

Additives Extend the Food Shelf Life by Addition of Preservatives Nitrate, and Nitrite to Food

Fahim Aziz Eldin Shaltout 

Food Control Department, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Benha University, Egypt.

Corresponding Author: Fahim Aziz Eldin Shaltout Food Control Department, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Benha University, Egypt.**Received date:** September 30, 2024; **Accepted date:** October 11, 2024; **Published date:** October 16, 2024**Citation:** Fahim Aziz Eldin Shaltout, Additives Extend the Food Shelf Life by Addition of Preservatives Nitrate, and Nitrite to Food, **Dietary Nourishment and Food Processing Techniques**, vol 1(3). DOI: 10.9567/3064-7061/WSJ.83**Copyright:** © 2024, Fahim Aziz Eldin Shaltout, this is an open-access article distributed under the terms of The Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Nitrite is one of the most widely used curing ingredients in meat industries. Nitrites have numerous useful applications in cured meats and a vital component in giving cured meats their unique characteristics, such as their pink color and savory flavor. Nitrites are used to suppress the oxidation of lipid and protein in meat products and to limit the growth of pathogenic microorganisms such as *Clostridium botulinum*. Synthetic nitrite is frequently utilized for curing due to its low expenses and easier applications to meat. However, it is linked to the production of nitrosamines, which has raised several health concerns among consumers regarding its usage in meat products. Consumer desire for healthier meat products prepared with natural nitrite sources has increased due to a rising awareness regarding the application of synthetic nitrites. However, it is important to understand the various activities of nitrite in meat curing for developing novel substitutes of nitrites. This review emphasizes on the effects of nitrite usage in meat and highlights the role of nitrite in the production of carcinogenic nitrosamines as well as possible nitrite substitutes from natural resources explored also.

Introduction

Meat curing is an ancient method of food preservation that is still widely used today. It refers to adding nitrite/nitrate salt, common salt (**NaCl**), and spices to fresh meat in varying degrees of comminution and at various processing phases. Prior to the invention of refrigeration, meat was preserved using methods discovered to be efficient in controlling deterioration after slaughter and extending the food supply during times of shortage. Despite being lost in time, the curing process is thought to be evolved from salt preservation methods as early as 3000 B.C.

Among the various additives used in meat curing, nitrite salt is very significant. Nitrite is a major intermediary throughout the biological N-cycle present in soil and water surface. It's a versatile chemical with a wide range of uses, including dye manufacturing and food preservation. Nitrites in various meat products are significant preservatives and impede the growth of several unwanted micro-organisms. Nitrite is added to cured meat at levels less than 150 ppm to prevent the development of microbiological organisms like *Clostridium botulinum*, which causes food poisoning. The main reasons for using nitrite as a preservative in meat are:

To inhibit the *Clostridium botulinum* from spreading and secreting toxins that cause food toxicity. to provide the necessary bright red color in meat products like sausage, ham, salami, etc. To give cured meats their characteristic texture and aroma. In addition, nitrite also inhibits the oxidation of lipids in meat products and thus prevents rancidity (**off flavor**) (1,2,3,4,5 and 6).

Since the middle of the 1980s, research has shown that nitrite is a major chemical with substantial impacts on human health. Vegetables are a great source of dietary nitrates, and they have been proven to be an important source of endogenous nitrite as well as nitric oxide (**NO**) in the human body. Nitric oxide (**NO**), produced through enzymatic synthesis, regulates blood pressure, wound healing, immunological response and neurological processes in the human body. New research has demonstrated that **NO (nitric oxide)** regulates blood circulation in cardiac tissues and perhaps in other body tissues. Furthermore, regular nitric oxide and nitrite production may help to prevent cardiovascular diseases like hypertension, atherosclerosis, and stroke.

High nitrite concentrations, on the other hand, are extremely dangerous for infants since they can develop an infant's methemoglobinemia. Furthermore, cancer-causing nitrosamines are formed when nitrite reacts with secondary or tertiary amines. Recently, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (**IARC**) stated processed meat as carcinogenic by evaluating sufficient epidemiological data. IARC also reported that ingested nitrite from processed meat can lead to colorectal cancer in human. Because of these harmful effects, many countries have severely restricted their use on processed food products. The toxicity of nitrite is ten times that of nitrate. For humans, the fatal oral dosage is 80 to 800 mg nitrate per Kg body weight and just 33 to 250 mg nitrite per Kg body weight. Long-term intake of increasing amounts of red meat, especially processed meat, is linked to a higher rate of mortality, colorectal cancer, type-2 diabetes and heart diseases in both male and female, according to large prospective United States, E.U. cohort studies as well as meta-analyses of epidemiology. Concerning these issues, an acceptable daily intake (**ADI**) of 0.07 mg nitrite per kg of body weight was set by the Joint Expert Committee of the Food and Agriculture Organization (**JECFA**) and the World Health Organization (**WHO**) that appears to be safe for healthy newborns, children, and adults (7,8,9,10,11 and 12).

