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**Abstract**

Professional training for meat handlers is an European Community food law requirement in order to apply HACCP principles and achieve food safety goals. A self-administered questionnaire designed to assess “Knowledge” and “Practice” of public hygiene measures was completed by meat handlers (MH) (n=159) in slaughterhouses in Portugal. A significant proportion of the group

(72.7%) has had professional training in two different areas: Good Practice in Food Industry (12.03%) and Work Safety and Hygiene (22.8%); 37.9% of the respondents have had training in both areas. However 24.5% of the subjects have never had training. Meat handlers with professional training in Good Practice in Food Industry (GPFI) and in both areas (BT) have had the highest proportions of correct answers in Knowledge ( $66.92\pm 16.36$  and  $67.26\pm 21.05$ , respectively) and Practice questions ( $70.53\pm 17.47$  and  $68.67\pm 22.58$ , respectively).

The results of this study point to the need to improve training, particularly in Good Practice in Food Industry, thus enabling meat handlers to achieve more correct answers in Knowledge and Practice. The development of evaluation criteria for the effectiveness of professional training is crucial to protect Public Health.

**Key Words:** Hygiene, Training, Meat handlers, Knowledge, Practice, Portugal.

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The results of this study point to the need to improve training, particularly in Good Practice in Food Industry, thus enabling meat handlers to achieve more correct answers in Knowledge and Practice. The development of evaluation criteria for the effectiveness of professional training is crucial to protect Public Health.

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## 26 **1. Introduction**

27 The increasing incidence of food borne diseases has been assigned to many  
28 different factors, including population growth, changes in food preparation habits, a  
29 rise in the number of food-service establishments, increased consumption of food  
30 outside the home and a lack of food safety training and education among  
31 consumers and food handlers (Motarjemi & Käferstein, 1999). Worker mishandling  
32 of food is one of the major causes of food borne disease outbreaks (WHO, 2000).  
33 Because outbreaks often lead to severe economic losses, food handler training is an  
34 important business strategy for managing food safety risks. Moreover, food handler  
35 training is seen as one strategy by which food safety can be increased, offering  
36 long-term benefits for the food industry (Smith, 1994). In addition, the European  
37 Parliament has adopted in April 2004 the Regulation (EU) No. 852/2004, underlining  
38 the need for all the food businesses to identify the steps of the production process in  
39 order to ensure food safety and this has been applied to all EU food businesses  
40 since the 1<sup>st</sup> January 2006. The main change relates to food safety management  
41 systems, i.e. risk-based methodologies to ensure food safety. The law's  
42 implementation recognizes education of food handlers as a crucial line of defence in  
43 the prevention of food borne illnesses (Sun & Ockerman, 2005; Legnani, Leoni,  
44 Berveglieri, Mirolo, & Alvaro, 2004; Worsfold, 2001; Martínez-Tomé, Vera & Murcia,  
45 2000). Food business operators shall ensure that all stages of production,  
46 processing and distribution of food under their control satisfy the relevant hygiene  
47 requirements laid down in the Regulation (EU) No. 852/2004 (Jevšnik, Hlebec &  
48 Raspor, 2008). A successful implementation of the procedures based on the  
49 HACCP (Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points) principles will require the full  
50 cooperation and commitment of food business employees and to this end they  
51 should undergo training. Under the personal program of HACCP, employees must  
52 be trained in such areas as food safety, manufacturing controls and personnel

53 hygiene. Once HACCP plans have been established, employees must be trained to  
54 manage any critical control points (CCPs). The necessity of application of the  
55 HACCP principles introduced by the *Codex Alimentarius* 30 years ago became law  
56 in Portugal in 1998 (Diário da República, 1998), and the Portuguese law has  
57 recently established the requisites for a “handler card” (Diário da República, 2006)  
58 for meat handlers (MH) working in meat retail businesses, to apply from 1<sup>st</sup> August  
59 2008. To obtain this card, it is necessary to attend 15 hours of mandatory training on  
60 the following subjects: Meat Hygiene, Food Microbiology, Handlers' Personal  
61 Hygiene, Working spaces and Equipments' Hygiene, Packaging of meat and meat  
62 products, Hygiene of meat selling and delivery, Food Safety and HACCP, Work  
63 Safety and Hygiene. However, this training and this card are not required for  
64 working in abattoirs and deboning rooms, where it is considered that the EU  
65 regulations No. 852/2004 and No. 853/2004 regulate the need for professional  
66 training. The Portuguese general law that regulates work conditions has a legal  
67 requirement of 35 hours of yearly training for all workers (Diário da República, 2003,  
68 2004). Recently, much has been written specifically on training in the food industry,  
69 but a great part of it is rather specific in nature and has been limited to discussions  
70 on single segments, primarily hotels and restaurants (Barrows, 2000; Seaman &  
71 Eves, 2006). There is a general lack of information about professional training for  
72 slaughterhouses and deboning rooms' workers.

