1 *Campylobacter* control in poultry by current intervention measures ineffective: urgent 2 need for intensified fundamental research 3 David Hermans^{a,‡,*}, Kim Van Deun^{a,‡}, Winy Messens^{b,†}, An Martel^a, Filip Van Immerseel^a, 4 Freddy Haesebrouck^a, Geertrui Rasschaert^b, Marc Heyndrickx^{a,b}, Frank Pasmans^a 5 6 7 Running title: *Campylobacter* control in poultry 8 9 ^aDepartment of Pathology, Bacteriology and Avian Diseases, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Ghent University, Merelbeke, Belgium; ^bInstitute for Agricultural and Fisheries Research, 10 Technology and Food Unit, Melle, Belgium; [†]Current address: Biological Hazards (BIOHAZ) 11 12 Unit, European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), Largo N. Palli 5/A, I-43121 Parma, Italy; [‡]These authors contributed equally to this work. 13 14 15 Abstract 16 Campylobacter-contaminated poultry meat is an important source of foodborne gastroenteritis and poses a serious health burden in industrialized countries. Broiler chickens are commonly 17 regarded as a natural host for this pathogen and infected birds carry a very high 18 19 Campylobacter load in their gastrointestinal tract, especially the ceca. This results in 20 contaminated carcasses during processing. While hygienic measures at the farm and control 21 measures during carcass processing can have some effect on the reduction of *Campylobacter* 22 numbers on the retail product, intervention at the farm level by reducing colonization of the 23 ceca should be taken into account in the overall control policy. This review gives an up-to-Corresponding author: David Hermans, Department of Pathology, Bacteriology and Avian Diseases, Faculty of

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1	date	overview	of	suggested	on-farm	control	measures	to	reduce	the	prevalence	and
2	color	nization of	Can	npylobacter	in poultry	/.						

Keywords: *Campylobacter*; poultry; cecal colonization; on-farm control measure

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1 1. Introduction

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Today, *Campylobacter* infections are the leading cause of human bacterial gastroenteritis in many developed countries (EFSA, 2010b). Broiler chickens are a potential reservoir for *Campylobacter* strains pathogenic to human (Friis et al., 2010) and broiler chicken meat contaminated with this pathogen is believed to be responsible for up to 40% of human campylobacteriosis cases (EFSA, 2010a).

8 Campylobacter is highly prevalent among broiler flocks with on average 60% to 80% of 9 the analyzed flocks being colonized with the bacterium at slaughter age in the EU (Evans and 10 Sayers, 2000; Herman et al., 2003; Rasschaert et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2008; EFSA, 2010c). 11 Primary infection of broilers probably occurs through horizontal transmission from the 12 environment (Jacobs-Reitsma et al., 1995). Potential sources and vectors for contamination 13 are infected livestock and free-living animals (van de Giessen et al., 1996; Zweifel et al., 14 2008; Ellis-Iversen et al., 2009), rodents and flies (Hald et al., 2008; Hazeleger et al., 2008), 15 contaminated surface water (Messens et al., 2009) and personnel and farm equipment 16 (Ramabu et al., 2004) at the farm. Also partial thinning of broiler flocks has been implicated 17 as a potential risk factor for *Campylobacter* colonization of the remainder of the animals, due 18 to difficulties in maintaining biosecurity during thinning (Allen et al., 2008). Most flocks 19 become colonized at an age of two to four weeks only (Jacobs-Reitsma et al., 1995; Evans 20 and Sayers, 2000; Herman et al., 2003; van Gerwe et al., 2009). The majority of the birds in a 21 flock are colonized within only a few days after the first chick is infected (van Gerwe et al., 22 2009). These broiler chickens carry high C. *jejuni* numbers in their intestinal tract, especially in the ceca (between 10^6 to 10^8 CFU/g or higher), and remain colonized until slaughter (Beerv 23 24 et al., 1988; Jacobs-Reitsma et al., 1995; Evans and Sayers, 2000).

