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Antimicrobial resistance in thermotolerant *Campylobacter* isolated from different stages of the poultry meat supply chain in Argentina

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Abstract

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The objective of this study was to investigate the antimicrobial resistance in 23 thermotolerant Campylobacter spp. isolated from different stages of the poultry meat supply 24 25 chain in Argentina. Six poultry meat chains were studied from the reproductive farm to the chicken at the retail. Chickens sampled along each food chain were from the same batch. 26 27 Samples collected were: a) cloacal samples from hens and chickens on the farm, b) chicken carcasses from the slaughterhouse and retail market. Samples obtained were examined for 28 Campylobacter spp. Antimicrobial resistance was evaluated using the disk diffusion method. 29 30 Almost all isolates were resistant to nalidixic acid (91.2%) and ciprofloxacin (88.2%). A large proportion of thermotolerant Campylobacter isolated from hens and broilers <1 wk 31 showed resistance to erythromycin in comparison with the rest of the stages of the poultry 32 meat supply chain (P=0.031). Campylobacter isolated from broilers (both <1 wk and >5 33 wk) and carcasses at slaughterhouse and at retail showed a proportion of resistance to 34 ciprofloxacin and enrofloxacin higher than isolates from hens (P=0.015 and P=0.031, 35 respectively). One strain was resistant to all the antibiotics analyzed, and 46.1% of the 36 isolates were resistant to three or more drug classes. Almost 50% of the isolates were 37 resistant to all quinolones tested (ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, and enrofloxacin), and 13.2% 38 were resistant to all quinolones and erythromycin. Campylobacter strains isolated from 39 40 carcasses at retail showed higher resistance to all quinolones than strains isolated from hens (P=0.016). These results reflect an alarming situation with potential serious consequences 41 42 to the public health.

Keywords: antimicrobial resistance; Campylobacter spp.; poultry; zoonosis

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1. Introduction

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Diarrheal diseases are leading causes of childhood illness and death in developing 46 countries (Zaidi et al., 2008). Thermotolerant Campylobacter, especially Campylobacter 47 jejuni, is recognized as responsible for food-borne gastro-enteritis and diarrheal diseases 48 worldwide (Avrain et al., 2003). In Argentina thermotolerant Campylobacter was found as 49 the most important gastrointestinal pathogen in humans (with an incidence rate of 22.4% 50 and 13.6% for children under 3 years and adults, respectively) (Fuentes, 2010). These 51 pathogens are frequently found in the intestinal tract of a wide variety of wild and 52 53 domesticated animals, especially birds and animal origin foods, in particular poultry meat, are known to be the most important source of human campylobacteriosis (Signorini et al., 54 2013; EFSA 2010). 55 Although most cases of campylobacteriosis may be asymptomatic or may cause 56 diarrheas and other serious sequels such as Guillain-Barré syndrome (Avrain et al., 2003). 57 Antimicrobial treatment is only necessary for systemic infections (or in immune-58 compromised patients) and severe or long-lasting Campylobacter infections (Luber et al., 59 2003). Macrolides and fluoroquinolones (particularly erythromycin and ciprofloxacin) are 60 the first- and second-choice antimicrobials for that purpose. Intravenous aminoglycosides 61 are also recommended for the treatment of serious Campylobacter bacteremia (Kassa et al., 62 63 2007). Resistance to antimicrobials, particularly to macrolides and fluoroquinolones, has been reported to be increasing (Avrain et al., 2003; Luber et al., 2003). In Argentina, only 64 few studies have evaluated the antimicrobial resistance in Campylobacter strains (Tamborini 65 et al., 2012; Pantozzi et al., 2010) with a low number of strains analyzed. Additionally, no 66 epidemiological studies in Argentina have assessed the prevalence of Campylobacter 67

