1	Campylobacter prevalence and risk factors in poultry slaughterhouses in Spain
2	following the EU criteria
3	*S. Sevilla-Navarro, †C. Marin, *V. Cortes, *C. Garcia, *†P. Catala-Gregori
4	
5	*Centro de Calidad Avícola y Alimentación Animal de la Comunidad Valenciana (CECAV), Castellón, Spain
6 7	[†] Instituto de Ciencias Biomédicas. Universidad Cardenal Herrera-CEU, CEU Universities, Valencia, Spain.
8	Corresponding author: s.sevilla@cecav.org
9	

ABSTRACT

- Background: Campylobacter is the main pathogen involved in zoonotic gastrointestinal
- diseases. Last year, the European regulation 2017/1495 on Campylobacter in broiler
- carcasses came into force. In this context, the aim of this study was to assess the potential
- 14 risk factors associated with exceeding the 1,000 CFU/g criterion set by the European
- 15 Commission in several slaughterhouses in Spain.
- Methods: Information relating to 12 factors were collected using questionnaires. Samples
- were collected from 12 Spanish abattoirs during June, July and August 2017 (n=1,725)
- and were analysed following ISO/TS 10272-2:2006 method.
- 19 Results: The proportion of Campylobacter-positive samples was 23.7% (n=409).
- 20 Analysis of the flock age (41-50 days) revealed a significantly increased OR in
- 21 Campylobacter enumeration (OR=7.41). Moreover, scalding temperature (51.9.54 °C)
- 22 was positively associated with an increase in OR (OR=2.75). Time in transit to slaughter
- 23 (1-1.5h), showed a significant OR decrease (OR=0.25). However, when processed for
- 24 more than 2 hours, presented an increase in OR (OR=4.44). Regarding carcass weight,
- 25 the range from 3.21-3.58 presented a decrease in OR (OR=0.01).
- 26 Conclusion: The outcomes of this study suggest that although most chickens are
- 27 contaminated by the bacterium, the prevalence that exceeds the limit of 1,000 CFU/ is not
- 28 so high as we thought.
- 29 **Key words**: *Campylobacter*, poultry, slaughterhouse, quantitative, risk factor

INTRODUCTION

31	Campylobacter is the main bacterial cause of human gastroenteritis in most industrialised
32	countries and has been since 2005 [1-3]. In 2017, campylobacteriosis was the most
33	commonly reported zoonosis, representing almost 70% of all cases [4]. The European
34	Surveillance System described 246,158 confirmed cases of human campylobacteriosis in
35	EU. However, their severity in terms of reported case fatality was low (0.04%) [4].
36	Consuming undercooked poultry meat and cross-contamination due to a lack of hygiene
37	conditions are the main sources of campylobacteriosis outbreaks. Several studies have
38	shown Campylobacter prevalence in poultry carcasses. Lawes et al. (2012) observed that
39	70% of poultry carcasses in the UK were contaminated with the bacterium [5]. Moreover,
40	a qualitative cross-contamination study showed that Campylobacter was easily
41	transferred from raw chicken products to cutting boards, plates and particularly to hands
42	[6].
43	To lower the risk of human infection, in the drive to reduce the number of flocks colonised
44	with this bacterium most studies have focused on rearing at poultry farm level [7-9].
45	Nevertheless, the epidemiology of Campylobacter in poultry production is still not fully
46	understood, making it difficult to control [10].
47	In this context, biosecurity plans, immunity and nutritional strategies have been studied.
48	However, none of these measures has managed to reduce Campylobacter prevalence to
49	acceptable levels [11].
50	Even though Campylobacter is the main pathogen involved in zoonotic gastrointestinal
51	diseases, there is no national or European control programme at farm level, in contrast to
52	Salmonella, probably due to the incomplete knowledge of Campylobacter epidemiology.
53	In this regard, legislators have been working to limit Campylobacter presence in broiler
54	carcasses. To this end, earlier this year, European regulation 2017/1495 on