1 Intestinal colonization of broiler chickens with Campylobacter during rearing is 2 responsible for the contamination of the carcasses after processing (Herman et al., 2003; 3 Rasschaert et al., 2006; Rosenquist et al., 2006; Reich et al., 2008). Worldwide, an average 4 prevalence of Campylobacter contamination on poultry carcasses is reported to be in the 5 range of 60% to 80% (Suzuki and Yamamoto, 2009; EFSA, 2010c). Carcass contamination 6 occurs during defeathering and evisceration, by contaminated feces leaking from the cloaca 7 and visceral rupture of the ceca carrying a high *Campylobacter* load (Berrang et al., 2001; 8 Smith et al., 2007; Allen et al., 2008; Boysen and Rosenquist, 2009). In addition, carcasses 9 can become contaminated by cross-contamination of Campylobacter strains between 10 slaughtered flocks (Allen et al., 2008; Normand et al., 2008).

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- 12 2. Campylobacter control in poultry
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14 In the past few years, several quantitative risk assessments for *Campylobacter* in poultry 15 meat have been developed as a guidance tool to control the presence of this zoonotic pathogen 16 throughout the poultry meat production chain (Nauta et al., 2009). Although there is 17 considerable variation between countries in the approach of these models, all risk assessments 18 conclude that aiming to reduce the Campylobacter levels on broiler carcasses after 19 evisceration is the most effective intervention measure, rather than reducing its prevalence. 20 Besides reducing external surface contamination of broiler carcasses from Campylobacter-21 colonized flocks directly, by physical or chemical means (Rosenquist et al., 2006; Boysen and 22 Rosenquist, 2009), reduced Campylobacter numbers on carcasses can also be obtained 23 indirectly. On-farm intervention measures aimed to prevent *Campylobacter* introduction and 24 transmission in poultry flocks or to reduce intestinal Campylobacter counts in colonized 25 animals could lead to reduced contamination levels of the carcasses of these animals after processing. Moreover, because the intestine of living poultry is the only amplification site for
 Campylobacter throughout the entire food chain, reducing the cecal *Campylobacter* load in
 poultry during primary production is expected to significantly reduce the incidence of human
 campylobacteriosis (Lin, 2009).

5 In Denmark, a quantitative microbial risk assessment of human campylobacteriosis 6 associated with thermotolerant *Campylobacter* spp. in broiler chickens was developed. The 7 simulations showed that reducing the number of *Campylobacter* bacteria on chicken carcasses 8 by 2 logs causes a 30-fold reduction in the incidence of campylobacteriosis in humans 9 (Rosenquist et al., 2003). A Belgian risk assessment showed that the incidence in Belgium 10 would be reduced by 48%, 85% and 96% when respectively a one log, two log or three log 11 reduction of the Campylobacter contamination on carcasses would be achieved (Messens et 12 al., 2007).

13 Theoretically, controlling Campylobacter colonization in poultry on-farm may be 14 achieved in a number of different ways, including hygienic and biosecurity measures (2.1.), 15 water treatment (2.2.), supplementing plant-derived additives to the feed (2.3.), bacteriophage 16 application (2.4.), vaccination (2.5.), passive immunization (2.6.) and application of pre- and 17 probiotics/competitive exclusion microflora (2.7.) or bacteriocins (2.8). It is important to 18 differentiate between prevention and colonization-reducing measures, which intervene at a 19 different stage of the colonization process. Preventive measures, summarized in Table 1, aim 20 at reducing the probability of birds to become colonized by Campylobacter, while 21 colonization-reducing measures, presented in Table 2, strive for a reduced cecal 22 Campylobacter load in colonized birds prior to slaughter, thereby reducing surface 23 contamination of the carcasses. Moreover, also by improving health and welfare of the animals colonization might be reduced (Bull et al., 2008). Finally, genetic selection could also 24 25 contribute in combating *Campylobacter* colonization in poultry (Kapperud et al., 1993), when poultry lines with improved overall immunological responsiveness, being more resistant to colonization by this pathogen, are developed (Swaggerty et al., 2009). Some antibiotics efficiently reduce *C. jejuni* counts in the broiler chick GI tract (Farnell et al., 2005; Hermans et al., 2010), but their use is controversial due to concerns on development of antibiotic resistance in *C. jejuni*, which may compromise treatment of human campylobacteriosis (Dibner and Richards, 2005; Zhu et al., 2006).

