 2001; Rathinakumar, *et al.* 2009). Most 63
AMPs possess common structural features such as positive charge and moderate 64
hydrophobicity (~50%). This amphipathicity enables them to interact with and permeabilize 65
negatively charged membranes of bacteria, resulting in cell membrane disruption (Nakatsuji, 66
and Gallo, 2012; Rathinakumar, *et al.* 2009; Brogden, 2005; Wimley and Hristova 2001; 67
Hancock, 2001). Previous studies have evaluated AMPs as preservatives (Anderson, *et al.* 68
2004). For example, an analogue of magainin (an AMP isolated from frog skin) possessed 69
strong antimicrobial activity against 13 pathogenic bacterial strains associated with foodborne 70
illnesses (Abler, *et al.* 1995). Elsewhere, the activity of a synthetic peptide bearing six leucine 71
and eight lysine residues was studied against a range of foodborne microorganisms including 72
Listeria monocytogenes (Aiyegoro, 2014; Appendini, and Hotchkiss, 2000). 73

Despite the promise of AMPs as safer meat preservatives, there are still several challenges 74
that must be addressed: (i) they must be effective against a diverse array of microorganisms; 75
(ii) phospholipids or proteins can potentially suppress their antimicrobial activity ; (iii) AMPs 76
can be degraded rapidly by proteases (Anderson, *et al.* 2004; Malheiros, *et al.* 2010); (iv) 77
rapid development of antimicrobial resistance can occur (Mayrhofer, *et al.* 2004; Dobson, *et* 78
al. 2014; Perron, *et al.* 2006; Pranting, *et al.* 2008; Habets *et al.* 2012; Dobson, *et al.* 2013); 79
and (v) cost of manufacture (Wimley and Hristova. 2011). Although these challenges are 80
daunting, there is already one AMP preservative on the market which indicates feasibility. 81
The antimicrobial peptide-based preservative nisin (produced by certain strains of 82
Lactococcus lactis) has been approved by the FDA (Cleveland, *et al.* 2001) and is effective 83
against Gram-positive bacteria, including spores, but shows very low activity against Gram- 84
negative bacteria, yeasts and molds²⁸. Nisin has been widely used as an exogenous addition to 85
a variety of food products around the world and is also naturally present in many dairy 86
products (Rydlo, *et al.* 2008; Muller-Auffermann, *et al.* 2015). Nisin has a dual mechanism of 87
action, which is facilitated by binding to the peptidoglycan precursor, lipid II. At lower 88
concentrations, nisin interferes with cell wall synthesis and at higher concentrations it forms 89
pores that disrupt the proton motive force in bacterial membranes (Muller-Auffermann, *et al.* 90
2015). When examined as a meat preservative, nisin displayed strong antimicrobial activity in 91
inoculated minced beef against Gram-positive *L. monocytogenes*; conversely, application of 92
nisin in minced sheep meat showed no antimicrobial activity against *Salmonella* Enteritidis 93
(Solomakos, *et al.* 2008; Govaris, *et al.* 2010). 94

The structural diversity of AMPs suggests that their activity is not tightly linked to a specific 95
amino acid sequence (Rathinakumar, *et al.* 2009). This observation led to the development of 96
random peptide mixtures (RPMs) as antimicrobial agents (Hayouka, *et al.* 2013). During 97
peptide synthesis, instead of using one amino acid at each coupling step, a mixture of two or 98

more amino acids (at a known stoichiometry) are used. The result is $2^n/3^n$ (where n represents 99
the peptide chain length equal to the number of coupling steps) sequences of random peptides 100
composed of hydrophobic and cationic amino acids but with controlled chain length and 101
stereochemistry. This novel AMP synthesis strategy may overcome some difficulties 102
associated with specific sequence of AMPS (Hayouka, *et al.* 2013; Topman, *et al.* 2018; 103
Stern, *et al.* 2016; Amso and Hayouka 2019), as this approach is cheaper and may confound 104
bacterial attempts to develop resistance. The aim of the current study was to investigate the 105
antimicrobial activity of RPMs in food. We have used minced turkey meat as a food model 106
and have coupled cultivation approaches with cultivation-independent molecular 107
characterization of microbial community structure to gain insights into the activity of AMPs 108
in meat. 109

2. Material and Methods: 110

2.1 Synthesis of random peptide mixtures 111

RPMs were synthesized using the traditional solid phase peptide synthesis (SPPS). Synthesis 112
of random peptide mixtures (RPMs) was carried out according to Hayouka et al. (2013). 113
RPMs were synthesized using microwave irradiation on Rink Amide resin (Substitution 114
0.53 mmol g⁻¹, 25 µmol) in Alltech filter tubes. Coupling reactions were conducted with 115
binary combinations of protected amino acids, with a freshly prepared stock solution that 116
contained the protected amino acids in 1:1 molar ratio of L-Phenylalanine, L-leucine, and L- 117
-lysine (25 µmol) of each amino acid, which were used for each coupling step. Upon 118
completion of the synthesis (20 cycles for 20 mer peptide chain length), the RPMs were 119
cleaved from the resin, resuspended in double-distilled water (DDW), frozen on dry ice and 120
lyophilized. RPMs were analyzed by MALDI-TOF to evaluate molecular weight and quality 121
and by amino acid analysis. 122

2.2 Assessment of minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) values: 123

To determine the antimicrobial activity of FLK (L-Phenylalanine, L-leucine, and L-lysine), 124
FK (L-Phenylalanine and L-lysine) and ^DF^DL^DK (D-Phenylalanine, D-leucine, and D- 125
lysine) RPMs, MIC values were measured for *B.subtilis* NCIB 3610, *L. monocytogenes* 126
10403S, *P. putida* KT2440 and *E. coli* rp MG1655 strains (Table 1). MICs were determined 127
by growth in sterile 96-well plates (Corning 3650) by a broth microdilution method as 128
described by Hayouka et al. (2013). Bacteria were grown for 24 h in brain heart infusion 129
broth (BHI, HiMedia Laboratories, India) or Lysogeny broth (LB; BD, USA)) at 30°C or 130
37°C depended on the bacteria type with shaking (200 rpm). Then, the bacterial cultures were 131
diluted in growth medium to an optical density at 600 nm (OD₆₀₀) of 0.1 using a 132
ThermoSpectronic (Genesys 10uv) spectrophotometer. 100 µl aliquots were added to 100 µl 133
of growth medium containing RPMs at various concentrations in each well. The plates were 134
then incubated at 30°C or 37°C for 24 h. Bacterial growth was determined by measuring the 135
OD at 595 nm using a Tecan Infinite Pro Plate reader. The MIC values were the lowest 136
concentrations of the peptide mixtures that caused inhibition of bacterial growth (Hayouka, *et* 137
al. 2013). MIC values were determined as the average obtained from three independent 138
experiments. The highest concentrations tested were 200 µg/ml for RPMs, 1 mg/ml (14.49 139
mM) for sodium nitrite and 0.25 mg/ml (0.074 mM) for Nisin. 140

2.3 Meat preparation: 141

Fresh minced turkey meat was purchased at a local super-market and immediately transferred 142
to the lab. The meat was ground for a second time in an ethanol cleaned grinder and divided 143
into 40 gr portions. Samples were stored at -20°C. At the beginning of each experiment, a 40 144
gr portion was defrosted at 4 °C. The portion was ground and divided into 10 gr or 1 gr meat 145
balls, and each meatball was placed in a sterile test tube. 150 µl of double-distilled water 146

Name	Growth conditions: Media/ Temperature and antibiotic
------	--

(DD 147
W) 148
was 149
adde 150
d to 151
contr 152

ol sample test tubes. For treatment samples, 150 µl of DDW containing each of the different 153
treatment compounds was added to each test tube. For treatments with sodium nitrite, final 154
concentrations of 2.17 /1.08 /0.5 mM were used. For treatments with RPMs of FLK (L□ 155
Phenylalanine, L-leucine, and L -lysine) or ^DF^DL^DK (D□Phenylalanine, D-leucine, and D - 156
lysine), RPMs were dissolved in double□distilled water (DDW) to final concentration of 157
0.25, 2, 5, and 7 mg/g or (0.096, 0.76, 1.92, 2.688 mM) except for Nisin, which had a final 158
concentration of 0.074 mM. For the combination of sodium nitrite and FLK, the 150 µl 159
solution added to test tubes contained FLK random peptide mixture dissolved in DDW at a 160
final concentration of 1.92 mM and 5 µl of sodium nitrite dissolved in DDW to arrive at a 161
final concentration of 1.08 mM or 0.5 mM. Samples were mixed and stored under 162
refrigerated conditions at 4 °C for the length of the experiment. Microbiological analyses 163
were performed at 0, 1, 3 and 5 days of storage. 164

Table S1. Bacterial strains and growth conditions used in this study. All strains were 165
maintained at -80°C in glycerol stock (25% v/v) until use. 166

167
168
169

<i>L. monocytogenes</i> 10403S	BHI, 37°C, overnight, 100 µg/ml streptomycin	170 171
<i>P. putida</i> KT2440	LB, 30°C, overnight, 100 µg/ml ampicillin	172
<i>B. subtilis</i> NCIB 3610	BHI, 37°C, overnight	173
<i>E. coli</i> rp	BHI, 37°C, overnight	174

The *L. monocytogenes* 10403S culture was a generous gift from Prof. Anat Herskovits from Tel Aviv University. The strain (10403S) was modified by deleting the hly gene that codes the listeriolysin O toxin responsible for the species' virulence and has a streptomycin resistance.