55 Campylobacter in broiler carcasses came into force. Under this new European regulation, 56 neck skin from broiler carcasses at the slaughterhouse must be analysed for 57 Campylobacter after chilling with the microbiological criterion of maximum 1,000 58 CFU/g (colony form units/per gram) [12]. 59 It has been suggested that the pre-slaughter handling and transport of broiler chickens are 60 important stress factors for bacteria shedding [13]. Poultry carcasses could be 61 contaminated with the bacterium due to splashing of intestinal contents during the 62 slaughtering process. Mainly the stages of scalding, de-feathering and evisceration could 63 increase the contamination of carcasses [14,15], representing critical points where the 64 Campylobacter counts can be reduced. In this context, the aim of this study was to assess the potential risk factors associated 65 66 with exceeding the 1,000 CFU/g criterion set by the European Commission in several 67 slaughterhouses in Spain.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

69 Study sample

68

75

This study was carried out on 12 Spanish commercial broiler poultry processing plants which slaughter close to 20% of the chickens reared in Spain. The processing line was operating under standard commercial conditions. Over three months (from June to August 2017), three visits were made to each processing plant, with a total of 36 visits. At each visit, the first and the last flock processed were sampled in order to assess cross-

contamination. Characteristics of the slaughterhouses are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Characteristics of each slaughterhouse.

Variable	Slaughterhouse											
Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Number of animals slaughtered (total)	10,001- 30,000	1,000- 30,000	1,000- 10,000	1,000- 10,000	20,001- 30,000	1.000- 10.000	30,000- 40,000	80,001- 100,000	20,001- 30,000	10,001- 30,000	80,001- 100,000	1000- 10,000
Flock size animals	4,001- 5,000	4,001- 5,000	500-2,500	1,001- 2,000	2501-6500	500-6,500	2501-6500	4,501-8550	4501-8550	500-8500	2501-6500	500- 2,500
Slaughter age	41-50	41-50	71-80	71-100	41-50	41-60	30-50	30-50	30-60	30-50	30-60	81-90
Scalding temperature (°C)	48-51.8	48-51.8	48-51.8	48-51.8	48-51.8	48-54	48-54	51.9-54	48-54	48-54	51.8-54	48-51.8
Amount of chlorine (ppm)	0-0.5	0-0.5	0.5	0.5	0.51-0.95	0.51-0.95	0.51-0.95	0.51-0.95	0-0.95	0-0.5	0-0.5	0-0.5
Conservation temperature (°C)	≤0	≤0	≤0	≤0	>0	>0	>0	≤0	>0	>0	>0	≤0
Chilling time (min)	60-100	151-200	>300	251->300	60-100	60-300	101-150	101-150	101-150	60-100	201-250	60-100
Time in transit to slaughter (h)	1.6-2	1-1.5	1.6->2	1-1.5	<1	1-2	1-1.5	<1-1.5	<1-2	<1->2	<1	1-1.5
Carcass weight (kg)	1-3	2.51-3	>3	>3	2.01-3	2.01-3	1-3	1-3	2.01->3	1-2.5	2.51->3	>3

Sampling during slaughtering

From each studied flock, samples were collected at five selected stages of the processing line (after scalding, after de-feathering, after eviscerating, after washing and after chilling) to determine the degree of *Campylobacter* contamination in the carcasses throughout the processing line (figure 1). In each stage, five carcasses were collected (25 carcasses per flock), which means 50 carcasses per sampling session, 25 from the first flock and 25 from the last flock. All samples were transported under cold storage conditions and analysed within 24h.

Carcass sampling

Sampling of carcasses was carried out by collecting neck skin with aseptic conditions and placing them in an individual sterile bag (Seward, Worthing, UK). Neck skin samples were obtained from each carcass by removing a strip of neck skin (25g) with a sterile scalpel and tweezers. Samples were transported to the laboratory on the same day of sampling. Each individual skin sample was placed in a sterile bag and diluted at 1:10 vol/vol Buffered Peptone Water (BPW, Scharlau®, Barcelona, Spain). The mix was homogenised by stomaching at 230 rpm for 120 seconds (Stomacher®400 circulator, Seward Ltd., Worthing, UK). Then, 1 ml of the homogenate was used for *Campylobacter* enumeration.

