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3 Prevalence and quantification of thermophilic *Campylobacter* spp. In Italian retail poultry meat:

4 Analysis of influencing factors

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29 ABSTRACT

30 Retail poultry meat is a crucial vehicle for consumers' exposure to Campylobacters, but no official

31 controls are currently applied in Italy. The aim of this study was the evaluation of *Campylobacter*

32 contamination of a wide range of poultry meats marketed in Italy. N. 472 chicken and turkey meat

33 samples (sectioned meats, offal, meat preparations and products) were taken from
34 slaughterhouses, deboning plants and different retailers and submitted to detection/enumeration
35 of *Campylobacter* spp. The isolates were identified by phenotypic and biomolecular techniques.
36 *Campylobacter* spp. was detected in 34.1% of the samples, with general low counts. Higher values
37 were observed in offal (especially liver) and sectioned meats, with significantly higher rates in skin-
38 on samples (86.8% vs 32.7%). Minced meat preparations showed lower prevalence (22.4% vs 58.3%)
39 and counts than whole pieces. Decreasing rates were observed among slaughterhouses (80%),
40 deboning plants (49%), butcher's shops (37%) and large scale retailers (25%). Sectioned chicken
41 meats were significantly more contaminated than turkey meats.
42 Almost all the isolates were identified as *C. jejuni* or *C. coli*, with similar prevalences (18.4% and
43 20.5%, respectively); *C. jejuni* was predominant only in samples from slaughterhouses/deboning
44 plants. For setting future control programs, meat typology should be considered the main critical
45 factor.

46

47 Keywords: *Campylobacter*, Retail, Poultry meat, Italian market.

48

49 1. Introduction

50 Campylobacteriosis is by far the most common foodborne infection in the European Union, with
51 more than 200.000 confirmed human cases/year (EFSA-ECDC, 2015). Data from Italy show a lower
52 prevalence of human infections than other European countries, but it's known that the available
53 data are underestimated, due to underreporting of mild cases and to the absence of an official
54 monitoring programme.

55 The role of poultry as a reservoir for the transmission of *Campylobacter* to humans has already been
56 recognized, with 20-30% of the human infections linked to handling, preparation, and consumption
57 of broiler meat (EFSA, 2010b). It's known that the risk posed by poultry meat is strongly associated
58 to the presence of high *Campylobacter* loads rather than to its diffusion (EFSA, 2009, 2011; Nauta
59 et al., 2009), and guidelines supplied by EFSA for the harmonized control of Campylobacters in
60 poultry meat underline the importance of a quantitative approach (EFSA, 2008).

61 With the aim of assessing the exposure to the *Campylobacter* associated risk, the evaluation of
62 poultry meats at retail is critical, as they really enter the consumers' kitchens (Cook et al., 2012). It's
63 known that *Campylobacter* spp. is strongly affected by the environmental conditions, such as
64 oxidative stress, osmotic shock and drying, resulting in a gradual inactivation during production and

65 storage. So, also if a diffusion of the contamination due to cut and manipulation can happen, lower
66 positivity rates and after all lower counts are often detected at processing level or at retail than
67 earlier in the production chain (Berrang et al., 2001; Uyttendaele et al., 1999). On the other hand,
68 the modern, short processing chain, and the use of protective plastics and dark, moist and cool
69 storage contribute to *Campylobacter* survival, especially in large scale marketing (EFSA, 2009;
70 Harrison et al., 2001). So, high prevalences at retail (60-80%) are sometimes detected, and the
71 presence of some heavily contaminated ($>10^4$ CFU/g) meat cuts and preparations have been
72 reported by several authors (Humphrey et al., 2007; Suzuki and Yamamoto, 2009; Uyttendaele et
73 al., 2006). Significant differences can be detected among different typologies of poultry meat
74 available on the market, with a decreasing trend from whole carcasses to parts, especially when skin
75 is removed. Due to the inhibitory activity of additives and to the oxidative stress, low frequencies
76 and counts are reported for minced meat and meat preparations, while meat products are
77 considered substantially safe (Cook et al., 2012; Habib et al., 2008; Mena et al., 2008; Meldrum et
78 al., 2006; Uyttendaele et al., 1999, 2006). A particular case is represented by offals (especially livers),
79 that often carry high microbial numbers, leading in some cases to campylobacteriosis outbreaks
80 (Baumgartner et al., 1995; Little et al., 2010; Whyte et al., 2006). Considering the diffusion of
81 *Campylobacter* species, it's known that almost all the isolates coming from poultry meat in Europe
82 belong to *C. jejuni* and *C. coli*, with a general rate of 2/3 and 1/3 of the isolates, respectively, but
83 this ratio varies among countries, and tends to reach a 1/1 value in Southern Europe (EFSA, 2010a;
84 Suzuki and Yamamoto, 2009). Some data suggest the presence of a higher resistance of *C. coli* to
85 environmental conditions, resulting in a relatively higher prevalence of this species in processed
86 meats (Padungtod and Kaneene, 2005).