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8 2.1. Hygienic and biosecurity farming practices

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10 Good hygienic farming practices constitute a strategy aiming at preventing the 11 introduction of *Campylobacter* into a flock by a combination of hygiene and biosecurity 12 measures. A Belgian quantitative microbial risk assessment showed that the incidence of human campylobacteriosis in Belgium would be reduced by 32%, 53% and 77% when the 13 14 Campylobacter flock prevalence is reduced by 25%, 50% or 75% respectively (Messens et al., 15 2007). Application of specific hygienic measures during the rearing period, such as washing 16 hands before entering the chicken house, the use of separate boots for each broiler house, 17 footbath disinfection when entering a broiler house and a high standard of cleaning and 18 disinfection of the drinking water equipment may significantly reduce the risk of 19 *Campylobacter* infections in broiler flocks (van de Giessen et al., 1996; Evans and Sayers, 20 2000). After introduction of hygienic and biosecurity measures, including the control of 21 rodents and insects, in two Dutch broiler farms, the percentage of Campylobacter-colonized 22 flocks decreased from 66% at one farm and 100% at the second farm to 22% and 42%, 23 respectively (van de Giessen et al., 1998). In the UK, the implementation of an intervention 24 trial, based on a standard hygiene protocol for personnel and proper disinfection of the broiler 25 house prior to stocking, reduced the prevalence of Campylobacter infection in the broiler

1 population from 80% to < 40% (Gibbens et al., 2001). It has been demonstrated that the 2 prevalence of broiler flocks colonized with Campylobacter can be reduced from 51.4% to 3 15.4% by placing fly screens in broiler houses (Hald et al., 2007). In Denmark, strategies to 4 control Campylobacter were intensified in 2003 (Rosenquist et al., 2009). Focus was on 5 biosecurity, allocation of meat from colonized flocks to the production of frozen meat 6 products (having reduced Campylobacter counts on their surface due to the freezing 7 procedure) as much as possible and campaigns to inform the consumer. This implemented 8 control strategy lead, at least in part, to a decrease of *Campylobacter*-colonized flocks from 9 43% in 2002 to 27% in 2007, a reduction in Campylobacter-positive samples of chilled 10 broiler meat after processing from 18% in 2004 to 8% in 2007 and a drop in registered human 11 campylobacteriosis cases by 12% from 2002 to 2007. These findings suggest that proper 12 application of biosecurity measures can lead to reduced colonization in poultry. However, 13 because broiler chickens are under a constant contamination pressure, biosecurity measures 14 alone will not be sufficient to solve the problem.

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16 2.2. Drinking water treatment

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By treating the drinking water of poultry flocks, the risk of the animals to become infected might be reduced, probably through a reduction in bacterial numbers both in the drinking water and the crop. In this way, *Campylobacter* is less likely to reach the ceca and transmission throughout the flock might be reduced or prevented.

In vitro studies have demonstrated that organic acids have a strong bactericidal effect on *Campylobacter* spp. and addition of these acids to the drinking water on poultry farms could prevent transmission through broiler flocks (Chaveerach et al., 2002; Chaveerach et al., 2004b). Addition of 0.44% (vol/vol) lactic acid in the drinking water during pre-slaughter

1 feed withdrawal reduced both crop and pre-chill carcasses contamination (Byrd et al., 2001). 2 Moreover, addition of monocaprin, the mono-acylglycerol of capric acid (Thormar et al., 3 2006), to drinking water from the last three days before slaughter, resulted in a reduced C. 4 jejuni count on cloacal swabs of both artificially and naturally infected birds (Hilmarsson et 5 al., 2006). This treatment did, however, not prevent *Campylobacter* spread from artificially 6 infected to non-infected birds. Also chlorinating the drinking water is helpful as it reduces the 7 risk for *Campylobacter* colonization (Ellis-Iversen et al., 2009). Chlorination of flock 8 drinking water (with 2-5 ppm chlorine) under commercial production practices in the US in 9 2002 did, however, not result in a reduced Campylobacter prevalence in the birds receiving 10 treated water (Stern et al., 2002).

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12 2.3. Plant-derived feed additives

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14 Changes in the composition of the feed can promote gastrointestinal health and thus 15 contribute to the control of *Campylobacter* in poultry. Plant-derived antimicrobial feed 16 additives can be administered from day-of-hatch to prevent broiler chickens to become 17 colonized and to reduce *Campylobacter* transmission throughout the flock. Also in this 18 application, the observed effect is largely due to the anti-*Campylobacter* effect in the crop of 19 the animals.