Campylobacter enumeration

Neck skin homogenates were analysed according to the ISO/TS 10272-2:2017, the horizontal method for the enumeration of *Campylobacter* in food and feed stuffs [16]. For detection purposes, serial dilutions were prepared in BPW and a 0.1 mL drop from each inoculum was plated onto mCCDA (Modified Charcoal Cefoperazone Deoxycholate

Agar, Oxoid, Dardilly, France). The samples were then incubated at $41.5 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C in a microaerobic atmosphere (84% N₂, 10% CO₂, 6% O₂) for 44 ± 4 hours. Five *Campylobacter*-like colonies were plated in Columbia blood agar (AES Laboratories®, Bruz Cedex, France) for further characterisation. Colony morphology and motility were evaluated under dark field microscopy. Confirmation of the suspicious colonies was performed by oxidase and catalase tests and plating at different temperatures and atmospheres (41.5 °C under microaerophilic conditions and 25 °C under aerobic conditions) onto Columbia blood agar (AES Laboratories®, Bruz Cedex, France).

Study critical points

Every sampling was accompanied by a questionnaire that included the information on the slaughterhouse, month of sacrifice, position of the batch in the daily slaughter schedule, processing stage at sampling, total number of animals slaughtered, flock size, age of animals at slaughter, scalding temperature, amount of chlorine, chilling time and conservation temperature, time in transit to slaughter and carcass weight. The variable levels studied are represented in Table 2.

Table 2. Number of variables assessed during the sampling period.

Variable	Level	Reference		
	1			
	2			
	3			
	4			
	5			
Claration and	6	1 (2012)		
Slaughterhouse	7	Lawes et al. (2012)		
	8			
	9			
	10			
	11			
	12			
	June			
Month	July	Lawes et al. (2012)		
	August	, ,		
B . I	1 st	1. (2010)		
Batch position	$2^{\rm nd}$	Hue et al. (2010)		
	After scalding			
	After de-feathering			
	After eviscerating	Guerin et al. (2010)		
Processing stages	After washing	(2010)		
	After chilling			
	1,000-10,000			
	10,001-20,000			
Number of animals	20,001-30,000			
slaughtered (total)	30,001-40,000			
shaughterea (total)	40,001-80,000			
	80,001-100,000			
	500-2,500			
	2,501-4,500			
Flock Size (animals)	4,501-6,500	Näther et al. (2009)		
	6,501-8,550			
	30-40			
Slaughter age (days)	41-50	Näther et al. (2009)		
Sinugities age (days)	51-100	1 (2007)		
	48-51.8			
Scalding temperature (°C)	51.9-54	Hue et al. (2010)		
	0-0.5			
Amount of chlorine (ppm)	0.51-0.95	Vinueza-Burgos et al. (2017)		
~	<u> </u>			
Conservation temperature (°C)	>0	Hue et al. (2010)		
	60-100			
Chilling time (min)	101-150	Hue et al. (2010)		
()	151-360	(2010)		
	<1			
	-			
Time in transit to slaughter (h)	1-1.5			
Time in transit to slaughter (h)	1-1.5 1.6-2			
Time in transit to slaughter (h)	1.6-2			
Time in transit to slaughter (h) Carcass weight (kg)				

Statistical analysis

122

123 Differences in Campylobacter contamination levels at slaughterhouses and processing 124 stages (after scalding, after de-feathering, after eviscerating, after washing and after 125 chilling) were assessed by the Chi-square test (at 95% CI and p<0.05). 126 The binary outcome was created to investigate slaughterhouse level factors associated 127 with the presence of Campylobacter (1 if the sample exceeded the criterion of 1,000 128 CFU/g and 0 if Campylobacter enumeration was below 1,000 CFU/g). Multivariable mix-129 effect logistic regression was conducted to identify factors associated with 130 slaughterhouses, reporting the odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). 131 Slaughterhouse was included as a random effect in all analyses. A total of 12 exposure 132 variables (listed in Table 1) were evaluated as fixed effects in univariable analyses. 133 Variables with a univariable p-value of <0.10 were considered for inclusion in a 134 multivariable model, which was built using a forward stepwise approach. A separate 135 analysis was also conducted to investigate risk factors associated with Campylobacter on 136 carcasses after chilling. A total of 11 exposure variables (listed in Table 1, with the 137 exception of processing stages) were evaluated as fixed effects in univariable analyses. 138 As previously, variables with a univariable p-value of <0.10 were considered for inclusion 139 in a multivariable model, which was built using a forward stepwise approach. Models 140 were run using Stata 13 (College Station, Texas, USA) and the 'xtmelogit' command.

