Journal of Agriculture and Value Addition, 2020, Vol. 3 (1): 60-69

# **REVIEW ARTICLE**

# Impact of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter isolated from poultry: A concise review

J.L.C.S. Pereraa\*, D.P.N. De Silvab, K. Hirayamaa

Submitted: October 14, 2020; Revised: August 17, 2020; Accepted: August 25, 2020 \*Correspondence: champikelk@gmail.com

#### Abstract

Poultry industry is one of the leading protein sources around the world. In Sri Lanka, it has developed rapidly over the years and it is the main contributor for consumed meat. Campylobacter is one of the microorganisms presents in asymptomatic form in poultry which cause zoonotic disease, Campylobacteriosis to human. Due to improper usage of antibiotics in poultry industry, development of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter strains occurs by causing major public health concern. Hence, it is important to identify the contamination points of Campylobacter during the meat processing and to determine the prevention strategies to control the spread of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter spp. This review focuses on the background of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter species and their distribution by contaminating meat from farm to plate. The impact cause by antibiotic resistant Campylobacter from poultry industry to the public safety is also discussed along with the diagnostic and elimination strategies. Here, the world scenario on antibiotic resistant Campylobacter was reviewed to come up with suggestions to improve the poultry meat produced in Sri Lanka in order to be safe for human consumption and to increase the market value.

**Keywords:** Campylobacter, public health, poultry, antibiotic resistance

#### INTRODUCTION

## Background of the Campylobacter species

Campylobacter is a genus of Gram negative, slender spirally curved rod, motile bacteria, consisting 46 species and 16 subspecies (Bacterio.net, 2020; Vandamme et al., 2006; Ngulukun, 2017). Campylobacter species require low oxygen content in the environment for their survival. It forms into a coccus when expose to atmospheric oxygen. Furthermore, when culture at the room temperature, their survival is poor and it shows optimum culture temperature at 42 °C. The cells of Campylobacter species are heat sensitive indicating their gradual death below 0 °C and above 48 °C (Crushell et al., 2004). Although, heating is a suitable option for eliminating Campylobacter, studies revealed the development of heat resistance by Campylobacter strains (De Jong et al., 2012; Al-Sakkaf, 2015).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Laboratory of Veterinary Public Health, Graduate School of Agricultural & Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo, 1-1-1 Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8657, Japan

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Department of Animal Science, Faculty of Animal Science and Export Agriculture, Uva Wellassa University, Badulla 90000, Sri Lanka

Most of the *Campylobacter* species cause diseases in humans and animals. Poultry has been considered as the natural reservoir of *Campylobacter jejuni*, which is the most common species causing diarrhoea in human (Nyati and Nyati 2013). However, poultry act as asymptomatic careers (Allos, 2001; Kaakoush *et al.*, 2015) marking their higher potential of meat contamination. Consumption of such meat products is the main source of infection to human Campylobacteriosis and by sound understanding of the points at which contamination might occur will be useful in the prevention of such infections by enhancing meat quality.

Among the species which infect humans, C. jejuni and C. coli are the most abundant organisms causing enteritis and studied widely (Han et al., 2016: Yamazaki et al., 2017; Gharbi et al., 2018; Kulasooriya et al., 2019; Pillay et al., 2020). Other than humans and poultry, as per World Organization for Animal Health (OIE) report of 2013, C. jejuni and C. coli also infect non-human cattle. sheep, mink, cats. dogs, ferrets primates. (www.cfsph.iastate.edu). Although, most of the other Campylobacter species are considered as less important, C. lari causes recurrent diarrhoea in children and C. fetus causes abortions in cattle and sheep; it can affect humans as an opportunistic pathogen (Sauerwein et al., 1993). However, around 550 million annual human diarrhoeal cases reported globally and possibly one fourth due to Campylobacter. C. jejuni and C. coli primarily transmitted by consumption of raw, undercooked or contaminated meat products, of which 33% from poultry (Van Boeckel et al., 2015; Mossong et al., 2016; Reddy and Zishiri 2017; Sibanda et al., 2018). Therefore, it is important to determine ways to improve poultry meat quality by minimizing the food contamination with Campylobacter sp.