73 The aim of this study was to evaluate and compare the level of general knowledge  
74 and practice of meat handlers from slaughterhouses and meat plants from northern  
75 Portugal, evaluating the professional training they have received. To our knowledge,  
76 this is the first survey on meat handling knowledge and practice in Portugal. Other  
77 similar studies have been reported in several countries focusing on food handlers  
78 (Walker, Pritchard & Forsythe, 2003; Nel, Lues, Buys & Venter, 2004; Seaman &

79 Eves, 2006; Gomes-Neves, Araújo, Ramos & Cardoso, 2007; Jevšnik, Hlebec &  
80 Raspor, 2008).

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## 81 2. Material and Methods

### 82 2.1. Questionnaire design

83 The self-administered questionnaire used in this study comprises 24 multiple  
84 choice questions with three or four possible answers, including “do not know” for the  
85 purpose of minimizing the possibility of selecting the correct answer by chance. In  
86 addition, the questionnaire has seven questions related to demographic and job  
87 characteristics of the respondents (age, gender, number of years of formal  
88 education, age at the beginning of professional activity, job description and years of  
89 experience in the present activity and present company, professional training and  
90 the opinion to additional training). The present questionnaire has been adapted from  
91 a questionnaire used in a previous study (Gomes-Neves et al, 2007).

92 The questions were designed and structured in two groups. A group of  
93 questions designated “Knowledge” (14 questions) was intended to assess the  
94 respondent’s knowledge about HACCP, microbiologic hazards development, food  
95 poisoning and food borne illness, safety and health requirements, high-risk food  
96 groups, dirty and clean areas in the workspace and water temperature in knife  
97 sterilizers. A second group of questions designated “Practice” (10 questions) was  
98 designed to assess respondents' habits focused on personal hygiene practice and  
99 cross contamination, working surfaces and instrument washing requirements and  
100 products, meat and chopped meat storage temperatures, freezing temperatures,  
101 temperature ranges and food poisoning agents development, water treatment and  
102 non potable water use, as water supply and quality and food security and safety are  
103 intertwined (Kirby, Bartram & Carr, 2003 )(Table 1).

104 The participants answering the questionnaire have remained anonymous.  
105 Each participant has been informed of the purpose of the survey and that  
106 confidentiality would be assured.

107

## 108 2.2. Questionnaire delivery

109 The questionnaire has been delivered in person in seven red meat abattoirs with  
110 deboning rooms, during routine meat inspection of the Veterinary Official Services  
111 between May 2007 and May 2008, in two different regions of northern Portugal. In  
112 each meat plant, questionnaires have been delivered to all the employees  
113 performing tasks related with meat handling. The completed questionnaires have  
114 been collected in person one month later.

## 115 2.3. Statistical analysis

116 The analysis of the questionnaires has been performed using the computer software  
117 SPSS® (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL; version 17.0). The significance of the statistical  
118 differences of the proportion of correct answers between the groups of participants  
119 classified according to professional training has been identified using the Chi-  
120 Square test. The 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) of the proportion of correct  
121 answers in each group have been estimated according to the Wilson procedure with  
122 a correction for continuity (Wilson, 1927; Newcombe, 1998). The differences in the  
123 mean scores of Knowledge and Practice questions between the same groups  
124 referred to above have been determined using one-way ANOVA with a post-hoc  
125 test. In all tests, the statistical significance was two-sided and considered significant  
126 at  $p < 0.05$ .

127 **3. Results**

## 128 3.1. Quantitative results

## 129 3.1.1. Participants' response

130 Answers have been obtained from all the meat plants contacted, but 10% of the  
131 employees have not returned the questionnaire. The number of participants was 159  
132 (115 male and 44 female). All but one were Portuguese. The participants' general  
133 characteristics are presented in Table 2.

134

135 3.1.2. Comparative analysis of training areas and periods of time among participants

136 Two different areas of professional training among meat handlers (MH) have been  
137 identified: 1. Good practice in food industry (GPFI), and 2. Work Safety and Hygiene  
138 (WSH). The vast majority of the respondents (72.7%) has had professional training.  
139 Twelve percent (12.03%) of the respondents have had training in GPFI (12.03%),  
140 22.8% in WSH and 37.9% in both areas (BT). During the previous year, 37.7% of  
141 the MH have received between 20 and 35 hours of training, but 24.7% have never  
142 attended professional training (NT). Eighteen percent have had more than 35 hours  
143 of training. For comparison purposes, respondents were divided in four professional  
144 training groups: GPFI, WSH, BT (both training) and NT (no training). Fifty percent  
145 (50.3%) of MH with professional training think that training provides useful  
146 information to their work and 64.9% are interested in future training and consider it  
147 very important.

148 3.1.3. Comparative analysis of response to “Knowledge” and “Practice” questions

149 The group of respondents that has had training in the two areas (BT) reached the  
150 highest mean score of proportion of correct answers in the group “Knowledge”  
151 ( $67.26 \pm 21.05$ ), followed by the GPFI with a mean score of  $66.92 \pm 16.36$  correct  
152 answers; WSH had  $49.21 \pm 22.77$  and NT  $47.89 \pm 22.63$ .