141

142

143

144

145

146

RESULTS

Samples that exceeded the 1,000 CFU/g criterion during slaughtering

During the study, a total of 1,725 samples were collected from the processing line of 12 different slaughterhouses for *Campylobacter* enumeration. Seventy-five samples from 1 slaughter were discarded due to sampling conditions. Of this amount (n=1,725), the

23.7% (n = 409) exceeded the 1,000 CFU/g criterion. Statistical differences were shown in *Campylobacter* counts according to different processing stages (after scalding, after de-feathering, after eviscerating, after washing and after chilling) and the different slaughterhouse studied (Figure 2 and 3). Concerning sampling at each processing stage, the higher counts were shown after the evisceration stage, where 29% of samples exceeded the limit of 1,000 CFU/g (n = 100/345) and the lowest one after chilling stage (19.1%, n = 66/345) (Figure 2).

In terms of critical points, significant differences were found in the processing phases, as the stages after washing and after chilling showed a decrease in the OR (OR = 0.63, P =0.031 and OR = 0.58, P = 0.013, respectively). The total animals slaughtered ranging from 10,001-20,000 showed an increase in the OR (OR = 2.5, P = 0.010). However, those ranging from 30,001-40,000 presented a decrease in the OR (OR = 0.08, P = 0.000). Moreover, significant differences were found in the flock size, with the 6,501-8,500 range presenting the decreased OR (OR = 0.04; P = 0.000). The age of conventional birds (41-50 days) was positively associated with a higher Campylobacter count (OR = 2.37, P =0.000). With reference to scalding temperatures, the 51.9-54°C range showed an OR increase (OR = 3.99, P = 0.000). Moreover, *Campylobacter* was isolated more in samples chilled at temperatures above 0° C (OR = 4.82, P = 0.000). In addition, the chilling time range between 101-150 presented an increased OR (OR = 2.00, P = 0.000). Transit time to slaughter of more than 1 hour presented a significant increase in the OR (1-1.5 h; OR = 3.20, P = 0.000), (1.6-2 h; OR = 13.34, P = 0.000) and (>2 h; OR = 5.91, P = 0.000). With respect to the weight of carcasses (3.21-3.58 kg), the range presented a significant decrease in the OR (OR = 0.32, P = 0.003) (Table 3).

1	73
1	74
1	75

172

Variable	Level	Odds ratio	P-value	95% CI
	After scalding	Ref.		
	After de-feathering	0.88	0.547	0.59-1.31
Processing stages	After eviscerating	1.21	0.328	0.82-1.77
	After washing	0.63	0.031	0.42-0.95
	After chilling	0.58	0.013	0.39-0.89
	1,000-10,000	Ref.		
	10,001-20,000	2.54	0.010	1.25-5.19
Number of animals slaughtered	20,001-30,000	1.66	0.074	0.95-2.89
(total)	30,001-40,000	0.08	0.000	0.03-0.20
	40,001-80,000	0.51	0.226	0.17-1.51
	80,001-100,000	0.71	0.457	0.28-1.74
	500-2,500	Ref.		
Flock Size (animals)	2,501-4,500	0.19	0.000	0.10-0.35
Flock Size (allillais)	4,501-6,500	0.24	0.000	0.13-0.44
	6,501-8,550	0.04	0.000	0.01-0.11
	30-40	Ref.		
Slaughter age (days)	41-50	2.37	0.000	1.46-3.85
	51-100	1.15	0.747	0.47-2.84
Scalding temperature (°C)	48-51.8	Ref.		
scalding temperature (c)	51.9-54	3.99	0.000	2.59-6.16
Conservation temperature (°C)	≤0	Ref.		
conscivation temperature (C)	>0	4.82	0.000	2.87-8.09
	60-100	Ref.		
Chilling time (min)	101-150	2.00	0.000	1.47-2.71
	151-360	1.00	0.999	0.67-1.49
	<1	Ref.		
Time in transit to slaughter (h)	1-1.5	3.20	0.000	1.81-5.63
Time in transit to staughter (ii)	1.6-2	13.34	0.000	6.04-29.44
	>2	5.91	0.000	2.96-11.81
	1-2,6	Ref.		
Carcass weight (kg)	2.61-3.2	0.50	0.000	0.35-0.71
	3.21-3.58	0.32	0.003	0.15-0.68