2.4 Inoculated meat samples:

1 g samples of minced turkey meat were placed in sterile test tubes and inoculated with single strain of *L. monocytogenes* or *P. putida* separately (ca. 10^4 CFU/g). The bacterial cultures were diluted in the appropriate medium to an optical density at 600 nm (OD600) of 0.1 using a ThermoSpectronic (Genesys 10uv) spectrophotometer. Cultures were diluted to 10^5 CFU/ml in saline solution 0.9% for inoculation of turkey meat samples. Microbial load was determined by serial dilution and plating on BHI agar or LB agar plates. $100 \mu\text{l/g}$ of the 10^5 CFU/ml bacterial stock was used to inoculate the meat. To ensure proper distribution of the bacteria, the samples were properly mixed before addition of the treatment. Subsequently, sodium nitrite (1.08 mM), FLK (1.92 mM) and their combination were added to the inoculated samples.

2.5 Microbiological analysis:

To monitor the microbial load, we evaluated the samples at different time points 0, 1, 3 and 5 192
days. After the treatment, a 9 ml saline solution 0.9% was added to each 1 gr minced turkey 193
sample. Samples were vigorously vortexed for 60 seconds at room temperature, and then 194
serially diluted 1:10 in 0.9% saline solution. 100 μ l from each sample were spread plated by 195
duplicates on LB agar or BHI agar plate and held at 30 °C for 24 h. Each sample was 196
analyzed with at least three independent repetitions. After 24 h, the microbial load was 197
determined and the average number of CFU per gram was calculated by counting plates 198
containing 20-200 colonies. 199

2.6 Statistical analysis 200

The results are presented as the mean \pm SEM. One-way analysis ANOVA of variance 201
followed by Tukey post-hoc analysis was used for statistical analysis. An independent T test 202
analysis which compares the means of the treatments was performed. The results were 203
considered to be statistically significant if $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$ as mentioned for each 204
experiment. 205

2.7 Cultivation-independent analysis of meat microbial communities 206

1 gr samples of minced turkey meat were divided into equal portions of 500 mg. Of these 207
portions, one was used for DNA extraction and the other was used for cultivation-based 208
approaches. Samples were amended with the following compounds: double-distilled water 209
(DDW; 'Control'), 1.92 mM (5 mg/ml) of RPMs FLK ('FLK'), 1.08 mM sodium nitrite (75 210
ppm), and a combination of sodium nitrite (1.92 mM) and FLK (1.08 mM) ('FLK+Nitrite). 211
Samples were stored at 4°C. Samples were taken at day 0 (prior to amendment), after 3 days, 212
and after 5 days. Total genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted using an Exgene™ Soil DNA 213
Prep Kit (Songpa-gu, Korea), following the manufacturer's standard protocol. Genomic DNA 214
was PCR amplified with primers CS1_515Fb and CS2_806Rb (modified from the primer set 215

employed by the Earth Microbiome Project (EMP; GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA and 216
GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT) targeting the V4 regions of microbial small subunit 217
ribosomal RNA genes. Amplicons were generated using a two-stage “targeted amplicon 218
sequencing (TAS)” protocol (Naqib, *et al.* 2018; Bybee, *et al.* 2011). The primers contained 219
5’ common sequence tags (known as common sequence 1 and 2, CS1 and CS2) as described 220
previously (Moonsamy, *et al.* 2013; Green, *et al.* 2015). First stage PCR amplifications were 221
performed in 10 microliter reactions in 96-well plates, using the MyTaq HS 2X mastermix. 222
PCR conditions were 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by 28 cycles of 95°C for 30”, 55°C for 223
45” and 72°C for 60.” 224

Subsequently, a second PCR amplification was performed in 10 microliter reactions in 96- 225
well plates. A mastermix for the entire plate was made using the MyTaq HS 2X mastermix. 226
Each well received a separate primer pair with a unique 10-base barcode, obtained from the 227
Access Array Barcode Library for Illumina (Fluidigm, South San Francisco, CA; Item# 100- 228
4876). These Access Array primers contained the CS1 and CS2 linkers at the 3’ ends of the 229
oligonucleotides. Cycling conditions were as follows: 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by 8 230
cycles of 95°C for 30”, 60°C for 30” and 72°C for 30”. A final, 7-minute elongation step was 231
performed at 72°C. Samples were pooled in equal volume using an EpMotion5075 liquid 232
handling robot (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). The pooled library was purified using an 233
AMPure XP cleanup protocol (0.6X, vol/vol; Agencourt, Beckmann-Coulter) to remove 234
fragments smaller than 300 bp. The pooled libraries, with a 20% phiX spike-in, were loaded 235
onto an Illumina MiniSeq mid-output flow cell (2x153 paired-end reads). Fluidigm 236
sequencing primers, targeting the CS1 and CS2 linker regions, were used to initiate 237
sequencing. De-multiplexing of reads was performed on instrument. Library preparation, 238
pooling, and sequencing were performed at the University of Illinois at Chicago Sequencing 239
Core (UICSQC). 240

3. Results and Discussion 241

3.1 Random peptide design and synthesis 242

Our aim in this study was to examine the potential of RPMs to inhibit growth of food 243
spoilage bacteria in minced turkey meat. We previously described the antimicrobial activity 244
of different RPMs composed from a binary combination of hydrophobic and cationic residues 245
where the most active mixtures were 20-mers containing L-leucine (L) and L-phenylalanine 246
(F) as their hydrophobic residue with L-lysine (K) as the cationic amino acid (Hayouka, *et al.* 247
2013). Here, we designed and synthesized for the first time a ternary random peptide mixture 248
by combining the most active cationic amino acid residue (Lysine) with the two most active 249
hydrophobic amino acids residues (Leucine and Phenylalanine). These ternary peptide 250
mixtures FLK was composed of 25% F, 25% L, and 50% K to preserve the optimal 1:1 251
proportion between cationic and hydrophobic amino acids. To verify the subunit proportion 252
after synthesis, we performed amino acid analysis and determined the molecular weight range 253
of the mixture using MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (Figure S1). In addition, we 254
synthesized a ternary enantiomer consisting of a D-homochiral random peptide mixture of D- 255
phenylalanine (^DF), D-leucine (^DL), and D-lysine (^DK) to evaluate the effect of 256
stereochemistry on bioactivity. 257

To determine the antimicrobial activity of the ternary RPMs, we performed minimal 258
inhibition concentration (MIC) assays using *Bacillus subtilis* and *Listeria monocytogenes* as 259
model Gram-positive bacteria, and *Pseudomonas putida* and *E. coli* as model Gram- 260
negative bacteria (**Table 1**). The new FLK RPM showed broad antimicrobial activity toward 261
all tested bacteria. The MIC values for *B. subtilis*, *L. monocytogene* and *P. putida* were 13 262
 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$; for *E. coli* the MIC value was 25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$. Both FLK and ^DF^DL^DK possessed strong 263

bacteriostatic activity against the tested bacteria as compared to FK peptide mixtures and similar activity to LK peptide mixtures.

Table 1. Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values for LK, FK, FLK ^DF^DL^DK RPMs, nisin, and sodium nitrite. Values, in the units of µg/ml, represent the median value obtained from at least three independent repetitions for each bacterial strain with tests performed *in vitro*.

