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10 **mitigate the scenario**

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29 **Abstract**

30 Climate change, driven by the natural process of global warming, is a worldwide issue of significant  
31 concern because of its adverse effects on livestock output. The increasing trend of environmental  
32 temperature surging has drastically affected meat production and meat product quality, hence result in  
33 economic losses for the worldwide livestock business. Due to the increasing greenhouse gas emissions, the  
34 situation would get prolonged, and heat exposure-related stress is expected to worsen. Heat exposure causes  
35 metabolic and physiological disruptions in livestock. Ruminants and monogastric animals are very sensitive  
36 to heat stress due to their rate of metabolism, development, and higher production levels. Before slaughter,  
37 intense hot weather triggers muscle glycogen breakdown, producing pale, mushy, and exudative meat with  
38 less water-holding capacity. Animals exposed to prolonged high temperatures experience a decrease in  
39 their muscle glycogen reserves, producing dry, dark, and complex meat with elevated final pH and  
40 increased water-holding capacity. Furthermore, heat stress also causes oxidative stresses, especially  
41 secondary metabolites from lipid oxidation, severely affects the functionality of proteins, oxidation of  
42 proteins, decreasing shelf life, and food safety by promoting exfoliation and bacterial growth. Addressing  
43 the heat-related issues to retain the sustainability of the meat sector is an essential task that deserves an  
44 inclusive and comprehensive approach. Considering the intensity of the heat stress effects, this review has  
45 been designed primarily to examine the consequences of hot environment temperatures and related stresses  
46 on the quality and safety of meat and secondarily focus on cutting edge technology to reduce or alleviate  
47 the situational impact.

48 **Keywords:** Heat stress, Meat quality, Muscle glycogen, Dry meat, Food safety, Cutting edge  
49 technology.

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51

## 52 **Introduction**

53 In the 21st century, Global warming is a significant peril confronting the world, resulting in recurrent  
54 episodes of extreme heat and increasing global temperature (NASA, 2021). The rise in human-caused  
55 greenhouse gas (GHG) levels has contributed to the unprecedented warming of the Earth in recent years  
56 (Stocker et al., 2013). This, in turn, has resulted in more frequent and protracted periods of severe heat,  
57 which have an enormous impact on both living and working conditions (Baccini et al., 2008). In addition  
58 to the human population, this hot and humid global weather throughout the summer results in economic  
59 losses for the worldwide livestock and meat business due to decreased animal output and increased  
60 mortality rates (Zhang et al., 2020). Heat stress is a highly demanding and costly occurrence in the lives of  
61 livestock animals, resulting in deleterious effects on animal productivity, welfare and the quality of meat  
62 products. Heat stress affects the live animal's growth and performance and can undermine meat quality  
63 attributes such as pH, water-holding capacity (WHC), and meat color (Ma et al., 2015). This can lead to  
64 financial losses for producers and reduced customer acceptance (Ćobanović et al., 2020). Heat stress is a  
65 critical obstacle in worldwide farm animal production, particularly in warmer climates (Rhoads et al., 2013).  
66 Rising heat waves caused by climate change (IPCC, 2018), and the shifting of animal production to  
67 comparatively warmer regions to address rising requirements for global meat demand, which have  
68 increased livestock susceptibility to heat stress (Mannuthy et al., 2017).

69 With the increasing global meat demand, more emphasis and pressure are coming on intensively farmed  
70 animals; treating livestock as meat machines has led to additional stress to the animals along with heat  
71 stress (Kumar et al., 2022). Due to continuous genetic improvement broiler chicken finishing weight rise  
72 to 2.5 kg in approximately 30 days in present days, which used to take 112 days in 1925 (Dennehy 2022)  
73 These boosted broiler growth patterns have increased metabolic rates (Tallentire et al., 2016). They are  
74 distinctly vulnerable to heat stress because of their elevated rate of metabolism, which outturn in higher  
75 body heat production. Increasing avian population density, paired with high atmospheric temperature,  
76 increases the likelihood of heat stress (Goo et al., 2019). However, in recent studies, it was observed that  
77 wild animals are less prone to extreme temperate weather. One similar study indicates that the Iberian pig  
78 can withstand elevated ambient temperatures, unlike lean pigs and other native breeds that see a decline in  
79 the quality of their meat (Pardo et al., 2021). So, it can be said that high-yielding poultry breeds, ruminants,  
80 and pigs are more prone to heat stress due to their higher rate of metabolism, generation of metabolic heat,  
81 fast growth rate, and higher productivity. Poultry and pigs are extremely prone to heat stress as they lack  
82 sweat glands. They also have subcutaneous fat (in the case of pigs) or feathers (in the case of poultry) that  
83 offer insulation to their skin. For ruminants, the heat generated when their feed ferments in the rumen raises

84 their metabolic heat output and impairs their ability to regulate the temperature of the body. (Kadzere et al.,  
85 2002; Tajima et al., 2007).