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68	resistant to antibiotics on the whole food chain from farm to fork. This information is
69	essential to establish a public health program to control the disease and it is considered as a
70	starting point for a future monitoring program.
71	In poultry meat supply chain there are a variety of environments which
72	thermotolerant Campylobacter have to adapt to survive. Biofilm formation is a strategy for
73	Campylobacter survival in suboptimal conditions such as temperature variation, aerobic
74	atmosphere, and nutrient starvation (Brown et al., 2014). Biofilm appears to be an important
75	reservoir of viable planktonic cells resistant to antimicrobials (Bae et al., 2014).
76	Regarding the methods to evaluate the antimicrobial resistance, disk diffusion
77	method for aminoglycosides, quinolones, erythromycin, and tetracycline has showed a high-
78	level correlation with agar dilution method. Disk diffusion method was considered as a
79	reliable, easy-to-use and inexpensive method for susceptibility testing of thermotolerant
80	Campylobacter spp., especially for screening purposes (Luangtongkum et al., 2007).
81	The objective of this study was to investigate the antimicrobial resistance in
82	thermotolerant Campylobacter isolated from different stages of the poultry meat supply
83	chain in Argentina. The criteria used to interpret susceptibility testing results were only for
84	epidemiological monitoring purposes.
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86	2. Materials and methods
87	2.1. Collection of <i>Campylobacter</i> isolates
88	A total of 152 thermotolerant Campylobacter were isolated from six poultry meat
89	supply chains in Santa Fe region in Argentina (Zbrun et al., 2013). The stages sampled in
90	each poultry meat chain were: a) hens from breeder flocks, b) broilers in flocks (aged <1 wk

91	and > 5 wk), c) chickens at the slaughterhouse, and d) chicken meat at the retail market. The
92	chickens sampled along the meat supply chain were from the same batch (defined as a group
93	of chickens from the same flock, sent to the same slaughterhouse at the same time, and sold
94	together at the same retail market). A total of 555 samples were collected from: a) cloacal
95	samples from hens (n= 75) and chickens <1 wk (n= 180) and >5 wk (n= 180) on the farms,
96	b) chicken carcasses from the slaughterhouse $(6 - 7 \text{ wk of age})$ $(n=60)$ and the retail market
97	(n=60).
98	Campylobacter spp. were isolated using the selective media Bolton Broth and
99	Preston Agar (Bolton and Coates, 1983). All incubations were performed under

Preston Agar (Bolton and Coates, 1983). All incubations were performed under microaerophilic conditions (5% O₂, 10% CO₂ and 85% H₂). Preliminary identification of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. was based on colony morphology, microscopic appearance (curved Gram-negative bacilli with typical motility), and the following phenotypic characteristics: oxidase and catalase production, and hippurate hydrolysis reaction (Lior, 1984). All presumptive *Campylobacter* isolates were identified to the species level (*C. jejuni* and *C. coli*) by multiplex PCR, as proposed by Vandamme et al. (1997). The negative isolates were tested by PCR for *C. lari* (Klena et al., 2004). The positive isolates were subsequently purified on Columbia blood agar and stored in glycerol broth (15% glycerol and 85% serum broth) at -80 °C (Terzolo et al., 1987).

2.2. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

The antimicrobial sensitivity of *Campylobacter* isolates was tested by the disk diffusion assay as recommended by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute in the standard M100-S23 (CLSI, 2013). Strains were removed from the freezer and streaked onto Columbia blood agar and then incubated for 48 h at 42°C under microaerophilic conditions.

114	Several colonies were transferred to a tube with 5 ml of Mueller-Hinton broth to reach a
115	standard inoculum adjusted to 0.5 McFarland. Sterile cotton-tipped swabs were used to
116	transfer the inocula onto Mueller-Hinton agar supplemented with 5% sheep blood.
117	Antimicrobial disks were added after drying the plates for 5 min. The antimicrobials tested
118	were: ampicillin (10 μg) (Britania), erythromycin (15 μg) (Britania), tetracycline (30 μg)
119	(Britania), nalidixic acid (30 μg) (Britania), enrofloxacin (5 μg) (Oxoid), ciprofloxacin (5
120	μ g) (Britania), and gentamicin (10 μ g) (Britania). The plates were incubated for 24 h at 42
121	°C under microaerophilic conditions. C. jejuni ATCC 33560 was used as a reference strain.
122	The zones of growth inhibition were evaluated according to the standards of the National
123	Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS) (Nobile et al., 2013). If an isolate
124	was resistant to three or more drug classes, it was considered multi-drug resistant.
125	2.3. Statistical analysis
126	Chi-squared and Fisher's exact two-tailed test were used to compare, for each
127	antibiotic, the distributions of resistant Campylobacter isolates according to the stages of the
128	poultry meat supply chain, using Infostat software (Universidad Nacional de Córdoba,

3. Results

Argentina).