Treatment	<i>B. subtilis</i>	<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	<i>P. putida</i>	<i>E. coli</i> rp
Leucine: Lysine (LK)	13	13	13	6
Phenylalanine: Lysine (FK)	50	25	25	50
Phenylalanine :Leucine:Lysine (FLK)	13	13	13	25
D-Phenylalanine : D-Leucine: D-Lysine (^D F ^D L ^D K)	13	13	13	13
Nisin	3	3	>1000	>1000
Sodium nitrite	>1000	>1000	>1000	>1000

We also compared the activity of our RPMs with nisin (Table 1), and our findings confirm previous results showing that Nisin has no antimicrobial activity against Gram-negative bacteria. Prior studies have shown that RPMs such as LK 20-mer and FK 20-mer can be active against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria and towards mature biofilms (Hayouka, *et al.* 2013; Topman, *et al.* 2018; Stern, *et al.* 2016; Amso and Hayouka 2019), and we observed that our RPMs were indeed active against both Gram-negative and -positive bacteria. No inhibition of bacterial growth was observed *in vitro* when sodium nitrite was added (14.49 mM, 1 mg/mL), despite this concentration being significantly higher than

mandated maximum quantity allowed for these additives in meat (2.17 mM, 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$). As the FLK RPM was an effective antimicrobial agent with broad-spectrum activity toward the tested bacteria, these compounds were further tested in a controlled food model system.

Measuring the efficacy of antimicrobial agents in a food system holds several challenges. A decrease in antimicrobial activity is usually observed, due to the interaction of the agent with other components in the food matrix such as lipids, proteins, and sugars (Rydlo, *et al.* 2006). To determine the effective concentration of FLK in meat, various concentrations were added and the microbial load was quantified. A dose-dependent relationship was observed (Figure 1), whereby FLK RPM concentrations of 1.92 mM and 2.69 mM exhibited the greatest antimicrobial activity. FLK at 1.92 mM concentration was therefore used for subsequent experiments.

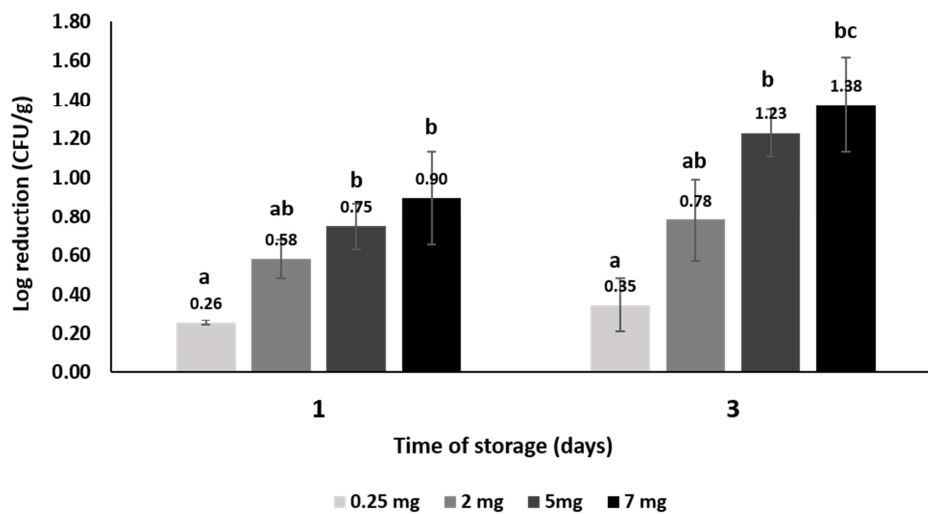


Figure 1: The effect of varying FLK concentration (mg/ml) on total aerobic heterotrophic bacterial abundance in minced turkey meat during storage at 4°C. The y-axis represents the decrease in cfu/g between the control and treatment samples (mean \pm SEM, n = 9). Samples were diluted, plated, and counted on after 0, 1, and 3 days of storage. a,b,c p < 0.01 indicates a statistically significant difference between the treatments at the day of treatment.

The antimicrobial activity of both FLK and ^DF^DL^DK (1.92 mM) were compared to nisin 300
 (0.074 mM, Figure 2) and sodium nitrite (2.17 mM, Figure 3) in minced turkey meat. The 301
 microbial load of the minced turkey meat was assessed at 1, 3 and 5 days post-inoculation, 302
 and compared to the microbial loads at day 0 (Figure 3). FLK displayed strong antimicrobial 303
 activity and stability even after 5 days of storage, and there was no substantial advantage in 304
 using the ^DF^DL^DK (Figure S2). After 3 days of incubation the antimicrobial activity of FLK 305
 and nitrite was similar (~1 log CFU/g reduction). After 5 days FLK displayed strong 306
 antimicrobial activity, representing an average log reduction of ~1.55 CFU/g, while sodium 307
 nitrite displayed stronger antimicrobial activity of ~3 log CFU/g reduction. Nisin at this level 308
 showed weak antimicrobial activity toward meat bacterial population with a log reduction of 309
 maximum 0.5 log CFU/g during the entire storage period (Figure S3). This poor 310
 antimicrobial activity of nisin in meat has been reported previously (Cleveland, *et al.* 2001; 311
 Solomakos, *et al.* 2008; Govaris, *et al.* 2010). 312

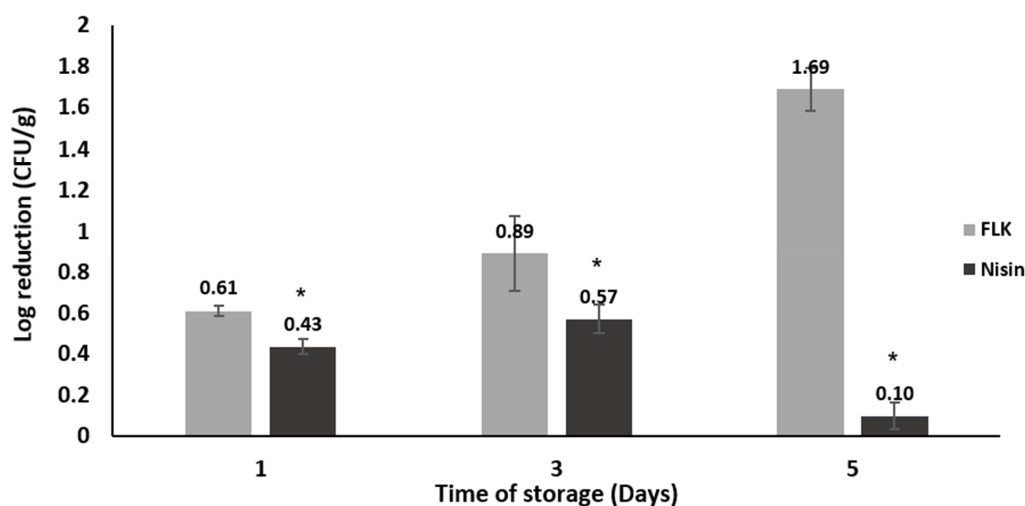


Figure 2: Comparing the antimicrobial activity of RPMs with Nisin. The antimicrobial activity of Phe-Leu- 314
 Lys (FLK, 1.92 mM) and Nisin (0.074 mM) against meat bacterial population in minced turkey meat during 315
 storage at 4 °C. Samples were diluted, plated, and counted at different time points; 0, 1, 3 and 5 days of storage 316
 (mean ± SEM, n = 17,7,8). *p < 0.01 indicates a statistically significant difference between the RPMs and Nisin 317
 treatments at the day of treatment. 318

3.2 The effect of combining FLK and sodium nitrite 319

Despite the health concerns regarding sodium nitrite usage, it remains one of the most 320
common meat preservatives. The use of nitrite is primarily due to its strong antimicrobial 321
activity against *C. botulinum*, a heat-resistant, spore-forming, toxin producer that causes 322
botulism (Lamas, *et al.* 2016; Cammack, *et al.* 1999). The efficacy of antimicrobial 323
compounds can sometimes be potentiated by utilizing them in combination (Marquette and 324
Bechinger 2018). Mixtures of AMPs and conventional antibiotics have shown synergistic 325
activity (Rank, *et al.* 2017; Kim, *et al.* 2017; Chou, *et al.* 2016), typically due to two different 326
modes of action (Marquette and Bechinger 2018). For example, AMPs that cause damage to 327
bacterial cell membranes (which does not necessarily result in cell death) will increase 328
membrane permeability, which could lead to improved efficacy of sodium nitrite. For this 329
reason, the combination of sodium nitrite and RPMs could lead to an improvement in 330
antimicrobial activity whilst reducing the amount of sodium nitrite required to suppress 331
bacterial growth, and hence its associated health risks. Therefore, we monitored microbial 332
growth in turkey meat with a combination of FLK (1.92 mM) and sodium nitrite at 333
concentrations of 1.08 mM (half dose) and 0.5 mM (quarter dose, Figure 4). The treatment 334
regimen with the half dose of sodium nitrite resulted in significantly lower microbial load 335
after both 3 and 5 days, compared to the individual treatments. By combining RPM with 336
nitrite, we were able to reduce the effective concentration of nitrite by 50%. We further 337
reduced the nitrite concentration to a quarter dose and still observed a synergistic effect. After 338
5 days of storage at 4°C the antimicrobial effect was maintained, with a significant log 339
reduction of ~2.5 log CFU/g or greater at both nitrite concentrations. 340