Next to their application in drinking water, organic acids might also be used as feed additives to reduce *Campylobacter* prevalence in poultry. However, *in vivo* trials demonstrated only a limited effect of feed acidification on *C. jejuni* prevalence in broiler flocks. At most it could delay the onset of colonization (Heres et al., 2004; Line and Bailey, 2006). Broilers that were fed fermented liquid feed, i.e. a moistened feed with a high number of lactobacilli, a high concentration of lactic/acetic acid and a pH of 4, were less likely to shed

Campylobacter after oral infection (Heres et al., 2003). However, at the end of the trial no 1 2 significantly different C. *jejuni* counts in the ceca could be observed compared to chickens on 3 a standard feed. The higher level of lactic acid in combination with a low pH in the crop was 4 suggested to reduce the probability for Campylobacter to reach the ceca. In a later 5 experiment, individually housed chickens that were fed acidified feed were found to be less 6 susceptible to *Campylobacter* infection compared to control birds, as less chickens became 7 colonized at equal inoculation doses (Heres et al., 2004). Also caprylic acid leads to reduced 8 colonization in 10-day-old chicks when given preventively (Solis de los Santos et al., 2008). 9 In contrast, addition of butyrate to the feed was not able to reduce cecal Campylobacter 10 colonization in a seeder model using two-week-old broilers (Van Deun et al., 2008). Skanseng 11 et al. (2010) found little effect when supplementing only formic acid to the feed, but a 12 combination of 2% formic acid with 0.1% sorbate prevented *C. jejuni* colonization in chicks. 13 Finally, it was demonstrated that the addition of a medium-chain fatty acid mixture to the feed 14 at 1% reduces the probability of broilers becoming colonized (van Gerwe et al., 2010).

15 Several other plant-derived compounds are known to posses antimicrobial properties. 16 Thousands of phytochemicals have already been identified to be inhibitory toward 17 microorganisms, including phenolics and essential oils (Cowan, 1999). Friedman et al. (2002) 18 analyzed the in vitro bactericidal activity of 96 essential oils and 23 isolated oil compounds 19 against C. jejuni. Lots of these analyzed compounds were capable of killing the bacterium at 20 relatively low concentrations, especially the cinnamon-oil trans-cinnamaldehyde. The 21 potential use of in-feed trans-cinnamaldehyde to prevent colonization, and/or to reduce the 22 cecal Campylobacter numbers in broilers, has been examined very recently (Hermans et al., 2011). In this study it was shown that, despite its marked activity in vitro, trans-23 24 cinnamaldehyde was ineffective in preventing or reducing cecal colonization by C. jejuni in a broiler seeder model, where the compound was administered at 0.3% (wt/wt) to the feed, from 25

day-of-hatch until euthanasia. Also when directly injected in the ceca of broilers, no reduction
 in *Campylobacter* numbers was observed after two or 24 hours.

Administration of large molecules that interfere with *Campylobacter* adhesion to the host cell is successful *in vitro* but suffers from premature metabolic breakdown in the broiler chicken gastrointestinal tract (Wittschier et al., 2007). Finally, cecal colonization of birds receiving plant-protein-based feed was significantly lower compared to birds receiving animal-protein-based feed or a combination of plant- and animal-protein sources (Udayamputhoor et al., 2003).

9 Alternatively, colonized broiler chickens might be fed pulse doses of the additives for a 10 certain period, just before slaughter, aiming at reducing the cecal *Campylobacter* load and 11 reducing carcass contamination after slaughter. Thus, in this application one aims to reduce 12 the *Campylobacter* numbers in the ceca of already colonized birds. To efficiently reach the 13 cecum, additives are often coated on/encapsulated in carrier material that will prevent 14 premature degradation along the gastrointestinal tract and assure efficient release of the active 15 compound into the gut (Van Immerseel et al., 2004).

16 Hermans et al. (2010), however, found no effect in cecal Campylobacter numbers of 17 broilers fed medium-chain fatty acids (caproic, caprylic or capric acid) from three days before 18 euthanization in 28-day-old broilers. Also direct injection in the broiler cecum of a 19 concentrated sodium caprate solution did not prevent colonization, nor was it able to reduce 20 cecal Campylobacter numbers. These authors showed that intestinal mucus is likely to protect 21 C. *jejuni* in the broiler cecum against the bactericidal effects of organic acids seen *in vitro*. In 22 contrast, another research group observed a considerable reduction (several logs) in cecal 23 Campylobacter numbers when caprylic acid was given from three days before slaughter, in 24 already colonized market-aged broilers (Solis de los Santos et al., 2010). This reduction was 25 strikingly not accompanied by an altered cecal microbial population. Moreover, addition of

monocaprin to the feed from the last three days before slaughter, resulted in a reduced *C*. *jejuni* count on cloacal swabs of both artificially and naturally infected birds (Hilmarsson et al., 2006).