The World Cancer Research Fund (**WCRF**) and the American Institute for Cancer Research (**AICR**) published research in 2007 that found a moderate but significant link between increasing consumption of processed meat and a higher risk of colorectal cancer. As a result, specialists advised limiting red and processed meat consumption. Anywise, eating less meat alone may not result in a significant reduction in carcinogenic effects and it may be associated with several disadvantages, including the loss of nutritive value, especially iron (**Fe**). So, it will be wise to invest proactively in the processing of healthier meat products rather than anticipating processed meat consumption to fall (13,14,15,16,17 and 18).

Because of growing concerns regarding sodium nitrite's long-term adverse effects, their use in cured meat products is strictly regulated among most developed countries. Parallel to this, the new ideas of all-natural and clean label have raised a demand for healthy and high-quality meat products. Due to health hazards, consumers choose natural additives over chemicals in processed meat. As a result, research on substituting natural ingredients for the chemical additive nitrite has grown over the years (19,20,21,22,23 and 24). To reduce the risk of nitrosamine formation and mitigate potential human health hazards, researchers are trying to find effective ways in meat curing. One such method is the replacement of nitrite salt with alternative ingredients that have similar properties while posing no health risk. However, no single alternative that provides the multi-functions of nitrite in meat products has yet been

found. The employment of "hurdle technology" in meat curing is one proposed solution to this issue where low amounts of nitrite are mixed with other ingredients. The aim of this present work is to review the role of nitrite in cured meat products, the adverse health effects of higher nitrite intake as well as to give an overview of the available data on potential replacements to nitrite salt in processed meat either whole or partially (25,26,27,28,29 and 30).

Sources of Nitrite

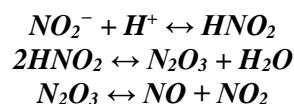
Nitrites play a vital role in the biogeochemical cycle of nitrogen in natural water. They can be found in soils, waterways, foodstuffs, plants, air (as nitrogen dioxide), and biological samples.

In the biological nitrogen cycle, nitrogen is converted to nitrate by bacteria, which is taken by plants and incorporated into tissues. Animals that consume plants utilize nitrate to produce proteins. Animal excrement and microbial breakdown of animals and plants after death return nitrate to the environment. Nitrate or the ammonium ion can be converted to nitrite by micro-organisms; this reaction occurs in the environment, digestive tracts of humans and other animals. Once bacteria in the environment convert nitrate to nitrite and subsequently convert the nitrite to nitrogen, the cycle is completed (40,41,42,43,44 and 45).

Function of Nitrite in Cured Meats

Cured Color Development

Meat color is highly variable and is influenced by a variety of factors. When nitrite is introduced to meat, it is converted to nitric oxide (**NO**) via the reactions listed below



Here, nitrite reacts with hydrogen ions (**H⁺**) of water to produce nitrous acid. After that, nitrous acid progressively decomposes into water molecules (**H₂O**) and dinitrogen trioxide. Then, nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide are generated from dinitrogen trioxide (**N₂O₃**). The major component responsible for nitrite's apparent function in cured meat products is nitric oxide.

Nitric oxide combines with the iron of both myoglobin (**Fe²⁺**) and metmyoglobin (**Fe³⁺**) to produce a cured pink color in meat. Myoglobin is the sarcoplasmic protein responsible for the red color in meat, and metmyoglobin (**brown in color**) is the oxidized form of myoglobin (**Mb**). NO-myoglobin is formed when nitric oxide (**NO**) reacts with myoglobin (**Fe²⁺**). The bright red nitrosyl-myoglobin complex provides the foundation for the distinct color of cured meat. This complex is extremely unstable, and it turns into a stable, eye-catching reddish-pink pigment (**nitroso-hemochrome**) during heat treatment.

Furthermore, myoglobin may react with HNO_2 . Myoglobin (Fe^{2+}) combines with nitrous acid and forms metmyoglobin (Fe^{3+}) by oxidation. Metmyoglobin (Fe^{3+}) then reacts with NO to produce NO-metmyoglobin. NO-metmyoglobin is also produced from the reduction of metmyoglobin. As a result, the meat becomes brown in color. NO-metmyoglobin can be converted to NO-myoglobin by a reductant, causing the formation of the cured color (**pink**) again when heated (28,29,30,31,32 and 33).

The presence of other additives in cured meats also affects the color development. Antioxidants including erythorbate, ascorbic acid and polyphenols stimulate the production of NO by allowing the N_2O_3 reduction. Ascorbic acid reduces Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} effectively and enhances the reduction process of NO-metmyoglobin. Thus, antioxidants with reducing activity aids in the cured meat color development by raising NO production and lowering NO-metmyoglobin levels. NaCl, generally added to meat for curing, reacts with HNO_2 to generate nitrosyl chloride, which is more sensitive than N_2O_3 in terms of generating nitric oxide (**NO**) and initiating the formation of NO-myoglobin.

