



## REVIEW ARTICLE

### IDENTIFICATION OF BACTERIAL ISOLATES IN POULTRY PORTIONING OPERATIONS IN KHARTOUM STATE, SUDAN

Salma Yhia Salih Suliman<sup>1</sup> and Elniema A. Mustafa<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Wealth and Irrigation, Khartoum State, Sudan; <sup>2</sup> Department of Food Safety and Veterinary Public Health, College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Bahri, Sudan

#### ARTICLE INFO

##### Article History:

Received 20<sup>th</sup> June, 2024

Received in revised form

19<sup>th</sup> July, 2024

Accepted 19<sup>th</sup> August, 2024

Published online 30<sup>th</sup> September, 2024

##### Key words:

Poultry portioning, foodborne diseases, Salmonella, E. coli; Campylobacter

##### \*Corresponding author:

Elniema A. Mustafa

#### ABSTRACT

This study aimed to identify the bacterial isolates in poultry portioning operations from February 2018 to August 2020 in Khartoum State. Twelve operations of which 6 were chosen from the traditional and 6 from modern sectors to cover the three localities of Khartoum State. A total of 468 swab samples were collected randomly, of which 288 swab samples for isolation of Salmonella and *E. coli* and 180 swab samples for isolation of campylobacter spp. The results revealed high contamination of work surfaces with Salmonella Spp. after portioning in the traditional sector compared to modern sector 6 (100.0%) and 3 (50.0%), respectively. Prevalence of suspected isolated Salmonella taken from chicken samples before thawing in the traditional sector was found 10 (27.8%), while it increased to 20 (55.5%) after thawing and to 22 (61.1%) after portioning. Prevalence of suspected isolated Salmonella in chicken samples in the modern sector after portioning was found 23 (63.9%). The result also disclosed that prevalence of isolated *E. coli* from samples in frozen chicken before portioning was 14 (38.9%), decreased to 13 (36.1%) in thawed chicken before portioning and increased to 18 (50.0%) after portioning in the traditional sector. While the prevalence in modern sector for chicken after portioning was found 16 (44.4%). No campylobacter was isolated from samples in both traditional and modern sectors. This study concluded that poultry portioning meat in different processes in Khartoum State was contaminated with *E. coli* and suspected Salmonella.

Copyright©2024, Salma Yhia Salih Suliman and Elniema A. Mustafa. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Citation: Salma Yhia Salih Suliman and Elniema A. Mustafa. 2024. "Identification of Bacterial Isolates in Poultry Portioning Operations in Khartoum State, Sudan". *International Journal of Current Research*, 16, (09), 29745-29751.

## INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, there has been a global rise in the consumption of poultry meat (Ukut *et al.*, 2010). However, raw poultry products are said to be the source of a sizable number of human instances of food poisoning due to the relatively high frequency of pathogenic bacterial contamination of poultry (Geornaras *et al.*, 1995). Numerous food-borne infections have been linked to pathogenic bacteria, including Salmonella spp., *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, Campylobacter spp., and *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli* 0157:H7) (Nouichi and Hamdi, 2009). Most of the Salmonella Spp. discovered on poultry meat are thought to be capable of causing food poisoning in humans since they are not host-specific (Javadi and Safarmashaei, 2011). While campylobacter is less suited to survive outside of the digestive tract of warm-blooded animals, Salmonella thrives in the environment (Javadi and Safarmashaei, 2011).

Earlier research on the microbial contamination of poultry meat has concentrated on finding pathogens, primarily Salmonella and Campylobacter, and has occasionally examined how these pathogens behave under various decontamination, transformation, and storage scenarios (Rouger *et al.*, 2017). These bacteria develop in the slaughterhouse when live poultry is processed into meat since veterinary inspection methods are unable to detect the presence of bacteria on meat (Nouichi and Hamdi, 2009). It is worth noting that the personnel, the facilities of the slaughterhouses, and the birds slaughtered are the primary sources of infection. Apart from pathogenic bacteria, particular emphasis is given to the total count of aerobic mesophilic bacteria, enterobacteria, and *E. coli* in the hygienic preparation and storage of chicken meat. These microorganisms are regarded as markers of microbiological quality (Javadi and Safarmashaei, 2011). Since it develops antibiotic resistance more quickly than other common bacteria, *E. coli*, a normal resident of the digestive tracts of warm-blooded animals and humans, is used as an indicator bacterium (Miranda *et al.* 2008). Therefore, its