As the available *in vivo* results are limited and moreover contradictory, it cannot be univocally be determined what the contribution of feed additives will be to control cecal *Campylobacter* colonization. Preventive supplementation from day-of-hatch, rather than to aim for reduced cecal *Campylobacter* numbers in already colonized birds, seems most promising. The ineffectiveness of butyrate and the very promising *trans*-cinnamaldehyde, however, puts the use of in-feed organic acids and plant-derived antimicrobial compounds to combat cecal *Campylobacter* colonization in poultry in question.

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12 2.4. Bacteriophage application

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14 Bacteriophage application to reduce cecal Campylobacter colonization in poultry is 15 promising (Carrillo et al., 2005; Wagenaar et al., 2005). Results indicate an immediate drop of 16 approximately three logs in the number of *Campylobacter* in already-colonized chicken ceca 17 (Wagenaar et al., 2005). After five days, however, bacterial counts stabilized at a level one 18 log lower compared to control birds, an effect also observed when phages were given 19 prophylactically. Also El-Shibiny et al. (2009) observed an immediate (after two days) two-20 log CFU/g reduction in cecal Campylobacter levels. Despite the fact that Campylobacter, 21 after a sudden drop, seems to re-establish itself to nearly its original counts, results indicate 22 that bacteriophages can possibly be successfully applied in broilers just before slaughter to 23 reduce the cecal bacterial load. Further research in this area showed that administering phages 24 in the feed is more efficient than oral gavage (Carvalho et al., 2010). This study revealed an 25 initial drop, already after two days, of approximately two logs in the numbers of C. jejuni in the fecal material of infected one-week-old birds. Moreover, *C. jejuni* did not regain its
 original counts throughout the experimental period, which was ended seven days after phage
 administration had started.

4 Although the use of phage products in broilers seems to be a promising way to reduce 5 cecal colonization with C. jejuni, questions regarding both immediate and long-term efficacy, 6 consumer safety and application methods arise (Hagens and Loessner, 2010). Safety concerns 7 should not be a main obstacle as phages are highly specific and can only infect a limited range 8 of host bacteria. Moreover, their oral consumption, even at very high levels, is believed to be 9 completely harmless to humans. Answers concerning the efficacy seem to be more complex, 10 especially if long-term efficacy of the phage product has to be ensured. In the study of El-11 Shibiny et al. (2009) it was shown that 2% of the Campylobacter population exposed to 12 virulent phages in the chicken, developed phage-resistance. These resistant types remained a 13 minor component of the population. Carvalho et al. (2010) isolated phage-resistant 14 Campylobacter strains from phage-administered chicks at a frequency of 13%. Strikingly, 15 also before phage application resistance was observed, although at a lower frequency (6%), 16 indicating that Campylobacter can acquire phage resistance naturally. Nevertheless, an 17 increase in the resistant Campylobacter population was observed after applying phages, 18 suggesting that phages might have selected for resistant strains. Because further information 19 on this topic is lacking, long-term efficacy of phages to control C. jejuni in poultry cannot be 20 ensured.

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24 Several vaccination studies aiming at reducing the susceptibility of broiler chickens for 25 *Campylobacter* colonization have been reported, although with variable results. *In ovo*

^{22 2.5.} Vaccination

1 vaccination by injection of heat-killed C. jejuni in the amniotic fluid resulted in an increase in 2 Immunoglobulin A (IgA) antibodies (Noor et al., 1995). However, the consequences on a 3 subsequent challenge were not studied. Intraperitoneal immunizations of chickens with killed 4 C. jejuni whole cells at 16 and 29 days of age reduced the intestinal colonization, which was 5 associated with an increase in specific IgY in intestinal secretions (Widders et al., 1996). In 6 addition, Rice et al. (1997) demonstrated some reduction of *Campylobacter* colonization of 7 chicks orally vaccinated with formalin-killed C. jejuni whole cells in combination with 8 Escherichia coli heat-labile toxin when compared to non-vaccinated control birds.