87 Official Italian data concerning the prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. on poultry meats at retail are
88 lacking; the last available studies indicate a variable situation (Nobile et al., 2013; Sammarco et al.,
89 2010). The aim of this study was to collect qualitative and quantitative data concerning the
90 contamination by thermophilic Campylobacters on a wide range of poultry meats marketed in Italy,
91 evaluating the main factors influencing their prevalence and loads.

92

93 2. Materials and methods

94 2.1. Samples selection and experimental design

95 A total of 472 chicken and turkey meat samples (353 samples of chicken meats, 83 of turkey meats
96 and 36 of mixed meats), including raw sectioned meats, meat preparations and products were

97 submitted to detection and enumeration of *Campylobacter* spp. The samples were obtained from
98 various slaughterhouses, deboning plants and retail sales, located in different Italian regions
99 (Lombardy, Veneto, Tuscany and Sicily) during the period September 2010-June 2013. All the
100 samples were portioned and packed for the retail market. The sampling plan is showed in Table 1.

101 2.2. Sampling and microbiological analyses

102 The samples were withdrawn on the day of preparation for sale/distribution. Each sample was put
103 into sterile stomacher bags (BagLight, Interscience, Saint Nom, F) and transferred to the
104 laboratories, where the analyses were performed within the same day.

105 For the detection of *Campylobacter* spp., the EN ISO 10272-1:2006 method was applied. As
106 requested by the ISO method, the inoculation of mCCDA agar plates (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK), was
107 combined with another method based on a different principle. The method described by Steele and
108 McDermott (1984), with some modifications, was chosen. An aliquot of 0.5 ml of the enrichment
109 broth was put onto 47 mm diameter, 0.45 mm pore size cellulose membrane filters (Sigma Aldrich
110 Italy, Milan, I) laid on the surface of non-selective blood agar plates (Columbia Agar base added with
111 5% of defibrinated sheep blood, Oxoid). The membranes were left for 45 min and then removed,
112 taking care to avoid the spilling of the broth; the filtered inoculum was spread on the surface by a
113 sterile 10 ml loop. The plates were then incubated at 42 C for 48 h. Typical colonies were isolated
114 by subculturing on Columbia-blood agar and submitted to further confirmation steps.

115 The enumeration of *Campylobacter* spp. in the samples was performed on mCCDA plates by the EN
116 ISO 10272-2:2006 method. For each sample, 5 colonies (when present) were picked, subcultured
117 on blood agar plates incubated 41,5 °C for 24-48 h in microaerobiosis and submitted to
118 confirmation/identification tests.

119 2.3. Identification of the isolates

120 For the identification of the isolates, further steps were performed.

121 Cells morphology and motility were evaluated by microscope observation (1000X magnification) of
122 a suspension of the isolates in 1 ml of Brucella broth (Oxoid); oxidase determination (Oxidase strips,
123 Oxoid) and Gram staining were also performed. The isolates were then subcultured in two series of
124 blood agar plates, one incubated at 41.5 °C for 44 ± 4 h in aerobiosis, and the other incubated at 25
125 °C for 44 ± 4 h in microaerobic atmosphere. For the provisional identification of the species, the
126 isolates showing the typical characteristics of thermophilic *Campylobacter* spp. (little curve Gram
127 negative rods with corkscrew motility, unable to grow in aerobiosis or at 25 C, oxidase positive) were
128 evaluated for the catalase activity and the susceptibility to cephalotin (30 µg) and nalidixic acid (30

129 µg) (Oxoid) by the disk diffusion method, and were submitted to the identification by API Campy kit
130 (bioMerieuxItalia, Bagno a Ripoli, I).