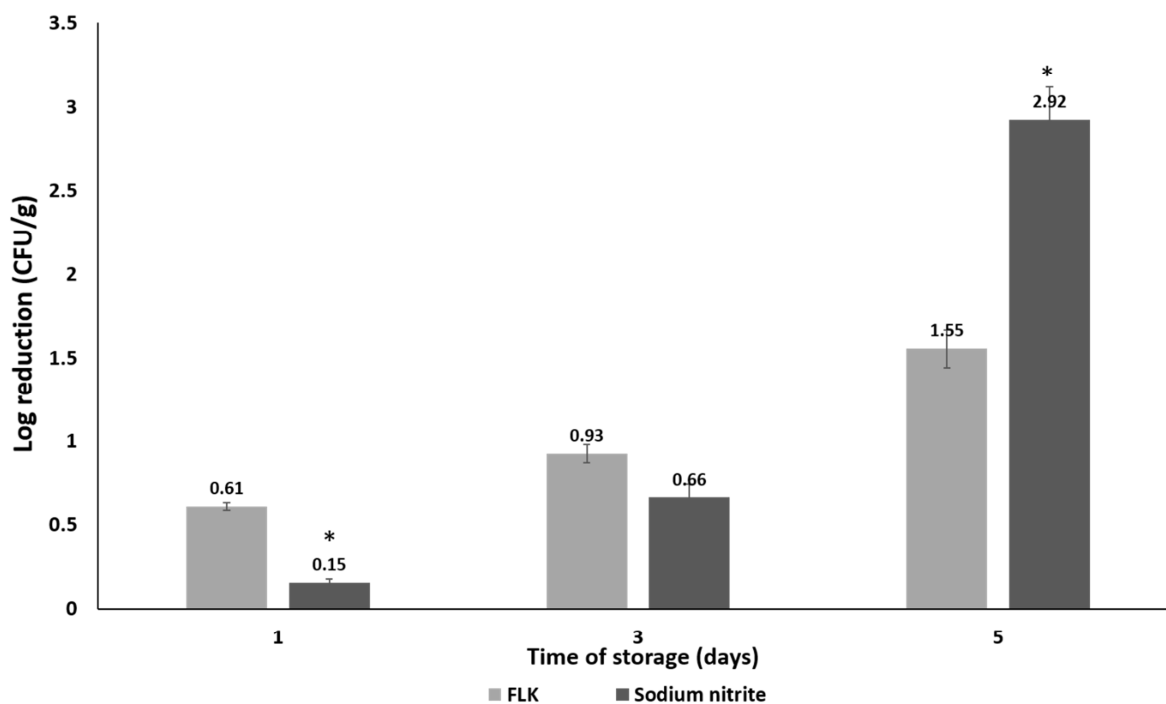
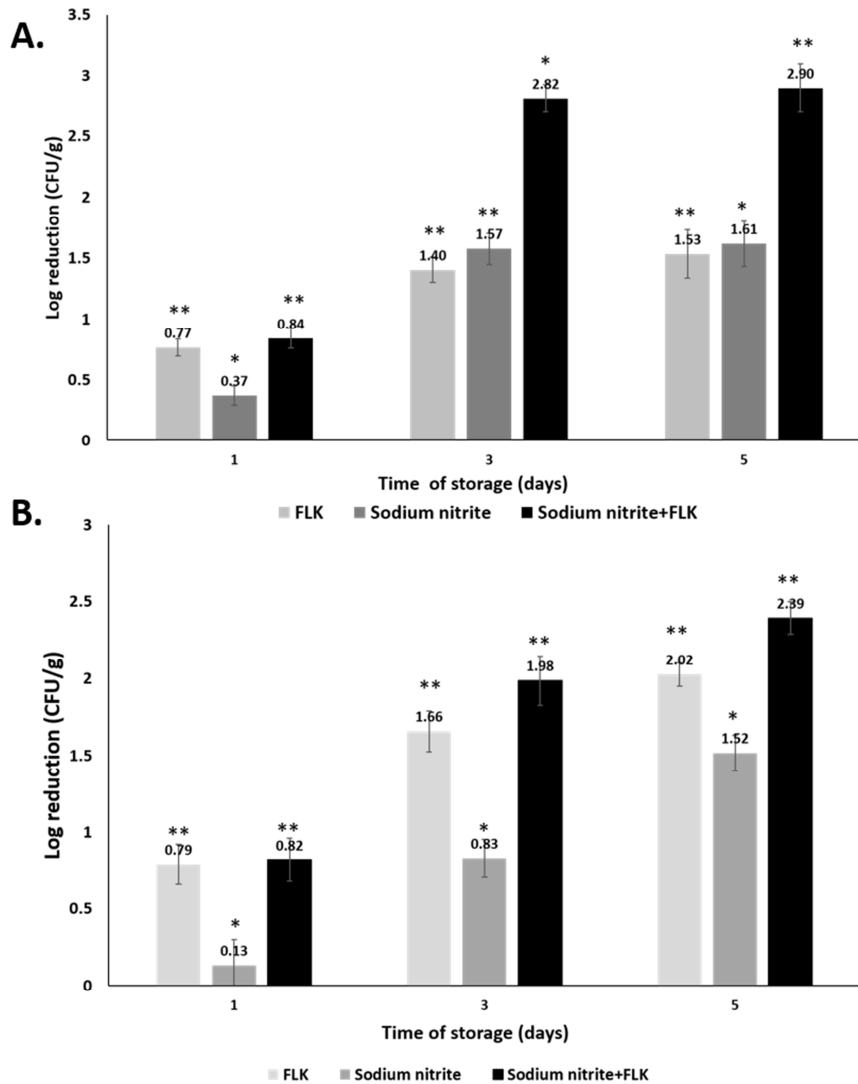


Figure 3: Antimicrobial activity of FLK (1.92 mM) and nitrite (2.17 mM / 150 ppm) in minced turkey meat stored at 4°C. The y-axis represents the decrease in total aerobic heterotrophic bacterial CFU/g between control and treatment samples (mean \pm SEM, n = 9). Meat samples were diluted, plated, and counted after 1, 3 and 5 days of storage. *p < 0.01 indicates a statistically significant difference between the RPMs treatments and sodium nitrite treatments at the day of treatment.