9 For subunit vaccines, flagellin and outer membrane proteins have been tested and are 10 considered useful candidates. In a study involving immunization of chickens with heat-killed 11 C. jejuni, intestinal colonization upon challenge was reduced, with flagellin and a 67 kDa 12 protein showing up as the immunodominant antigens (Widders et al., 1998). Vaccination of chickens with a hybrid protein containing part of the C. jejuni FlaA and the B-subunit of E. 13 14 coli heat-labile toxin elicited specific antibodies against C. jejuni flagellin and reduced 15 colonization of the chickens after challenge (Khoury and Meinersmann, 1995). Chickens 16 orally immunized with an avirulent recombinant Salmonella strain carrying the 17 Campylobacter cjaA gene, encoding a highly immunogenic lipoprotein which is conserved 18 among different *Campylobacter* serotypes, developed serum IgY and mucosal IgA antibody 19 responses against Campylobacter and Salmonella outer membrane proteins and were 20 protected against cecal colonization with a heterologous wildtype C. jejuni strain (Wyszynska 21 et al., 2004). A more recent study evaluated the potential use of a heterologous vaccine for 22 Campylobacter control in poultry using substantially more animals (Buckley et al., 2010). 23 Upon vaccination with a Salmonella Typhimurium $\Delta aroA$ mutant, expressing CjaA as a 24 plasmid-encoded fusion to tetanus toxin, birds had significantly reduced cecal C. jejuni counts 25 of approximately log₁₀ 1.4 CFU/g three and four weeks after C. *jejuni* inoculation, compared

1 to unvaccinated control birds. This protection was associated with increased levels of CjaA-2 specific serum IgY and biliary IgA in the vaccinated chicks. Also in this study, a group of 3 chicks receiving a vaccine strain containing the non-recombinant plasmid was incorporated. 4 These animals were not protected, indicating that the protective effect observed in the birds 5 receiving the heterologous vaccine, expressing CjaA, is due to responses directed against 6 CjaA rather than competitive or cross-protective effects mediated by the carrier. Broiler 7 chicks orally gavaged with live Salmonella-vectors expressing Campylobacter Omp18/CjaD, 8 CjaA and ACE393 at day-of-hatch and inoculated with C. jejuni at 21 days of age, had higher 9 serum IgG and mucosal sIgA levels as well as reduced ileal C. jejuni counts at day 32, 10 compared with control birds (Layton et al., 2010). Vaccination with the Omp18/CjaD peptide-11 expressed vector was most effective and *Campylobacter* could not be recovered from ileal 12 samples. However, the cecal *Campylobacter* load, a better indicator for the colonization level 13 in broiler chicks (Beery et al., 1988), was not determined.

Zeng et al. (2009) showed that specific CfrA antibodies can block the function of this protein, diminishing ferric enterobactin-mediated growth promotion under iron-restricted conditions in a dose-dependent way. As inactivation of the *cfrA* gene completely eliminates *Campylobacter* colonization in chicks and CfrA is both expressed and immunogenic in chickens experimentally infected with *C. jejuni*, CfrA could be a promising candidate for a subunit vaccine for *Campylobacter* control in poultry (Zeng et al., 2009), but this hypothesis has yet to be tested.

Despite all this research, an effective vaccine to combat cecal *Campylobacter* colonization
in poultry is not yet available.

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24 2.6. Passive immunization

1 Experimental studies have shown that chick colonization can be inhibited by using 2 antibodies. Campylobacter-specific maternal antibodies protect young chickens from 3 colonization (Sahin et al., 2003). Pre-incubation of Campylobacter with rabbit hyper-immune 4 antiserum or chicken bile antibodies increased the dose required to colonize the chicken 5 cecum (Stern et al., 1990). Oral administration of bovine or chicken Ig preparations from 6 respectively milk or eggs of hyper-immunized animals, conferred a marked protection against challenge with C. jejuni in chickens (Tsubokura et al., 1997). Fecal bacterial counts were 7 8 reduced by >99% (prophylaxis) or 80%-95% (post-colonization) using an antibody 9 preparation. The mean number of bacteria quickly increased, however, after ending the 10 colonization-reducing addition with antibodies. This strategy might thus be applied to reduce 11 cecal numbers of bacteria immediately before slaughter.

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13 2.7. Prebiotics and probiotics/competitive exclusion

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15 Although the exact exclusion mechanism is not fully understood, experiments have shown 16 that competitive exclusion microflora can prevent *Campylobacter* colonization of the chicken 17 gut. Competitive exclusion is a prophylactic measure that aims at increasing the resistance of 18 chicks to *Campylobacter* infection.