153 In the group of questions “Practice”, GPFI has had the highest proportion of correct  
154 answers with a mean score of  $70.53 \pm 17.47$ , followed by BT ( $68.67 \pm 22.58$ ). The  
155 mean score of correct answers for WSH has been of  $58.33 \pm 19.93$ , and for NT  
156  $63.44 \pm 21.70$ . The difference between the proportion of correct answers to the  
157 questions “Knowledge” and “Practice” is statistically significant between the groups  
158 (one-way ANOVA Table 3). For the group of questions “Knowledge”, a post-hoc test  
159 (Tukey HSD test) has defined two different homogenous groups, one with the

160 respondents that have attended GPFI or both areas of professional training and the  
161 other with the respondents that have had WSH or no training. In the group of  
162 questions "Practice", the same test has assumed two different groups, GPFI and  
163 NT. The other two groups (WSH and BT) could not be discriminated. This analysis  
164 underlines the fact that, for the questionnaire content and for the purpose of food  
165 safety improvement, WSH professional training has no positive impact.

### 166 3.2. Qualitative results

167 It has been considered important to detect finer differences among the answers to  
168 questions that tested the quality of the information sought (Tables 4A and 4B).

#### 169 3.2.1. "Knowledge" Questions (Table 4A)

##### 170 *HACCP*

171 Regarding HACCP, 29.3% of MH have never heard of the term and 7% are  
172 acquainted with the expression but do not know the meaning of it. Regarding  
173 training, from the WSH group, 55.6% answered "do not know" to the question "What  
174 is HACCP?" and that proportion increases to 66.7% in the NT group. The proportion  
175 of respondents who have given correct answers has been of 63.2% in the GPFI  
176 group and 51.7% in the BT group. This group has also had the highest proportion of  
177 incorrect answers: 31.7% (NT: 15.4%, WSH: 22.2% and GPFS:15,8%). These  
178 differences were statistically significant ( $p=0.000$  using Pearson Chi-Square test).

##### 179 *Food Poisoning and Food Borne Illness*

180 Almost the half (47.4%) of GPFI, 58.3% of WSH, 53.3% of BT and 43.6% of NT  
181 believe that they can identify whether meat is contaminated with food poisoning  
182 bacteria by visual, olfactory or taste checks ( $p=0.368$ , using Pearson Chi-Square  
183 test). Similar results have been obtained in other surveys among food handlers  
184 (Walker et al, 2003; Gomes-Neves et al, 2007; Jevšnik et al, 2008) The majority of

185 the MH (60.1%) are aware that insects, other food handlers and raw food are  
186 sources of bacteria, but 26.3 % of GPFI, 44.4% of WSH, 15% of BT and 33.3% think  
187 that MH can only contaminate meat if they are ill ( $p=0.001$ , using Pearson Chi-  
188 Square test). Twenty six percent (26.3%) of GPFI, 30.6% of WSH, 11.7% of BT and  
189 41.0% of NT believe that MH can only get sick if they have contact with animal blood  
190 during work activity ( $p=0.000$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test). A significant majority  
191 of MH knows that diarrhoea is the symptom that is most associated with food borne  
192 illness (85.3%) but 33.3% of NT, 30.6% of WSH and 11.7% of BT have not been  
193 able to identify consequences of intestinal bacterial infection (*E. coli*, *Salmonella*,  
194 *Campylobacter* and *Yersinia*). These differences among groups of respondents  
195 were statistically significant ( $p=0.001$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test). Sixty two  
196 percent (61.5%) of NT have answered “do not know” to the question that relates  
197 *Listeria monocytogenes* with food borne illness and 55.6% of WSH, 38.3% of BT  
198 and 26.3% of GPFI have given the same answer. Sixteen (16.0%) percent of all MH  
199 knew the name of the bacteria but did not identify the disease or transmission paths  
200 ( $p=0.108$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test).

#### 201 *Temperature and Food Poisoning Agent's Inactivation*

202 Twenty percent of WSH (19.5) and NT (20.4) have answered “do not know” to the  
203 question “What happens to bacteria at 37°C?”. More than a half (52.6%) of GPFI,  
204 41.7% of WSH, 51.7% of BT and 28.2% of NT think that pasteurised milk is a sterile  
205 product. Among the NT group, 43.6% have not answered the question “identify a  
206 sterile food product” ( $p=0.105$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test). High temperature  
207 has been recognised as a safe method to destroy bacteria by 52.6% of GPFI, 50.0%  
208 of WSH, 56.7% of BT and 48.7% of NT but 24.4% of MH think that refrigeration also  
209 kills bacteria. The majority (64.6%) of MH knows that 82 °C is the correct  
210 temperature for the water in sterilisers for knives and steels in stations located along  
211 the slaughter floors (Eustace *et al*, 2007), but 21.1% of GPFI, 38.9% of WSH, 30.0%

212 of BT and 28.2% of NT have not answered correctly. The differences between the  
213 groups of respondents were not statistically significant.

#### 214 *Safety and Health Requirements*

215 Many MH did not seem to be aware of basic safety and health requirements to work  
216 with food. A majority of GPFI, WSH and NT (52.6%, 52.8% and 51.3%, respectively)  
217 have not identified skin disease, gastrointestinal disturbances, eye/ear and throat  
218 disease as conditions that are not acceptable in meat handling. Only 28.3% of BT  
219 ignored these conditions. Thirty four percent of the MH answered that only a skin  
220 disease is a non acceptable condition for meat handling. Sixty eight percent (67.5%)  
221 of the MH were aware of the need for skin injury protection in meat handling  
222 ( $p=0.009$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test).