3.3 The effect of treatment on meat microbial community structure

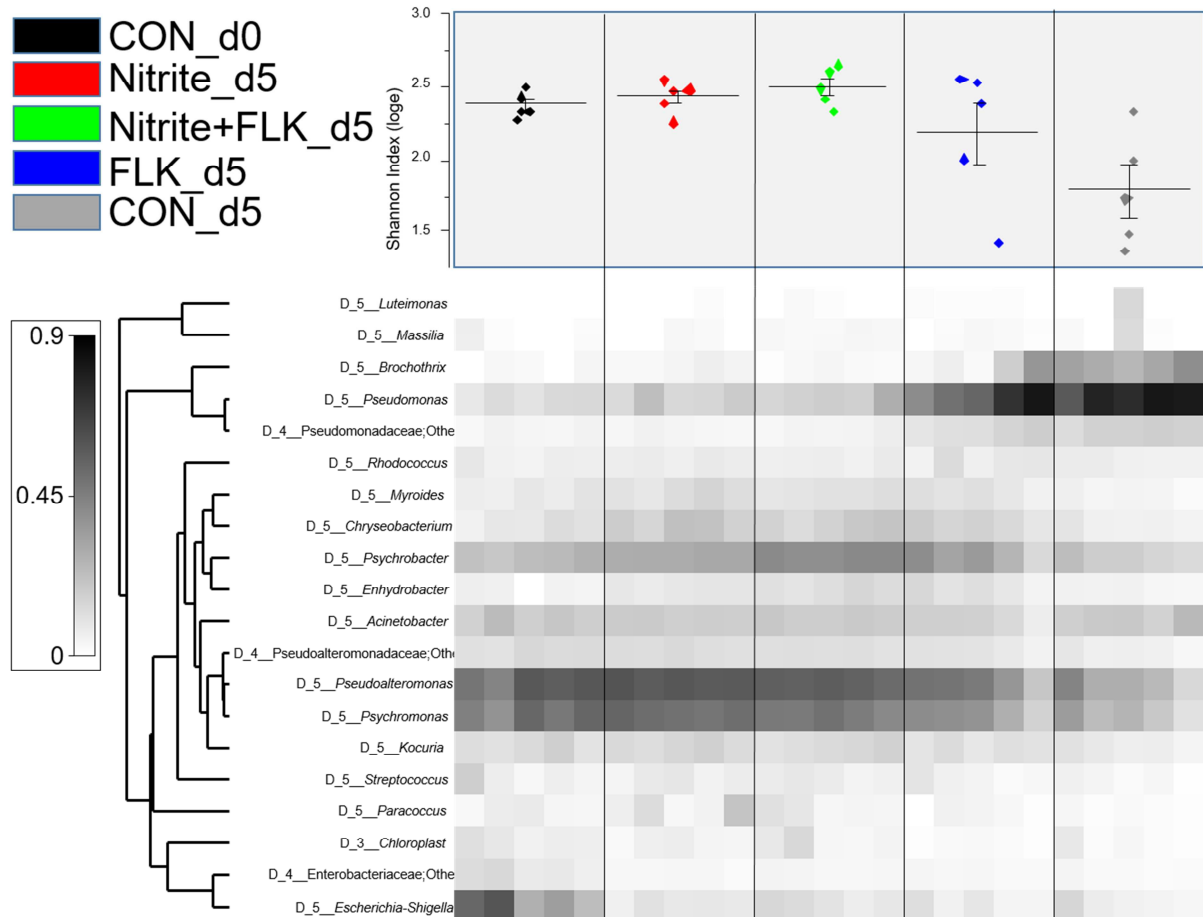
Rapid microbial growth in meat contributes to the development of an off flavor and/or color, leading to meat that is unappealing and unsuitable for human consumption. The diversity and composition of meat microbial communities is dependent on the storage conditions and competition between organisms present in the meat (Hylgaard, *et al.* 2015; Doulgeraki, *et al.* 2012). Therefore, the effect of treatment on the microbial community structure in turkey meat was determined, via a combination of cultivation-dependent and cultivation-independent analyses. Cultivation-independent analyses were performed by DNA extraction and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing, and these analyses generated information regarding the relative abundance of microbial taxa in samples. Prior studies have shown that

the diversity of microorganisms in fresh meat, fish, and environmental samples decreases 357
 during spoilage (Filippis, *et al.* 2018); this loss of diversity was observed in control turkey 358
 meat samples analyzed after five days of incubation (Figure 5). 359



**Figure 4: Antimicrobial activity of FLK (1.92 mM) and Sodium nitrite alone and in combination at 361
 different concentrations in minced turkey meat stored at 4°C. The y-axis represents the decrease in total 362
 aerobic heterotrophic bacterial CFU/g between control and treatment samples (mean \pm SEM, n = 9). (A) Sodium 363
 nitrite concentration of 1.08 mM (75 ppm); and (B) sodium nitrite concentration of 0.5 mM (35 ppm). Samples 364
 were diluted, plated, and counted at 0, 1, 3 and 5 days (mean \pm SEM, n = 17, 10, 14). *,**p < 0.01 indicates a 365
 statistically significant difference between treatments and the control at the same day. 366**

Microbial communities changed in all treatments during the five days of incubation, though 367
the magnitude of the effect differed between treatments (Figures 5 and 6). Alpha diversity 368
(within-sample diversity) was calculated using the Shannon index (a measure of microbial 369
richness and evenness) at the taxonomic level of genus (Figure 5). Microbial diversity in the 370
control treatment at day 5 was significantly lower than the baseline diversity (Mean Shannon 371
Index, 1.78 vs 2.37; Tukey's test $p=0.029$). In addition, microbial diversity (Shannon Index) 372
in the control treatment at day 5 was significantly lower than the diversity of sodium nitrite 373
treatment and the sodium nitrite/FLK combined treatment at day 5 (Tukey's test $p<0.015$). 374
The microbial diversity of the sodium nitrite and nitrite/FLK combined treatment was not 375
significantly different from that of the baseline microbial diversity. 376

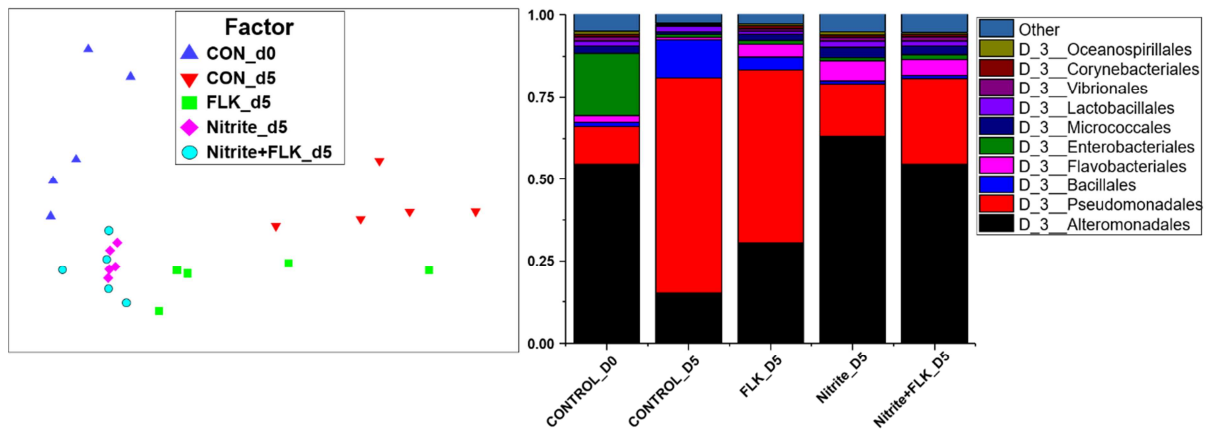


377

378

Figure 5: Shade plot of 20 most abundant microbial taxa based on genus-level annotations. Sample grouping was retained, and the scale is the square root of relative abundance. Bacteria from the genus *Pseudomonas* were most abundant in FLK (day 5 or d5) and control (d5) samples, while *Escherichia-Shigella* were only present substantially in the control (day 0, d0) samples. Bacteria from the genera *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Psychromonas* and *Psychrobacteria* were abundant in samples treated with nitrite at d5. Above the shade plot is a box plot of Shannon index values (genus-level) for five replicates of each group. By ANOVA, group means were significantly different at the 0.05 level. Tukey's test indicated that the diversity of the day 5 control samples was significantly different than that of the d0 control, d5 nitrite treatment, and d5 nitrite + FLK treatment samples, but not the d5 FLK treatment samples. Diversity indices were generated from datasets rarefied to 17,000 sequences/sample.

The change, or lack thereof, in microbial alpha diversity by these treatments was consistent with the observed microbial community structure. Baseline microbial communities were largely comprised of bacteria from the genera *Escherichia-Shigella*, *Psychromonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas*, *Psychrobacter* and *Pseudomonas* (Figure 5). Bacteria from the genera *Escherichia-Shigella* (order *Enterobacteriales*) were abundant in the baseline samples (average relative abundance of 17.6%) and were much lower in all treatments at day 5 (average relative abundance of 1.0%). Although the microbial structure of each treatment was significantly different from all other treatments using analysis of similarity (ANOSIM $R > 0.448$; $p < 0.032$), day 5 microbial communities in treatments containing nitrite (Nitrite, Nitrite+FLK) were the most similar to each other. They were dominated by bacteria from the genera *Psychromonas*, *Pseudoalteromonas* and *Psychrobacter*, with low relative abundance of bacteria from the genus *Pseudomonas* (order *Pseudomonadales*; Figures 5 and 6). Conversely, the relative abundance of bacteria from the genera *Pseudomonas* and *Brochothrix* was high in samples from the control treatment at day 5. At day 5, the FLK treatment was intermediate between the control and treatments with nitrite; three replicates were comparable to treatments with nitrite, while two replicates were more similar to control treatment samples (Figure 6).