131 In the further identification step, the isolates were prepared, properly labelled and sent from each
132 research unit to a unique laboratory for the biomolecular identification. The strains were inoculated
133 onto blood agar plates and incubated at $41,5 \pm 1$ àC for 48 h in microaerobic conditions; bacterial
134 slime was recovered by a sterile swab, that was inserted into a tube of Amies transport medium
135 with charcoal (Oxoid). For DNA extraction, the strains were also inoculated in Brain Heart Infusion
136 broth (BHI, Oxoid) added with 5% of laked horse blood and 15% of glycerol, and stored at -80 C until
137 the analysis. For the identification of the genera (*Campylobacter*, *Helycobacter*, *Arcobacter*), a
138 simplex PCR-RFLP analysis of the 16S rRNA Gene was performed, following the method described
139 by Marshall et al. (1999). The isolates identified as *Campylobacter* spp. where then submitted to
140 species identification by a multiplex PCR method, as described by Wang et al. (2002).

141 2.4. Statistical analysis

142 All the data obtained from qualitative analyses were submitted to the frequency distribution
143 analysis (chi square test) considering the following factors: sample typology, supplier typology, meat
144 species and sampling season. The differences among the counts obtained considering the same
145 factors were also evaluated, using the SAS/stat package version 8.0 (SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, NC). A value
146 of $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

147

148 3. Results and discussion

149 3.1. Prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. in poultry meats

150 A total of 472 samples of chicken and turkey meat and products thereof were analyzed for the
151 presence of presumptive *Campylobacter* spp. The presence of these microorganisms was revealed
152 in 161 samples (34.1%). A comparison with previous Italian data was made: the most extensive data
153 set concerning the prevalence and count of *Campylobacter* spp. on poultry meat in Italy comes from
154 the EU base line survey (EFSA, 2010a), that evidenced a prevalence of 49.6% contaminated broiler
155 carcasses, with 12.5% hosting counts higher than 3 Log CFU/g. Considering the similar samples
156 analyzed in our study, that is sectioned meats with skin taken at the slaughterhouse, a higher
157 prevalence was obtained (more than 85%), but without high counts (see Table 2). These data can
158 be explained by the differences between the two sampling plans: at first, in the EU base line survey,
159 only whole carcasses were sampled, while in our study also cuts (wings, thighs, etc.) were analyzed,
160 with a likely contamination during cutting (by the equipments or workers' hands). Moreover, in this

161 study, the samples were taken just before the expedition to the retailers (in the EU survey samples
162 were taken just after chilling), with a longer exposition to low environmental temperatures, so
163 resulting in decreased counts.

164 The results coming from previous Italian studies performed on different poultry meats at retail, that
165 are easily comparable with our data, indicate a high prevalence of thermophilic campylobacters,
166 with very variable values (20-80%) (Nobile et al., 2013; Pezzotti et al., 2003; Parisi et al., 2007;
167 Sammarco et al., 2010; Zanetti et al., 1996). A possible decreasing trend was hypothesized by Nobile
168 et al. (2013), due to an increasing care for contamination of carcasses with the aim of reducing
169 *Salmonella* prevalence, but no official surveillance information is available in Italy. As stated by the
170 EFSA reports, to characterize the real risk for consumers, it is critical to consider the quantitative
171 data rather than the raw prevalence of Campylobacters (Nauta et al., 2009), as it is known that a
172 reduction of counts on poultry carcass surfaces could result in a significant reduction of human
173 campylobacteriosis cases (50% and 90% reduction with a threshold value of 1000 or 500 CFU/
174 g of skin, respectively) (EFSA, 2011). In this study, almost the 70% of samples with detectable counts
175 showed values lower than 1 Log CFU/g, that was the technical limit of the method; the percentage
176 rose to 86.8% and 97.1% considering a level lower than 2 and 3 Log CFU/g, respectively. These data
177 give a picture of a high probability of potential presence of *Campylobacter* in portioned meats that
178 can enter the kitchen, also if with a low risk of high counts due to undercooking/cross
179 contamination.

180 3.2. Influence of meat typology on the contamination rate

181 Due to the behaviour of Campylobacters, it is particularly important to consider the strong influence
182 of different production/ preparation methods on the survival of these microorganisms, leading to
183 different scenarios among the wide range of different poultry meats present on the market (whole,
184 minced, cooked, etc.).