19 Undefined bacterial mixtures have been demonstrated to effectively control 20 *Campylobacter* infections in young chicks artificially challenged with a chicken *C. jejuni* 21 isolate (Soerjadi et al., 1982; Soerjadi-Liem et al., 1984). In another study, however, this 22 protective effect was not observed (Stern et al., 1988). The efficacy of competitive exclusion 23 depends on cultivation methods and storage of the microbiota. It was found that the efficacy 24 of using competitive exclusion microflora decreased with storage of the cultures (Stern, 25 1994). Different culture preparation techniques, with respect to the level of anaerobic culture, degree of epithelial scraping of the ceca, media used for subculturing and incubation temperature, resulted in different degrees of protection against colonization by *Campylobacter* spp. (Stern et al., 2001). However, Schoeni and Wong (1994) concluded that protection by aerobically grown cultures was not statistically different from that obtained with anaerobically grown cultures.

6 Later, attempts have been made to develop defined microbiota. A standard feed supplemented with the yeast Saccharomyces boulardii did not significantly affect cecal 7 8 Campylobacter colonization of experimentally challenged chickens (Line et al., 1998). The 9 use of a probiotic containing Lactobacillus acidophilus and Enterococcus faecium in chicks, during the first three days of rearing, reduced both C. jejuni fecal shedding and jejunal 10 11 colonization in colonized market-aged broilers, experimentally infected with C. jejuni six 12 hours after the first oral administration of the probiotic, with 70% and 27%, respectively 13 (Morishita et al., 1997). Administration of competitive exclusion cultures of Citrobacter 14 diversus, Klebsiella pneumoniae and E. coli effectively prevented or reduced C. jejuni 15 colonization in chickens after Campylobacter inoculation (Schoeni and Wong, 1994). This 16 protection was enhanced by feeding mannose to the chickens. In a simulated chicken 17 digestive tract model, addition of L. acidophilus, L. fermentum, L. crispatus and L. brevis exerted an antagonistic effect on C. jejuni (Chang and Chen, 2000). Svetoch and Stern (2010) 18 19 have screened thousands of isolates of *Bacillus*, *Paenibacillus*, *Lactobacillus*, *Streptococcus*, 20 Enterococcus and Escherichia and selected hundreds of strains that were active against C. 21 jejuni in vitro. A Lactobacillus strain was isolated from an adult chicken gut that showed 22 bactericidal effects against *Campylobacter in vitro*, probably by the production of organic 23 acids and an anti-Campylobacter peptide (Chaveerach et al., 2004a). Two promising 24 antagonistic isolates (L. salivarius NRRL B-30514 and Paenibacillus polymyxa NRRL-B-25 30509), acting as probiotics, were ineffective to control *Campylobacter*, whether the isolates

were fed to chicks before or after artificial challenge with *C. jejuni* (Stern et al., 2008). These
 isolates were, however, able to produce bacteriocins which are able to reduce the
 Campylobacter load in the gut of colonized birds (see further).

4 It has been demonstrated that it is possible to use combinations of (heterologous) C. jejuni 5 chicken isolates for the competitive exclusion of human pathogenic C. jejuni strains in poultry 6 (Chen and Stern, 2001). Circulation of uncharacterized environmental *Campylobacter* strains 7 in commercial poultry flocks could possibly be biologically controlled by a characterized 8 hyper-colonizing C. jejuni strain. Australian researchers identified such a strain that was 9 capable of displacing other colonizing strains and maintain itself in the chicken GI tract for 10 the entire 56-day broiler production cycle, without being displaced by other (hyper-11)colonizing strains, once colonization was established (Calderon-Gomez et al., 2009).

12 With an approach called antibiotic dissection, day-old turkey poults were inoculated with 13 cecal contents of Campylobacter-free adult turkeys after which the microbial communities in 14 these poults were modified by different antibiotic treatments. It was investigated which 15 modified intestinal microbiota was able to outcompete a Campylobacter challenge. Molecular 16 examination of the constituents of these communities detected a subtype I of Megamonas 17 hypermegale to be specific for a C. jejuni-suppressive application (Scupham et al., 2010). In vivo competition experiments with M. hypermegale isolates of both subtypes will be 18 19 necessary to prove C. *jejuni* exclusion in poultry.