### Significance of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter

In humans, majority of the patients infected with *Campylobacter* recover without treatment due to self-limiting gastroenteritis. However, those who are immunocompromised or vulnerable such as children, elderly people and pregnant women may end up in severe, chronic or systemic infections (Gharbi *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, effective treatment is important for control of the disease in humans. From recent studies, it was found out that *Campylobacter* species developed resistance against commonly used antibiotics belonging to groups of macrolides (azithromycin, erythromycin), quinolones (ciprofloxacin) and tetracyclines (Allos, 2001; Blaser *et al.*, 2008). There were records of multi-drug resistant *Campylobacter* strains as well raising the alarm to investigate an effective remedy for the treatment of Campylobacteriosis (Chaire *et al.*, 2010).

The antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* species cause significant loss to the public health sector due to unresponsiveness of the treatment (CDC, 2019). In order to find solutions, it is necessary to dig out the roots of developing antibiotic resistance in *Campylobacter*. Antibiotics prevent the growth and replication process by binding to the target for its function. Iovine (2013) had mentioned

four mechanisms of antibiotic resistance: 1) alter antibiotic target 2) inactivate the drug 3) decrease membrane permeability and 4) express antimicrobial efflux pumps. Currently, rise of multidrug resistance turned out as an eye opener in *Campylobacter* resistance studies (Hao *et al.*, 2016). *C. jejuni* 1655 strain with multiple drug resistance showed several mutations in *gyrA*, 23S *rRNA*, *aphA*, *tetO* and *aadE* genes. It is also consisted with *pTet* plasmid, which resulted in multidrug resistance (Yang *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, performing antibiotic susceptibility testing prior to treatment is recommended in clinical practice.

The origin of this multidrug resistance directs toward animal husbandry practices, mainly poultry production (Wieczorek *et al.*, 2018). A genetic study on multidrug resistant *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from both diarrhoeic humans and poultry meat in China revealed the presence of identical genotypes (Du *et al.*, 2018). However, the findings from Silva and colleagues, mentioned that there was no relationship between *Campylobacter* isolates from human and poultry (Silva *et al.*, 2016). Hence it arouses necessity of more research to determine the correlation between antibiotic resistance in *Campylobacter* from poultry origin.

In Sri Lankan context, antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* was isolated in few studies. Kottawatta and co-researchers reported high resistance (80%) of *C. jejuni* against ciprofloxacin and nalidixic acid while low resistance (11%) against erythromycin (Kottawatta *et al.*, 2017). However, a recent study by Perera and colleagues showed that *Campylobacter* isolated from poultry faecal samples are 100% resistant to ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid and trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole antibiotics, around 70% for amoxicillin and tetracycline followed by lower resistance to streptomycin (Perera *et al.*, 2018). This shows the change of antibiotic resistant profiles over the years. Hence, it indicates the potential of transferring resistant genes in *Campylobacter* species implicating its need of recurrent investigations.

# Campylobacter contamination during poultry meat processing

C. jejuni and C. coli are the two main food-borne pathogens in human Campylobacteriosis of which both are prevalent in poultry (Friedman et al., 2004). Interestingly, newly hatched chicks do not have Campylobacter and showed colonization of the species after one or two weeks of birth in broilers (Evans and Sayers, 2000). This could be due to the presence of maternal immunity at birth and the formation of gut flora with maturity (Sahin et al., 2001; Newel and Fearnley, 2003). C. jejuni and C. coli are present in poultry gastrointestinal tract as commensals which mask the disease and such asymptomatic careers lead to meat contamination during processing (Beery et al., 1988; Byrd et al., 1998; Keener et al., 2004).

In Sri Lanka, poultry is the most leading livestock industry and main protein source for humans (Department of Census and Statistics, 2019). The deep litter

open house with half wall system is commonly used in Sri Lanka and spilling waterers were located within the pen leading to moist humid environment (Line, 2006) which favours the spread of *Campylobacter* within the flock. In most farms, rest of the half walls are covered using a mesh and due to improper maintenance, there are holes which insects, pests such as house flies, house mice and other wild animals can enter. This is another fact which makes the whole farm contaminate with *Campylobacter* spp. from faecal droppings (Kalupahana *et al.*, 2013; Nichols, 2005). Once the first bird becomes colonised by *Campylobacter* in their gut, faecal shedding is an important feature which can result in transmission to all coprophagic birds. In few days, majority of birds in a positive flock get colonised extremely rapidly by bird-to-bird transmission within the flock (Newell and Fearnley, 2003).