The rate of nitrosyl myoglobin production has been found to increase with increased salt concentration. The sensory panelists rated the bacon with a high sodium chloride level as having more redness. The pH also controls nitric oxide formation from nitrite. Nitrous acid (**HNO_2**) and nitrite reactivity increase as pH decreases. The rate of nitric oxide (**NO**) formation is doubled when the pH is slightly reduced by 0.2–0.3 units (34, 35,36,37,38 and 39).

Basically, a very small quantity of nitrite is required for the development of the cured color in meats, usually approximately 2–14 ppm. However, the level of residual nitrite in cured meats gradually decrease owing to oxidation during storage time. As a result, the meat starts to lose its cured color and become faded. Color loss also occurs when meat is exposed to air and light, while the presence of adequate residual nitrite as well as reducing chemicals delay this process. Usually, 10–15 ppm of residual nitrite is recommended, which can act like a reservoir for the cured meat color regeneration. On the other side, higher levels of sodium nitrite (**>600 ppm/kg of meat**) and low pH value may lead to nitrite burn (discoloration) where meat shows a green color due to the formation of nitrihematin, a green-brown pigment (46,47,48,49,50 and 51).

Cured Flavour Development

Flavor is the combination of numerous qualities including odor, fragrance, taste, texture and temperature of meat that influences the perception of the consumer. Although it is generally recognized that nitrite influences the meat flavor, the reactions responsible for this thing are not completely understood.

The antioxidant activity of nitrite against lipid oxidation is assumed to be one of the methods which might alter the flavor of meat products by suppressing “warmed-over” flavor. Aldehydes such as pentanal, hexanal, etc., which are the products of lipid oxidation, are suppressed in cured meat when lipid oxidation is inhibited by nitrite. Uncured meat has considerably greater levels of hexanal than cured meat. Furthermore, cured meat has low levels of carbonyl compounds, including 2-heptanone, 3-hexanone, 2-nonenal, and 2-octanal. Thus, nitrite has been demonstrated to simplify the flavor spectrum. The use of nitrite does not affect the synthesis of specific flavor compounds, but it inhibits the formation of aldehydes (**hexanal**), masking the sulfur-containing chemicals that give cured meat its flavor. Nitrite, on the other hand, has been shown to cause the production of Strecker aldehydes. Strecker aldehydes are generated when amino acids are degraded by dicarbonyl produced through Maillard reactions and these aldehydes are linked to meat flavor formation. After adding nitrite to fermented sausages, the production of Strecker aldehydes increases. This might be due to an increase in carbonyl molecules, which can combine with amino acids to create Strecker aldehydes due to the pro-oxidant action of nitrite (52,53,54,55,56 and 57).

In cured meats, less than $1/2$ of the overall volatile chemicals, generally found in uncured meats have been detected and much of the variation is considered to be related to the partial production of the by-products of lipid oxidation. Alcohols and phenolic compounds may go through nitration reactions, which may have an effect on volatile chemicals. S-nitroso thiol production and disulfide bond breakdown during meat curing is likely to cause increases in sulfur compounds. The antioxidant effect of nitrite explains why oxidation products, such as hexanal, are reduced in cured meats. More research is needed to completely understand the mechanism, reactions and the volatile compounds responsible for the aroma and flavor of cured meat.

Sensorial research shows that cured meat flavor is not only an outcome of the retardation of lipid oxidation but also a blending of complex cured aromas/flavors in collaboration with the scarcity of rancid flavors. In this manner, it can be said that cured meat flavor is the combination of two things, Lipid oxidation suppression by nitrite and Nitrite related flavor development (58,59,60,61,62 and 63).

Antioxidant Properties against Lipid and Protein Oxidation

Another notable characteristic of nitrite is that it can prevent rancidity during storage and the formation of “warmed-over” flavors when meat products are heated. The oxidation process affects lipids, proteins as well as pigments of meat and causes changes in hue, flavor, texture, and nutritive value. During cold storage, lipid oxidation produces off-flavors which are typically characterized as rancid and

enhances the discoloration of food. Moreover, it produces and accumulates chemicals that might endanger consumers' health. Oxygen is a significant factor influencing lipid oxidation in meat. It interacts with the unsaturated lipids of meat to generate lipid peroxides which include oxygen absorption as well as double bond reformation. The production of lipid peroxides ultimately leads to the formation of a variety of chemical components such as aldehydes, alcohols and ketones.