Table 1 shows the frequency of isolation of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* species according to the stage of the poultry meat chain. Results showed the following distribution: 69.1% (n= 105) was *C. jejuni*, 28.3% (n= 43) was *C. coli*, and 2.6% (n= 4) of positive samples were not possible to identify to species level. *C. jejuni* represented at least 68.2% of the *Campylobacter* species in the samples collected from broilers in the farm (at both ages)

and carcasses at the slaughterhouse and the retail market. In contrast, the proportions of *C. coli* and *C. jejuni* in the samples collected from hens were similar (47.2%).

The lowest resistance was observed for gentamicin (7.9%) and erythromycin (28.3%), while almost all isolates were resistant to nalidixic acid (91.2%) and ciprofloxacin (88.2%). Table 2 shows the frequency of C. jejuni and C. coli isolates resistant to the antimicrobials tested. C. coli showed higher resistance for tetracycline than C. jejuni (P= 0.039). For the other antibiotics, the proportions of resistance were similar for both species (P> 0.05) (Table 2). Regarding the four isolates of Campylobacter spp., that could not be identified to species level, the four were resistant to ampicillin, two to erythromycin, one to gentamicin, three to ciprofloxacin, three to nalidixic acid, three to tetracycline, and two to enrofloxacin.

The proportion of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* isolates resistant to ampicillin, gentamicin, nalidixic acid, and tetracycline was similar for all the stages of the poultry meat supply chain (P > 0.05). Almost 50% of the thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from hens were resistant to erythromycin, whereas the proportion of resistant isolates from broilers >5 wk and carcasses at the slaughterhouse and the retail was lower than 21.4% (P = 0.010, P = 0.019, and P = 0.048, respectively). On the other hand, the proportion of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from broilers >5 wk and carcasses at the slaughterhouse and at retail resistant to ciprofloxacin was higher than that of isolates from hens (P = 0.018, P = 0.013, and P = 0.009, respectively). Additionally, the proportion of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* strains isolated from carcasses at slaughterhouse and at retail resistant to enrofloxacin was higher than that of isolates from hens (P = 0.011 and P = 0.052, respectively). *Campylobacter* strains isolated from broilers >5 wk and carcasses at

slaughterhouse and at retail showed <u>non-significant</u> differences in the proportion of resistance to the antibiotics tested (P > 0.05) (Table 2).

Only two isolates were sensitive to all the antibiotics tested and one was resistant to all the antibiotics analyzed. Thirty-one different resistance patterns were identified, being ampicillin, ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, and tetracycline ($n=17;\ 11.2\%$), ampicillin, ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, and enrofloxacin ($n=15;\ 9.9\%$), and ampicillin, ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, tetracycline, and enrofloxacin ($n=15;\ 9.9\%$), the most common combinations (Table 3). About 46.1% of the isolates were resistant to three or more drug classes. Multidrug-resistant isolates were associated with the poultry meat supply chain stage (P=0.013) but not with the *Campylobacter* species (P=0.099).

Quinolones and macrolides are the most important antibiotics used for the treatment of human campylobacteriosis. Considering all the isolates studied, 44.7% (n= 68) were resistant to all quinolones tested (ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid, and enrofloxacin), and 13.2% (n=20) were resistant to all quinolones and erythromycin (Table 3). The thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from carcasses at retail showed higher resistance to all quinolones than those isolated from hens (P= 0.016). The other poultry meat supply stages had a frequency of isolates resistant to quinolones (P= 0.187) similar to that found in hens. Additionally, we found no association between the frequency of isolates resistant to quinolones and quinolones + erythromycin and the *Campylobacter* species (P= 0.326 and P= 0.368, respectively).