176 Ref.: Reference. CI: Confident Interval.

177

178

179

180

181

182

Samples that exceeded the 1,000 CFU/g criterion after chilling

Eleven variables were tested and four showed an association with the *Campylobacter* count during the univariable analysis after chilling. Findings from the mixed-effects between different critical points and the samples that exceeded the criterion of 1,000 CFU/g of *Campylobacter* after the chilling stage are summarised in Table 4. Analysis of the flock age revealed significantly increased OR in *Campylobacter* enumeration (OR = 7.41, $P = \frac{1}{2}$)

0.001). Similarly, scalding temperature (51.9.54 °C) was positively associated with an increase in the OR (OR = 2.75, P = 0.006). Examining the time in transit at slaughter there was a significant OR decrease in samples processed for more than 1-1.5 hours (OR = 0.042, P = 0.000). However, those processed for more than 2 hours presented an increase in the OR (OR = 4.44, P = 0.050). Regarding carcass weight, the range from 3.21-3.58 presented a decrease in the OR (OR = 0.01, P = 0.011).

Table 4. Final multivariate mixed-effect logistic regression of risk factors associated with exceeding the criterion of 1,000 CFU/g after the chilling stage. Slaughterhouse was included as random effect.

Variable	Level	Odds ratio	P-value	95% CI
	30-40	Ref.		
Slaughter age	41-50	7.41	0.001	2.19-25.02
	51-100	3.53	0.205	0.50-25.03
Sadding tomporature (°C)	48-51.8	Ref.		
Scalding temperature (°C)	51.9-54	2.75	0.006	1.68-22.98
	<1	Ref.		
Time in transit to slaughter (hours)	1-1.5	0.25	0.042	0.06-0.95
Time in transit to slaughter (nours)	1.6-2	0.68	0.687	0.10-4.34
	>2	4.44	0.050	0.99-19.75
	1-2,6	Ref.		
Carcass weight (kg)	2.61-3.2	0.22	0.003	0.08-0.61
	3.21-3.58	0.01	0.011	0.00 - 0.03

Ref.: Reference. CI: Confident Interval.

DISCUSSION

Campylobacteriosis is the main zoonotic gastrointestinal disease in the EU and Spain comes fourth in the list of countries reporting the majority of cases (18,860), after Germany, the United Kingdom and the Czech Republic [4]. *Campylobacter* colonises the poultry gut and the caecal contents of chicken and can contain extremely high *Campylobacter* counts (10⁹ CFU/g) [17]. Several authors have revealed that the evisceration process leads to a considerable increase in cross-contamination of

205 Campylobacter, especially as perforation of the intestines often cannot be avoided [18-206 201. 207 In this study, mCCDA medium was employed for Campylobacter counting, the medium 208 followed by the standard method [16]. However, it is a selective medium with low 209 discrimination of real Campylobacter, and for this reason the discrimination requires 210 trained and experienced personnel and time for confirmation tests (microscopic 211 observation, biochemical testing) [21]. Nevertheless, comparative studies with other 212 selective media such as CFA (Campy Food Agar), did not reveal statistically significant 213 differences between Campylobacter counts [21-22] 214 Our results showed an increased number of samples that exceeded the criterion of 1,000 215 CFU/g after evisceration stage, and a 34.5% decrease after the chilling stage. These 216 results are consistent with others published by Figueroa et al. (2009) and Guerin et al. 217 (2010), who observed a decrease of 26.6% and 17.5 %, respectively [21-22]. 218 In contrast, no statistical differences were found for the batch position (first and last) 219 within the same slaughter, but statistical differences were observed between the different 220 slaughterhouses. This suggests that Campylobacter presence in the carcasses might be 221 more associated with the origin of the batch than its position in the slaughter schedule. 222 Although the entry of positive animals could result in cross-contamination of the 223 slaughterhouse, it has been reported that only the two subsequent batches are 224 contaminated in a positive lot [23]. However, the microbiological status of the previous 225 batch was not considered in the present study. 226 227 After the chilling stage, the following risk factors identified were the age of the animals,

scalding temperature, time in transit to the slaughterhouse and the carcass weight. A

higher percentage of samples exceeded the criterion of 1,000 CFU/g in flocks sacrificed