Nitrite acts as an antioxidant by protecting the lipid molecules of meat from oxidation. In cured meats, nitrite works as an antioxidant through different mechanisms. Nitrite serves as a chelating agent of metallic ions (main prooxidants in meats) and it also stabilizes the heme Fe. Furthermore, nitric oxide, produced from nitrite, may be readily converted to NO_2 by reacting with oxygen. Nitric oxide also reacts with radicals of lipid to break the oxidation chain reactions. Lipid oxidation may be started in a variety of ways and once initiated, grows exponentially due to free radical interactions. Once they are generated in the starting phase, lipid radicals are continually oxidized through radical chain reactions. Nitrite can inhibit lipid oxidation initiation by reacting with ROS (**reactive oxygen species**), such as hydroxyl radicals. Nitric oxide (**NO**) can also inhibit lipid oxidation by combining with lipid peroxy radicals and produce non-radical molecules. Nitrite has been shown to have an antioxidant property at concentrations as low as 40 mg per kg. A reduction of about 65% in lipid oxidation has been reported when 50 ppm sodium nitrite was added to the meat products (64,65,66,67 and 68).

Proteins, in addition to lipids, are oxidized during the preparation of meat. Moreover, the antioxidant action of nitrite in the inhibition of protein oxidation is yet unknown. As the protein oxidation mechanism is similar to the mechanism of lipid oxidation, it is believed that nitrite might hinder protein oxidation. The quantity of peroxide value, sulfhydryl, carbonyl groups and thiobarbituric acid-reactive compounds (**TBARS**) produced during meat processing are commonly used to assess meat oxidation. The application of sodium nitrite to meat products results in a considerably lower TBARS value than that of controls (**without sodium nitrite**), but no influence on the carbonyl compound concentration, used to evaluate protein oxidation. Sodium nitrite has been shown to have both antioxidant and pro-oxidant properties in meat products. As evidenced by the decreased generation of carbonyl compounds, sodium nitrite exhibits an antioxidant property towards protein oxidation. However, nitrite was also discovered to possess a pro-oxidant effect on protein oxidation by lowering the total sulfhydryl concentration and increasing disulfide bond formation in cooked sausage proteins. By absorbing oxygen from sensitive molecules or producing reactive nitrogen species, nitrite can serve as a pro-oxidant. Protein oxidation causes a variety of physicochemical as well as nutritional

changes in meat proteins along with a reduction in amino acid bioavailability, difference in composition of amino acids, decline in protein solubility, reduction in protein digestibility and lack of proteolytic activity. All these changes can be minimized by the antioxidant activity of nitrite. Therefore, it can be said that nitrite plays a great role as an antioxidant by inhibiting lipid and protein oxidation and thus it can prevent meat quality deterioration (69,70,71,72,73 and 74).

Antimicrobial Effect

Nitrite has been found to be very effective as a bacteriostatic and bactericidal agent in inhibiting or regulating the development of bacteria to various degrees in meat products. Nitrite has been shown to impede the reproduction of *Clostridium botulinum*. The application of nitrite has been shown to inhibit the formation of botulin toxins from inoculated *Clostridium botulinum* in wiener sausages during storage. There are two effects of nitrite found in controlling the growth of *Clostridium botulinum*. The first effect is inhibiting vegetative cells developing from surviving spores. The second effect is the prevention of vegetative cell division. During meat preservation, nitrite lowers the amount of *Clostridium sporogenes*, which have comparable characteristics to *Clostridium botulinum*. In addition, numerous studies have found that nitrite inhibits the development of *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Clostridium perfringens* and *Staphylococcus aureus* in various meat products. The impact of nitrite and inhibitory mechanisms varies with several bacterial species. The effectiveness of antimicrobial activity is dependent on various factors like pH, residual nitrite level, salt concentration, Fe content, reductants presence, storage temperature, etc. At acidic pH, nitrite hinders the growth of unwanted microorganisms more effectively.

Nitrite attacks bacteria at numerous sites by blocking metabolic enzymes, restricting oxygen absorption, and breaking the gradient of protons. Furthermore, nitric oxide binds to iron and reduces the availability of iron which is required for enzyme activity as well as bacterial metabolic activity and development. Because of the strong reactivity of Fe and nitrite, heme ion centers of enzymes and Fe-sulfur complexes are the major target of nitrite. The antibacterial activity of nitrite may be due to the peroxynitrite (**ONOO**) formation and nitric oxide formation from nitrite. Acid catalysis may cause oxymyoglobin to be autoxidized, generating superoxide radicals. The interaction of nitric oxide with superoxide radicals as well as the reaction of nitrite with hydrogen peroxide can produce peroxynitrite. Under physiological environments, peroxynitrite and peroxynitrous acid (**ONOOH**) stay in equilibrium. These two compounds are strong oxidants as well as nitrating agents. They penetrate the bacterial cells by passive anionic diffusion and disrupt the microorganisms by causing protein and lipid oxidation or by damaging DNA. Nitric oxide (**NO**)

can also inhibit microbial growth by forming protein-bound dinitrosyl iron complexes when it reacts with iron-sulfur proteins, which are engaged in critical physiological activities including energy metabolism & DNA synthesis. Various kinds of microorganisms have various metabolic pathways and antioxidant defense strategies, and certain microorganisms are found to be resistant to the oxidative stress of peroxynitrite and peroxynitrous acid. Furthermore, the antibacterial action of nitrite in Gram-positive anaerobic bacteria has been shown to be more effective than in Gram-negative aerobic bacteria.