presence consistently indicates fecal contamination and suggests a potential enteric pathogen infection. The birds may be extensively exposed to bacterial pathogens such *L. monocytogenes*, *Campylobacter*, and other intestinal bacteria in the absence of sanitary settings (Maretha *et al.*, 1996). Mustafa *et al.* (2016) reviewed the contamination of broiler meat with *Salmonella* spp. and *E. coli* in poultry slaughterhouses in Khartoum State. They found that these bacterial contaminants were considered by many authors to be predominant in poultry slaughterhouses (Ahmed, 2014; Munir *et al.*, 2014; Mohamed-Noor *et al.*, 2012; Khalifa, 2015). It is noteworthy to mention that frozen chicken (ES 1090/2005) must be devoid of *Salmonellae* and *E. coli*. (Mahmoud *et al.*, 2021). Meanwhile, Ordóñez *et al.* (2005) noted that the proper thawing techniques should be taken into consideration and suggested thawing meat slowly at low temperatures in order to ensure the quality of the finished product. While the USDA-FSIS advised that thawing frozen meat in a refrigerator, cold water, or microwave are three acceptable methods, it is not recommended to thaw meat in hot water or on top of a counter. According to Mahmoud *et al.* (2021), the frozen chicken carcasses that were thawed using a refrigerator, microwave, or counter-top methods should have mean values of total aerobic mesophilic bacterial counts that were within the recommended limit of 5Log<sub>10</sub> CFU/g, as described by ES 1090/2005 for frozen chicken carcasses and ES 1651/2005 for chilled chicken carcasses.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Study area and population:** This study was conducted in Khartoum State from February 2018 to August 2020 in the three localities of Khartoum State (Khartoum, Omdurman and Bahri). It included 12 portioning meat operations of which 6 were from the traditional and 6 from modern sectors. While the modern poultry sector constitutes large companies and have additional processing facilities for cutting chicken, tallying, or classifying to wings, breast, drumstick, legs, filet, in addition to proper packing and freezing methods, the traditional sector, on the other hand, resembles small businesses designed solely for cutting and portioning purposes. Compared to the modern operations, the processing areas in these traditional operations, so far, do not comply with the regulations in terms of good manufacturing and good hygienic practices.

**The process steps within the poultry portioning facilities before shipping to retail:** In modern slaughterhouses facilities, chickens are immediately portioned following immersion chilling, followed by packaging, freezing, then shipping to retail. While in traditional portioning operations, the chickens are purchased frozen from modern companies and transported in non-refrigerated vehicles. On arrival to the premises, chickens are emptied from their packages and placed in water on the counter at room temperature for thawing, then they are cut up and repackaged (usually in non-compliant plastic bags). The final step is to refreeze them before shipping to retail.

**Sample size:** A total of 468 swab samples were randomly collected, of which 288 swab samples collected for isolation of *Salmonella* and *E. coli* and 180 swab samples for isolation of *Campylobacter* as shown in Tables (1 & 2):

**Table 1: Total swab samples for isolation of *Salmonella* and *E. coli***

NO	Sample type	Total swab samples for isolation of <i>Salmonella</i> and <i>E. coli</i>
1	Water samples	12
2	Workers' hand samples	48
3	Work surface samples	24
4	Saw samples	24
5	Poultry samples from modern operations	72
6	Poultry samples from traditional operations	108
Total Number of samples		288

**Table 2. Total swab samples for isolation of *Campylobacter***

NO	Sample type	Total number
1	Chicken sample from modern operations	72
2	Chicken sample from traditional operations	108
Total sample		180

**Sample collection procedure:** Type of samples and process steps (Table 3).

**Table 3. Type of samples and sample collection procedures**

No	Type of sample	Process step	Total number
1	Water sample	Source: from end point	12
2	Workers' hands samples	before starting work	24
3	Workers' hands samples	during the work	24
4	Saw swabs	before starting work	12
5	Saw swabs	during the work	12
6	Work surfaces swabs	before starting work	12
7	Work surfaces swabs	during the work	12
8	Chicken swabs	after chilling in modern operations	36
9	Chicken swabs	after portioning from modern operations	36
10	Chicken swabs	frozen chicken before portioning in traditional operations	36
11	Chicken swabs	thawed chicken before portioning in traditional operations	36
12	Chicken swabs	after portioning in traditional operations	36
Total sample			288

**Sample collection for bacteriology:** Sterile swab was swabbed in the breast and leg skin of chicken selected randomly before portioning and after portioning. The area was swabbed vigorously with sterile swabs. The collected swabs of each sample were marked, numbered, and transported promptly in an ice box to the laboratory of the College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Bahri for analysis. The swab samples for isolation of *Campylobacter* were put directly in Bolton broth for enrichment bacteria then 0.1 was taken and put in MCCDA agar with anaerobic condition for 48hr. Method of culturing was done according to FDA (2001), FAO& WHO (1995) and Tran (1998).