86 Pre-slaughter exposure to intense heat causes a rapid breakdown of muscle glycogen, leading to an  
87 increased lactic acid content and a fast increase in muscle pH after death, which makes the carcass is warm  
88 (Matarneh et al., 2013) The consecutive outcome is the production of soft, exudative and pale meat, known  
89 for its reduced WHC, which is commonly observed in monogastric farm animals like poultry and pigs  
90 (Freitas et al., 2017). However similar observations have also been revealed in cattle (Kim et al., 2014). In  
91 contrast, animals who endure continuous hot temperature exposure have lesser muscle glycogen reserves,  
92 thus restricting lactic acid formation. This results in hardened, dry, dark meat forming, with a higher pH  
93 and greater WHC. Typically, ruminants show this phenomenon more often than other farm animals  
94 (Adzitey & Nurul, 2011). Furthermore, research has revealed that in different species, hot seasons lead to  
95 an increase in the oxidation of lipids and protein, meaning that the keeping quality and safety of meat  
96 decreases due to microbial shedding and development (Wang et al., 2009). Hot climates may be more prone  
97 to high-yielding animals than wild animals. Figure 1 shows an indication of the effect of heat stress on  
98 biological, chemical, and biochemical parameters of animals that affect meat quality.

99 It is imperative to have an in-depth knowledge of the impacts of heat stress on animal productivity and  
100 meat quality to develop successful approaches for sustainable meat production and quality assurance. This  
101 study examines the existing understanding and advancements in research regarding the impact of heat stress  
102 on meat quality. Additionally, it emphasizes actions that can potentially reduce the adverse effects of heat  
103 stress and improve meat quality.

104 Effect of heat stress on homeostasis and meat quality parametersThe thermoneutral zone is the range  
105 of temperatures that pigs, poultry, and ruminants inhabit (Asseng et al., 2021). The comfortable temperature  
106 zone for all these species is between 17°C to 24°C and above this range, there are changes in  
107 thermoregulation and risk of heat stress. Furthermore, when these animals exposed to a temperature over  
108 35°C or more with elevated humidity might result in fatality. However, extended exposure to temperatures  
109 above 25°C with high humidity can cause heat stress in many organisms and continued exposures to  
110 temperatures above 35°C with high humidity, or above 40°C with low humidity, can be lethal (Hansen  
111 2009; Mignon-Grasteau et al., 2015; Morignat et al., 2014; Schaubberger et al., 2019).

112 The body's internal temperature rises when external factors—such as outside temperature, sun radiation,  
113 airflow, and humidity—exceed the thermoneutral zone, inevitably developing hyperthermia and heat stress  
114 (Renaudeau et al., 2012). Feeding habit is also related to the extent of heat stress. It was observed that  
115 during heat exposure, ruminants with grain-based diets can easily break down and produce volatile fatty  
116 acids, for rumen microbes are more susceptible to heat exposure related stress (Gonzalez-Rivas et al., 2017).

117 High-yielding poultry breeds genetically improved for faster muscle growth have successfully altered  
118 their ability to respond to and adapt to environmental cues based on different climates but to a certain extent.  
119 According to Lara and Rostagno (2013), heat stress is an important aspect of the environment that greatly  
120 impacts the yield and wellness of chickens in intensive and extensive farming conditions around the globe.  
121 Commercial broiler strains exhibit reduced adaptability to severe temperatures compared to native chicken  
122 breeds due to their higher metabolic response temperatures and accelerated growth rate. Slow-growing  
123 breeds of chicken outperform commercial kinds in terms of feed efficiency, survival rates, body weights,  
124 and growth rates when exposed to heat stress. Furthermore, the rectal temperatures of slow-growing breeds  
125 are lower (Deeb et al., 2002).

126 Thyroid hormones regulate the skeletal muscles' calcium content, related to bone strength and body  
127 growth (Chiang et al., 2008). Warm-blooded farm animals alter their thyroid hormone secretion rate  
128 according to ambient temperature fluctuations. For example, when the temperature increases, the secretion  
129 of thyroid hormone rate decreases, and vice versa (Silva, 2003). Chickens have been found to exhibit a  
130 negative association between their plasma T3 concentration and the surrounding temperature, as reported  
131 by Tao et al. (2006). It was evident that exposure to one day in the heat commercially bred turkeys reduced  
132 T3 levels, and there was an imbalance in T3:T4 ratio (Chiang et al., 2008).

133  
134 Controlled housing where temperature and humidity are controlled is found to be better regarding  
135 growth and meat quality. When broilers are housed at a controlled temperature of 22–24 °C, their breast  
136 meat is lighter ( $L^*$  41.8 vs. 37.5), their pH<sub>u</sub> is higher (more than 6), and their weight loss during cooking  
137 is reduced (32.4 vs. 35.8%), compared to broilers kept over 25°C temperature in open house (Dai et al.,  
138 2012). In an experiment at 22±1 °C, 60% relative humidity and 32±1 °C, 80-90% relative humidity, there  
139 was no difference in drip loss between meat from two groups of birds (Akter et al., 2017). A different study  
140 (Imik et al., 2012) revealed comparable results regarding the exposure of high temperature on weight loss  
141 and meat shelf life. In addition, there was evidence of protein and lipid oxidation in meat, alongside reduced  
142 keeping quality of the product, when compared to broilers kept at an average temperature of approximately  
143 24-25 °C.