Most of the nitrite applied to cured meat products is used to suppress *C. botulinum*, with only a little amount (**about 25 ppm**) required for color development. Suppression of *C. botulinum* development and toxin generation rises when nitrite levels rise. The level of additional nitrite is thought to have a greater influence on inhibiting *C. botulinum* than that of the residual nitrite during storage, implying that the production of antimicrobial compounds as a consequence of nitrite-related reactions might be noteworthy. The growth of starter cultures and bacteriocin production have been shown to be inhibited when the nitrite concentration was 100 ppm in sausage (**fermented using *Lactococcus lactis***). An estimation predicts that when the nitrite content in sausage fermented with *Lactococcus lactis* reached 100 ppm, the development of starter cultures and bacteriocin synthesis were suppressed. Several other estimates suggest that pathogens including *Listeria monocytogenes*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus cereus* and *E. coli* grow slower in the presence of nitrite at levels found in cured meats and poultry products (75,76,77,78,79 and 80).

Health Concerns Associated with Nitrite in Meat

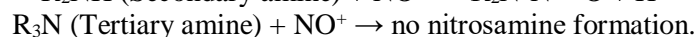
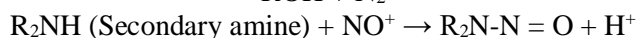
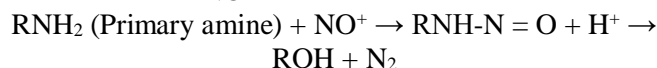
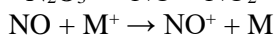
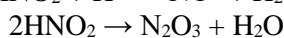
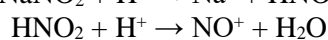
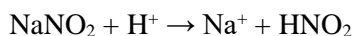
Despite all of sodium nitrite's benefits, its use in meat has been a bone of contention. Due to nitrite's high chemical reactivity, it can combine with a variety of components in meat systems. The heat used throughout the thermal treatment of cured meat products increases its reactivity. Particularly, nitrite ions are highly reactive when the pH is lower than 7; it may react with a variety of meat components, including amino acids, sulfhydryl, amines, phenolic compounds, ascorbic acid and myoglobin. Nitrite can play a role as a nitrosating agent and form various nitroso compounds. Other nitrosating agents include nitrous acid and nitric oxide which are also derived from nitrite. Nitrous acid participates in the processes that result in the formation of endogenous N-nitroso compounds (**NOCs**). NO, on the other hand, maybe a generator of nitrates and nitrites, which circulate in the body of human. Generally, N-nitroso compounds are classified into six types: non-volatile N-nitrosamines, volatile N-nitrosamines, N-nitrosated heterocyclic carboxylic products, N-nitrosamides, Amadori compounds and N-nitrosated glycosylamines. The majority of volatile nitrosamines are categorized in group 2B, which means they are potentially carcinogenic to the human body.

The number of nitrosamines in processed meat products varies depending on the type of meat product. The quantity of N-nitrosamines in processed meat might be less than the detection limit (**one microgram per kilogram**). Furthermore, NOCs are formed when food is cooked at high temperatures or when cured meat is processed. Recent epidemiologic studies have indicated nitrate, nitrite and N-nitroso compounds as a potential risk for cancer. Among the various nitroso compounds, N-nitroso dimethylamine is thought to be potentially more carcinogenic to the human body. Although nitrite is known to be associated with general health implications, no evidence has been found to support the connection between cancer risk and processed meats consumption. Only high exposure to nitrites from various sources has been attributed to the elevated risk of health problems.

As sodium nitrite can be a predecessor of nitrosamines, its usage in meat curing has gathered public concern. It is currently considered that the amount of nitrite added and the production of N-nitrosamines have a positive relationship but the relationship is not linear. The majority of N-nitrosamines are organ-specific, implying that only certain types of them cause cancer in certain organs. Furthermore, they exhibit teratogenic effects too. There are about 300 variety of nitrosamines and almost all of them (**97%**) have been demonstrated to be teratogenic in experimental animals. Amines, in the form of free amino acids (proline, hydroxyproline), creatinine and creatine are present at very low concentrations in organic meat products.