4. Discussion

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This study is one of the few reports on antibiotic susceptibility of *Campylobacter* spp. isolated from different stages of the poultry meat supply chain in Argentina. *Campylobacter* strains showed high susceptibility to gentamicin. Messad et al. (2014) also reported this behavior and proposed that it could be the consequence of the limited use of this antibiotic in poultry farms.

The thermotolerant Campylobacter strains tested in this study showed high resistance to quinolones, specifically ciprofloxacin, nalidixic acid and enrofloxacin. Similar results have been previously observed in other countries (Messad et al., 2014; Nobile et al., 2013; Luber et al., 2003). The poultry reservoir has a fundamental role in the emergence of quinolone-resistant strains of Campylobacter (Giacomelli et al., 2014). The frequent use of sub-therapeutic doses of these antibiotics, either as prophylaxis, therapeutic doses or growth promoters in poultry farms, has been proposed as the main reason for this high resistance (Avrain et al., 2003; Messad et al., 2014). The widespread use of antibiotics in poultry selects for antibiotic-resistant mutants which are able to spread throughout the meat supply chain (Desmonts et al., 2004). Australia's government banned the use of quinolones in foodproducing animals and currently shows a low frequency of Campylobacter strains resistant to fluoroquinolones (Wieczorek et al., 2013a). Additionally, it has been reported that flocks treated with ionophores (as coccidicidals) had a higher proportion of Campylobacter strains resistant to multiple antibiotics such as ampicillin, nalidixic acid, and tetracycline (Avrain et al., 2003). All this suggests that the control tools for thermotolerant Campylobacter multiresistant to antibiotics cannot be addressed only to the restriction or prohibition of antimicrobial drugs in animal feed. New production systems and new health tools should be

designed to address the public health problem of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* and antimicrobial resistance.

Many studies regarding the prevalence of antimicrobial-resistant *Campylobacter* have been performed in different countries. Each of these studies have shown a particular pattern of antimicrobial resistance, which may be explained by the variations in the use of antibiotic, origin of the samples, isolation techniques, and antimicrobial susceptibility tests (Nobile et al., 2013). It is thus difficult to compare the prevalences among countries. In that sense, a standard guideline should be developed to establish a global surveillance and thus allow monitoring this food-borne pathogen both currently and after the implementation of effective control measures to avoid resistance dissemination through the food chain.

The most remarkable result of our study was the high frequency of *Campylobacter* strains with multi-drug resistance, especially to the antibiotics considered as first-choice for serious *Campylobacter* infections (ciprofloxacin and erythromycin). The isolation of a high proportion of *Campylobacter* strains resistant to all quinolones and resistant to quinolones + erythromycin provides evidence of the key role of raw poultry meat in the exposure risk to antibiotic-resistant *Campylobacter* strains in humans. This situation demands the adoption of appropriate risk management measures to control the antibiotic use in food animals (Nobile et al., 2013) and in human therapeutic treatment.

Our results indicate that, with the exception of tetracycline, both *Campylobacter* species had the same frequency of antibiotic resistance. Tetracyclines are considered the second-choice treatment and high resistance to this antimicrobial may have a negative impact on public health. Many studies (e.g. Nobile et al., 2013; Luber et al., 2003) have reported the influence of *Campylobacter* species on the resistance to antibiotics. In general,

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C. coli shows higher resistance than C. jejuni (Giacomelli et al., 2014). Apparently, C. coli
strains have an intrinsic ability to generate resistance against some antibiotics such as
erythromycin (Luber et al., 2003). Wieczorek et al. (2013b) found greater resistance to
antimicrobials for C. coli than for C. jejuni for tetracycline. On the other hand, Nobile et al.
(2013) found that, in general, C. jejuni shows higher resistance to ciprofloxacin, gentamicin,
and norfloxacin than C. coli.