During poultry processing, evisceration is performed manually after opening the vent (DAPH 2015), which becomes the first point of meat contamination. In large scale poultry meat processing line, from the point of bird arrival to packing, there are few main steps such as hanging and stunning, throat cutting, bleeding, scalding, defeathering, evisceration, chilling, grading, portioning and boning. Once *Campylobacter* from asymptomatic career contaminate the meat at one step of the processing line, it passes through all the remaining steps and leads to cross contamination (Bashor *et al.*, 2004; Wagenaar *et al.*, 2013). In most of the developed countries, poultry meat processing is fully automated and easy to minimize contamination. However, in most of the Asian countries including Sri Lanka, semi-automated or completely manual processing is practiced (FAO, 2016). Therefore, great care must be taken to avoid *Campylobacter* contamination during meat processing.

#### **DISCUSSION**

## Campylobacter elimination strategies in poultry farms

Antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* spp. is on the rise in poultry around the world due to malpractices and misuse of antibiotics in livestock sector. Such strains can cause severe consequences in vulnerable and immunocompromised patients being unresponsive to antibiotic treatment. Therefore, knowledge on identification and determination of susceptibility towards antibiotics is important as per public health concerns.

Based on the sensitivity to oxygen and oxygenic radicals several selective media are available to culture *Campylobacter* spp. such as Charchoal Cefoperazone (CCDA), Preston and Butzler agars (Baylis *et al.*, 2000). Other than standard culture methods, fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization method (FISH), latex agglutination and polymerase chain reaction methods are currently in use for the detection of *Campylobacter* spp. (Wilma *et al.*, 1992; Lehtola *et al.*, 2006; Debretsion *et al.*, 2007). A study done by Portner reported the presence of viable but non-culturable (VBNC) *Campylobacter* strains (Portner *et al.*, 2007). Hence, culture-based conventional methods may mislead as negative for *Campylobacter* 

spp. Therefore, proper diagnosis of the *Campylobacter* species and resistant strains from poultry is necessary for the decision making on control measures.

Campylobacter spp. is susceptible for oxygen, freezing and thawing stresses, low humidity and drying. Therefore, to eliminate Campylobacter, considerations have to be made based on those factors along the meat processing line (Silva et al., 2011). In order to prevent human Campylobacter and spread of the disease, poultry meat contamination has to be prevented as the main protein source is poultry in the world as well as in Sri Lanka. Poultry farms act as the primary source of contamination in poultry meat which is considered as the origin of human Campylobacteriosis. At the point of slaughtering, risk of contaminating Campylobacter negative carcasses from positive ones can occur. Therefore, it is important to make strategies to process Campylobacter negative flocks and positive flocks separately in the poultry processing plants. Although, it is difficult to eliminate Campylobacter completely, reduction of contamination and the affected animals can lead to reduce cases of human Campylobacteriosis (Wagenaar et al., 2006; Havelaar et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2011).

## Suggestions to improve food safety

Most of the developed countries have established measures to track antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* and to conduct awareness and control programs. However, in developing countries, antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* gets very little attention or even unnoticed because of the asymptomatic nature in poultry (Kottawatta *et al.*, 2017). But, it may seriously affects the consumer safety and if the meat is free of *Campylobacter*, it can get higher consumer demand and increase value.

As the primary source of Campylobacter, proper farm management plays a critical role. In wild and domestic birds, Campylobacter is common inhabitant in their gut and they can shed it to the chicks in poultry pens. Therefore, establishing hygienic barriers such as, proper fencing and biosecurity system need to be installed. Farm personnel can practice routines to minimize spread of Campylobacter by sanitizing hands and utensils, changing boots and attending younger flocks first or assigning separate staff to different age groups of chicken (Humphrey et al., 2007). In Sri Lanka, most of the farmers practice all-in-all-out system which allows farmers to disinfect the premises after one round of poultry flock (Kottawatta et al., 2017). Due to poor hygiene of most farms, the use of antibiotics is immense although it is not recommended. In order to avoid such malpractices while improving the poultry health, use of prebiotics and probiotics such as lactic acid bacteria or polysaccharides can be introduced to farmers (Hariharan et al., 2004). Furthermore, application of bacteriocins from bacteria such as Paenibacillus polymyxa (Stern et al., 2005) or bacteriophages against C. jejuni showed promising results of reducing the faecal content of Campylobacter in poultry (Carrillo et al., 2005).