406

Figure 6: (Left panel) Non-metric multi-dimensional (nMDS) plot of microbial communities in meat samples. 407
 Data were rarefied to 17,000 sequences per sample, and analysis was performed at the taxonomic level of genus. 408
 Data were square-root transformed. The 2D stress of the nMDS plot is 0.07. Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) 409
 analyses demonstrated that all groups were significantly different than each other ($P=0.008$ to 0.032 ; R values 410
 ranged from 0.448 to 1). **(Right panel)** Average abundance of the ten most abundant bacterial orders in the data 411
 set, representing >94% of all sequences from all samples. 412

Bacteria from the order *Pseudomonadales* were most abundant in d5 control and d5 FLK 413
 samples. Thus, we confirm in this study that spoilage leads to a significant decrease in alpha 414
 diversity and represents a large increase in the relative abundance of bacteria from two 415
 genera, *Pseudomonas* and *Brochothrix*. In the presence of nitrite or nitrite/FLK, microbial 416
 community composition was only modestly altered relative to the time 0 control, likely due to 417
 the absence of substantial microbial growth. In all samples, the relative abundance of bacteria 418
 from the genera *Escherichia-Shigella* decreased dramatically from time 0 to day 5, regardless 419
 of treatment. 420

Cultivation-based analyses demonstrated a significant reduction in the absolute abundance of 421
 bacteria in meat treated with sodium nitrite and synthetic RPMs. Cultivation-independent 422
 analyses demonstrated that in the presence of nitrite, microbial community structure was 423
 similar to that of the baseline, despite a decrease in the absolute abundance of viable cells. 424
 This is consistent with broad-spectrum bactericidal activity. The FLK-only treatment, which 425

did reduce the absolute abundance of viable cells, had poor activity against bacteria from the 426
genus *Pseudomonas*, as indicated by the elevated relative abundance of *Pseudomonas* in 427
FLK-only samples. At day 5, the observed microbial community structure in the FLK-only 428
treatment was intermediate between treatments with nitrite and the control and demonstrated 429
greater within-treatment variability in the observed microbial community. 430

Numerous bacterial taxa have been previously described in meat spoilage systems, including 431
bacteria from the phyla Firmicutes, Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes. These organisms have 432
been shown to be responsible for the effects on sensorial properties (Hyldgaard, *et al.* 2015; 433
Raimondi, *et al.* 2018; Thomas, *et al.* 2011; Benson, *et al.* 2011). In the control treatment, 434
the relative abundance of both *Pseudomonas* and *Brochothrix* increased significantly 435
compared to the baseline and other treatments at day 5 (Figure S3). *Brochothrix* was partially 436
inhibited by FLK RPM treatment, with significantly lower relative abundance in the day 5 437
FLK treatment relative to the day 5 control (Figure S4). *Brochothrix* is a significant 438
contributor to the spoilage of cooked meat products (Nychas, *et al.* 2008) and aerobically 439
spoiled meat that has been stored under refrigerated conditions (Kilcher, *et al.* 2010; Russo, 440
et al. 2006). We observed that the relative abundance of *Brochothrix* was significantly lower 441
in the presence of nitrite and moderately so with FLK alone (Figure S5). However, the shift 442
in relative abundance of bacteria from the genus *Pseudomonas* was most strongly associated 443
with spoilage (*i.e.*, control treatment, day 5) in this study and in prior studies (Nychas, *et al.* 444
2008). The growth of *Pseudomonas* was inhibited in treatments containing nitrite, and with 445
FLK alone a moderate reduction was observed compared to the control treatments at day 5. 446
Other bacteria, such as those from the genera *Carnobacterium* and *Lactobacillus*, are 447
potential spoilers of poultry meat (Rouger, *et al.* 2017) but the relative abundance of these 448
two taxa was extremely low in this study, never exceeding 0.5% of the observed microbial 449
community in any sample. 450

3.4 Antimicrobial activity in inoculated minced turkey meat

Cultivation-independent microbiome analyses demonstrated that one of the main contributors to meat spoilage was *Pseudomonas* spp. Bacteria from the species *P. putida* are also often isolated from aerobically spoiled meat (Hyldgaard, *et al.* 2015; Doulgeraki, *et al.* 2012), even when stored at 4°C. Previous studies have shown that ϵ -Poly-L-lysine, a cationic peptide produced by *Streptomyces albulus*, has weak antimicrobial activity against *P. putida* when added to the meat alone. In our study we evaluated the antimicrobial activity of FLK (1.92 mM) against a representative food spoilage bacterial strain, *P. putida* KT2440, as part of a combined treatment with sodium nitrite (1.08mM) (Figure 7).

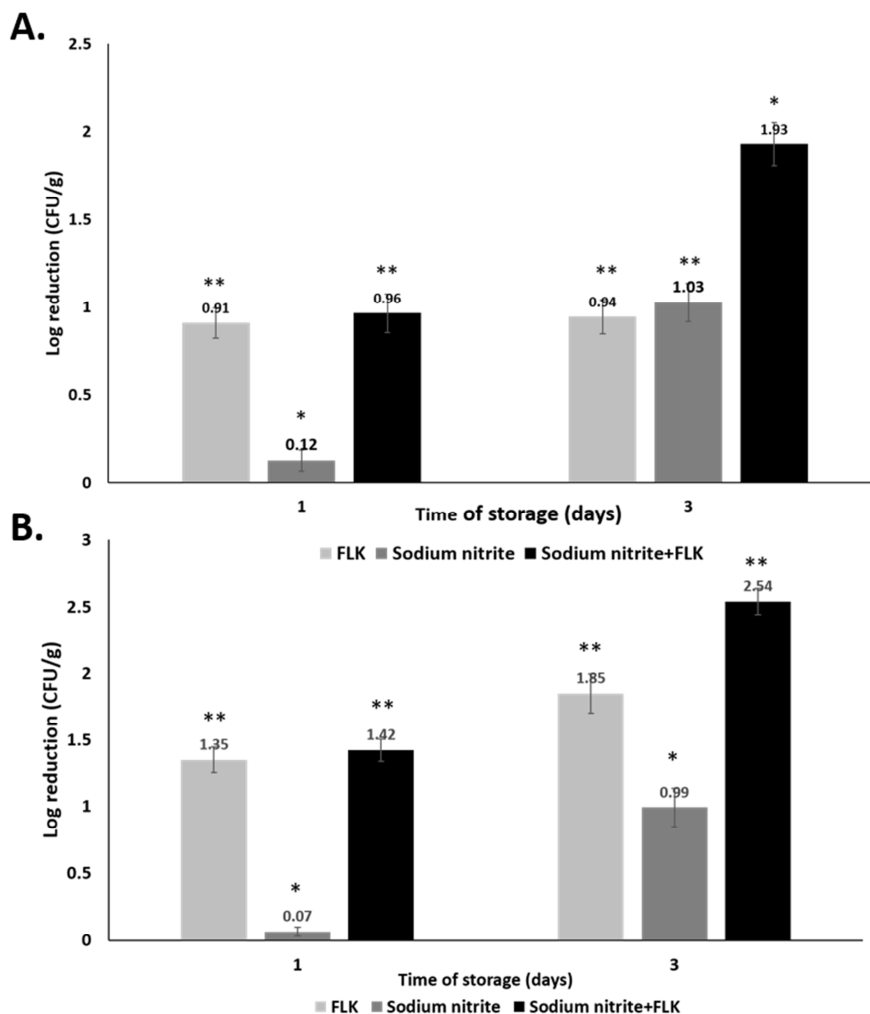


Figure 7: Antimicrobial activity of FLK (1.92 mM) and sodium nitrite (1.08 mM) alone and in combination against *P. putida* and *L. monocytogenes* in minced turkey meat stored at 4°C. The y-axis represents the decrease in total aerobic heterotrophic bacterial CFU/g between control and treatment samples (mean \pm SEM, n = 9). Initial microbial loads of (A) *P. putida* (10^4 CFU/mL) and (B) *L. monocytogenes* (10^4 CFU/mL) were used. Samples was diluted, plated and counted at time point 0, 1 and 3 days of storage (mean \pm SEM, n =9 for both bacteria inoculation). *,**p < 0.01 indicates a statistically significant difference between treatments at the day of measurement.

Due to their ability to proliferate at low temperature, bacterial strains in the control samples increased significantly during the storage period. Initial populations of $\sim 10^4$ CFU/g increased to approximately 10^6 CFU/g by the end of 3 days at 4°C in control treatments. When FLK was added to the inoculated meat, an approximate 0.9 log CFU/g reduction of *P. putida* was observed relative to the control after 3 days. A combination of FLK and sodium nitrite (1.08 mM) was found to be most effective for inhibition of bacterial growth, and compared to the control treatment, a combination of FLK and nitrite led to an approximately 1.9 log CFU/g reduction in cell numbers after 3 days of incubation, and this was significantly greater than for FLK or nitrite treatment alone (Figure 7A). Similar findings were observed for the foodborne pathogen *Listeria monocytogenes*, a Gram-positive pathogenic bacterium that has been associated with several outbreaks of foodborne disease over the past decade due in part to a wide temperature range for survival and growth (1–44°C) (Solomakos, *et al.* 2008; Farber and Peterkin 1991). This non-spore forming intracellular bacteria causes listeriosis, which can lead to septicemia, meningitis, gastroenteritis and fetal death. In meat incubated with *L. monocytogenes*, FLK alone led to a significant reduction in microbial growth, by a decrease of 1.85 CFU/g and was superior to nitrite alone (Figure 7B). However, a combination of FLK and sodium nitrite improved the antimicrobial effect against *L. monocytogenes* even after 5 days of storage (Figure 7B).