144 Long-term high temperatures (32 °C for a period of 14 days) and subsequent heat stress up to harvesting  
145 in broilers increase the skeletal muscle of chickens' generation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species  
146 (ROS), which leads to protein oxidation and lipid peroxidation (Lu et al., 2017). The pectoral muscle of  
147 broilers in this study had increased levels of lactic acid, intramuscular fat, lactate dehydrogenase and  
148 pyruvate kinase. These data suggest that prolonged exposure to high temperatures causes mitochondrial  
149 dysfunction, which reduces the animal's ability to perform aerobic metabolism. As a result, there is an  
150 increase in glycolysis and a build-up of fat in the muscles, which may deteriorate the meat's quality in

151 prolonged heat stress due to oxidation. To compare the results if looked into another study where in control  
152 group broiler chicks housed in controlled temperature conditions (25 °C) and treatment groups exposed to  
153 cyclical heat exposure (33 °C and 25 °C in day and night respectively) saw a 16% drop in breast muscle  
154 weight during the 42-day raising period (Shakeri et al., 2018). The higher weight of the breast muscles after  
155 extended heat stress exposure suggests that chicken use their energy resources more for maintaining body  
156 temperature regulation than for muscular building. In a separate study carried out on broiler chickens, it  
157 was observed that rearing them in long-term heat stress (34-36 °C) preslaughter triggered an increase in  
158 muscle glycolysis in the pectoral and thigh muscles. This was confirmed by increased lactate production,  
159 decreased meat pHu by 13 points from 5.88 to 5.75, lighter meat, almost two percent increase in cooking  
160 loss, and increased shear force value (27.59 and 22.68 N) in comparison to chickens reared at 23°C (Zhang  
161 et al., 2012). These results confer with another study exposing commercial broilers to cyclical chronic heat  
162 stress, involving of 8 hours at 32°C with a maximum of 90% relative humidity resulted in lower pHu from  
163 6.0 to 5.8, lightness & b\* value increased, a\* value decreased, and the shear force of the pectoralis muscle  
164 was almost doubled (Akter et al., 2017).

165 The combined stress of heat and temperature was found to be harmful to chickens. In an experiment  
166 by Sandercock et al. (2001) and his group imposed high temperature and humidity at 32 °C and 75%,  
167 respectively, for two hours in chicken and found reduced levels of alkaline phosphatase but increased planes  
168 of creatine kinase, lipase, and aspartate aminotransferase, and alanine aminotransferase. In this study post  
169 slaughter observations were hemorrhages in the muscle and lower pH. Elevated pH levels and dark  
170 pigmentation of the meat are indicators of stress caused by heat exposure, which is associated with darker  
171 and dry meat in fattening cattle, sheep, and goats (Gregory, 2010). Pre-slaughter stress is responsible for  
172 the depletion of muscle glycogen reserves, making the meat dark, complex, and dry. The main element  
173 responsible for darker meat is deoxymyoglobin, and the mechanism is increased oxygen consumption by  
174 mitochondria at high pH exposures (Suman & Joseph, 2013). In addition, the elevated pH of the meat  
175 inhibits the contraction of myofibrils and muscle cells after death, resulting in reduced light scattering  
176 properties (low L\* values) of the meat (Hughes et al., 2018).

177 There are more physiological consequences of heat stress in farm animals. A common disease in cattle,  
178 buffalo, camels, sheep, goats, and pigs is acute hemorrhagic septicemia caused during heat stress and is  
179 typified by high fever, which causes death in a few hours to days. The causative organism of acute  
180 septicaemic disease is an anaerobic bacteria *Multicoid pasteurilla* (Dubey et al., 2021). Research has shown  
181 a greater prevalence of mortality due to stomach abnormalities and indigestion in ruminant animals during  
182 high rearing temperatures compared to low rearing temperatures, according to a study conducted by  
183 McPhail et al. in 2014. An observable surge in the prevalence of dark and arid conditions is also observed  
184 throughout late spring and autumn as a result of abrupt weather fluctuations or temperature variances, with



185 frigid evenings and scorching days serving as the primary catalysts. According to Boykin et al. (2017),  
186 there is a greater occurrence of dark and dry meat cases recorded in the north hemisphere between the  
187 months of September and October. Pighin et al. (2014) found that sheep have elevated rectal temperatures  
188 and reduced glycogen levels during times of stress. This indicates a correlation between increased body  
189 temperature and subsequent physiological reaction to glycolytic stress, and the potential for higher muscle  
190 pH and darker meat color. A concise review of the impact of heat exposure on meat quality is presented in  
191 Table 1.

192 Due to hot and high temperatures, there are many significant alterations in muscle tissue pre-slaughter  
193 and meat post-slaughter. There is changes in muscle pH before and after slaughter of animals. During post  
194 slaughter rigor mortis, there is a drop of energy store in muscle that results in a drop of pH and muscle  
195 temperature (Strydom et al., 2016) and a low muscle pH (5.2-6.9) evaluated to produce high quality meat  
196 (England et al., 2013). Elevated body temperatures are linked to a higher threshold rigor mortis, resulting  
197 in earlier and more prominent muscle stiffness, leading to meat stiffness (Warner et al., 2014).