185 The highest prevalence was detected in sectioned meats and offals, with about half of the samples
186 carrying *Campylobacter* spp. (Fig. 1). The rates observed in these two typologies of samples were
187 significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) than those observed in meat preparations (about 25% of prevalence)
188 and in meat products (only 4%). Quantitative data gave a similar trend, as the rate of samples with
189 a very low level of contamination (<1 Log CFU/g) was 58.5% and 88.5% for sectioned meats and
190 meat preparations, respectively (Fig. 2). These results confirm the decreasing trend of
191 *Campylobacter* prevalence along the production process, as these microorganisms are particularly
192 sensitive to environmental inactivating agents, such as oxidative stress and drying of meat. The

193 frequent contamination of offals was in agreement with the data obtained in other European
194 countries (Mackiw et al., 2011; Mena et al., 2008). No differences were observed in *Campylobacter*
195 spp. prevalence among combs (50%), gizzards (47,4%) and livers/hearts (50%), also if the number of
196 samples was too low to perform a statistical analysis. The quantitative data gave a variable picture:
197 a general low level of contamination was observed (almost 70% of the samples < 2 Log CFU/g, and
198 52.6% < 1 Log CFU/g), but the positive liver samples were evidently more contaminated than the
199 other typologies, with 4/4 counts > 3 Log CFU/g and a maximum value of 4.04 Log CFU/g. These
200 results agree with those of previous studies, showing an extremely high contamination rate of the
201 livers and the presence of samples with counts higher than 4 Log (Baumgartner et al., 1995; Whyte
202 et al., 2006). Also if its diffusion among consumers is lower than other frequently contaminated
203 poultry meats (e.g. sectioned cuts with skin), the liver is known as a potentially high risk source for
204 the consumer, due to the potential cross contamination in the kitchen or to the infrequent but
205 hazardous preparation of raw products like pates (Little et al., 2010).

206 Considering the sectioned meats, a significantly higher prevalence ($P < 0.01$) was observed in skin-
207 on meats (86.8%, 46/53 positive samples) than in skin-off samples, represented mainly by breasts
208 (32.7%, 34/104 positive samples). These data were expected, due to the contamination route of
209 *Campylobacter* spp. on poultry carcasses (mainly during scalding and defeathering operations), and
210 were confirmed by the quantitative results, showing a double rate of samples below 1 Log CFU/g in
211 skin-off meats (84.6 vs 41%). The decrease of the prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. in meat samples
212 without skin has been constantly reported, also if this difference is very variable (Baumgartner and
213 Felleisen, 2011; Cook et al., 2012; Uyttendaele et al., 1999). Also if the contamination of the cuts
214 without skin likely occurs during the sectioning activity, a smaller contamination extent, associated
215 to a lower survival ability on meat than on skin, often results in a complete inactivation of
216 *Campylobacters* on the surface (Berrang et al., 2001; Davis and Conner, 2007); thus, the absence of
217 skin can be considered an important factor for risk reduction. Among skin-on sectioned meats no
218 significant differences were observed in the different cuts such as wings, legs, thighs, drumsticks
219 and half carcasses. A higher contamination was observed in legs, thighs and wings (about 30% of
220 counts > 2 Log CFU/g) if compared to drumsticks (no samples > 2 Log); this slight difference could
221 be due to the position of the carcass at the slaughterhouse (head back hanged), but different results
222 were obtained by other authors (Habib et al., 2008). Among skin-off samples, a significantly higher
223 prevalence ($P < 0.05$) was observed in breast samples, both whole or sliced (45.2 and 46.4%,
224 respectively) towards the other typologies (stew and leg meat, with 10.5% and 19.2%, respectively).