228

between 41-50 days of age. Lawes et al. (2012) showed an increase in *Campylobacter* prevalence in animals slaughtered at 46 days of age [5]. Nevertheless, Hue et al. (2010) showed a high prevalence of *Campylobacter* in older ages (free-range or slow growth) [24]. Studies suggest that *Campylobacter* broiler colonisation starts at the age of 21 days (2-3 wks.) and there is a significant increase during the fattening period (from 40 days onwards) [8].

Concerning the scalding temperature, our results presented an increase in the OR when samples were scalded at 51.9-54°C. Procedures for *Campylobacter* control together with freezing have been shown to reduce the bacteria, although due to the pathogen's ability to survive in water, in aerosols and on equipment, cross-contamination can occur between batches, and carcasses free from *Campylobacter* can become contaminated after an infected batch of birds [23,26]. Regarding time in transit to slaughter, from 1-1.5 hours was associated with a decrease in *Campylobacter*. However, more than 2 hours tended to be associated with an increase in the *Campylobacter* presence. This could be due to the longer time the animals spent in the slaughterhouse, which may be insufficiently technically equipped and have less machinery (fewer plucking fingers, fewer showers and fewer evisceration devices). Therefore, more carcasses pass through the same machines, and more cross-contamination could occur between batches.

Regarding carcass weight, although higher levels of *Campylobacter* are reported when the animals are larger [27], in this case we found a protective factor when the animals weighed between 3.21-3.58 kg. However, other authors did not find differences between

the body weight and subsequent proliferation of the bacteria [28].

Campylobacter is a confirmed pathogen from gastrointestinal content in poultry. Measures taken so far have not managed to control the bacteria at field level, as once the chickens are colonised they remain so until slaughter [31]. Thus, its control has been regulated at the slaughterhouse. Previous studies reported that reducing Campylobacter prevalence by two logs at field level could lead to a 30-fold reduction in human campylobacteriosis [31,32]. After that, by following control strategies such as biosecurity measures at field level together with optimisation of technical and hygienic aspects of the slaughterhouse, Campylobacter counts in chicken could be reduced. Although some studies have reported a prevalence of 70% and 86% in broiler carcasses, the results of this study suggest that the prevalence that exceeds the limit of 1,000 CFU/g (limit of infection in humans) is low [5]. Nine of the twelve slaughterhouses analysed in the study met the criteria set out in the legislation (1,000 CFU/g; c=20; n=50). Direct comparison of these results to others reported is delicate and should be performed with caution due to the heterogeneity of the experimental design. To our best knowledge, this is the first study to examine the risk factor of Campylobacter at the slaughterhouse, taking the EU legislation into account.

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank the members of the Poultry Quality and Animal Feed Centre of the Valencia Region (CECAV) and members of the microbiology research group "Improvement of Food Safety related with the Production System and Final Products" (Veterinary Faculty, University CEU-Cardenal Herrera) for their technical support. Moreover, we would thank to Professor Francisco Marco Jiménez from the University Polytechnic of Valencia from his support in the development of this work. English text version revised by N. Macowan English Language Service.