**Salmonella detection and isolation:** The methods used in the isolation of *Salmonella* were according to the techniques recommended by the International Organization for Standardization (ISO 6579, 2002). The isolation involved three steps: enrichment in selective media, plating on selective media and biochemical confirmation of suspected colonies

from selective agar media. The enrichment in selective broth media was selenite broth. A portion (1 ml) of the pre-enriched culture was aseptically transferred to 10 ml of selenite broth and incubated at  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 h. After that it was cultured in Xylose Lysine Deoxycholate (XLD) agar (Oxoid CM0469) for isolation purposes. The plates were incubated at  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  for 18–24 h. After incubation, the plates were examined for atypical colonies of Salmonella. For confirmation, presumptive Salmonella colonies were subcultured on nutrient agar (Oxoid CM0003) and incubated at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 18–24 h for further confirmation by biochemical tests.

**The biochemical identification:** each identified colony with typical Salmonella morphology was confirmed biochemically by triple sugar iron (TSI) agar (Oxoid CM0277), Urease (Himedia M111A), Simmons' citrate agar (Himedia M099, India), Indole (Oxoid CM0129), methyl red (MR) and Voges–Proskauer (VP) (Himedia M070) tests. Colonies producing red slant (alkaline), yellow butt (acidic) on TSI agar with H<sub>2</sub>S production and bubbles formation/cracking at the butt (gas production), negative urea utilization (yellow), positive citrate utilization (deep blue slant), negative for indole production from tryptophan, positive for MR test and negative for VP test were considered Salmonella positive (ISO 6579, 2002).

**Escherichia coli isolation:** Isolation and identification of *E. coli* were performed by standard microbiological methods. Samples were suspended in modified peptone water. Roughly 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of the resulting mixture was then suspended in modified peptone water and streaked onto MacConkey agar. A single colony exhibiting a pink color from the growth on MacConkey agar was selected and cultured on Eosin methylene blue agar. Similarly, from colonies displaying distinctive metallic sheen appearances on Eosin methylene blue agar, a single colony was chosen and cultured on sorbitol MacConkey agar (Oxoid Ltd., Hampshire, UK). The plates were subsequently incubated at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 24 hours. Finally, colonies with a pale periphery or those appearing colorless were subjected to an indole test. **Indole-positive isolates, Methyl Red Test:** *E. coli* usually produces a positive result, indicating mixed acid fermentation. **Voges-Proskauer Test:** *E. coli* generally shows a negative result. **Citrate Utilization Test:** *E. coli* typically cannot utilize citrate as a sole carbon source. All biochemical tests were performed according to criteria described by Barrow and Feltham (1993).

**Statistical Analysis:** The collected data was analyzed using SPSS version 20.0. The bacterial counts from direct serial dilution plating were transformed to  $\log_{10}$  cfu /g. Descriptive statistics, frequency, mean was used. Chi-squared procedure for finding association between variables was performed using one sample t-test and paired sample t-test to determine significance in each parameter between traditional and modern portioning ( $P < 0.05$ ).

## RESULTS

**Distribution of suspected Salmonella isolates:** Table (4), explains the distribution of suspected Salmonella isolates from different samples in the traditional sector. The prevalence of Salmonella in water samples was found to be 16.7%, hands before and after portioning 33.3%, work surfaces before and after portioning were 66.7%, and 100.0%, respectively, and saw before and after portioning 50.0% and 83.3%,

respectively. The prevalence of Salmonella in frozen chicken before thawing was 27.8%, after thawing was 55.5%, and after portioning was 61.1%.

**Table 4. Prevalence of suspected Salmonella isolates from samples taken from traditional sector**

Samples	Total sample	Salmonella N (%)
Water	6	1 (16.7%)
Hands before portioning	12	4 (33.3%)
Hands after portioning	12	4 (33.3%)
Work surfaces before portioning	6	4 (66.7%)
Work surfaces after portioning	6	6 (100.0%)
Saw before portioning	6	3 (50.0%)
Saw after portioning	6	5 (83.3%)
Frozen chicken before thawing	36	10 (27.8%)
chicken after thawing	36	20 (55.5%)
chicken after portioning	36	22 (61.1%)

Table (5), explains the distribution of suspected Salmonella isolates from different samples in the modern sector. The prevalence of Salmonella in water samples was found to be 16.7%, hands before and after portioning 25.0% and 75.0%, respectively and work surfaces before and after portioning were 33.3% and 50%, respectively. The distribution of suspected Salmonella isolates in chicken after chilling and it increased to 63.9% after portioning.