223 According to Jacob (1989), routine medical examinations of food handlers are of  
224 little value because they merely reveal the health status of the worker at a specific  
225 point in time. The author further states that these medical examinations are  
226 unreliable and that carriers of pathogens are unlikely to transmit these organisms. In  
227 this study, 72.4% of the respondents have indicated that they have been to routine  
228 medical examinations during the previous year, while 5.9% indicated that they have  
229 gone because they felt sick, whereas 12.5% needed to undergo medical  
230 examinations before employment. Food handlers must undergo medical  
231 examinations before employment to assess the general health. However, it has  
232 been suggested that routine medical examinations are regarded as not being cost-  
233 effective and, in fact, unreliable (Jacob, 1989; Nel *et al* 2004).

#### 234 *Dirty and Clean Workspaces at the Abattoir*

235 Sixteen percent (15.8%) of GPFI, 44.4% of WSH, 20.0% of BT and 35.9% of NT  
236 have identified incorrectly all the dirty areas in the abattoir. Of all MH, 10% think that

237 only the lairage is a dirty space, and 18% have only identified the room where offal  
238 are washed and prepared ( $p=0.001$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test)..

### 239 3.2.2. "Practice" Questions (Table 4B)

#### 240 *Instruments and Working Surface Cleaning*

241 Eighty nine percent (88.5%) of the respondents were aware of the working surfaces  
242 and instruments washing and disinfection routine and correct steps and only 5.7%  
243 answered that they did not have contact with that operation. As far as disinfection is  
244 concerned, 25.3% of MH thought that sodium hypochlorite is the best disinfectant in  
245 meat industry but 47.4% were aware of the need for regular rotation of products for  
246 this purpose (Meyer, 2006). However, 12% did not know that, after the use of  
247 disinfectant on instruments and surfaces, both of them must be cleaned with potable  
248 water. Forty two percent (42.1%) of GPFI, 25.0% of WSH, 31.7% of BT and 30.8%  
249 of NT thought that non-potable water could be used for the cleaning of working  
250 surfaces and instruments. These differences were not statistically significant.

#### 251 *Personal Hygiene*

252 To the question "When do you wash your hands during a work day" only 3.2% of MH  
253 have not answered and 89.2% have answered that they washes them several times  
254 and whenever the activity is interrupted ( $p=0.181$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test).  
255 To the question "different steps to correct hand wash", 5.8% of MH have not  
256 answered. The majority of MH referred all the steps for a correct hand wash,  
257 however 21.1% of GPFI, 38.9% of WSH, 30.0% of BT and 43.6% of NT have  
258 answered incorrectly, because they have not mentioned the use of nail brush  
259 ( $p=0.015$ , using Pearson Chi-Square test).

#### 260 *Temperature Control*

261 From the three ranges of temperatures presented, 0-4 °C/5-65 °C/70-80 °C, only  
262 32.3% of the MH identified the range of 5-65°C as the high-risk meat storing  
263 temperature. The GPFI group has also had the highest proportion of incorrect  
264 answers (63.2%), followed by BT (53.3%), WSH (52.8%) and NT (51.3%).  
265 Interestingly, the GPFI group seems to be confident regarding this topic since none  
266 of the respondents report “do not know” to this question, although the majority of the  
267 subjects has answered incorrectly. Seventy eight percent (77.8%) knew of the  
268 correct red meat storage temperature but only half of MH have reported the correct  
269 freezing temperature (50.6%) and the correct storage temperature for chopped meat  
270 (51.3%). If we consider professional training, WSH group has had a lower proportion  
271 of correct answers on red meat storage temperature (63.9%) than NT (74.4%).  
272 Twenty six percent (26.3%) of GPFI, 44.4% of WSH, 30.0% of BT and 23.1% of NT  
273 have answered incorrectly to the question about chopped meat storage temperature  
274 and 33.3% of NT answered “do not know” ( $p=0.036$ , using Pearson Chi-Square  
275 test).

#### 276 *Change of Clothes and Instruments and Cross-contamination Sources*

277 Only twenty one percent (21.1%) of the GPFI, 27.8% of the WSH, 31.7% of BT and  
278 33.3% of NT recognise the need to change clothes and knives by the end of the  
279 work at the abattoir (mainly in the first hours of the day), when they continue their  
280 tasks in the deboning room of the same building ( $p=0.087$ , using Pearson Chi-  
281 Square test). Fifty seven percent (56.8%) of all MH change their protective clothing  
282 but do not replace knives and 5.8% carry their clothes and knives from the slaughter  
283 room into the deboning room. Regarding the porosity of surfaces, it can be observed  
284 that porous surfaces (clothes, aprons, sponges, etc.) show lower transfer rates  
285 when compared to non-porous surfaces as stainless steel and knobs (Scott &  
286 Bloomfield, 1990; Kusumaningrum, Van Putten, Rombouts & Beumer, 2002).  
287 However, in this case, although apparently a lower risk might be associated to

288 transfer from fabrics, it should be noted that the residual water (and eventually  
289 blood) accumulated in clothes would enable bacteria to survive for longer periods  
290 and, consequently, bacterial transfer events could also be prolonged (Bloomfield,  
291 Arthur, Van Klingerren, Holah, Pullen & Elton,1994; Eustace, Midgley, Giarrusso,  
292 Laurent, Jenson & Sumner, 2007; Rusin , Maxwell & Gerba , 2002).