The development of nitrosamines in meat products is a complicated process and it may be influenced by a wide range of factors. Nitrite, nitrate, primary and secondary amines, amides, peptides, proteins and various amino acids are the initial compounds for N.A. synthesis in meats and these are converted into N.A. (**nitrosamines**) precursors by microbial activity. Microorganisms may contribute to the formation of N.A.s by converting nitrates to nitrites and degrading proteins to amino acids and amines. N-nitrosamines can develop in meat throughout the production processes, during home cooking and in the digestive tract after ingestion. They are mostly generated from secondary amines, nitrite and other nitrosating agents. In cured meats, residual nitrite may combine with amines and free amino acids and yield nitrosamines under specific conditions, such as the existence of secondary amines, low pH, product temperature >130 °C and the NO₂ availability to react. During the grilling or frying of cured meats, nitrosamines may occur in little amounts and are expected to cause cancer in the human body (**even with the little exposure over prolonged time**) (81,82,83,84,85 and 86).

The chemical reactions that result in the developments of nitrosamines in cured meat systems are noted below:



These chemical reactions exhibit the same process leading to the formation of nitric oxide and nitrous acid. As a result, the same consequences can lead to the nitrite reduction and favors the production of nitrosamine. Among the primary, secondary and tertiary amines, the secondary amines generate more persistent nitrosamines. In addition, the mixture of secondary amines and nitrite cause lung adenomas in mice. An investigation into mice treated with 0.5% sodium nitrite and 0.85% butyl urea showed the elevated occurrence of malignant lymphomas. Numerous epidemiological studies have found a link between nitrosamines (**N.A.s**) and various type of cancer risk In 2006, a working group of IARC (**International Agency for Research on Cancer**) stated that “ingested nitrite under certain conditions resulting in endogenous nitrosation is presumably carcinogenic to human body” An epidemiological study conducted in 2008 showed that there is an increased risk of colorectal cancer related to high processed meat intake Excessive nitrite intake can also result in tissue poisoning, respiratory center paralysis, and other hypoxia-related symptoms. In extreme cases, it can cause suffocation as well as death by decreasing the O_2 carrying capability of hemoglobin in human blood High nitrite consumption can impair iodine metabolism and decrease iodine absorption by the thyroid, which can result in the enlargement of the thyroid gland. Methemoglobinemia, also known as blue baby syndrome”, is another health concern of high nitrite intake. It develops when nitrate is converted to reactive nitrite by reducing bacteria in the saliva or digestive system of humans. The blue baby syndrome is named after the blue color of a newborn’s skin when their blood nitrite levels are high. As a result, methemoglobinemia is often known as “blue baby syndrome,” and it is a life-threatening disease. When nitrite enters the bloodstream, it causes the hemoglobin (**the protein that transports oxygen in the bloodstream to the body’s tissues**) to be oxidized to methemoglobin (87,88,89,90,91 and 92). This reaction produces methemoglobin which is responsible for the reduced oxygen supply to body tissues, causing the skin to become blue and possibly causing asphyxia. In the initial stages of methemoglobinemia, the blue color can be observed in the nose, lips, and ears and in extreme cases it can affect the peripheral tissues Infants under six months of age are the most sensitive to methemoglobinemia. Meanwhile, this disease has been reported in both school-going children and

adults. Furthermore, decreased tissue oxygenation can have a variety of negative consequences for the children, involving coma and eventually death. The toxic amounts of nitrites responsible for methemoglobinemia range from 0.4 mg to more than 200 mg per kg of body weight. The nitrite ion limit for newborns is up to 3 ppm The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency reported contradictory evidence over the relationship between higher nitrite intake and the elevated incidence of cancer in children and adults. In certain studies, it has been found that a high intake of nitrite can lead to the elevated occurrence of leukemia, nasopharyngeal and brain tumors in some children (93,94,95,96 and 97).

Potential Alternatives to Nitrite in Processed Meat and Their Effect on Color, Flavor, Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties.

As nitrite is involved in the production of nitrosamines, meat industries are recently focusing on new strategies to substitute traditional NaNO_2 in cured meat with the aim of minimizing nitrite intake. Consumer’s interest is also growing in the development of natural alternatives and other preservation methods that are comparatively healthier. Although nitrite’s broad-spectrum action makes it hard to replace it with a sole antimicrobial agent, a mixture of nitrite and other antimicrobial agents might become effective Nevertheless, any improvements in terms of consumption safety should be made without compromising the distinctive features of the organic and natural processed meats, and this must be linked to the consumer’s desire to purchase such foods. It is possible that a replacement for nitrite might be found and new products may be developed, but it is questionable if this might be good enough to entice people to buy. Consumers prefer meat products which contain lower nitrite levels and the decision of buying new meat products depend on the function of nitrite, their application reasons and their outcome Therefore, a successful nitrite reduction in meat products, along with the addition of several alternatives would provide a variety of benefits for the consumers, including a reduction in cancerogenic substances (98,99,100,101,102 and 103).