225 Due to the lower preparation time and exposure to air, the whole breast samples showed higher
226 counts (all above 1 Log CFU/g) than sliced or pieced meats. The contamination of breasts is
227 particularly important for consumers, as this typology of meat is one of the most consumed and the
228 cross contamination in the kitchen likely occurs during preparation/slicing; for this reason, several
229 studies have been conducted showing a wide range of positivity rates (30-87%) and counts (until 4
230 Log CFU/g) (Habib et al., 2008; Hamedy et al., 2007; Luber and Bertelt, 2007). Considering meat
231 preparations, a significantly lower prevalence ($P < 0.01$) was revealed in samples produced with
232 minced meat (22.4%) than in those obtained from whole pieces (58.3%). As already supposed by
233 Suzuki and Yamamoto (2009) during grinding the wider exposition to the oxidative stress could
234 affect *Campylobacter* survival. As expected, a higher rate of very low counts (<1 Log CFU/g) was
235 detected in minced meat samples (92.7 vs 72.7%). This difference has been observed also in other
236 European studies, suggesting also the importance of the previous exposition to air of meat cuts prior
237 to grinding (Baumgartner and Felleisen, 2011; Habib et al., 2008; Mackiw et al., 2011; Mena et al.,
238 2008). No significant differences were detected among specific minced meat preparations, but a
239 higher rate was detected in hamburgers and sausages (about 20%) than in meat patties (12.5%),
240 produced with a larger amount of other ingredients.

241 Meat products showed a very low positivity rate; with only two positive rolled raw meat samples,
242 while all the thermally processed products (frankfurters) gave negative results. It is generally known
243 that meat products don't represent a real risk source for consumers, due to the thermal sensitivity
244 of *Campylobacter* spp. on the meat surface, with a D-value of 1 min at 60 C (Jacobs-Reitsma, 2000;
245 Mackiw et al., 2011).

246 3.3. Influence of the plant typology

247 Considering the general prevalence of thermophilic *Campylobacter* in the samples taken from
248 plants working in different production stages, the data evidenced a clearly higher positivity rate in
249 meats withdrawn at slaughterhouse (about 80%), presumably due to the lower time of exposure to
250 the environmental stresses; the rate decreased in samples from DP (49%) and retailers (37 and 25%
251 for BS and LSR, respectively). As the main factor influencing the contamination is the product
252 typology, the raw influence of the plant typology was statistically evaluated on samples that were
253 purchased in at least two different typologies. The data concerning the samples taken from the
254 different plant categories are shown in Table 2. Liver samples purchased at SL were evidently more
255 contaminated than those taken from LSR, considering both the positivity rate than the counts: all
256 the samples taken from slaughterhouse but one had counts above 3 Log CFU/g, while all the counts

257 of samples from LRS were lower than 1 Log CFU/g. For skin-on sectioned meats, the positivity rate
258 was very high for all the typologies of suppliers, but important differences in the counts were
259 obtained, with only 3/23 samples above 1 Log at slaughterhouse, 7/8 in deboning plants and 6/8 in
260 large scale retails. The difference among the suppliers was more marked in skin-off sectioned meats,
261 as a strong decrease in the positivity rate was observed following the production chain; counts
262 higher than 1 Log were detected only in samples from the slaughterhouses. It was thus evidenced
263 the importance of marketing/exposition time on the contamination during the first post-
264 slaughtering phases; in order to investigate this aspect, the data obtained from sectioned meats
265 samples taken at the slaughterhouses were divided considering the interval (0, 1, 2, 3 days) between
266 slaughtering and distribution. The positivity rate was extremely high during the first two days (mean
267 value of 96%), while it decreased significantly ($P < 0.01$) in samples packaged 3 or more days after
268 slaughtering (40%). No significant differences were revealed among the counts, with similar median
269 values (1e2 Log CFU/g), but a higher rate of values above 2 Log CFU/g in meats distributed 0-1 days
270 after slaughtering was detected (36.7% vs 8.3%).

271 Considering whole meat preparations, a higher positivity rate was observed for BS than for LSR,
272 without differences in quantitative data; in minced meat preparations, very similar results were
273 observed both for positivity rate and counts between BS and LSR. Data from other studies gave
274 controversial results, in particular regarding the differences between traditional shops and large
275 scale retails, due to different marketing conditions (exposure time, manipulation practices, ecc.)
276 (Harrison et al., 2001; Meldrum et al., 2006).