293 In addition to protective clothing fulfilling a safety function, 44.7% wear stainless  
294 steel mesh gloves. Stainless steel gloves also require cleaning and sterilisation, but  
295 these gloves are difficult to clean, due to their woven construction (Van Zyl, 1998).  
296 Upon asking the respondents about the frequency of cleaning, 59.5% have reported  
297 that they wash and sterilise their gloves several times a day, whenever they are  
298 visibly dirty (usually full of fatty or bloody deposits). Furthermore, a small  
299 percentage, 11.1% sterilises their gloves on a daily basis (end of work), while 22.2%  
300 have answered they never washed or sterilised their gloves because they were not  
301 connected with cleaning tasks. According to the Canadian Food Inspection Agency  
302 (CFIA), these gloves should be sterilised at regular intervals throughout the working  
303 shifts to prevent cross-contamination between gloves and meat (CFIA, 1990; Nel *et*  
304 *al*, 2004).

305 On the matter of Pre-Requisite Plans (PRP) participation, 56.6% did not participate  
306 in any activity. The highest participation is related with cleaning activity, since 17.8%  
307 complete cleaning checklist forms and only 9.2% participate in meat temperature  
308 control activities, whereas 8.6% have maintenance related tasks.

#### 309 **4. Discussion**

310 The questionnaire designed for the present study has allowed to detect quantitative  
311 differences in “knowledge” and “practice” skills among the participants. The  
312 satisfactory participation has permitted to highlight the existence of differences  
313 between MH who have and have not received professional training, obtaining the

314 groups NT, WSH, GPFI and BT. This is remarkable and somewhat reassuring.  
315 Nevertheless, a further finer analysis of the content of the questions themselves  
316 (qualitative results) has not led to the same sense of reassurance. The proportion of  
317 correct answers in the MH groups who have had GPFI or BT training is significantly  
318 higher than the others from a statistical point of view, but results have also indicated  
319 that WSH training is not relevant to Food Hygiene and Food Safety knowledge and  
320 practice.

321 Regarding HACCP, which is a recent and relevant imposition of the EU Food Law,  
322 there was still a high proportion of MH (even with professional training, the WSH  
323 group ) who were unacquainted with the concept. To the question "What is HACCP",  
324 only half of BT have answered correctly and this group has also had the highest  
325 proportion of incorrect answers, somehow contrary to what should be expected. It  
326 seems to be very difficult to implement an HACCP based system in this industry,  
327 when a high proportion of employees is not familiar with this reality and does not  
328 participate in PRP. Mortimore and Smith (1998) have shown that many trainers had  
329 been willing to provide HACCP training without considering the scope (what has to  
330 be taught and what need not) and the depth of coverage. Although numerous  
331 companies have developed, documented and implemented training programs, few  
332 understand why employee training is important, what their training requirements are,  
333 or how to assess the effectiveness of in-house training programs.

334 In the matter of meat storage temperatures, e.g. red meat, the WSH group has had  
335 the highest rate of incorrect answers and the lowest of correct answers. The BT  
336 group has not had better results, regarding the fact that they associate two different  
337 areas of professional training. A high proportion of GPFI, WSH and BT rely on  
338 visual, olfactory or taste checks to identify bacteria contaminated meat. This finding  
339 is difficult to explain, considering that they all have had professional training. The  
340 study demonstrates that there is also a general lack of knowledge on microbiological

341 food hazards, i.e. *E. coli*, *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter*, *Yersinia* and *Listeria*  
342 *monocytogenes*.

343 It is generally accepted that the hands of food handlers are an important vehicle of  
344 food cross-contamination and that improved personal hygiene and scrupulous hand  
345 washing lead to the basic control of spread of potentially pathogenic transient  
346 microorganisms (Allwood, Jenkins, Paulus, Johnson, & Hedberg, 2004; Daniels,  
347 MacKinnon, Rowe, Bean, Griffin, & Mead, 2002; Fry, Braden, Griffin, & Hughes,  
348 2005; Lues & Van Tonder, 2007; Sneed, Strohbehn, Gilmore, & Mendonca, 2004).  
349 In this study, it has been possible to observe that in the four groups there are  
350 respondents who do not know all the steps for a correct hand wash. According to  
351 the results of Shojaei *et al* (2006), a dramatic reduction in hand contamination has  
352 been observed after a simple intervention that included a face-to-face health  
353 education on strict hand washing after visiting the toilet.