Poultry processing line is the other critical hard point of contaminating meat by *Campylobacter*. Therefore, proper cleaning and disinfection is important to make the premises and thereby meat free of food-borne pathogens. Denmark has been producing "*Campylobacter-free*" certified poultry meat (Krause *et al.*, 2006). This is an adding value to the meat produced while promoting public safety.

Considering all the above facts, it shows the necessity of developing effective mitigation strategy to control *Campylobacter* in poultry. Minimizing antibiotic resistance and spread of antibiotic resistant strains by the control of antimicrobial treatment has to be implemented using strict regulations on poultry industry. The epidemiological status of *Campylobacter* in poultry farms needs to be recorded continuously and share the knowledge among stakeholders to decrease the prevalence and antimicrobial resistance. Furthermore, frequent screening of asymptomatic poultry and apparently healthy flocks need to be carried out to determine novel antibiotic resistant or multi-drug resistant strains of *Campylobacter* spp.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Presence of antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* spp. in poultry is an underlying issue which needs to be paid more attention in Sri Lanka. Improper management of poultry industry particularly by excessive use of antibiotics as a prophylactic measure is the main cause of the development of antibiotic resistant *Campylobacter* spp. It leads to human Campylobacteriosis unresponsive to treatment which can be prevented by biosecurity in poultry farm and meat hygiene. Furthermore, producing food-borne pathogen free certified meat will add value to meat and gain higher income to improve poultry industry in Sri Lanka.

#### **REFERENCES**

- Allos, B.M. (2001). *Campylobacter jejuni* infections: Update on emerging issues and trends. Clin. Infe. Dis. 32 (8), 1201–1206.
- Al-Sakkaf, A. (2015). *Campylobacter* heat resistance past, current status and future prospect for New Zealand and beyond. World's Pou. Sci. J. 71 (1), 111-124.
- Bacterio.net. (2020). Genus: *Campylobacter*. (online). (Accessed 15.08.2020) Available at: http://www.bacterio.net/campylobacter.html.
- Bashor, M.P., Curtis, P.A., Keener, K.M., Sheldon, B.W., Kathariou, S. and Osborne, J.A. (2004). Effects of carcass washers on *Campylobacter* contamination in large broiler processing plants. Poul. Sci. 83, 1232–1239.
- Baylis, C.L., MacPhee, S.A., Martin, K.W., Humphrey, T.J. and Betts, R.P. (2000). Comparison of three enrichment media for the isolation of *Campylobacter* spp. from foods. J. Appl. Microbiol. 89, 884–891.
- Beery, J.T., Hugdahl, M.B. and Doyle, M.P. (1988). Colonization of gastrointestinal tracts of chicks by *Campylobacter jejuni*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 54, 2365–2370.