**Table 5. Prevalence of suspected Salmonella isolates from samples taken from modern sector**

Samples	Total sample	Salmonella N (%)
Water	6	1 (16.7%)
Hands before portioning	12	3 (25.0%)
Hands after portioning	12	9 (75.0%)
Work surfaces before portioning	6	2 (33.3%)
Work surfaces after portioning	6	3 (50.0%)
Saw before portioning	6	2 (33.3%)
Saw after portioning	6	4 (66.7%)
Chicken after chilling	36	20 (55.5%)
Chicken after portioning	36	23 (63.9%)

**Isolation of E. coli:** Table (6) explains the distribution of isolated *E. coli* from different samples in the traditional sector. The prevalence of *E. coli* in water samples was found to be 66.7%. workers' hands before and after portioning showed prevalence of 33.3% and 66.7%, respectively, while work surfaces before and after portioning were 66.7% and 50.0%, respectively. The prevalence of isolated *E. coli* in frozen chicken before portioning 38.9%, while in thawed chicken before portioning 36.1% and 50.0% after portioning. Prevalence of *E. coli* in different samples in the modern sector is shown in table (7). The prevalence of *E. coli* in water samples was found to be 16.7%, while workers' hands before and after portioning 8.3% and 75.0%, respectively. Chicken after chilling was found 47.2% and 44.4% after portioning.

**Table 6. Prevalence of isolated E. coli in the traditional sector**

Samples	Total sample	<i>E. coli</i> N (%)
Water	6	4 (66.7%)
Hands before portioning	12	4 (33.3%)
Hands after portioning	12	8 (66.7%)
Work surfaces before portioning	6	4 (66.7%)
Work surfaces after portioning	6	3 (50.0%)
Saw before portioning	6	2 (33.3%)
Saw after portioning	6	3 (50.0%)
Frozen chicken before portioning	36	14 (38.9%)
Thawed chicken before portioning	36	13 (36.1%)
Thawed chicken after portioning	36	18 (50.0%)

**Table 7. Prevalence of isolated *E. coli* from samples taken from modern sector**

Samples	Total sample	<i>E. coli</i> N (%)
Water	6	1 (16.7%)
Hands before portioning	12	1 (8.3%)
Hands after portioning	12	5 (75.0%)
Work surfaces before portioning	6	1 (41.7%)
Work surfaces after portioning	6	5 (83.3%)
Saw before portioning	6	0 (0.0%)
Saw after portioning	6	3 (50.0%)
Chicken after chilling	36	17 (47.2%)
Chicken after portioning	36	16 (44.4%)

**Prevalence of isolated *Campylobacter* from samples taken from both modern and traditional sectors:** No *campylobacter* isolated from samples taken in both modern and traditional sectors.

## DISCUSSION

This study aimed to identify the bacterial isolates in poultry portioning operations in Khartoum State. In this study the contamination of work surfaces and equipment, workers' hands with *Salmonella* and *E. coli* was found higher in both traditional and modern sectors. This could be explained by the fact that both traditional and modern sectors improperly maintain sanitary precautions during process steps (scalding, defeathering and evisceration), which results in increased contamination. According to Rouger *et al.* (2017), bacteria, including *Salmonella* and *E. coli*, are commonly found on the surface of fresh meat. These bacteria can adhere to the skin during the scalding process and cross-contaminate other carcasses during later processing stages (Nchez *et al.* 2002; Yang *et al.* 2001). However, bacteria can enter the muscles in processed meat (such as portioned meat) (Rouger *et al.*, 2017).

Nde *et al.* (2007) investigated cross-contamination of poultry meat at various process phases, such as scalding and defeathering, and found a high incidence of *Salmonella* (47% and 63%) before and after defeathering, respectively. According to Clouser *et al.* (1995a, b), there was a notable increase in *Salmonella*-positive carcasses (71%) following defeathering in comparison to pre-defeathering (21%). Peristaltic movements, which are also responsible for feces being expelled, can be brought on by rubber or picking fingers (Berrang *et al.* 2011). Cross-contamination across carcasses is highly likely since the picking fingers are not replaced when ruptured (Nde *et al.* 2007). Moreover, during the evisceration process step cross-contamination may occur through escape of gut content (Berrang *et al.*, 2011). In this study, the high initial *Salmonella* count (27.8%), in frozen chicken before being thawed may be attributed to inadequate chilling and freezing methods in the source or due to transport means that lack chilling devices. This finding does not conform with Cason *et al.* (2004) who reported that an adequate chilling method was a factor in preventing the proliferation of contamination.

The current study showed an increasing trend in *Salmonella* contamination in the traditional sector during different processes such as from 27.8% in frozen chicken to 55.5% after thawing and before portioning and ending with 61.1% after portioning. This is attributed to the fact that chickens in the traditional operations are usually thawed, portioned, and repacked at room temperature. Other factors contributing to poultry meat contamination in Khartoum State are obviously seen from the poor handling during processing (Mustafa *et al.*,