4. Conclusion

Bacteria in food can lead to its spoilage and is therefore a significant economic burden and a major public health concern to society. The use of preservatives is essential to mitigate spoilage but there are toxicity issues associated with current antimicrobial agents such as sodium nitrite. Therefore, there is a need to develop new bactericidal agents and food preservative regimens that are less toxic to humans. In this study, we evaluated the potential of antimicrobial RPMs as effective and less toxic food preservatives. Our findings reveal strong antimicrobial activity for 20-mer RPMs that consist of randomized combinations of the amino acids phenylalanine, leucine and lysine against multiple strains of spoilage bacteria. We also evaluated the antimicrobial activity of RPMs in combination with sodium nitrite. By using this approach, we were able to lower the concentration of nitrite required to suppress the spoilage of the meat and the growth of selected bacteria such as *P. putida* and *L. monocytogenes*.

Treating food products with antimicrobial agents can trigger microbiota shifts, as they have the potential to inhibit or even eliminate certain populations which can create new opportunities for the growth of other spoilage organisms or even pathogens. To address this concern, we performed non-targeted analysis of microbial community structure in meat samples incubated with and without antimicrobial compounds. We observed that microbial diversity in the control treatment after 5 days was significantly lower than the baseline diversity due to the growth of bacteria from the genera *Pseudomonas* and *Brochothrix*. However, the microbial diversity of the nitrite and nitrite/FLK treated meat was not significantly different from that of the baseline microbial diversity. In addition, community structure of nitrite and nitrite/FLK samples was comparable after five days of incubation, and most similar to the baseline community structure. Cultivation-based analyses determined that

a significant reduction in the absolute abundance of bacteria in meat treated with sodium 513
nitrite and/or RPMs had occurred. Our findings demonstrate the great potential of RPMs as 514
safe and effective food preservatives. Ultimately, their usage could lead to a significant 515
improvement in the economics of food production and better outcomes for human health. 516

Acknowledgements

 517

Y.P would like to thank Straus institute for research for awarding her MSc fellowship. We 518
would like to thank John Karas for editing and reviewing the manuscript. 519

References

 520

Abler, L. A., Klapes, I. N. A., Sheldon, I. B. W. and Klaenhammer, T. R., 1995. Inactivation 521
of Food-borne Pathogens with Magainin Peptides. *J Food Prot.* 58, 381-388. 522

Amso Z, Hayouka Z., 2019. Antimicrobial random peptide cocktails: a new approach to fight 523
pathogenic bacteria. *Chem Commun.* 55, 2007-2014. 524

Anderson, R.C., Wilkinson, B., Yu, P.M., 2004. Ovine antimicrobial peptides : New products 525
from an age-old industry Ovine antimicrobial peptides : new products from an age-old 526
industry. *Australian Journal of Agricultural Research.* 55, 69–75. 527

Aiyegoro, O. A., 2004. Microbial Contamination of Processed Meat. *Encyclopedia of Meat 528
Sciences.* 2, (Elsevier Ltd.). 529

Appendini, P. & Hotchkiss, J. H., 2000. Antimicrobial activity of a 14-residue synthetic 530
peptide against foodborne microorganisms. *J. Food Prot.* 63, 889–893. 531

Benson, A. K., David J.R.D., Gilbreth S.E., Smith G., Nietfeldt J., Legge R., Kim J., Sinha 532
R., Duncan C.E., Ma J., Singh I. 2014. Microbial successions are associated with changes in 533
chemical profiles of a model refrigerated fresh pork sausage during an 80-day shelf life study. 534
Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 80, 5178–5194, (2014). 535

- Böhme, K., Fernández-No1, I.C., Barros-Velázquez, j., Gallardo J.M., Cañas, B., and Calo- 536
Mata, P, 2012. Species Identification of Food Spoilage and Pathogenic Bacteria by MALDI- 537
TOF Mass Fingerprinting. *Food Qual.* 32, 29–46. 538
- Borch, E., Kant-Muermans, M. L. & Blixt, Y, 1996. Bacterial spoilage of meat and cured 539
meat products. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 33, 103–120. 540
- Brogden, K. A, 2005. Antimicrobial peptides: Pore formers or metabolic inhibitors in 541
bacteria? *Nature Reviews Microbiology.* 3, 238–250. 542
- Bybee, S. M., Bracken-Grissom, H., Haynes, B. D., Hermansen, R. A., Byers, R.L., Clement, 543
M.J., Udall, J.A., Wilcox, E. R., Crandall, K.A, 2011. Targeted amplicon sequencing (TAS): 544
A scalable next-gen approach to multilocus, multitaxa phylogenetics. *Genome Biol. Evol.* 3, 545
1312–1323. 546
- Cammack, R., Joannou, C.L., Cui, x.y., Torres Martinez, C., Maraj, S.R., Hughes M.N, 1999. 547
Nitrite and nitrosyl compounds in food preservation. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) –* 548
Bioenergetics, 1411, 475-488. 549
- Chou, S., Shao, C., Wang, J., Shan, A., Xu, L., Dong, N., Li Z. 2016. Short, multiple- 550
stranded β -hairpin peptides have antimicrobial potency with high selectivity and salt 551
resistance. *Acta Biomater.* 30, 78–93. 552
- Cleveland, J., Montville, T. J., Nes, I. F. & Chikindas, M. L. 2001. Bacteriocins : safe, natural 553
antimicrobials for food preservation. *International Journal of Food Microbiology.* 71, 1–20. 554
- Crosby, N. T. & Sawyer, R. 1976. N-Nitrosamines: A review of chemical and biological 555
properties and their estimation in foodstuffs. *Adv. Food Res.* 22, 1–71. 556
- Diamond, G., Beckloff, N., Weinberg, A. & Kisich, K. O. 2009. *NIH Public Access.* 15, 557
2377–2392. 558

- Dobson, A. J., Purves, J. & Rolff, J. 2014. Increased survival of experimentally evolved antimicrobial peptide-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* in an animal host. *Evol. Appl.* 7, 905–912.
- Dobson, A. J., Purves, J., Kamysz, W. & Rolff, J. 2013. Comparing Selection on *S. aureus* between Antimicrobial Peptides and Common Antibiotics. *PLoS One.* 8, e76521.
- Doulgeraki, A. I., Ercolini, D., Villani, F. & Nychas, G. E. 2012. Spoilage microbiota associated to the storage of raw meat in different conditions. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 157, 130–141.
- Farber J.M and Peterkin P.I. 1991. *Listeria monocytogenes* , a Food-Borne Pathogen. *Microbiol Rev.* 55, 476–511.
- Filippis, F. De, Parente, E. & Ercolini, D. 2018. Recent Past, Present, and Future of the Food Microbiome. *Annu Rev Food Sci Technol.* 9, 589-608.
- Govaris, A., Solomakos, N., Pexara, A. & Chatzopoulou, P. S. 2010. The antimicrobial effect of oregano essential oil, nisin and their combination against *Salmonella Enteritidis* in minced sheep meat during refrigerated storage. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 137, 175–180.
- Green, S. J., Venkatramanan, R. & Naqib, A. 2015. Deconstructing the polymerase chain reaction: Understanding and correcting bias associated with primer degeneracies and primer-template mismatches. *PLoS One.* 10, 1–21.
- Hancock R.E.W. 2001. Cationic peptides: effectors in innate immunity and novel antimicrobials. *The Lancet infectious diseases.* 1, 156-164.
- Hayouka, Z., Chakraborty, S., Liu R, Weisblum B, Gellman S. 2013. Interplay among subunit identity, subunit proportion, chain length, and stereochemistry in the activity profile of sequence-random peptide mixtures. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 135, 11748–11751.