- Blaser, M.J., Nachamkin, I. and Szymanski, C.M. (2008). Clinical Aspects of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli.* pp. 99–121. In: Nachamkin, I., Szymanski, C. and Blaser, M.J. (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.), Infections in *Campylobacter*. American Society for Microbiology, USA.
- Byrd, J., Corrier, D., Hume, M., Bailey, R., Stanker, L. and Hargis, B. (1998). Incidence of *Campylobacter* in crops of preharvest market-age broiler chickens. Poult. Sci. 77, 1303–1305.
- Carrillo, C.L., Atterbury, R.J., El- Shibiny, A., Connerton, P.L., Scott, A. and Connerton, I.F. (2005). Bacteriophage therapy to reduce *Campylobacter jejuni* colonization of broiler chickens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 71, 6554–6563
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC]. Antibiotic Resistance / Campylobacter (Campylobacteriosis). (online) (Accessed on 15.08.2020) Available at: https://www.cdc.gov/campylobacter/campy-antibiotic-resistance.html.
- Chaire, P., Haenni, M., Meunier, D., Botree, M.A., Calavas, D. and Madec, J.Y. (2010). Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli* isolated from cattle between 2002 and 2006 in France. J. Food Prot., 73 (5), 825–831.
- Crushell, E., Harty, S., Sharif, F. and Bourke, B. (2004). Enteric *Campylobacter*: Purging Its Secrets. Paed. Res. 55 (1), 3–12.
- DAPH. (2015). Annual Report of the Department of Animal Production and Health; DAPH: Peradeniya, Sri Lanka.
- Debretsion, A., Habtemariam, T., Wilson, S., Ngawa, D. and Yehualaeshet, T. (2007). Real-time PCR assay for rapid detection and quantification of *Campylobacter jejuni* on chicken rinses from poultry processing plant. Mol. Cell. Probes. 21, 177–181.
- De Jong, A.E.I., Asselt, E.D., Zwietering, M.H., Nauta, M.J. and de Jonge, R. (2012). Extreme heat resistance of food borne pathogens *Campylobacter jejuni*, *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella typhimurium* on chicken breast fillet during cooking. Inte. J. Microbio 2012, 1-10.
- Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka. (2019). Livestock Population by Type and by District 2015 2019. (online) (Accessed on 15.08.2020) Available at: http://www.statistics.gov.lk/Agriculture/StaticalInformation/rubb6#Chicken Population.
- Du, Y., Wang, C., Ye, Y., Liu, Y., Wang, A., Li, Y., Zhou, X., Pan, H., Zhang, J. and Xu, X. (2018). Molecular identification of multidrug-resistant *Campylobacter* species from diarrheal patients and poultry meat in Shanghai, China. Fron. Microbio. 9 (1642), 1-8.
- Evans, S.J. and Sayers, A.R. (2000). A longitudinal study of *Campylobacter* infection of broiler flocks in Great Britain. Prev. Vet. Med. 46, 209–223.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). (2016). Small-Scale Poultry Processing (online). (Accessed on 10/05/2020). Available at: http://www.fao.org/docrep/003/t0561e/t0561e01.htm.
- Friedman, C.R., Hoekstra, R.M., Samuel, M., Marcus, R., Bender, J., Shiferaw, B., Reddy, S., Ahuja, S.D., Helfrick, D.L., Hardnett, F., Carter, M., Anderson, B. and Tauxe, R.V. (2004). Risk factors for sporadic *Campylobacter* infection in the

- United States: a case-control study in Food Net sites. Clin. Infect. Dis. 38 (3), S285–S296.
- Gharbi, M.A., Bejaoui, A., Hamda, C.B., Jouini, A., Ghedira, K., Zrelli, C., Hamrouni, S., Aouadhi, C., Bessoussa, G., Ghram, A. and Maaroufi, A. (2018) Prevalence and antibiotic resistance patterns of *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from broiler chickens in the North Tunisia. BioMed Res. Inte. 2018, 1-7.
- Han, X., Zhu, D., Lai, H., Zeng, H., Zhoou, K., Zou, I., Wu, C., Han, G. and Liu, S. (2016) Prevalence, antimicrobial resistance profiling and genetic diversity of *Campylobacter jejuni* and *C. coli* isolated from broilers at slaughter in China. Food Con. 69, 160-170.
- Hariharan, H., Murphy, G.A. and Kempf, I. (2004). *Campylobacter jejuni*: public health hazards and potential control methods in poultry: A review. Vet. Med. 49, 441–446.
- Hao, H., Ren, N., Han, J., Foley, S.L., Iqbal, Z., Cheng, G., Kuang, X., Liu, J., Liu, Z., Dai, M., Wang, Y. and Yuan, Z. (2016) Virulence and genomic feature of multidrug resistant *Campylobacter jejuni* isolated from broiler chicken. J. Front. Microbiol. 7 (1605), 1-14.
- Havelaar, A.H., Mangen, M. J., de Koeijer, A.A., Bogaardt, M., Everes, E.G., Jacobs-Reitsma, W.F., van Pelt, W., Wagenaar, J.A., de Wit, G.A., van der Zee, H. and Nauta, M.J. (2007). Effectiveness and efficiency of controlling *Campylobacter* on broiler chicken meat. Risk Anal. 27, 831–844.
- Humphrey, T., O'Brien, S. and Madsen, M. (2007). *Campylobacter* as zoonotic pathogens: a food production perspective. Inte. J. Food Microbio. 117, 237–257.
- Iovine, N.M. (2013). Resistance mechanisms in *Campylobacter jejuni*. Virulence. 4, 230–240
- Kaakoush, N.O., Castaño-Rodríguez, N., Mitchell, H.M. and Man, S.M. (2015). Global epidemiology of *Campylobacter* infection. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 28, 687-720.
- Kalupahana, R., (2020). Sri Lanka (online). One Health Poultry Hub. (Accessed on 16.08.2020) Available at: https://www.onehealthpoultry.org/where-wework/sri-lanka.
- Kalupahana, R.S., Kottawatta, K.S.A., Kanankege, K.S.T., Bergen, M.A.P.V., Abeynayake, P. and Wagenaar, J.A. (2013) Colonization of *Campylobacter* spp. in broiler chickens and laying hens reared in tropical climates with low-biosecurity housing. App. Envir. Microbio. 79 (1), 393-395.
- Keener, K.M., Bashor, M.P., Curtis, P.A., Sheldon, B.W. and Kathariou, S. (2004) Comprehensive review of *Campylobacter* and poultry processing. Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf. 3, 105–116.
- Kottawatta, K.S.A., Bergen, M.A.P.V., Abeynayake, P., Wagenaar, J.A., Veldman, K.T. and Kalupahana, R.S. (2017). *Campylobacter* in broiler chicken and broiler meat in Sri Lanka: Influence of semi-automated vs. wet market processing on *Campylobacter* contamination of broiler neck skin samples. Foods. 6 (105), 1-9.
- Krause, M., Josefsen, M.H., Lund, M., Jacobsen, N.R., Brorsen, L., Moos, M., Stockmarr, A. and Hoorfar, J. (2006). Comparative, collaborative, and on-site