2016). This study showed a large variability in suspected *Salmonella* prevalence among different sectors. After all, counts higher than 60% were recorded in both traditional and modern sectors. Lower *Salmonella* prevalence in poultry meat has been recorded from retail stores, retail marketplaces, and processing facilities worldwide, using both conventional and traditional methods. According to reports, it can range from as high as 20% from a poultry processing plant in the USA (Russell 2009) to as low as 1.56% from a plant that processes poultry in Morocco (Cohen *et al.* 2007). The prevalence of *Salmonella* spp. in broiler slaughterhouses in Khartoum State was 10.4% (Munir *et al.*, 2014). The rates observed for broilers in retail marketplaces were 10.60% in the Croatian market (Kožačinski *et al.* 2006), 31% in India (Dahal 2007), 35.5% in Mexico (Miranda *et al.* 2009), and 5.92% in Saudi Arabia (Moussa *et al.* 2010). Adesiji *et al.* (2011) claimed that in Osogbo, there is a prevalence of 2%, while Ukut *et al.* (2010) indicated that in Calabar metropolitan, there is an 11.1% prevalence. Percentage prevalence of *E. coli* in poultry meat has been variably depending on method and media used in its isolation. The high prevalence of *E. coli* in workers' hands and work surfaces in the present study can be attributed to carcasses contaminated with the gastrointestinal contents during processing (Jeffery *et al.* 2003). It is advised that poultry meat be completely free of *E. coli* before it is deemed suitable for human consumption. Work-related levels are a reflection of the high rates seen in retail. In contrast to 11.1% and 16% from Osogbo (Adesiji *et al.* 2011) and Calabar metropolitan (Ukut *et al.* 2010), respectively, the prevalence in chicken after portioning 18 (50.0%) in traditional sector and 16 (44.4%) in modern sector acquired from this study is quite high.

In the present study, prevalence of *E. coli* for frozen chicken in the traditional sector before thawing was found to be 38.9%, and 36.1% before portioning while it was 50.0% after portioning. These elevated levels of contamination with *E. coli* could result from contaminated equipment, storage, or transportation facilities, or from a polluted line where intestines inadvertently leak onto processed meat. Similar results were revealed by Munir *et al.* (2014) who recorded prevalence of 34.6% in poultry meat and poultry products in Khartoum State. Also, the findings of Cohen *et al.* (2007) in Morocco agreed to those of this study. Extremely higher prevalence of *E. coli* (98%) was detected in chicken meat samples in India (Saikia and Joshi 2010) when compared to this obtained from this study. Such high prevalence of *Escherichia coli* reflects the improper sanitary conditions of the processing environment (Mustafa *et al.*, 2016) and fecal contamination from the processing line as suggested by Ahmed (2004) and Kaboor (2011). Lower percentages (19% and 20%) were reported in South Africa (Dahal 2007) and USA (Russell 2009). Additionally, Adesiji *et al.* (2011) and Ukut *et al.* (2010) reported 16% and 11.1% percentages in Osogbo and Calabar metropolis in Nigeria, respectively. Much lower percentage (1.56%) was reported by Cohen *et al.* (2007) in a processing plant in Morocco.

No *campylobacter* spp. was isolated from samples taken from both modern and traditional sectors in the course of this study. This may be attributed to the fact that freezing reduces the number of *Campylobacter* in poultry carcasses. This fact is supported by Sampers *et al.* (2010) and Chapman *et al.* (2016) who reported that chilling or freezing has been shown to have a reducing effect on *Campylobacter* spp., with freezing having

a particularly noticeable effect that either completely inactivates the pathogens or significantly lowers their numbers. This finding is similar to a study conducted by Nour (2009) from carcass cuts (breast, thighs and filleting) of broiler chicken from different retail markets in Khartoum state. A similar result has been reported by Kozacinski *et al.* (2006). This may be attributed to the fact that freezing reduces the number of *Campylobacter* in the carcass. This finding also agreed with Dufrenne *et al.* (2001) who found that the levels of *Campylobacter* spp. in frozen chickens were lower than in chilled chickens and this may be related to the freeze-damaged cells encountered on frozen carcasses. The exposure of broilers to lower temperatures for extended periods of time may be a factor in decreasing *Campylobacter* population in broiler carcasses. The results of this study disagree with Sanchez *et al.* (2002) who found that *Campylobacter* levels in chilled carcasses were significantly higher in immersion chilling. This may be because *Campylobacter* seems to be unable to colonize in the processing facility and contaminate broilers from flocks processed at later dates in the plant (Hinton *et al.*, 2004). However, *Campylobacter* infection is considered one of the leading causes of bacterial gastroenteritis in developed and developing countries (Kaakoushm *et al.*, 2015; Nohra *et al.*, 2016). Several studies have associated the risk of human *Campylobacter* infection with highly contaminated broiler carcasses (Callicott *et al.*, 2008; Nauta and Havelaar, 2008).

This result also contrasts with many studies worldwide that showed prevalences of *Campylobacter* of 8.1% as were reported by Suzuki and Yamamoto (2009) in Estonia and also contradicted to Karolyi *et al.* (2003) and Bartkowiak-Higgo *et al.* (2006). However, the presence of *Campylobacter* in broiler operations is attributed to the fact that these operations do not adhere to the cold chain and on-chain chilling adequate measures to meet process hygiene (Stella *et al.*, 2021).