277 3.4. Influence of meat species and 3.4. Influence of meat species and sampling season

278 A comparison between chicken and turkey meats was made for minced meat preparations and skin-
279 on sectioned meats; the positivity rate in chicken samples was significantly higher ($P < 0.05$), for
280 both sectioned meats (40.0 vs. 21.1%) and minced meat preparations (23.4 vs. 14.0%). Similar
281 results were obtained by other authors, in particular for skin-on meats (Korsak et al., 2015; Moran
282 et al., 2009; Uyttendaele et al., 1999; Whyte et al., 2004). As the prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp.
283 in broiler population is known to be lower than in turkeys (EFSA-ECDC, 2015), the higher positivity
284 rate in chicken meats can be due to the slaughtering process, linked to a higher animal density (e.g.
285 during transport, scalding or defeathering, evisceration) and to the different methods applied, for
286 example during stunning (as the water bath for electronarcosis is still often used only for broilers),
287 and scalding. In particular, “hard scalding” at temperatures around 60 °C is mainly applied on heavy
288 animals such as turkeys (Zhuang et al., 2013), causing an important decrease in *Campylobacter*

289 numbers in the scalding water (Oosterom et al., 1983), thus resulting in a lower contamination of
290 the carcasses. Some authors hypothesized also a lower tendency of turkey skin to harbour
291 microorganisms than the chicken one, due to its smoother surface (Acuff et al., 1986).

292 Considering the trend of positivity rate among the sampling seasons, significantly higher rates in
293 summer/spring were evidenced in minced meat preparations (Table 3), also if the counts were
294 substantially similar. No differences were revealed for skin-on sectioned meats, as extremely high
295 rates were constant; in skin-off samples, slight differences were revealed with higher rates in
296 summer, but without a clear trend. A seasonality in the prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. in broiler
297 carcasses was observed in Italy by Manfreda et al. (2006), but the climatic influence is evidently
298 more marked in Northern European countries (Boysen et al., 2011; EFSA, 2010a). The peak in the
299 warm season, evidenced in broiler meats, is known to occur parallel to the peak of human
300 campylobacteriosis cases, also if the link has not been completely cleared and the influence of
301 common environmental factors was suggested (Jore et al., 2010; Meldrum et al., 2005).

302 3.5. Diffusion of *Campylobacter* species

303 A total of 367 provisional *Campylobacter* spp. isolates were submitted to multiplex PCR; for 357
304 isolates, a successful species identification was obtained. Almost all the strains (about 99%)
305 belonged to the species *C. jejuni*/*C. coli*, while only 3 isolates were identified as *C. lari* and one as *C.*
306 *mucosalis*. These data agree with previous observations, showing the very high relative frequency
307 of the two main species in industrialized countries (Williams and Oyarzabal, 2012). The relative
308 prevalences among the identified isolates were very similar, with a small predominance of *C. coli*
309 (186 isolates, 52.1%) if compared to *C. jejuni* (167 isolates, 46.8%). Previous results obtained from
310 Italian retail meat samples showed a higher frequency of *C. jejuni* (Pezzotti et al., 2003; Sammarco
311 et al., 2010; Nobile et al., 2013), but, as in our case, the difference was not very evident. Data from
312 other European countries show the effect of latitude on the relative frequency of the two species,
313 with a marked preponderance of *C. jejuni* in Northern Europe (up to 100% on carcasses in the Baltic
314 countries and 70e85% of positive retail samples in northwestern Europe), and a gradual increase of
315 *C. coli* prevalence going South, reaching an equal distribution in Mediterranean countries (EFSA,
316 2010a; Habib et al., 2008; Moran et al., 2009; Whyte et al., 2004).

317 The contamination rates of *C. jejuni* and *C. coli* in the samples that gave positive results are reported
318 in Table 4. Considering the whole set of data, a higher prevalence was observed for *C. coli* (58.4%)
319 than for *C. jejuni* (57.1%), without statistically significant differences.

320 The picture obtained from the different typologies of meat samples was variable: *C. coli* was
321 significantly more frequently isolated than *C. jejuni* in offal samples (mainly livers), while in the other
322 typologies (sectioned meats and meat preparations) the isolation rates of the two species were very
323 similar. Considering only the sectioned meat samples taken at the slaughterhouse, no influence of
324 the duration of the slaughtering-sampling interval was detected. For meat products, no comparison
325 were made due to the very little number of identified isolates (only one *C. jejuni* and one *C. coli*). A
326 greater ability of *C. coli* to survive in unfavourable environmental conditions has been described by
327 some authors; this characteristic can result in a predominance of this species in productive plants
328 and in an increasing relative frequency during the preparation of meats (Damjanova et al., 2011;
329 Padungtod and Kaneene, 2005). Our data agree with these observations, as the positivity rate of *C.*
330 *jejuni* was significantly higher in samples from SL and DP, while the opposite situation was evidenced
331 in samples from BS and LSR. The higher relative prevalence of *C. coli* in samples taken during winter
332 and spring was unexpected, as the few Italian available data suggested a relatively better resistance
333 of *C. jejuni* to low environmental temperatures (Manfreda et al., 2006).