In the present work, the Campylobacter strains isolated from the different stages of the poultry meat supply chain presented the same frequency of antimicrobial resistance. The colonization of broilers with thermotolerant Campylobacter seems to be unavoidable. The high prevalence of these microorganisms was spreading throughout the poultry meat supply chain. In this regard, it would be useful to conduct studies in order to investigate the genotypic variation among strains of Campylobacter spp. isolated from different stages of the poultry meat supply chain to evaluate whether the bacterial population was a stable single genotype or had a mixed and changing profile according with the stage. However, the strains isolated from hens showed higher resistance to erythromycin than the strains isolated from the remaining stages of the poultry meat supply chain. On the other hand, the frequency of resistance to quinolones (ciprofloxacin and enrofloxacin) was higher in the strains isolated from poultry in the farm and from slaughterhouse and retail carcasses than in the strains isolated from hens. Four possible explanations might be proposed to clarify this finding: a) Both the use of antimicrobials (frequency, dose and type of antimicrobial used) and other animal husbandry practices are completely different between hens and poultry farms. This may impact on the selection pressure and the emergence of Campylobacter strains resistant to specific antibiotics. This different selection pressure is responsible for

generating specific clusters of Campylobacter strains at these two stages (hens vs. the rest of
the stages) of the poultry meat supply chain. Argentina does not have a surveillance system
on the use of veterinary drugs that allows collecting data on sales of antimicrobial agents.
This surveillance system dedicated to monitoring drug on species level is needed to assess
the true levels of antimicrobial use and therefore analyze the possible consequences of their
use in the emergence of antimicrobial-resistant strains; b) hens have a higher life than
poultry and therefore greater potential exposure to antimicrobials applied for prophylactic or
therapeutic purposes; c) the biosecurity measures adopted by the parent flocks are much
stricter than in poultry farms. Broilers have more possibilities to be in contact with many
vectors (such as flies, rodents, and wild birds) which have been identified as reservoirs for
the transmission of antibiotic-resistant Campylobacter to poultry (Sippy et al., 2012). In
addition to the fact that the ecological conditions are different, the transmission of
Campylobacter spp. from hen farms to poultry farms through eggs is unlikely (Zbrun et al.,
2013); and d) poorly sanitized abiotic surfaces and juices released from avian meat, found in
slaughterhouse and retail environment, support the biofilms formation, which reintroduce
planktonic microorganisms resistant to antimicrobials. Additionally, C. jejuni has the ability
to form biofilms in the watering supplies and plumbing systems of animal husbandry
facilities and animal-processing plants (Bae et al., 2014; Pearson et al., 1993).

The horizontal genes transmission has been identified as a relevant mechanism in the dissemination of antibiotic resistance in *Campylobacter* spp. Mobile genetic elements are commonly involved in the horizontal gene transfer, allowing the bacteria to acquire foreign DNA from the environment. *C. jejuni* has the ability to develops biofilms on different abiotic surfaces as a mechanism to survive in suboptimal conditions, increasing the

273	resistance to antimicrobials. Campylobacter biofilms help to resist a variety of stressors
274	throughout poultry meat chain supply and appear to be an important reservoir of antibiotic-
275	resistant C. jejuni under normal growth conditions even without antimicrobial pressure (Bae
276	et al., 2014).
277	An increase in the presence of antibiotic-resistant strains has also been observed in
278	Campylobacter spp. isolated from human cases (WHO, 2014). This emphasizes that these
279	results reflect the behavior of Campylobacter spp. along the poultry meat supply chain
280	(Luber et al., 2003). Studies conducted in Argentina testing Campylobacter strains isolated
281	from humans have shown remarkable resistance to ciprofloxacin (>70%) and tetracycline
282	(30-40%), but high susceptibility to erythromycin (Tamborini et al., 2012; Fuentes, 2010).
283	Antimicrobials used massively in both human medicine and veterinary medicine can
284	generate a high level of resistance (Wieczorek et al., 2013a).
285	Although the agar dilution technique has been classified as the standard test for
286	Campylobacter (McDermott et al., 2004), here we used the disk diffusion test to investigate
287	antimicrobial resistance. Because of its convenience, flexibility, and low cost, disk diffusion
288	has been standardized (EUCAST, 2012) and used widely to test rapidly growing pathogens
289	such as Enterobacteriaceae and also modified to test some fastidious organisms (CLSI,
290	2013).
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292	5. Conclusions
293	The finding of antibiotic-resistant (especially multi-drug resistant) Campylobacter
294	spp. reflects an alarming situation with potential serious consequences to the health of
295	poultry meat consumers. The frequency of antibiotic resistant Campylobacter was variable