## CONCLUSION

This study concluded that poultry portioning meat in different processes in Khartoum State was contaminated with *E. coli* and suspected *Salmonella*. Quality control systems must be introduced in traditional and modern sectors, particularly with respect to portioning practices.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors express their heartfelt gratitude to the owners of the poultry slaughterhouses, poultry portioning and the veterinarians overseeing these operations for their valuable cooperation. Thanks also extend to the staff of the laboratory at the College of Veterinary Medicine, University of Bahri, for their assistance.

**Funding:** This research was self-funded.

**Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

**Competing Interests:** The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

**Ethical standards:** The manuscript does not contain clinical studies or patient data.

## Author contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Material preparation, data collection, conduction of laboratory analysis, and contribution to drafting the initial manuscript were performed by Salma Yhia Salih Suliman. The study conception and design, general supervision over the research and the edition and reviewing of the final manuscript were performed by Elniema A. Mustafa.

## REFERENCES

- Adesiji, Y. O., Alli, O. T., Adekanle, M. A., and Jolayemi, J. B. (2011). Prevalence of *Arcobacter*, *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Salmonella* species in retail raw chicken, pork, beef and goat meat in Osogbo, Nigeria. *Sierra Leone Journal of Biomedical Research*, 3(1), 8-12.
- Ahmed, K.K. (2004). Meat Hygiene Assessment in a Slaughter House in Khartoum State.M.V.Sc.Thesis University of Khartoum, Sudan.
- Ahmed, H. A. (2014) Bacterial Contamination Of Chicken Carcasses At Abattoir in Khartoum State-Sudan. A dissertation submitted to Sudan University of Science and Technology for partial fulfillment of the Requirement for Master Degree of Preventive Veterinary Medicine (M.P.V .M).
- Barrow, G.I. and Feltham, R.K.A. (1993). Cowan and Steels. Manual for the identification of medical bacteria (3rd ed). Cambridge University Press,Cambridge
- Bartkowiak-Higgo, A. J., Veary, C. M., Venter, E. H., and Bosman, A. M. (2006). A pilot study on post-evisceration contamination of broiler carcasses and ready-to-sell livers and intestines (mala) with *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Campylobacter coli* in a high-throughput South African poultry abattoir. *Journal of the South African Veterinary Association*, 77(3), 114-119.
- Berrang, M. E., Smith, D. P., and Meinersmann, R. J. (2011).Variations on standard broiler processing in an effort to reduce *Campylobacter* numbers on postpick carcasses.*Journal of Applied Poultry Research*, 20(2), 197-202.
- Callicott K. A., Harðardóttir H., Georgsson F., Reiersen J., Friðriksdóttir V., Gunnarsson E., *et al.* (2008). Broiler *Campylobacter* contamination and human campylobacteriosis in Iceland.*Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 74 6483–6494.
- Cason, J. A., Berrang, M. E., Buhr, R. J., and Cox, N. A. (2004). Effect of prechill fecal contamination on numbers of bacteria recovered from broiler chicken carcasses before and after immersion chilling. *Journal of Food Protection*, 67(9), 1829-1833.
- Chapman, B., A. Otten, A. Fazil, N. Ernst, and B. A. Smith. (2016). A review of quantitative microbial risk assessment and consumer process models for *Campylobacter* in broiler chickens. *Microb. Risk Anal.* 2(-3):3–15.
- Clouser, C. S., Doores, S., Mast, M. G., & Knabel, S. J. (1995a). The role of defeathering in the contamination of turkey skin by *Salmonella* species and *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Poultry Science*, 74(4), 723–731.. Retrieved from [https://watermark.silverchair.com/api/watermark?token=AQECAHi208BE49Ooan9khhW\\_Er cy7Dm3ZL\\_9Cf3qfKAc485ysgAAAgEwggH9BgkqhkiG9w0BBwagggHuMIIB6gIBADCCAeMGCSqGSIb3DQEHATAeBglghkgBZQMEAS4wEQQMPp8pXrAo5qEytwnO](https://watermark.silverchair.com/api/watermark?token=AQECAHi208BE49Ooan9khhW_Er cy7Dm3ZL_9Cf3qfKAc485ysgAAAgEwggH9BgkqhkiG9w0BBwagggHuMIIB6gIBADCCAeMGCSqGSIb3DQEHATAeBglghkgBZQMEAS4wEQQMPp8pXrAo5qEytwnO)