Organic Acids and Salts:

In meat industries, organic acids are used to prevent microbial development, decrease the pH of meat products, and increase the curing performance of processed meats The use of organic acid to cured meat enhances the color development process while inhibiting microbiological growth. Lactate, sorbate, acetate, and benzoate are some important organic acids that have been widely used as food additives for many years. The rationale for employing organic acids is that they have the potential to lower pH to a level that prevents bacteria from proliferating (104,105,106,107 and 108)

High Hydrostatic Pressure (HHP):

Treatment with high pressure (100–800 MPa) is used uniformly to meat products at moderate temperature (less than 45 °C) as an anti-microbial process with the purpose of extending the shelf life of that product. HHP increases the meat product's shelf life by reducing the growth of pathogenic microorganisms. The use of HHP also aids in the inactivation of enzymes for a greater duration of time without the use of synthetic additives. However, in order to ensure food safety and to increase the shelf life, proper application of pressure and temperature has to be set in accordance with the product's characteristics. Meat processors can now satisfy the growing demand of consumers for natural and "preservative-free" meat products while retaining the stable sensory qualities over a longer storage period and ensuring product safety by processing meats using HHP (109,110,111,112,113 and 114).

Salt petre (Na nitrite or Na nitrate):**Advantages:****Color stabilizer:**

Nitrate (by nitrate reducing m.o) → Nitrite (in the absence of light and oxygen) → Nitric oxide + H₂O

Nitric oxide + Myoglobin (Mb) → Nitric oxide metmyoglobin (NOMMb) → Nitric oxide myoglobin (NOMb) (unstable) by acidity or cooking → Nitric oxide haemochromagen (stable pickling pink attractive colour). **Without nitrite** meat products turn grey in color when heated.

Antibotulinum factor: nitrite + Fe found in meat which is an essential nutrient for growth and multiplication of *Cl. botulinum*, → inhibiting growth of *Cl. botulinum* and delaying the production of botulinum toxins.

Antioxidant: retard development of oxidative rancidity, off-odors and off-flavors during storage. Inhibit development of warmed-over flavor (WOF).

It preserves the flavor of spices and smoke.

It acts as flavoring agent in bacon production, (bacon is salted, cured, smoked, and canned hindquarter of pigs). If nitrite is not added to brine soln. the product is not considered bacon but considered pickle ham.

↓ temperature used → ↓ cost of the final product.

Disadvantages:

Excessive amount → hardness of meat products.

Carcinogenic agent:

Nitrite (in the presence of light and oxygen) → Nitrous acid + dimethylamine → (by cooking and high temperature of frying) nitrosamine (carcinogenic). This problem may be reduced by adding:

- a- 550 ppm Na ascorbate + 120 ppm Na nitrite.
- b- K sorbate
- c- ∞ tocopherol.

It is prohibited to be used in canned baby meat. Recommended dose of nitrite is 120 ppm in all meat products and 50 ppm in canned meat (115, 116, 117, 118, and 119).

Conclusion:

Nitrite is used as a versatile additive in the meat industry. It is liable for the pinkish-red color and unique flavor of cured meat products. It also acts as an antioxidant that prevents the development of a warmed-over flavor as well as a bacteriostatic effect that prevents the formation of botulinum toxins from *Clostridium botulinum*. Despite its many advantages in meat curing, sodium nitrite has been the subject of debate due to its probable carcinogenic impact on humans, according to various research. Ingesting too much nitrite can induce methemoglobinemia in children and raise the risk of developing colorectal cancer in adults. On the other hand, consumers' desire for organic or nitrite-reduced meat keeps growing. As a result, the meat industry is now focusing on finding efficient ways for minimizing residual nitrite content in meat products and safer nitrite alternatives for the preparation of organic meat products. As nitrite replacements, various plant extracts, organic acids (lactate, sorbate, etc.) and HHP can be employed efficiently in processed meats. Unfortunately, still no sole alternative for nitrite has been found that can fulfil all of nitrite's functions simultaneously. Hurdle technology using reduced levels of nitrite combined with other additives or processing techniques might have potential in producing the antimicrobial effects against the most prevalent microbial pathogens while also improving sensory characteristics. However, additional research is required to find a single alternative to nitrite that can be used to perform the nitrite broad-spectrum activities in a cost-effective way.

Conflicts of Interest:

The author declare no conflicts of interest.

References:

1. Shaltout, F.A., Riad, E. M., and AbouElhassan, Asmaa, A. (2017): Prevalence of Mycobacterium Tuberculosis in Imported cattle Offals and Its lymph Nodes. *Veterinary Medical Journal -Giza*, 63(2): 115 – 122.
2. Shaltout, F.A., Riad, E. M., and Asmaa Abou-Elhassan (2017): Prevalence of Mycobacterium Spp. In Cattle Meat and Offal's Slaughtered in and Out Abattoir. *Egyptian Veterinary medical Association*, 77(2): 407 – 420.
3. Abd Elaziz, O., Fatin S. Hassanin, Fahim A. Shaltout and Othman A. Mohamed (2021): Prevalence of Some Foodborne Parasitic Affection in Slaughtered