198 Archana et al. (2018) conducted a recent study to examine the impact of heat stress on the body weight  
199 and carcass characteristics of two goat breeds (Osmanabadi and Salem). The scientists observed that heat  
200 stress did not affect the meat color in both breeds. Osmanabadi goats exposed to heat stress decreased body  
201 weight by 3 kilograms and increased pHu at 24 hours (6.03 compared to 5.74) in the vertebral muscle, when  
202 compared to goats housed in shaded pens. These findings imply that the depletion of glycogen reserves  
203 may have occurred due to heat stress, however the study did not directly assess this. The consistent meat  
204 pHu and body weight stability observed in the Salem breed suggests the breed's exceptional ability to  
205 acclimate to hot and moist weather (Archana et al., 2018).

206 A Korean study revealed that Hanwoo carcasses of varying genders, slaughtered throughout the  
207 summer, exhibited significantly reduced ribeye area and marbling scores compared to those slaughtered  
208 during different seasons. Nevertheless, the maturity score held greater importance in the carcasses  
209 butchered throughout the summer (Panjono et al., 2009). Another investigation on Hanwoo cattle revealed  
210 that the meat obtained from animals slaughtered during the summer season exhibited a greater pH level in  
211 the longissimus thoracic muscle 48 hours post-slaughter, compared to meat obtained from animals  
212 slaughtered during the winter. The variation was ascribed to the elevated temperature and excessive  
213 humidity characteristic of the Korean weather during summer (Kang et al., 2011).

214 There needs to be more research available on the effects of dehydration on the quality of meat.  
215 Nevertheless, Jacob et al. (2006a), in a different study, revealed that subjecting lambs to a 48-hour water  
216 deprivation period resulted in a significant increase in both live weight loss and muscle dry matter loss.  
217 Significantly, this dehydration did not impact the dressing yield or post slaughter carcass weight. The  
218 researchers demonstrated that the meat of lambs with dehydration exhibits a deeper hue as a result of the

219 myofibrils contracting. This darkening phenomenon is not always correlated with pH levels (Jacob et al.,  
220 2006a). However, these characteristics did not have an effect on the quality of meat intake (Jacob et al.,  
221 2006b).

## 222 **Heat stress and meat safety**

223 Mounting data indicates that stress has a substantial detrimental impact on the taste, flavor, and safety  
224 of meat. Although there are reports associating stress with the presence and release of pathogens in farm  
225 animals, the exact processes behind this relationship have not been completely understood. Acute *Multicoid*  
226 *pasteurella* infection in animals under heat stress (Dubey et al., 2021) should be considered for further  
227 studies on whether it infects meat. The presence of enteric infections caused by pathogenic bacteria such as  
228 *Salmonella enterica*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Campylobacter* spp. in farm animals and subsequent exposure  
229 to human food is an important threat to financial stability and human health (EFSA, 2022; M Kangara 2023;  
230 Rostagno, 2009). Amongst these *Salmonella* is a highly significant meat born pathogen that is responsible  
231 for around 93.8 million cases of gastroenteritis and 0.15 million fatalities globally every year (Galán-Relaño  
232 et al., 2023). Stress caused by elevated environmental temperature is associated with gut disorders in  
233 animals (Gabler & Pearce, 2015), and increase the risk of meat contamination from unhealthy animals.  
234 Healthy animals usually maintain a state of equilibrium between flora (beneficial bacteria) and fauna  
235 (pathogenic bacteria). Nevertheless, the equilibrium of hazardous bacteria excretion is distributed when  
236 external variables like feed withdrawal, transit, hot and humid temperatures, and high animal density come  
237 into play, shifting from sporadic to continuous patterns (Mulder, 1995). An elevation in pH in the stomach  
238 especially in monogastric animals like pig and poultry, raises the risk of foodborne diseases caused by  
239 *Salmonella*, *E. coli*, and *Campylobacter* (Firrman et al., 2022), surviving the transit through the stomach,  
240 colonizing the lower gastrointestinal tract, and is discharged into the environment (Rostagno, 2009). Studies  
241 have shown that heat stress can decrease blood circulation to the intestines and cause damage to the  
242 intestinal lining through oxidative stress. This can lead to disruption of the intestinal barrier and an increased  
243 probability of endotoxemia in chickens and swine (Alhenaky et al., 2017; Shakeri et al., 2018). Furthermore,  
244 this situation can easily contaminate meat and pose health risk for meat consumers.

245 Usually meat contamination at slaughterhouse is impacted by heat stress to animals during their farming,  
246 so special attention and more study required in this segment, which found inadequate during searching  
247 literatures for this review. The animals themselves are the source of bacterial contamination in meat  
248 processing plants. *Salmonella* and other detrimental microbes can propagate horizontally inside the lairage  
249 area via feces and polluted drinking water; a recent study in pig abattoir has confirmed in favor of the  
250 statement (Buder et al., 2023). Meat, particularly in processing factories, is often associated with the

251 presence of foodborne pathogens, including *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Clostridium*  
252 *perfringens*, and *C. botulinum*. Foodborne infections exhibit greater resilience and propensity for  
253 propagation in correlation with rising ambient heat (Hellberg & Chu, 2016). Changes in housing conditions  
254 and good farming practices are anticipated to impact the transmission of foodborne diseases. Elevated levels  
255 of pathogenic microorganism carriage, environmental contamination will heighten the likelihood of  
256 contaminated meat during processing, and further processing of meat in slaughterhouse.