- AgEQgIIBtAfzUrNnJTQuXEYb7yOd2\_jVLuZDk2rL1gqjt3HJEPxJO
- Clouser, C. S., Knabel, S. J., Mast, M. G., & Doores, S. (1995b). Effect of type of defeathering system on Salmonella cross-contamination during commercial processing. *Poultry Science*, 74(4), 732–741. Retrieved from <https://academic.oup.com/ps/article-lookup/doi/10.3382/ps.0740732>
- Cohen N, Ennaji H, Bouchrif B, Hassar M, Karib H (2007) Comparative study of microbiological quality of raw poultry meat at various seasons and for different slaughtering processes in Casablanca (Morocco). *J Appl Poult Res* 16:502–508. doi:10.3382/japr.2006-00061.
- Dahal N (2007) Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance of salmonella in imported chicken carcasses in Bhutan. p1,9,14,15. <http://www.moa.gov.bt/ncah/download/files/pub7mc3308ib.pdf>
- Dufrenne, J., Ritmeester, W., ASCH, E. D. V., van LEUSDEN, F. R. A. N. S., and de JONGE, R. O. B. (2001). Quantification of the contamination of chicken and chicken products in the Netherlands with Salmonella and Campylobacter. *Journal of food protection*, 64(4), 538-541.
- FAO and WHO (1995). Codex Alimentarius Report of the twenty-seven session of the codex of committee food hygiene. Codex Alimentarius Commission. Washington DC, alinorm 95/13.
- FDA.(2001). Bacteriological Analytical Manual Isolation of Campylobacter species from food and water. Washington:FDA.
- Geornaras, I., A. De Jesus, E. Van Zyl and A. Von Holy, (1995). Microbiological survey of a South African poultry processing plant. *J. Basic Microbiol.*, 35: 73-82.
- Hinton, A., Jr.; Cason, J.A.; Ingram, K.D. (2004). Tracking spoilage bacteria in commercial poultry processing and refrigerated storage of poultry carcasses. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 91, 155–165.
- ISO 6579 (2002). Microbiology of Food and Animal Feeding Stuffs – Horizontal Method for the Detection of *Salmonella* spp.
- Javadi, A., Safarmashaei, S. (2011). Microbial profile of marketed broiler meat. *Middle-East J. Sci. Res.*, 9 (5): 652-656.
- Jeffery, B., Donald A.B., Gill, C.O. (2003). Implementation of a validated HACCP system for the control of microbiological contamination of pig carcass at a small abattoir. *Canadian Veterinary Journal*, 44(1).
- 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.
- Kabour G.A. (2011). Evaluation of Microbial Contamination of Chicken Carcasses during Processing in Khartoum State. M.V.Sc. Thesis Sudan University of Science and Technology, Sudan.
- Karolyi, L. G., Medić, H., Vidaček, S., Petrak, T., and Botka, K. (2003). Bacterial population in counter flow and parallel flow water chilling of poultry meat. *European Food Research and Technology*, 217(5), 412-415.
- Khalifa Omer, Abdelrahman Khalifa (2015) Studies on Salmonella spp. and Escherichia coli Contamination in Poultry Meat Carcasses at an Automatic Slaughterhouse in Khartoum State, Sudan A thesis Submitted to the College of Graduate Studies in the fulfillment of the Requirement of Attaining Master of Science in Veterinary Preventive Medicine and Public Health Sudan University of Science and Technology.
- Kozačinski, L., Hadžiosmanović, M., and Zdolec, N. (2006). Microbiological quality of poultry meat on the Croatian market. *Veterinarski arhiv*, 76(4), 305-313.
- Mahmoud DH, Mahmoud HB, EL-Nawawi FAM and Abdel-Naeem HHS, (2021). Impact of thawing methods on the bacteriological quality of chicken meat. *International Journal of Veterinary Science* 10(3): 214-219. <https://doi.org/10.47278/journal.ijvs/2021.041>
- Maretha, O., C.M. Veary, T.E. Cloete and A. Von Holy, (1996). Microbial status of chicken carcasses from a non-automated poultry processing plant. *J. Basic Microbiol.*, 36: 41-49.
- Miranda, J. M., Vazquez, B. I., Fente, C. A., Calo-Mata, P., Cepeda, A., and Franco, C. M. (2008). Comparison of antimicrobial resistance in Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, and Listeria monocytogenes strains isolated from organic and conventional poultry meat. *Journal of food protection*, 71(12), 2537-2542.
- Miranda JM, Mondraón AC, Martínez B, Guarddon M, Rodríguez JA (2009) Prevalence and antimicrobial resistance patterns of Salmonella from different raw foods in Mexico. *J Food Prot* 72(5):p966
- MOHAMED-NOOR, S.E. SHUAIB, Y.A. SULIMAN, S.E. and ABDALLA, M.A. (2012). STUDY OF MICROBIAL CONTAMINATION OF BROILERS IN MODERN ABATTOIRS IN KHARTOUM STATE. *Food Technology* 36(1) 74-80.
- Moussa IM, Gassem MA, Al-Doss AA, Sadik WAM, Mawgood AA (2010). Using molecular techniques for rapid detection of Salmonella serovars in frozen chicken and chicken products collected from Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. *Afr J Biotechnol* 9(5):612–619
- Munir, E. H. Khalifa K. A. and Mohammed A. M. (2014). Status of Food Safety Due to Bacterial Contaminants of Poultry Meat and Poultry Products in Khartoum State. 3(14): 1897-1904; Article no. JSRR.2014.14.006.
- Mustafa E. A., Adil M.A. Salman and Iman M. Hamad (2016). Review on Food Safety System with Reference To Meat Operations In Khartoum State, Sudan. *RAJAR* Volume 2 Issue 07 July 2016.
- Nauta M. J., Havelaar A. H. (2008). Risk-based standards for *Campylobacter* in the broiler meat chain. *Food Control* 19 372–381.
- Nchez, M. X. S., Fluckey, W. M., Brashears, M. M., & McKee, S. R. (2002). Antibiotic susceptibility of Campylobacter spp. and Salmonella spp. in broilers processed in air-chilled and immersion-chilled environments. *Journal of Food Protection*, 65(6), 948–956.
- Nde, C. W., McEvoy, J. M., Sherwood, J. S., & Logue, C. M. (2007). Cross contamination of Turkey carcasses by Salmonella species during defeathering. *Poultry Science*, 86(1), 162–167. Retrieved from <https://academic.oup.com/ps/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/ps/86.1.162>
- Nohra, A., Grinberg, A., Midwinter, A. C., Marshall, J. C., Collins-Emerson, J. M., and French, N. P. (2016). Molecular epidemiology of Campylobacter coli strains isolated from different sources in New Zealand between 2005 and 2014. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 82, 4363–4370.
- Nouichi S, Hamdi TM. (2009). Superficial Bacterial Contamination of Ovine and Bovine Carcasses at ElHarrach Slaughterhouse (Algeria). *Europ. J. Scientific Res.* 38(3): 474-485.
- Nour Abd Elgauom Abdelhay Mohamed(2009). Campylobacter and related organisms