354 Concerning the topic of cross contamination, the majority of MH does not seem to  
355 be aware of the importance of changing clothes and working instruments, when they  
356 move from the tasks developed in “dirty spaces” (located at the abattoir) to “clean  
357 spaces” (deboning room). In addition, they also seem to have difficulties in  
358 identifying the differences between the spaces themselves. The UK surveillance  
359 system has reported that cross contamination was the main contributing factor  
360 (32%) for the outbreaks investigated in the period of 1999-2000 (WHO, 2003).  
361 Similarly, the US Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) have reported  
362 that 18 and 19% of food borne diseases caused by bacteria in the years 1993 and  
363 1997 in the United States were associated with contaminated equipment and poor  
364 hygiene practices, respectively (CDC, 2000). Moreover, although most outbreaks  
365 result from extensive growth at abusive storage temperatures, insufficient cooking,  
366 etc., many are also associated with bacterial cross contamination/recontamination  
367 (Notermans, Zwietering & Mead, 1994; Roberts, 1990). Similarly, various authors

368 have stated that cross contamination of bacterial and viral pathogens in homes and  
369 in food-service establishments could well be the major contributing factor to sporadic  
370 and epidemic food borne illnesses (Beumer & Kusumaningrum, 2003; Bloomfield,  
371 2003; Chen, Jackson, Chea, & Schaffner, 2001). In the present study, a high  
372 proportion of respondents admits a potentially dangerous behaviour on a daily basis  
373 without supervisory support, as 56.8% (n=88) change their knives but do not change  
374 clothes when they end the work at the abattoir and start at the deboning room. In a  
375 HACCP based system perspective this is an unacceptable occurrence.

376 As a result of EU law implementation, Portuguese slaughterhouse and deboning  
377 room owners need to offer professional training to their employees but they do not  
378 show special concerns about their own training program and its contents. According  
379 to the evaluation of the present study, in a high proportion of MH who have had  
380 professional training in WSH, this training has not produced a significant contribution  
381 to meat safety. Furthermore, as several authors suggested, it seems that most  
382 managers in food and meat industry have a limited understanding of the global food  
383 safety strategy (Ehiri, Morris, & McEwen, 1997; Mortimore & Smith, 1998; Khandke  
384 & Mayes, 1998; Williams, Smith, Gaze, Mortimore, Motarjemi, & Wallace, 2003).  
385 MacAuslan (2003) has pointed out that the majority of food businesses do not have  
386 satisfactory training policies for all their staff. The author emphasized that too much  
387 reliance is being placed upon attaining a training certificate rather than attention paid  
388 to achieving competency in food hygiene practice. More emphasis and resources  
389 need to be diverted towards assisting managers to become highly motivated to food  
390 hygiene managers who develop and maintain a food safety background within their  
391 business. Few employers perceive a relationship between investment in their human  
392 resource assets and successful business performance, and training is often  
393 undertaken only to meet perceived statutory or inspection requirements (Pratten &  
394 Curtis, 2002; Seaman & Eves, 2006). Food business owners may be tempted to

395 place the burden of training responsibility on an external employer, and not shoulder  
396 any responsibility themselves. This problem has two sides; firstly the employer lacks  
397 key management skills in leadership, motivation, training and evaluation, and  
398 secondly going for a certificate course as it is the “done thing” (MacAuslan, 2003).  
399 What we have observed in the present study is that the pressure to accomplish the  
400 law leads employers to get specialised training for their employees; however, there  
401 is no evidence that the worker practices improve when training programs provide  
402 only information (Nieto-Montenegro, Brown & LaBorde LF ,2008; Rennie, 1994).  
403 Several studies have demonstrated that increasing knowledge does not necessarily  
404 lead to changes in behaviours (Clayton, Griffith, Price, & Peters, 2002; Ehiri *et al*,  
405 1997; Rennie, 1994, 1995). To be effective, training programs should be based on  
406 appropriate adult education theory (Rhodes, 1988). In the present study, we have  
407 verified a low educational level of MH, the average formal education years being 6.5  
408 (in Portugal the mandatory formal education takes 12 years) in a group with a mean  
409 age of 35 (Table 2), which may be a possible explanation factor for our results. The  
410 findings in the study of Toh and Birchenough (2000) affirmed education as an  
411 important link to the two variables: knowledge and attitudes; customs and  
412 environment. Some other authors suggest that the training programs should  
413 incorporate activities that support skills development relevant to real life situations in  
414 which the workers can put information into practice (Edmunds, Lowe, Murray &  
415 Seymour,1999; Kowalski & Vaught, 2002). Food hygiene training is a legal  
416 requirement within food industry and should be only one part of an effective food  
417 safety management strategy. Training will only lead to an improvement in food  
418 safety if the knowledge imparted leads to desired changes in behaviour at the  
419 workplace (Nieto-Montenegro, Brown & LaBorde, 2008; Seaman & Eves, 2006).  
420 Professional training of MH in Portugal has been “classroom based” and this study  
421 aims to contribute to a reflexion on the need for evaluation towards practical  
422 improvements.