257 From 1998 to 2015, the majority of outbreaks associated to pork in the USA took place during the  
258 summer months, representing 84.3% of the cases. *Salmonella* was the most commonly recognized cause of  
259 these outbreaks (Self et al., 2017). *Salmonella* and *C. perfringens* were the main pathogens that caused  
260 foodborne outbreaks in the chicken sector in the United States between 1998 and 2012. These outbreaks  
261 were primarily caused by the increased intake of turkey and poultry during certain seasons (Chai et al.,  
262 2017). Elevated temperature and related stressors in poultry can promote the penetration of salmonella into  
263 the muscle fibers of heat-exposed birds (Alhenaky et al., 2017). This increases the likelihood of contracting  
264 a foodborne illness if the meat is not cooked completely before to ingestion. The summer season has been  
265 associated with a rise in the occurrence and release of *Campylobacter* bacteria in poultry, resulting in an  
266 increase in *Campylobacter* infections (Skarp et al., 2016). Contrary to this, multiple studies have shown  
267 that provision of shed to fattening cattle, with the intension of reducing their exposure to heat does not  
268 effectively eradicate *E.coli* infection (Wells et al., 2017).

### 269 **Improvement in animal welfare during heat stress to maintain meat quality**

270 It is a proven fact that animal welfare is directly related to the production of premium quality meat for  
271 the consumers (Marchewka et al., 2023). To address the heat stress, the welfare of the animals we farm for  
272 meat production should be intensively taken care of, especially during hot, humid weather. Furthermore,  
273 rearing stresses are responsible for insufficient glycogen and lactic acid in the blood (Matarneh et al., 20230),  
274 changing the pH to higher than normal after slaughter (Terlouw et al., 2021) and as per physiological terms  
275 this changes can affect meat color, texture and keeping quality. Good husbandry practices are essential tools  
276 to obtain gold standard of animal welfare. Usually, changes in the housing system, temperature control, and  
277 use of nutraceuticals have been used to maintain optimum feed intake and reduce heat loss. A graphical  
278 representation of good farming practices is shown in figure 3. Management techniques evaluated to  
279 minimize heat stress and improve animal welfare during rearing are discussed in this section.

280 Rearing conditions are most important to protect the animals from heat and other possible stresses.  
281 Housing techniques are essential in protecting animals from exposure to outside temperatures.  
282 Condensation cooling is an efficient method of dissipating heat from the animal's body. It can chill animals

283 on the farm and during their stay at the processing plant by providing air circulation and water cooling  
284 systems. Nevertheless, the effects of water cooling are less noticeable or nonexistent in areas with high  
285 humidity (Renaudeau et al., 2012).

286 Integrating a well-designed and constructed shed with natural airflow and insulation may be helpful for  
287 the welfare of the animals. As we know, in many places, open shades are used in cattle farming, but  
288 providing a better housing system can protect them from the effects of heat (Moons et al., 2014). Only a  
289 few studies have examined the impact of shade on meat quality. These studies found that sheep meat under  
290 shed had lower pHu levels and improved WHC (Liu et al., 2012). Nevertheless, there were no discernible  
291 disparities in meat quality from cattle provided in constructed sheds compared to open-rearing conditions  
292 (DiGiacomo et al., 2014). Although shade can effectively mitigate many adverse effects of extreme hot  
293 circumstances, its effectiveness may be reduced in hot and humid conditions due to physiological  
294 differences in ruminants (Renaudeau et al., 2012). It was observed that the provision of electric fans and  
295 water sprinklers aided in the elevated feed intake, reduced respiration rate, and body temperature in dairy  
296 cattle (Aggarwal & Upadhyay, 2013). An application of water spray for ten minutes during the  
297 transportation of the broiler was found helpful in reducing heat stress in the hot season. Subsequently, it  
298 improved the meat quality after slaughter (Xing et al., 2016). Research studies have proven that well-natural  
299 ventilation coupled with controlled humidity and temperature can significantly improve pork meat quality  
300 regarding drip loss and pH (Driessen et al., 2020). Pork meat quality usually deteriorates more than other  
301 species during heat stress, especially when the protein content in the muscle is lower and drip loss is higher  
302 (Albert et al., 2024). Better transportation facility in hot weather with sufficient space, ventilation from  
303 farm to abattoir found to produce better quality pork meat in terms of color and tenderness (Pasquale, 2022).

#### 304 **Dietary strategies**

305 Adopting dietary practices that prioritize improving energy metabolism could effectively reduce the  
306 adverse effects of hot weather and preserve meat quality. The administration of electrolytes is the  
307 predominant method used to address heat stress in animals on the farm and in processing facilities before  
308 slaughter. Heat stress induces oxidative stress in farmed livestock (Liu et al., 2018; Garner et al., 2017). To  
309 alleviate this, adding vitamin C and electrolytes has effectively reduced stress and enhanced immunity in  
310 buffaloes under hot conditions (Kumar et al., 2010). Vitamin E aids in the mitigation of oxidative damage  
311 to lipids and proteins. Guerra-Rivas et al. (2016) demonstrated that adding Vitamin E reduced the oxidation  
312 of beef products and improved their color stability. The inclusion of selenium and vitamin E  
313 supplementation in pigs (Liu et al., 201) resulted in a significant reduction in oxidative stress. Nevertheless,  
314 research is scarce regarding the influence of Vitamin E and Selenium supplementation on meat quality. In