Finally, addition of mannanoligosaccharide to the feed of naturally infected birds and xylanase to the feed of artificially infected broilers, as prebiotics, resulted both in a minor, although significant decrease in cecal *C. jejuni* counts in these animals (Fernandez et al., 2000; Baurhoo et al., 2009).

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25 2.8. Bacteriocin application

2 Svetoch and Stern (2010) recently reviewed bacteriocin application to reduce the cecal 3 Campylobacter counts in broiler chickens of colonized flocks. Applying purified encapsulated 4 bacteriocin from either L. salivarius NRRL B-30514 or P. polymyxa NRRL-B-30509 to the 5 feed during three days before euthanization led to a reduction of cecal Campylobacter 6 colonization in broiler chickens, orally gavaged with C. *jejuni* at day-of-hatch, by at least six 7 logs. However, birds were only seven to ten days of age and birds at slaughter age have not 8 been examined in this study. Further research by these authors led to the identification of two 9 more bacteriocin-producing isolates with marked anti-Campylobacter activity: E. 10 durans/faecium/hirae (NRRL B-30745) producing bacteriocin BCN E 760 and E. faecium 11 (NRRL B-30746) producing BCN E 50-52. Both bacteriocins were able to tremendously 12 lower (> $6 \log_{10} CFU/g$ or below detectable levels) the cecal C. *jejuni* load in inoculated 13 broilers. Also in market-aged broilers naturally infected with C. jejuni, these bacteriocins 14 were effective. BCN E 760 reduced the cecal Campylobacter load in these animals from an 15 average of log₁₀ 6.2 CFU/g to undetectable levels when added to the feed four days before 16 slaughter. BCN E 50-52 at 10.8 mg per bird was able to reduce cecal colonization by $> 5 \log_{10}$ 17 CFU/g when added to the drinking water three days before slaughter. Supplementing BCN 18 760 in drinking water at 3.5 to 25 mg per bird for three days before slaughter was most 19 effective, resulting in a complete elimination of C. jejuni in 90% of the cases or else, a 20 reduction of over six logs. The safety of these bacteriocins was confirmed by conducting 21 experiments on monkey and human cell cultures as well as in treated mice and chickens. 22 Italian researchers (Santini et al., 2010) very recently reported both marked in vitro and in 23 vivo activity for Bifidobacterium longum PCB 133 toward Campylobacter. After two weeks 24 of daily administration, excreted B. longum PCB 133 counts were still high in the feces of orally gavaged chicks, even after a wash-out period of six days, and *C. jejuni* numbers were
 significantly reduced by one log after this administration period.

3

4 **3.** Concluding remarks

5

6 Despite all efforts during the past decade there is still no effective, reliable and practical 7 intervention measure available to prevent or to reduce *Campylobacter* colonization in broilers 8 (Lin, 2009). As a consequence, neither the overall prevalence of this pathogen in chicken 9 retail products, nor the number of reported poultry meat consumption-related human 10 campylobacteriosis cases have been reduced in recent years (Moran et al., 2009; EFSA, 11 2009). The incomplete understanding of the chick immune system hampers vaccine 12 development, although the subunit (Omp18/CjaA) Salmonella-vectored vaccine seems a 13 promising candidate for further evaluation. Therefore, increased knowledge about the 14 interaction between C. jejuni and the chicken immune system is needed to identify 15 colonization factors of C. jejuni in the broiler chick which might act as potential targets for 16 vaccine development. The use of bacteriocins and bacteriophages is highly promising and 17 possibly commercially applicable, since safety concerns should not be a main obstacle and 18 their use is ergonomic since they can be easily and efficiently administered to the feed or 19 drinking water. Their potential use, however, still needs further research concerning long-term 20 efficacy. Also, large-scale field trials need to be performed to examine the practical effect of 21 such applications in a commercial poultry production environment. Moreover, successful 22 application of these methods (as well as competitive exclusion, probiotics and even vaccination) might be affected by genomic instability in C. jejuni (Ridley et al., 2008) 23 24 possibly affecting long-term efficacy. Therefore, further research on the abovementioned

topics must be encouraged to demonstrate the genuine contribution of bacteriocin and
 bacteriophage application in commercial poultry settings.

3 To conclude, *Campylobacter* control in poultry faces many hurdles to overcome and 4 probably several strategies will have to be combined if one wants to develop a suitable, 5 reliable and effective strategy to eradicate this human pathogen from poultry flocks.

6

7 **Conflict of interest**

- 8
- 9 None to declare
- 10

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12

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