- validation of a TaqMan PCR method as a tool for certified production of fresh, *Campylobacter* Free Chickens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 72, 5463–5468.
- Kulasooriya, G.D.B.N., Amarasiri, M.K.U.T., Abeykoon, A.M.H. and Kalupahana, R.S. (2019). *Salmonella, Campylobacter* and *Escherichia coli* in raw chicken meat, chicken products and cooked chicken in retail markets in Kandy, Sri Lanka. S.L. Vet.J. 66 (1), 19-26.
- Lehtola, M.J., Pitkanen, T., Miebach, L. and Miettinen, I.T. (2006). Survival of *Campylobacter jejuni* in potable water biofilms: a comparative study with different detection methods. Water Sci. Technol.. 54: 57–61.
- Line, J. (2006). Influence of relative humidity on transmission of *Campylobacter jejuni* in broiler chickens. Poultry Sci. 85, 1145-1150.
- Mossong, J., Mughini-Gras, L., Penny, C., Devaux, A., Olinger, C., Losch, S., Cauchie, H.M., van Pelt, W. and Ragimbeau, C. (2016). Human Campylobacteriosis in Luxembourg, 2010–2013: A case-control study combined with multilocus sequence typing for source attribution and risk factor analysis. Sci. Rep. 6.
- Newell, D.G. and Fearnley, C. (2003). Sources of *Campylobacter* colonization in broiler chickens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69, 4343–4351.
- Nichols, G., (2005). Fly Transmission of Campylobacter. Emer. Infec. Dis. 11, 361-364.
- Ngulukun, S.S. (2017). Taxonomy and physiological characteristics of *Campylobacter* spp. In: Klein, G. (Ed.), *Campylobacter* features, detection, and prevention of food borne disease. Elsevier Academic Press, Cambridge, MA, USA.
- Nyati, K.K. and Nyati, R. (2013). Role of *Campylobacter jejuni* infection in the pathogenesis of Guillain-Barre syndrome: An update. BioMed Res. Inte. 15, 1-13.
- Perera, J.L.C.S., Pathmalal, M.M., Miura, K., Yamada, A. and Hirayama, K. (2018). Identification of antibiotic resistance profiles of *Campylobacter* isolates from broiler farms in Sri Lanka. 161<sup>st</sup> Annual Meeting of Japanese Society of Veterinary Science, Proceedings. FO-32, 390.
- Pillay, S., Amoako, D.G., Abia, A.L.K., Somboro, A.M., Shobo, C.O., Perrett, K., Bester, L.A. and Essack, S.Y. (2020). Characterization of *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from poultry in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Antibiotics, 9 (42), 2-15.
- Portner, D.C., Leuschner, R.G.K. and Murray, B.S. (2007). Optimising the viability during storage of freeze-dried cell preparations of *Campylobacter jejuni*. Cryobiology, 54, 265-270.
- Reddy, S. and Zishiri, O.T. (2017). Detection and prevalence of antimicrobial resistance genes in *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from chicken and humans. Onde. J. Veter. Res. 84, 1-6.
- Sahin, O., Zhang, Q., Meitzler, J.C., Harr, B.S., Morishita, T.Y. and Mohan, R. (2001). Prevalence, antigenic specificity, and bactericidal activity of poultry anti- *Campylobacter* maternal antibodies. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 67, 3951–3957.