334 Finally, considering the relative diffusion in chicken and turkey meat samples, our data showed the
335 higher rate of *C. coli* in chicken samples, confirming the results of a previous study by Nobile et al.
336 (2013) and the findings of the EU base line study (EFSA, 2010a). The predominance of *C. jejuni* in
337 turkey meat samples, described by Hamedy et al. (2007) and Nobile et al. (2013) was not observed
338 in this case. It has to be noted that, as suggested by some authors, it is difficult to isolate the
339 influence of single factors, as the relative frequencies of *Campylobacter* species are affected by
340 multiple factors such as plant, product, state and storage of meats.

341

342 4. Conclusions

343 The surveillance of the prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. In poultry meat is nowadays insufficient
344 due to the absence of routine control programs in several countries, including Italy. Possible future
345 programs should take into account the suggestions reported in EFSA guidelines, stressing the need
346 for a link between control measures and real risk for consumers. In particular, retail poultry meats
347 seems to be a proper target, as they are directly acquired, manipulated and prepared by the
348 consumers. As observed in our study, the risk categorization should mainly consider the typology of
349 meats (raw meats with/without skin, meat preparations), avoiding the thermally processed meat
350 products, that are substantially free of *Campylobacter* spp. An efficient control program must supply
351 quantitative data, as it is known that a little number of highly contaminated meat samples are

352 responsible of almost all the human campylobacteriosis cases. The picture supplied by our data
353 indicate the extremely low frequency of high counts, that are linked to specific meat typologies,
354 such as liver. To obtain a complete map of the risks, in addition to the production/ processing factors
355 included in this study, other elements should be taken into account, such as consumers behaviour
356 and consumption patterns, in particular in a varied population. So, interventions in consumers'
357 education, to enhance the importance of correct preparation practices should be considered as an
358 essential tool by the authorities.

359

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496 Table 1

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Table 1

Sampling plan for the evaluation of the prevalence and quantification of *Campylobacter* spp. in poultry meat and products thereof. SL: slaughterhouse; DP: deboning plant; BS: butcher's shop; LSR: large scale retailer.

Meat typology	Plant typology (no of samples)
Skin-on sectioned meats (half carcasses, legs, thighs, drumsticks, wings)	SL (27), DP (8), LSR (18)
Skin-off sectioned meats (whole breast, sliced breasts, leg meat, stew)	SL (9), DP (33), LSR (62)
Offals (livers/hearts, gizzards, combs)	SL (16), LSR (23)
Whole-pieces meat preparations (rolls, breaded breast slices, spitted meat)	BS (10), LSR (14)
Minced meat preparations (hamburgers, raw sausages, patties)	BS (31), LSR (174)
Meat products (wurstels, rolls)	LSR (47)

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503 Table 2

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Table 2

Comparison of the data from different plant typologies. SL: slaughterhouse, DB: deboning plant, BS: butcher's shop, LSR: large scale retail. Median values are expressed as Log CFU/g.

Meat typology	SL		DP		BS		LSR	
	Positivity rate (%)	Median value	Positivity rate (%)	Median value	Positivity rate (%)	Median value	Positivity rate (%)	Median value
Liver	71.4	3.60	–	–	–	–	33.3	<1
Skin-on sectioned meats	85.2	1.74	100	<1	–	–	83.3	<1
Skin-off sectioned meats	88.9	1.48	36.4	<1	–	–	22.6	<1
Whole meat preparations	–	–	–	–	70.0	<1	50.0	<1
Minced meat preparations	–	–	–	–	25.8	<1	21.8	<1

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510 Table 3

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Table 3

Comparison of positivity rates during the sampling seasons. Values in the same row with different letters are significantly different (^{a,b} P < 0.05; ^{A,B} P < 0.01).