in the different steps of the poultry meat chain supply. The use of antimicrobials in poultry farms may generate a selection pressure and lead the emergency of *Campylobacter* strains resistant against specific antibiotics. It is necessary to immediately implement husbandry measures with the aim to guide the rational use of antibiotics in poultry production. Argentina should establish a surveillance program to investigate the prevalence and tendency in prevalence of antibiotic-resistance *Campylobacter* throughout the poultry meat supply chain which may be the scientific basis to establish a risk management policy.

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- 414 TABLES
- Table 1: Distribution of thermotolerant Campylobacter spp. according to the stage of the
- 416 poultry meat supply chain.
- Table 2: Antibiotic resistance of thermotolerant Campylobacter spp. at different stages of
- 418 the poultry meat supply chain.
- Table 3: Antimicrobial resistance patterns of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* isolates.

Table 1: Distribution of thermotolerant Campylobacter spp. according to stage of poultry meat supply.

Campylobacter	Stage of poultry meat supply n (%)								
.,	Usas	Broilers (<1	Broilers (>5	Carcass at	Carcass at				
species	Hens	wk)	wks)	slaughterhouse	retail				
Campylobacter	2 (5.6)	-	1 (2.5)	1 (2.3)	-				
spp.					Y				
C. jejuni	17 (47.2)	9 (81.8)	32 (80.0)	32 (74.4)	15 (68.2)				
C. coli	17 (47.2)	2 (18.2)	7 (17.5)	10 (23.3)	7 (31.8)				
TOTAL	36 (23.7)	11 (7.2)	40 (26.3)	43 (28.3)	22 (14.5)				

Table 2: Antibiotic resistance of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. at different stages of the poultry meat supply chain.

Stage of	Compylohootor			Antibiotic	c resistan	ce n (%)		
poultry meat supply	Campylobacter spp.	AMP	ERY	GEN	CIP	NA	TET	ENR
	C. jejuni	10	9	4	9	12	8	7
	(n=17)	(58.8)	(52.2)	(23.5)	(52.9)	(70.6)	(47.1)	(41.2)
σ	0 - 11 (- 47)	16	8	1	15	15	14	5
Hens	C. coli (n=17)	(94.1)	(47.1)	(5.9)	(88.2)	(88.2)	(82.4)	(29.4)
	TOTAL (* 24)	26	17	5	24	27	22	12
	TOTAL (n=34)	(76.5)	(50.0)	(14.7)	(70.6)	(79.4)	(64.7)	(35.3)
	C. jejuni (n=9)	6	5	2	7	9	5	6
	C. jejurii (11=9)	(66.7)	(55.6)	(22.2)	(77.8)	(100)	(55.1)	(66.7)
ers vk)	C. coli (n=2)	2	0	2	2	2	2	1
Broilers (<1 wk)		(100)	(0.0)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(50.0)
	TOTAL (n=11)	8	5	4	9	11	7	7
	TOTAL (II-II)	(72.7)	(45.5)	(18.2)	(81.8)	(100)	(63.6)	(63.6)
	C. jejuni	12	3	1	30	31	17	16
	(n=32)	(37.5)	(9.4)	(3.1)	(93.8)	(96.9)	(53.1)	(50.0)
ers ks)	2 (g) C. coli (n=7)	4	3	1	7	7	6	3
Broilers (>5 wks)	O. con (n=1)	(57.1)	(42.9)	(14.3)	(100)	(100)	(85.7)	(50.0)
	TOTAL (n=39)	16	6	2	37	38	23	19
	101AL (II-00)	(41.0)	(15.4)	(5.1)	(94.9)	(97.4)	(59.0)	(50.0)
	C. jejuni	20	8	2	30	30	15	21
	(n=32)	(62.5)	(25.0)	(6.3)	(93.8)	(93.8)	(46.9)	(85.6)
ses al	snou	7	1	0	9	10	5	2
Carcasses at slaughterhouse	C. coli (n=10)	(70.0)	(10.0)	(0.0)	(90.0)	(100)	(50.0)	(20.0)
Ce slat	TOTAL (n=42)	27	9	2	39	40	20	23
	TOTAL (n=42)	(64.3)	(21.4)	(4.8)	(92.9)	(95.2)	(47.6)	(54.8)