- Honikel, K. O. 2008. The use and control of nitrite and nitrite for the processing of meat products. *Meat Sci.* 78, 68–76.
- Hyldgaard, M. Hyldgaard, M., Meyer, R. L., Peng, M., Hibberd, A. A., Fischer, Sigmundsson, A. J., Mygind, T. 2015. Binary combination of epsilon-poly-l-lysine and isoeugenol affect progression of spoilage microbiota in fresh turkey meat, and delay onset of spoilage in *Pseudomonas putida* challenged meat. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 215, 131–142.
- Kilcher, S., Loessner, M. J. & Klumpp, J. 2010. *Brochothrix thermosphacta* bacteriophages feature heterogeneous and highly mosaic genomes and utilize unique prophage insertion sites. *J. Bacteriol.* 192, 5441–5453.
- Kim, E. Y., Rajasekaran, G. & Shin, S. Y. 2017. LL-37-derived short antimicrobial peptide KR-12-a5 and its D-amino acid substituted analogs with cell selectivity, anti-biofilm activity, synergistic effect with conventional antibiotics, and anti-inflammatory activity. *Eur. J. Med. Chem.* 136, 428–441.
- Lamas, A., Miranda, J., Vázquez, B., Cepeda, A. & Franco, C. 2016. An Evaluation of Alternatives to Nitrites and Sulfites to Inhibit the Growth of *Salmonella enterica* and *Listeria monocytogenes* in Meat Products. *Foods.* 5, 74.
- Malheiros, S., Daroit, D. J. & Brandelli, A. 2010. Food applications of liposome-encapsulated antimicrobial peptides. *Trends in Food Science & Technology.* 21, 284-292.
- Marquette, A. & Bechinger, B. 2018. Biophysical Investigations Elucidating the Mechanisms of Action of Antimicrobial Peptides and Their Synergism. *Biomolecules.* 8, 18.
- Mayrhofer, S., Paulsen, P., Smulders, F. J. M. & Hilbert, F. 2004. Antimicrobial resistance profile of five major food-borne pathogens isolated from beef, pork and poultry. *Int J Food Microbiol.* 97, 23–29.

- McMindes, M. K. 1988. Nitrite mode of action: the inhibition of yeast pyruvate decarboxylase and clostridial pyruvate: ferredoxin oxidoreductase by nitric oxide and menadione. *Diss. Abstr. Int. B* 49, 2011.
- Habets, M.G, Rozen, D. E. & Brockhurst, M. A. 2012. Variation in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* susceptibility to human antimicrobial peptides may mediate intraspecific competition. *Proc Biol Sci.* 279, 3803–3811.
- Moonsamy, P. V., Williams, T., Bonella, P., Holcomb, C. L., Höglund, B. N., Hillman, G., Goodridge, D., Turenchalk, G. S., Blake, L. A., Daigle, D. A., Simen, B. B., Hamilton A. May, A.P., Erlich, H. A. 2013. High throughput HLA genotyping using 454 sequencing and the Fluidigm Access Array™ system for simplified amplicon library preparation. *Tissue Antigens.* 81, 141–149.
- Müller-Auffermann, K., Grijalva, F., Jacob, F. & Hutzler, M. 2015. Nisin and its usage in breweries: A review and discussion. *J. Inst. Brew.* 121, 309–319.
- Müller-Herbst, S., Wüstner, S., Kabisch, J., Pichner, R. & Scherer, S. 2016. Acidified nitrite inhibits proliferation of *Listeria monocytogenes* - Transcriptional analysis of a preservation method. *Int. J. Food. Microbiol.* 226, 33–41.
- Nakatsuji, T. & Gallo, R. L. 2012. Antimicrobial peptides: old molecules with new ideas. *J. Invest. Dermatol.* 132, 887–95.
- Naqib, A., Poggi, S., Wang, W., Hyde, M., Kunstman, K., Green, S. J. 2018. Making and sequencing heavily multiplexed, high-throughput 16S ribosomal RNA gene amplicon libraries using a flexible, two-stage PCR protocol. *Methods in Molecular Biology.* 1783, 149–169.

- Nychas, G. J. E., Skandamis, P. N., Tassou, C. C. & Koutsoumanis, K. P. 2008. Meat spoilage during distribution. *Meat Sci.* 78, 77–89. 627
628
- Perez, R., Perez, M. T. & Elegado, F. 2015. Bacteriocins from Lactic Acid Bacteria: A Review of Biosynthesis, Mode of Action, Fermentative Production, Uses, and Prospects. *Int. J. Philipp. Sci. Technol.* 8, 61–67. 629
630
631
- Perron, G. G., Zasloff, M. & Bell, G. 2006. Experimental evolution of resistance to an antimicrobial peptide. *Proc. Biol. Sci.* 273, 251–256. 632
633
- Pränting, M, Negrea, A., Rhen, M. and Andersson, D.I. 2008. Mechanism and Fitness Costs of PR-39 Resistance in *Salmonella Enterica* Serovar Typhimurium LT2. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 52, 2734–2741. 634
635
636
- Raimondi, S., Nappi, M. R., Sirangelo, T. M., Leonardi, A., Amaretti, A., Ulrici, A., Magnani, R., Montanari, C., Tabanelli, G., Gardini, F., Rossi, M. 2018. Bacterial community of industrial raw sausage packaged in modified atmosphere throughout the shelf life. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 280, 78–86. 637
638
639
640
- Rank, L.A., Walsh, N.M., Liu, R., Lim, F.Y., Bok, J.W., Huang, M., Keller, N.P., Gellman, S.H., Hull, C.M. 2017. A cationic polymer that shows high antifungal activity against diverse human pathogens. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 61, e00204-17. 641
642
643
- Rathinakumar, R., Walkenhorst, W. F. & Wimley, W. C. 2009. Broad-Spectrum Antimicrobial Peptides by Rational Combinatorial Design and High-Throughput Screening : The Importance of Interfacial Activity. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 131, 7609-17. 644
645
646
- Rouger, A., Tresse, O. & Zagorec, M. 2017. Bacterial Contaminants of Poultry Meat: Sources, Species, and Dynamics. *Microorganisms.* 5, 50. 647
648

- Russo, F., Ercolini, D., Mauriello, G. & Villani, F. 2006. Behaviour of *Brochothrix* 649
thermosphacta in presence of other meat spoilage microbial groups. *Food Microbiol.* 23, 650
797–802. 651
- Rydlo, T., Miltz, J. & Mor, A. 2006. Eukaryotic antimicrobial peptides: Promises and 652
premises in food safety. *J. Food Sci.* 71, R125 - R135. 653
- Solomakos, N., Govaris, A., Koidis, P. & Botsoglou, N. 2008. The antimicrobial effect of 654
thyme essential oil, nisin, and their combination against *Listeria monocytogenes* in minced 655
beef during refrigerated storage. *Food Microbiology.* 25, 120–127. 656
- Stieglmeier, M. Wirth, R., Kminek, G., Moissl-Eichinger, C. 2009. Cultivation of Anaerobic 657
and Facultatively Anaerobic Bacteria from Spacecraft-Associated Clean Rooms. *Appl* 658
Environ Microbiol. 75, 3484-91. 659
- Stern, T., Zelinger, E. & Hayouka, Z. 2016. Random peptide mixtures inhibit and eradicate 660
methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms. *Chem. Commun.* 52, 7102–7105. 661
- Thomas, F., Hehemann, J. H., Rebuffet, E., Czejek, M. & Michel, G. 2011. Environmental 662
and gut Bacteroidetes: The food connection. *Front. Microbiol.* 2, 1–16. 663
- Tompkin R.B., Christiansen, L. N. & Shaparis, A. B. 1978. The effect of iron on botulinal 664
inhibition in perishable canned cured meat. *Int. J. Food Sci. Technol.* 13, 521–527. 665
- Topman, S., Tamir-Ariel, D., Bochnic-Tamir, H., Stern Bauer, T., Shafir, S. Burdman, S. 666
Hayouka, Z. 2018. Random peptide mixtures as new crop protection agents. *Microb.* 667
Biotechnol. 11, 1027-1036. 668
- William C. Wimley and Kalina Hristova. 2011. Antimicrobial Peptides: successes, challenges 669
and unanswered questions. *J Membr Biol.* 239, 27–34. 670
671

Highlights:

- Random peptide mixtures, composed of Phenylalanine:Leucine:Lysine (FLK) showed broad and strong antimicrobial activity.
- Addition of random antimicrobial peptide mixtures (FLK) to turkey minced meat led to significant reductions in bacterial abundance in experimental tests.
- Random antimicrobial peptide mixtures (FLK) showed high synergistic activity when were combined with sodium nitrite to reduce bacterial loads.
- Sodium Nitrite required concentration was dramatically reduced to prevent toxic effect.
- Using high-throughput 16S ribosomal RNA gene amplicon sequencing, we showed strong antimicrobial activity for random antimicrobial peptide mixtures against spoilage bacteria in meat.
- Random antimicrobial peptide mixtures have great potential as safer preservatives for reducing spoilage in meat and other food products.