Meat typology	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
Skin-on sectioned meats (n ⁺ positive/total samples)	71.4% (5/7)	100% (15/15)	86.7% (13/15)	81.25% (13/16)
Skin-off sectioned meats (n ⁺ positive/total samples)	22.2% (4/18)	39.1% (9/23)	30.8% (8/26)	35.1% (13/37)
Minced meat preparations (n ⁺ positive/total samples)	21.1% ^a (4/19)	38.0% ^A (38/100)	6.0% ^B (3/50)	2.8% ^{Bb} (1/36)

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517 Table 4

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Table 4
Comparison of positivity rates of *C. jejuni* and *C. coli* in the *Campylobacter* spp. positive samples. Values in the same row with different letters are significantly different (^{a,b}p < 0.05; ^{A,B}p < 0.01).

		<i>C. jejuni</i>	<i>C. coli</i>
Sample typology	Offals	26.3% ^b	68.4% ^a
	Sectioned meats	60.0%	65.0%
	Meat preparations	55.0%	56.7%
Plant typology	SL - DP	72.6% ^a	50.0% ^b
	BS - LSR	47.5% ^b	63.6% ^a
Sampling season	Spring	26.7% ^B	86.7% ^A
	Summer	62.5%	53.8%
	Autumn	57.1%	64.3%
	Winter	13.2% ^B	86.8% ^A
Species	Chicken	51.9%	63.9%
	Turkey	56.3%	56.3%

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524 Figure 1

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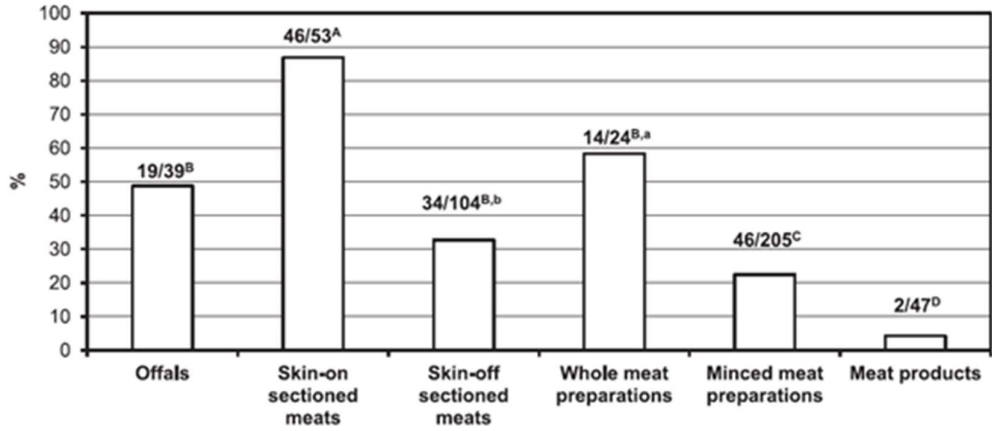


Fig. 1. Prevalence of *Campylobacter* spp. in the different meat sample typologies.

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531 Figure 2

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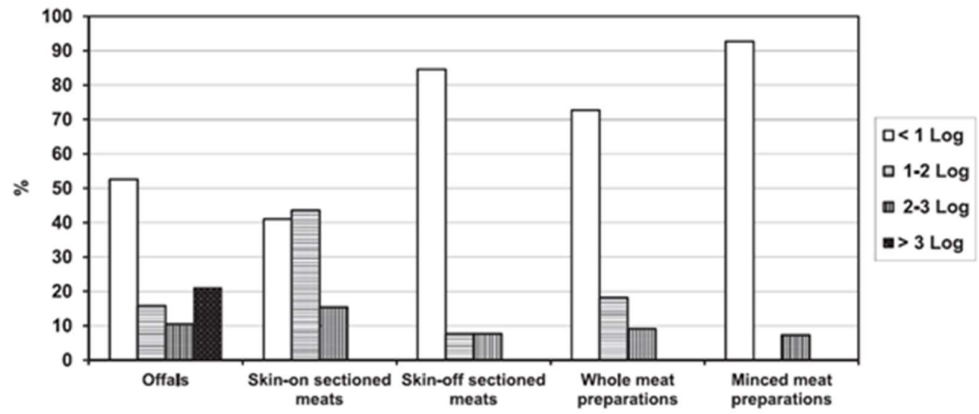


Fig. 2. Frequency distribution of *Campylobacter* spp. counts in the different meat typologies.

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