315 their study, Baldi et al. (2019) found that supplementing vitamin E had a beneficial effect on the color and  
316 stability of lamb meat. Betaine is a compound containing a quaternary ammonium group, and when added  
317 to the diet, it aids in mitigating the adverse effects of heat stress in livestock. The administration of betaine  
318 enhanced body weight in Ross broiler chickens under hot weather circumstances, as reported by Shakeri et  
319 al. (2019). A study conducted by Fu et al. (2016) found that including betaine in broiler chickens' diet  
320 improved the meat's pH and its ability to hold water. A separate investigation conducted by He et al. (2015)  
321 shows evidence that including betaine of a specific quality in broiler feed helped to diminish the harmful  
322 effects of heat stress on both body weight and fat storage. An investigation was carried by Shahin et al.  
323 (2002) out to examine the physiological effects of chromium supplementation, specifically chromium  
324 picolinate, on broiler chickens during high heat exposure. The results revealed a positive correlation  
325 between higher chromium supplementation and carcass quality. Resveratrol is a specific type of phenol  
326 derived from plants and it was effectively improved meat quality in broiler chicken during heat stress. This  
327 was attained through boosting the general ability of the muscle to counteract oxidative stress and increasing  
328 the potency of specific antioxidant enzymes, such as catalase (Zhang et al., 2017).

329 Observing the improvements in animal welfare and meat characteristics achieved by the management  
330 of the above strategies and feed nutraceuticals suggests that these techniques may provide significant  
331 benefits regarding meat quality for animals in hot climate related stress conditions. However, further  
332 investigation is necessary to examine the correlation between heat stress, animal well-being, and  
333 characteristics of meat quality in order to promote sustainable livestock production and the meat business.

334 Additional stressor need to be taken care of to minimize the animal's stress due to the hot climate. To  
335 manage the farming environment, heat stress and sustainability in meat production efficiency of nitrogen  
336 use needs to be measured and taken care to reduce at the farm level (Hutchings et al., 2020). Efficient and  
337 mechanized removal of feces and urine from farms may improve the overall ambient and subsequent  
338 liveweight achievement. Smart industrial-scale recycling of this waste into nitrogen and phosphorus for  
339 plants could be a sustainable solution to animal welfare (Adegbeye et al., 2020). In addition, achieving  
340 sustainability in meat production requires enhancing nutrient use efficiency and strategies to reduce losses  
341 of nutrients per unit of meat produced would improve the heat emission in the flock and have positive  
342 impacts on the environment and public health (Gerber et al., 2014). To address the deleterious consequences  
343 of heat stress, meat processing industries are modernizing transportation systems, slaughter techniques,  
344 packaging materials, and deliquiate product handling measures (Ponnampalam and Holman 2023).

345

346 **Cutting edge technologies to address heat stress**

347 The changing global warming situation and pressure on livestock production demand the application  
348 of novel approaches in animal husbandry practices and meat processing systems. Use of digital instruments,  
349 and remote sensing in the farms may reduce environmental impact and greenhouse gas emissions bring  
350 sustainability in the livestock and meat industry (Kumar et al., 2022). Furthermore, the Internet of Things  
351 (IoT), computer vision, and artificial intelligence (AI) have facilitated the automation of farming practices  
352 to reduce stressors and improve animal welfare methodologies (Morota et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2020).  
353 Machine and deep learning algorithms are a subset of AI and assist in evaluating physiological alterations  
354 in animals under stress conditions more precisely. Thus, prompt actions can be taken to alleviate the stresses  
355 and improve productivity and superior meat quality (Neethirajan and Kemp). Currently, meat proteomics  
356 is used to assess heat shock proteins, texture, and tenderness biomarkers, which helps predict the quality of  
357 meat and stress levels in animals before slaughtering. It can be corrected in advance (Kumar et al., 2023).  
358 Deep learning techniques (Cowton et al., 2018) and computer vision approach (Jorquera-Chavez et  
359 al., 2020). In pigs, an elevating concentration of acute phase protein (APP) is observed during stress and  
360 suggested for use as a promising biomarker to identify stress conditions rapidly (Čobanović et al., 2020).

361

## 362 **Conclusion**

363 Relevant research revealed that heat stress causes physiological, hormonal, neurological and metabolic  
364 reactions and changes in ruminants, pigs, and poultry significantly which is highly connected with meat  
365 quality. A significant observation during heat stress is a decrease in muscle glycogen and protein levels  
366 and additional reposition of fat stores. In contrast, dehydration diminishes the overall body weight and the  
367 amount of dry muscle tissue. Furthermore, heat stress exacerbates oxidative and cellular damage, linked to  
368 diminished meat quality and product deterioration. Additionally, summer production has been associated  
369 with an increased hazard of foodborne outbreaks compared to winter production. With increased animal  
370 productivity, exposure should be given to animal welfare issues regarding better housing, ventilation, and  
371 heat management to avoid the detrimental effects of heat stress on animal health and productivity.  
372 Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge the special attention on the handling and transporting meat type  
373 animals from farms to processing plants to maintain optimum physiological parameters and welfare to  
374 maintain product quality in the context of heat stress conditions.