279 **REFERENCES**

- 280 1. Duarte A, Santos A, Manageiro V, Martins A, Fraqueza MJ, Caniça M,
- Domingues FC, and Oleastro M. Human, food and animal Campylobacter spp.
- isolated in Portugal: High genetic diversity and antibiotic resistance rates. *Int J*
- 283 *Antimicrob Agents* 2014;(14):207-206.
- 284 2. Sarkar SR, Hossain MA, Paul SK, Ray NC, Sultana M, Rahman M, Islam A.
- 285 Campyobacteriosis an overview. *Med J* 2014;23(1):173-180.
- 286 3. Patrick ME, Gilbert MJ, Blaser MJ, Tauxe RV, Wagenaar JA, Fitzgerald C.
- 287 Human infections with new subspecies of Campylobacter fetus. *Emerg Infect Dis*
- 288 2013;19(10):1678-1680.
- 4. EFSA (European Food Safety Authority) and ECDC (European Centre for
- Disease Prevention and Control), 2018. The European Union summary report on
- trends and sources of zoonoses, zoonotic agents and food-borne outbreaks in
- 292 2017. EFSA Journal 2018;16(12):5500. DOI: 10.2903/j.efsa.2018.5500
- 5. Lawes JR, Vidal A, Clifton-Hadley FA, Sayers R, Rodgers J, Snow L, Evans SJ,
- 294 Powell LF. Investigation of prevalence and risk factors for Campylobacter in
- broiler flocks at slaughter: results from a UK survey. Epidemiol Infect
- 296 2012;140(10):1725-1737.
- 6. Pouillot R, Garin B, Ravaonindrina N, Diop K, Ratsitorahina M, Ramanantsoa D,
- 298 Rocourt J. A risk assessment of Campylobacteriosis and salmonellosis linked to
- 299 chicken meals prepared in households in Dakar, Senegal. Risk Anal
- 300 2012;32(10):1798-819.
- 301 7. Meunier, M, Guyard-Nicodeme M, Dory D, Chemaly M. Control strategies
- against *Campylobacter* at the poultry production level: biosecurity measures, feed
- additives and vaccination. J Appl Microbiol 2016;120:1139–1173.

- 8. Ingresa-Capaccioni S, Jiménez-Trigos E, Marco-Jiménez F, Catalá P, Vega S,
- Marin C. 2016. Campylobacter epidemiology from breeders to their progeny in
- 306 Easter Spain. *Poult Sci.* 2016;95(3):676-683.
- 9. Ingresa-Capaccioni S, González-Bodí S, Jiménez-Trigos E, Marco-Jiménez F,
- Catalá P, Vega S, Marín C. Comparison of different sampling types across the
- rearing period in broiler flocks for isolation of Campylobacter spp. *Poult Sci* 2015;
- 310 94: 766-761.
- 311 10. Cox N, Richardson ALJ, Maurer JJ, Berrang ME, Fedorka-Cray PJ, Buhr RJ, Byrd
- JA, Lee MD, Hofacre CL, O'Kane PM, Lammerding AM, Clark AG, Thayer SG,
- Doyle MP. Evidence for horizontal and vertical transmission in Campylobacter
- passage from hen to her progeny. *J Food Prot* 2012;75(10):1896-1902.
- 315 11. Newell DG, Elvers KT, Dopfer D, Hansson I, Jones P, James S, Gittins J, Stern
- NJ, Davies R, Connerton I, Pearson D, Salvat G, Allen VM. Biosecurity-Based
- Interventions and Strategies to Reduce Campylobacter spp. on Poultry
- Farms. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2011;77(24):8605–8614.
- 12. EC (European Commission). 2017. Commission Regulation (EU) 2017/1495 of
- 320 23 August 2017 amending Regulation (EC) No 2073/2005 as regards
- Campylobacter in broiler carcases. Official Journal of the European Union 2017;
- 322 L 218/1: 24.08.2017.
- 323 13. Althaus D, Zweifel C, Stephan R. Analysis of a poultry slaughter process:
- 324 Influence of process stages on the microbiological contamination of broiler
- 325 carcasses. *Ital J Food Saf* 2017;6(4): 7097.
- 326 14. Chokboonmongkol C, Patchanee P, Gölz G, Zessin KH, Alter T. Prevalence,
- quantitative load, and antimicrobial resistance of *Campylobacter* spp. from broiler
- ceca and broiler skin samples in Thailand. *Poult Sci* 2013;92(2):462-467.