423 Evidence from the literature suggests that food hygiene training as a mean of  
424 improving food safety standards is limited by a lack of understanding of those  
425 factors contributing to successful outcomes. Training activities closely associated  
426 with work environment would be more appropriate than food hygiene courses that  
427 operate divorced from the workplace and use solely knowledge-based assessment  
428 techniques (Seaman & Eves, 2006). The training of managers is a necessary  
429 precursor to the implementation of realistic food safety practices within the  
430 workplace. The effectiveness of training is very dependent on both management  
431 attitude and their willingness to provide the resources and systems for food handlers  
432 to implement good practices. There is a need to develop training methods that  
433 proved to change behaviour as well as imparting knowledge (Egan *et al*, 2007).  
434 Further research in issues including course content, training location, duration of  
435 courses, motivational factors and refreshment training is needed. Such research  
436 needs to be clearly thought out, well designed with good baseline data to achieve  
437 worthwhile results (Egan *et al*, 2007; Seaman & Eves, 2006). Seaman (2010)  
438 proposes the *Food Hygiene Training Model* which includes evaluation stages,  
439 managerial components and overall performance measures to take into account  
440 both the effective planning of the training program, the managerial support required  
441 to facilitate the training process, and the overall performance measures needed to  
442 ensure that training transfers into the required safe food handling behaviours. The  
443 proposed model incorporates three evaluation stages of the food handlers: 1)  
444 documented training needs with individual record, establishing a starting point; 2)  
445 knowledge test and/or practical skill assessment shortly after training, assessing any  
446 deficiencies in skills or knowledge at this stage; 3) food handlers evaluation of the  
447 training program to measure the perceived value and relevance of the training  
448 program, allowing respondents to portray approval or disapproval towards certain  
449 aspects of the training (Seaman, 2010). The overall performance measures include  
450 two final evaluation categories: the effect of food hygiene training on the individual

451 food handler and the effect on the organization (Seaman, 2010). The success of  
452 training relies on the choice of the program, considering the relevance of the course  
453 to work activities, and providing food hygiene training in a language and at a level  
454 that allows the food handler to understand the content (Seaman,2010; Rennie,  
455 1994). Authors suggest that food hygiene courses should be shorter and focused on  
456 the needs and motivation of the participant, and include refresher training to provide  
457 both a physical and psychological environment conducive to food handler  
458 development and the enactment of safe food handling practices (MacAuslan, 2001;  
459 Rennie, 1994; Seaman, 2010; Worsfold, 2004).

460 The significance of the present results is limited in part by the sample size and by  
461 the fact that it has based on self-reported behaviour and practice. It is possible to  
462 conclude, however, that EU regulations have had a positive outcome in the matter of  
463 professional training of MH in Portugal. Operators, however, cannot rely on the fact  
464 that training has ever taken place. They must assume that all employees will need  
465 thorough, repeated training in the area of food hygiene and safety, as we observed  
466 that WSH training is not relevant to this aim (in spite of being relevant in terms of  
467 occupational safety and health). We suggest what can be a major concern in the  
468 moment of hiring new employees: to assess knowledge in food safety and promote  
469 immediate professional training, in addition to asking about previous work  
470 experience. In the present study, the MH show an average of 12.6 years of  
471 experience in the activity. However, the respondents have had poor results on the  
472 HACCP, microbiological hazards, temperature control, personal hygiene and cross-  
473 contamination subjects .

474 In this activity, characterized by hard physical work and a traditionally low  
475 educational level of the workers, professional training should be adapted, with a  
476 strong connection knowledge-practice, considering motivational factors and beliefs.

477 Behaviour changes in MH should be evaluated according to those conditions,  
478 encouraging the learning process and rewarding practical improvements.

479

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Table 1

Summary of the focus of the questionnaire contents

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**Questions “Knowledge”**

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HACCP- what is it?

Identify sterile food

What happens to bacteria at 37°C?

Food borne illness most frequent symptoms

Food borne illness agents transmission

Visual, olfactory or taste checks identify bacteria contaminated meat?

Meat Handler hygiene and health and food borne illness agents

Health conditions that are not acceptable in food handling

Potential health consequences of animal intestinal bacteria (*E. coli*, *salmonella*, *Campylobacter* and *Yersinia*)

*Listeria monocitogenes* and food borne illness

Dirty and Clean workspaces in the abattoir

Food borne agents inactivation

Temperature of knives sterilisers

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**Questions “Practice”**

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Working surfaces and instruments washing requirements and products

Potable water use/Water supply

Red Meat storage temperatures

Chopped meat storage temperatures

Freezing temperatures for meat

Temperature ranges and food poisoning agents development

Different situations that imply hand washing before food handling

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Different steps to correct hand wash

Cross contamination and change of working instruments and clothes

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

Table 2

Demographic data and job information of the participants

<b>Participants</b> (N=159)	<b>Average <math>\pm</math>SD</b>	<b>Minimum-Maximum</b>
Age (N=155)	35.19 $\pm$ 10.15	16-58
Years of formal education (N=151)	6.50 $\pm$ 2.59	0-13
Age at the beginning of the professional activity (N=153)	15.68 $\pm$ 2.53	9-24
Years of experience in the same activity (N=133)	12.65 $\pm$ 9.35	0 - 35
Years in the present company (N=154)	8.89 $\pm$ 7.57	0 - 33

Table 3

Percentage of correct answers to the “Knowledge” and “Practice” questions within each group defined by professional training.