	C. jejuni	9	3	0	15	13	12	10
tail	(n=15)	(60.0)	(20.0)	(0.0)	(100)	(86.7)	(80.0)	(66.7)
at retail	C. coli (n=7)	3	1	0	7	7	5	5
Carcasses	O. con (n=1)	(42.9)	(14.3)	(0.0)	(100)	(100)	(71.4)	(71.4)
Carc	TOTAL (n=22)	12	4	0	22	20	17	15
	TOTAL (n=22)	(54.5)	(18.2)	(0.0)	(100)	(90.2)	(77.3)	(88.2)
	C. jejuni	57	28	9	91	95	57	60
All poultry	(n=105)	(54.3)	(26.7)	(8.6)	(86.7)	(90.5)	(54.3)	(57.1)
	0 1: (- 40)	32	13	2	40	41	32	16
meat supply	C. coli (n=43)	(74.4)	(30.2)	(4.7)	(93.0)	(95.3)	(74.4)	(38.1)
	P=	0.059	0.739	0.571	0.307	0.411	0.039	0.096

References: AMP, ampicillin; ERY, erythromycin; GEN, gentamycin; CIP, ciprofloxacin; NA,nalidixic acid; TET, tetracycline; ENR, enrofloxacin.

Table 3: Antimicrobial resistance patterns of thermotolerant *Campylobacter* isolates.

Nº of	Resistance patterns	Classes of	Strains	Total
antimicrobials		Antibiotic in	(n)	strains n
		pattern (n)		(%)
Two antibiotics	CIP, NA	1	10	Y
	AMP, NA	2	3	
	AMP, CIP	2	_1	17 (11.2)
	AMP, ERY	2	1	
	ERY, TET	2	1	
	GEN, NA	2	1	
Three antibiotics	CIP, NA, TET	2	14	
	CIP, NA, ENR	1	8	
	AMP, CIP, NA	2	6	
	AMP, CIP, ENR	2	2	34 (22.4)
	ERY, CIP, NA	2	2	
	AMP, CIP, TET	3	1	
	GEN, NA, ENR	2	1	
Four antibiotics	AMP, CIP, NA, TET	3	17	
	AMP, CIP, NA, ENR	2	15	
ر	CIP, NA, TET, ENR	2	8	
	ERY, NA, TET, ENR	3	3	
	AMP, ERY, TET, CIP	4	2	50 (32.9)
	ERY, CIP, NA, TET	3	2	
X '	ERY, CIP, NA, ENR	2	2	
	AMP, ERY, CIP, ENR	3	1	
Five antibiotics	AMP, CIP, NA, TET, ENR	3	15	
	AMP, ERY, CIP, NA, TET	4	4	25 (16.4)
	ERY, CIP, NA, TET, ENR	3	3	

	AMP, ERY, CIP, NA, ENR	3	2	
	ERY, GEN, CIP, NA, TET	4	1	
Six antibiotics	AMP, ERY, CIP, NA, TET, ENR	4	12	
	AMP, ERY, GEN, NA, TET, ENR	5	5	20 (13.2)
	AMP, ERY, GEN, CIP, NA, TET	5	2	20 (10.2)
	AMP, GEN, CIP, NA, TET, ENR	4	1	
Seven antibiotics	AMP, ERY, GEN, CIP, NA, TET,	5	1	1 (0.7)
	ENR			. (3.1)

References: AMP, ampicillin (β-lactam class); ERY, erythromycin (macrolide class); GEN, gentamycin (aminoglycoside class); CIP, ciprofloxacin (quinolone class); NA, nalidixic acid (quinolone class); TET, tetracycline (tetracycline class); ENR, enrofloxacin (quinolone class).