- 329 15. Vinueza-Burgos C, Cevallos M, Cisneros M, Van Damme I, De Zutter L.
- Quantification of the Campylobacter contamination on broiler during the
- 331 slaughter of Campylobacter positive flocks in semi-industrialized
- slaughterhouses. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2017;269: 75-79.
- 16. ISO 10272-2. 2017. Microbiology of the food chain -Horizontal method for
- detection and enumeration of Campylobacter spp. Part 2: Colony-count technique.
- International Organization for Standardization, Geneve, Switzerland.
- 17. Thibodeau A, Fravalo P, Yergeau É, Arsenault J. Chicken Caecal Microbiome
- Modifications Induced by Campylobacter jejuni Colonization and by a Non-
- Antibiotic Feed Additive. *PLoS One* 2015;10(7):1–14.
- 18. Reiter MG, Fiorese ML, Moretto G, López MC, Jordano R. Prevalence of
- 340 Salmonella in a poultry slaughterhouse. *J Food Prot* 2007;70(7):1723-1725.
- 341 19. Elvers KT, Morris VK, Newell DG, Allen VM. Molecular tracking, through
- processing, of Campylobacter strains colonizing broiler flocks. Appl Environ
- 343 *Microbiol* 2011;77(16):5722-5729.
- 344 20. Santos FF, Aquino MH, Nascimento ER, Abreu DL, Gouvêa R, Rodrigues DP,
- Reis EM, Araújo MS, Pereira VL. Chicken feet bacteriological quality at 4 steps
- of technological processing. *Poult Sci* 2011;90(12):2864-2868.
- 21. Seliwiorstow T, Baré J, Verhaegen B, Uyttendaele M, de Zutter L. 2014.
- Evaluation of a new chromogenic medium for direct enumeration of
- Campylobacter in poultry meat samples. *J Food Prot* 2014;77(12):2111-2114.
- 350 22. Ugarte-Ruiz M, Gómez-Barreno S, Porrero MC, Alvarez J, García M, Comerón
- 351 MC, Wassenaar TM, Domínguez L. Evaluation of four protocols for the detection
- and isolation of thermophilic Campylobacter from different matrices. J Appl
- 353 *Microbiol.* 2012;11(3):200-208.

- 23. Figueroa G, Troncoso M, López C, Rivas P, Toro M. Occurrence and enumeration
- of Campylobacter spp. during the processing of Chilean broilers. *BMC Microbiol*
- 356 2009;9:94.
- 357 24. Guerin MT, Sir C, Sargeant JM, Waddell L, O'Connor AM, Wills RW, Bailey
- RH, Byrd JA. The change in prevalence of Campylobacter on chicken carcasses
- during processing: a systematic review. *Poult Sci* 2010;89(5):1070-1084.
- 360 25. Sasaki Y, Maruyama N, Zou B, Haruna M, Kusukawa M, Murakami M, Asai T,
- Tsujiyama Y, Yamada Y. Campylobacter cross-contamination of chicken
- products at an abattoir. *Zoonoses Public Health* 2013;60(2):134-140.
- 363 26. Hue O, Bouquin S, Laisney MJ, Allain V, Lalande F, Petetin I, Rouxe S, Quesne
- 364 S, Gloaguen PY, Picherot M, Santolini J, Salvat G, Bougeard S, Chemaly M.
- Prevalence of and risk factors for *Campylobacter* spp. contamination of broiler
- chicken carcasses at the slaughterhouse. *Food Microbiol* 2010;27:992-999.
- 27. Public Health England. 2018. A microbiological survey of Campylobacter
- 368 contamination in fresh whole UK-produced chilled chickens at retail sale. FSA
- 369 Project FS102121.
- 28. Gormley FJ, Bayley RA, Watson KA, McAdam J, Avendaño S, Stanley WA,
- Koerhuis ANM. Campylobacter colonization and proliferation in the broiler
- chicken upon natural field challenge is not affected by the bird growth rate or
- 373 breed. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 2014;8(21):6733–6738.
- 374 29. Nadeem NK, Castaño-Rodríguez N, Mitchell HM, Man SM. Global
- Epidemiology of Campylobacter Infection. Clin Microbiol Rev 2015;28(3):687-
- 376 720.
- 377 30. Rosenquist H, Boysen L, Krogh AL, Jensen AN, Nauta M. Campylobacter
- contamination and the relative risk of illness from organic broiler meat in

comparison with conventional broiler meat. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2013;162:226–
 230.