375

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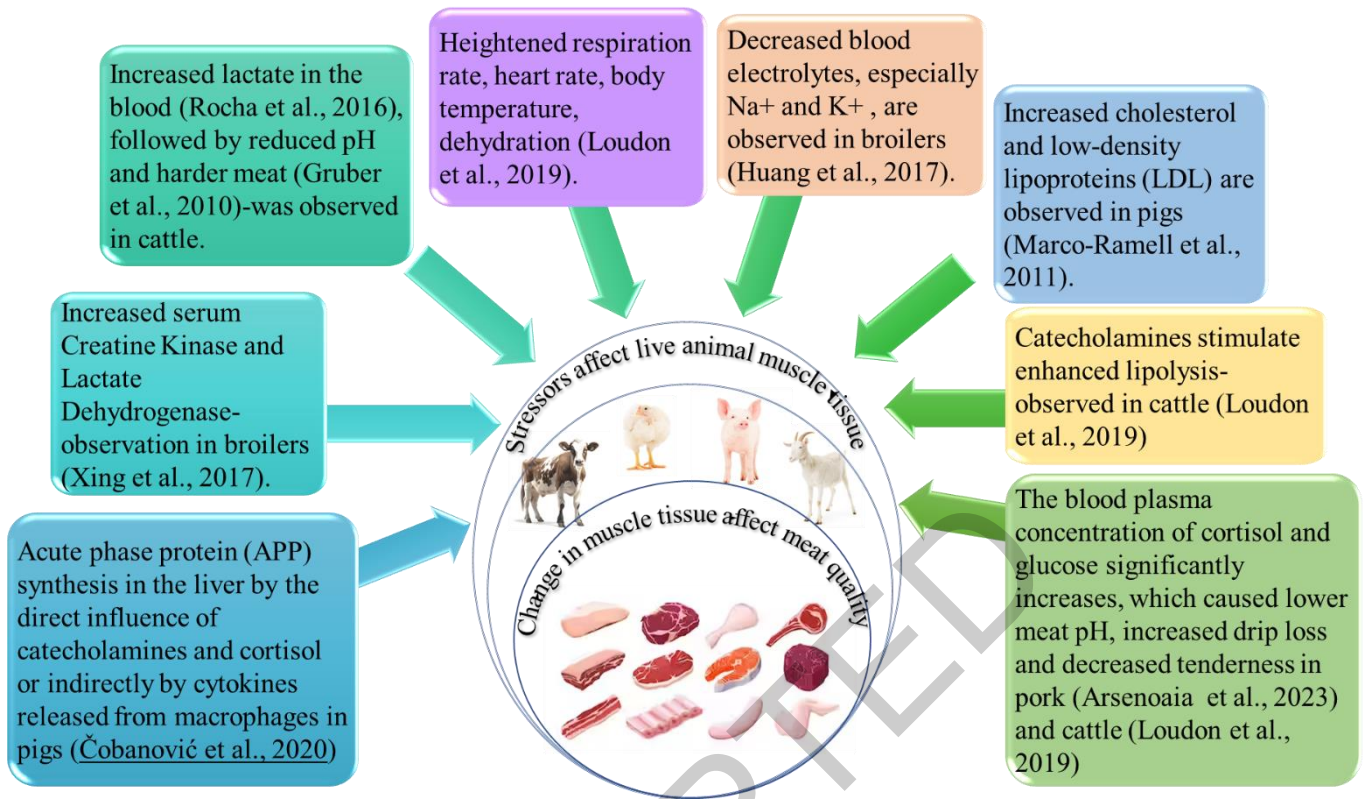
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674 **Table 1. Effect of high temperature on meat quality**

Type of Study	Species	Experimental condition	Observations	Reference
Exposed to prolonged heat stress	Pig	MXT 33°C MNT 23°C MXRH 68% MNRH 58%	Heat stress resulted in soft fat in the belly region and was challenging to handle and process.	Seibert et al., 2018
Rearing temperature	Pig	MXT 35°C MNT 22°C MXRH 81% MNRH 78%	Heat stress decreased feed intake without any change in meat quality	Shi et al. (2017)
2 hours of prolonged heat stress	Pig	MXT 37°C MNT 21°C	A quality decrease in muscle structure and the final product were observed.	Cruzen et al., 2017
Exposure to prolonged high temperature	Pig	MXT 30°C MNT 22°C	High temperature reduces meat pH, redness, yellowness, and antioxidant activity.	Yang et al., 2014
Variation in rearing temperatures	Broiler	MXT ranges 36°C/38°C/40°C; MNT: 25°C	A temperature exposure of 36°C increased meat lightness and cooking loss.	Zhang et al. (2019)
Chronic heat stress during rearing	Broiler	MXT 32 ± 1 °C MNT 22 ± 1 °C MXRH 89-90% MNRH 60%	Heat stress reduces pHu, increases lightness, and almost doubles the shear force value in breast meat.	Akter et al., 2017
Summer heat stress on farm	Broiler	MXT 32 °C	Increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation in breast meat was observed.	Lu et al., 2017
Transportation in summer	Broiler	Heat exposure 0-4 hours	The impact of summer transpiration on lightness, cooking loss, and drip loss was negative.	Xing et al. (2015)
Feeding environment	Goat	MXT 40 °C MNT 28 °C MXRH 58% MNRH 29%	High temperature significantly increased meat pH and hardness, resulting in pale meat.	Archana et al. (2018)
Housing condition	Lamb	Open house MXT 40°C MNT 28°C controlled shade MXT 21°C MNT 18°C	Housing temperature had no significant influence on pH, TBARS of meat, and carcass weight.	Ponnampalam et al. (2016)
Transportation in summer	Goat	MXT- 42 °C	Preslaughter transportation during high ambient temperatures increases meat pH and hardness, decreasing meat lightness and water-holding capacity.	Kadim et al. (2014)
Seasonal effect	Goat/sheep	MXT 35°C RH-47% Cool season MNT 21°C RH 59%	The summer heat resulted in pale meat and increased meat pH.	Kadim et al. (2008)