- Sauerwein, R.W., Horrevorts, A.M. and Bisseling, J. (1993). Septic abortion associated with *Campylobacter fetus* subspecies fetus infection: Case report and review of the literature. Infection, 21 (5), 331–334.
- Sibanda, N., McKenna, A., Richmond, A., Ricke, S.C., Callaway, T., Stratakos, A.C., Gundogdu, O. and Corcionivoschi, N. (2018). A review of the effect of management practices on *Campylobacter* prevalence in poultry farms. Front. Microbiol. 9, 1–9.
- Silva, J., Leite, D., Fernandes, M., Mena, C., Gibbs, P.A. and Teixeira, P. (2011). *Campylobacter* spp. as a foodborne pathogen: A review. Front. Microbio. 2, 1-13.
- Silva, D.T., Tejada, T.S., Blum-Menezes, D., Dias, P.A. and Timm, C.D. (2016). *Campylobacter* species isolated from poultry and humans, and their analysis using PFGE in southern Brazil. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 217, 189–194.
- Stern, N.J., Svetoch, E.A., Eruslanov, B.V., Kovalev, Y.N., Volodina, L.I., Perelygin, V.V., Mitsevich, E.V., Mitsevich, I.P. and Levchuk, V.P. (2005). *Paenibacillus polymyxa* purified bacteriocin to control *Campylobacter jejuni* in chickens. J. Food Prot. 68, 1450–1453.
- The World Organization for Animal Health (OIE). (2013). Zoonotic Campylobacteriosis (online). (Accessed on 22.06.2020) Available at: http://www.cfsph.iastate.edu/Factsheets/pdfs/campylobacteriosis.pdf
- Van Boeckel, T.P., Brower, C., Gilbert, M., Grenfell, B.T., Levin, S.A., Robinson, T.P., Teillant, A. and Laxminarayan, R. (2015). Global trends in antimicrobial use in food animals. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 112, 5649–5654.
- Vandamme, P., Dewhirst, F.E., Paster, B.J. and Stephen, L.W. (2006). The Proteobacteria (Part C). pp. 1147–1160. In: Garrity, G., Brenner, D.J., Staley, J.T., Krieg, N.R., Boone, D.R., DeVos, P., Goodfellow, M., Rainey, F.A. and Schleifer, K. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.), Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology. Volume Two. Springer Science and Business Media, USA.
- Wagenaar, J.A., Mevius, D.J. and Havelaar, A.H. (2006). *Campylobacter* in primary animal production and control strategies to reduce the burden of human Campylobacte- riosis. Rev. Off. Int. Epizoot. 25, 581–594.
- Wagenaar, J.A. French, N.P. and Havelaar, A.H. (2013). Preventing *Campylobacter* at the source: Why is it so difficult? Clin. Infect. Dis. 57, 1600–1606.
- Wieczorek, K., Wołkowicz, T., and Osek, J. (2018). Antimicrobial resistance and virulence-associated traits of Campylobacter jejuni isolated from poultry food chain and humans with diarrhea. Front. Microbiol. 9 (1508), 1-11.
- Wilma, C., Hazeleger, R.R., Beumer, F.D. and Rombouts, F.M. (1992). The use of latex agglutination tests for determining *Campylobacter* species. Lett. Appl. Microbiol. 14, 181–184.
- Yamazaki, W., Sabike, I. and Sekiguchi, S. (2017). High prevalence of *Campylobacter* in broiler flocks is a crucial factor for frequency of food poisoning in humans. Jpn. J. Infect. Dis. 70, 691-692.
- Yang, Y., Feye, K.M., Shi, Z., Pavlidis, H.O., Kogut, M., Ashworth, A.J. and Ricke, S.C. (2019). A historical review on antibiotic resistance of foodborne *Campylobacter*. Front. Microbio. 10 (1509), 1-8.