- isolated from broiler carcasses in groceries in Khartoum north, Sudan. A thesis Submitted in partial Fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Veterinary Science Department of Preventive Medicine, Faculty of Veterinary Science, University of Khartoum
- Ordóñez JAP, Rodríguez MIC, Álvarez LF, Sanz MLG, Minguillón GGF, Perales LH and Cortecero MDS, (2005). *Tecnología de alimentos-Alimentos de Origen Animal*. Vol 2, Pp. 279, Artmed, Porto Alegre.
- Rouger, A.; Remnant, B.; Prévost, H.; Zagorec, M. (2017). A method to isolate bacterial communities and characterize ecosystems from food products: Validation and utilization as a reproducible chicken meat model. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, 247, 38–47.
- Russell SM (2009). Salmonella intervention strategies and testing methods. March 2009 issue of the University's poultry tips. <http://www.thepoultrysite.com/articles/1357/salmonella-intervention-strategies-and-testing-methods>
- Saikia P, Joshi SR (2010). Retail market poultry meats of North-East India – a microbiological survey for pathogenic contaminants. *Res J Microbiol* 5(1):36–43
- Sampers, I., I. Habib, L. De Zutter, A. Dumoulin, and M. Uyttendaele. (2010). Survival of *Campylobacter* spp. in poultry meat preparations subjected to freezing, refrigeration, minor salt concentration and heat treatment. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.* 137:147–153.
- Sanchez, M. X., Fluckey, W. M., Brashears, M. M., and McKEE, S. R. (2002). Microbial profile and antibiotic susceptibility of *Campylobacter* spp. and *Salmonella* spp. in broilers processed in air-chilled and immersion-chilled environments. *Journal of Food Protection*, 65(6), 948-956.
- Stella Simone, Erica Tirloni, Cristian Bernardi, and Guido Grilli (2021). Evaluation of effect of chilling steps during slaughtering on the *Campylobacter* sp. counts on broiler carcasses. *Poultry Science*. Volume 100, Issue 3. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psj.2020.11.043>
- Suzuki, H., and Yamamoto, S. (2009). *Campylobacter* contamination in retail poultry meats and by-products in the world: a literature survey. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Science*, 71(3), 255-261.
- Tran, T.T. (1998). A Blood free enrichment for growing *Campylobacter* spp under aerobic conditions. *The Society for Applied Microbiology* 26: 145-148.
- Ukut IOE, Okonko IQ, Ikpoh IS, Nkang AO, Udeze AO, Babalola TA, Mejeha OK, Fajobi EA. (2010). Assessment Of bacteriological quality of fresh meats sold in Calabar Metropolis, Nigeria. *Electron.J. Environ. Agric. FoodChem.* 9(1): 89-100.
- Yang, H., Li, Y. B., & Johnson, M. G. (2001). Survival and death of *Salmonella Typhimurium* and *Campylobacter jejuni* in processing water and on chicken skin during poultry scalding and chilling. *Journal of Food Protection*, 64(6), 770–776.

\*\*\*\*\*