675 MXT=Maximum temperature, MNT=Minimum temperature, Relative humidity= RH, Maximum Relative  
676 humidity= MXRH, Minimum Relative humidity= MNRH, TBARS= thiobarbituric acid reactive substances



677

678 **Figure 1. Biological, biochemical, and chemical molecules change during heat stress in**  
 679 **farmed animals**

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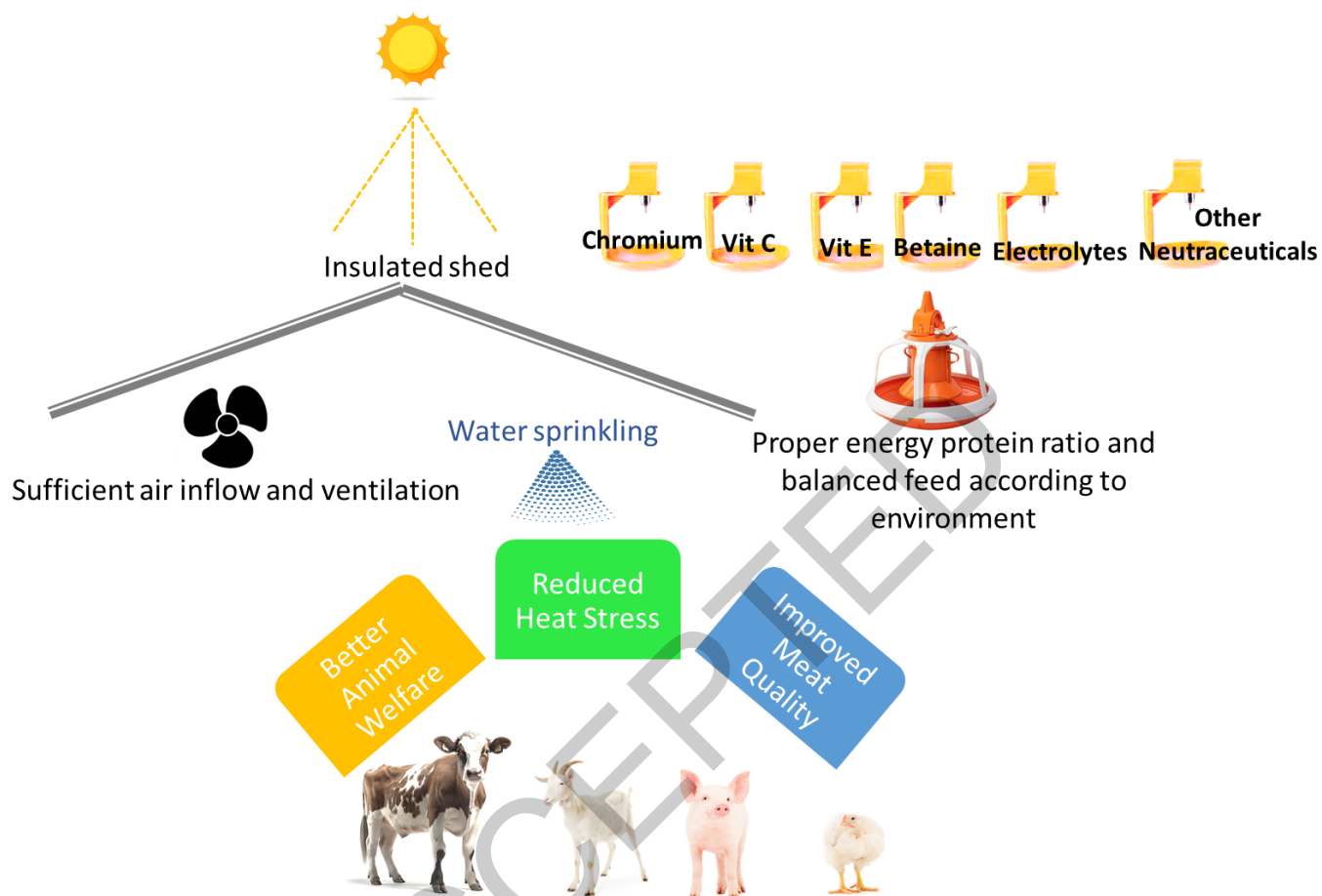




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682 **Figure 2. Relationship between heat stress and physiological response of the meat animals.**

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**Figure 3. Good farming practices to address heat stress**