<i>Participant Group</i>	<i>Question Group</i>	
	<b>Knowledge</b>	<b>Practice</b>
	<b>N=14 questions</b>	<b>N=10 questions</b>
GPI (N=36)	66.92±16.36 <sup>1</sup>	70.53±17.47
WSH (N=19)	49.21±22.77	58.33±19.93
BT (N=60)	67.26±21.05	68.67±22.58
NT (N=39)	47.89±22.63	63.44±21.70
one-way ANOVA	d.f. =3 F= 10.393 p=0.000	d.f.=3 F=3.986 p=0.009

<sup>1</sup>Mean±1SD

Table 4A

Percentage of correct answers and 95% Confidence Intervals\*(CI) of the questions “Knowledge” (qualitative results)

<i>Questions</i> <i>“Knowledge”</i>	<b>% of Correct Answers (95% CI)</b>			
	GPI	WSH	BT	NT

	N=361	N=19	N=60	N=39
What is HACCP?	63.2 (38.6-82.8)	22.2 (10.7-39.6)	51.7 (38.5-64.6)	17.9 (8.1-34.1)
Identify sterile food	21.1 (7.0-46.1)	25.0 (12.7-42.5)	31.7 (20.6-45.1)	28.2 (15.6-45.1)
What happens to bacteria at 37°C?	89.5 (65.5-98.2)	61.1 (43.5-76.4)	83.3 (71.0-91.3)	59.0 (42.2-74.0)
Food borne illness most frequent symptoms	100.0 (79.1-100.0)	77.8 (60.4-89.3)	95.0 (85.2-98.7)	71.8 (54.9-84.4)
Food borne illness agents transmission	73.7 (48.6-89.9)	52.8 (35.7-69.2)	65.0 (51.5-76.5)	56.4 (39.8-71.8)
Visual, olfactory or taste checks identify bacteria contaminated food?	42.1 (21.1-66.0)	41.7 (26.0-59.1)	45.0 (32.3-58.3)	51.3 (35.0-67.3)
How can MH contaminate meat?	73.7 (48.6-89.9)	55.6 (38.3-71.7)	85.0 (72.9-92.5)	56.4 (39.8-71.8)
MH can get ill in consequence of meat handling?	47.4 (25.2-70.5)	63.9 (46.2-78.7)	88.3 (76.8-94.8)	51.3 (35.0-67.3)
Health conditions that are not acceptable in food handling	47.4 (25.2-70.5)	36.1 (21.3-53.8)	65.0 (51.5-76.5)	30.8 (17.5-47.7)

Potential health consequences of animal intestinal bacteria	100.0 (79.1-100.0)	58.3 (40.9-74.0)	75.0 (61.9-84.9)	43.6 (28.2-60.2)
<i>Listeria monocitogenes</i> and food borne illness	68.4 (43.5-86.4)	36.1 (21.3-53.8)	53.3 (40.1-66.1)	33.3 (19.6-50.3)
Dirty and Clean workspaces in the abattoir	78.9 (53.9-93.0)	52.8 (35.7-69.2)	80.0 (67.3-88.8)	48.7 (32.7-65.0)
Food borne agents inactivation	52.6 (29.5-74.8)	50.0 (33.2-66.8)	56.7 (43.3-69.2)	48.7 (32.7-65.0)
Temperature of knives sterilisers	78.9 (53.9-93.0)	55.6 (38.3-71.7)	66.7 (53.2-78.0)	59.0 (42.2-74.0)

\* Wilson procedure with a correction for continuity (Wilson, 1927; Newcombe, 1998)

Table 4B

Percentage of correct answers and 95% Confidence Intervals\* (CI) of the questions "Practice" (qualitative results)

<b>Questions "Practice"</b>	<b>% Correct</b>	<b>Answers</b>	<b>(95% CI)</b>	
	GPF	WSH	BT	NT
	N=36	N=19	N=60	N=39
Working surfaces and instruments washing	84.2 (59.5-95.8)	94.4 (80.0-99.0)	90.0 (78.8-95.9)	89.7 (74.8-96.7)
Working surfaces and instruments disinfection products	47.4 (25.2-70.5)	36.1 (21.3-53.8)	58.3 (44.9-70.7)	43.6 (28.2-60.2)
Potable water use for washing purposes	57.9 (34.0-78.9)	58.3 (40.9-74.0)	61.7 (48.2-73.6)	59.0 (42.2-74.0)
Temperature ranges and meat preservation	36.8 (17.2-61.4)	27.8 (14.8-45.4)	38.3 (26.3-51.8)	25.6 (13.6-42.4)
Red Meat storage temperatures	100.0 (79.1-100.0)	63.9 (46.2-78.7)	83.3 (71.0-91.3)	74.4 (57.6-86.4)
Chopped meat storage temperatures	68.4 (43.5-86.4)	38.9 (23.6-56.5)	56.7 (43.3-69.2)	43.6 (28.2-60.2)
Freezing temperatures for meat	57,9 (34.0-78.9)	47,2 (30.8-64.3)	56,7 (43.3-69.2)	41,0 (26.0-57.8)
Different situations that imply hand washing before meat handling	100.0 (79.1-100.0)	100.0 (88.0-100.0)	86.7 (74.9-93.7)	84.6 (68.8-93.6)
Different steps to correct hand wash	78.9 (53.9-93.0)	52.8 (35.7-69.2)	70.0 (56.6-80.8)	43.6 (28.2-60.2)
Cross contamination and change of working instruments and clothes	21.0 (7.0-46.1)	27.8 (14.8-45.4)	31.7 (20.6-45.1)	33.3 (19.6-50.3)

\* Wilson procedure with a correction for continuity (Wilson, 1927; Newcombe, 1998)