- Animals in Local Egyptian Abattoir. *Journal of Nutrition Food Science and Technology* 2(3): 1-5.
4. Abd Elaziz, O., Fatin, S Hassanin, Fahim, A Shaltout, Othman, A Mohamed (2021): Prevalence of some zoonotic parasitic affections in sheep carcasses in a local abattoir in Cairo, Egypt. *Advances in Nutrition & Food Science* 6(2): 6(2): 25-31.
 5. Al Shorman, A. A. M.; Shaltout, F. A. and hilat, N (1999): Detection of certain hormone residues in meat marketed in Jordan. *Jordan University of Science and Technology*, 1st International Conference on Sheep and goat Diseases and Productivity, 23-25.
 6. Ebeed Saleh, Fahim Shaltout, Essam Abd Elaal (2021); Effect of some organic acids on microbial quality of dressed cattle carcasses in Damietta abattoirs, Egypt. *Damanhour Journal of Veterinary Sciences* 5(2): 17-20.
 7. Edris A, Hassanin, F. S; *Shaltout, F.A.*, Azza H Elbaba and Nairoz M Adel (2017): Microbiological Evaluation of Some Heat-Treated Fish Products in Egyptian Markets. *EC Nutrition* 12.3 (2017): 124-132.
 8. Edris, A., Hassan, M. A., Shaltout, F. A. and Elhosseiny, S. (2013): Chemical evaluation of cattle and camel meat. *benha veterinary medical journal*, 24(2): 191-197.
 9. Edris, A. M., Hassan, M. A., Shaltout, F.A. and Elhosseiny, S. (2012): Detection of E.coli and Salmonella organisms in cattle and camel meat. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 24(2): 198-204.
 10. Edris A. M.; Hemmat M. I., Shaltout F.A.; Elshater M.A., Eman F.M.I. (2012): study on incipient spoilage of chilled chicken cuts-up. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 23(1), 81-86.
 11. Edris A.M.; Hemmat M.I.; Shaltout F.A.; Elshater M.A., Eman, F. M. I. (2012): chemical analysis of chicken meat with relation to its quality. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 23(1): 87-92.
 12. Edris, A.M.; Shaltout, F.A. and Abd Allah, A.M. (2005): Incidence of Bacillus cereus in some meat products and the effect of cooking on its survival. *Zag. Vet. J.* 33(2):118-124.
 13. Edris, A.M.; Shaltout, F.A. and Arab, W.S. (2005): Bacterial Evaluation of Quail Meat. *Benha Vet. Med. J.* 16 (1):1-14.
 14. Edris, A.M.; Shaltout, F. A.; Salem, G.H. and El-Toukhy, E. I. (2011): Incidence and isolation of Salmonellae from some meat products. *Benha University, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine*, Fourth Scientific Conference 25-27th May 2011 (Veterinary Medicine and Food Safety) 172-179 benha, Egypt.
 15. Edris AA, Hassanin, F. S; *Shaltout, F.A.*, Azza H Elbaba and Nairoz M Adel. (2017): Microbiological Evaluation of Some Heat-Treated Fish Products in Egyptian Markets. *EC Nutrition* 12.3 (2017): 134-142.
 16. Edris, A. M.; Shaltout, F. A.; Salem, G.H. and El-Toukhy, E. I. (2011): Plasmid profile analysis of Salmonellae isolated from some meat products. *Benha University, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine*, Fourth Scientific Conference 25-27th May 2011 (Veterinary Medicine and Food Safety) 194-201 benha, Egypt.
 17. Ragab A, Abobakr M. Edris, Fahim A.E. Shaltout, Amani M. Salem (2022): Effect of titanium dioxide nanoparticles and thyme essential oil on the quality of the chicken fillet. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 41(2): 38-40.
 18. Hassan, M.A, Shaltout, F. A, Arfa M. M, Mansour A.H and Saudi, K. R. (2013): biochemical studies on rabbit meat related to some diseases. *Benha veterinary medical journal* 25(1):88-93.
 19. Hassan, M.A and Shaltout, F.A. (1997): Occurrence of Some Food Poisoning Microorganisms in Rabbit Carcasses *Alex. J. Vet. Science*, 13(1):55-61.
 20. Hassan M, Shaltout FA* and Saqur N (2020): Histamine in Some Fish Products. *Archives of Animal Husbandry & Dairy Science*, 2(1): 1-3.
 21. Hassan, M.A and Shaltout, F.A. (2004): Comparative Study on Storage Stability of Beef, Chicken meat, and Fish at Chilling Temperature. *Alex. J. Vet. Science*, 20(21):21-30.
 22. Hassan, M. A; Shaltout, F. A.; Arafa, M. M.; Mansour, A.H. and Saudi, K.R. (2013): Biochemical studies on rabbit meat related to some diseases. *Benha Vet. Med. J.*, 25 (1):88-93.
 23. Hassan, M. A; Shaltout, F.A.; Maarouf, A.A. and El-Shafey, W.S. (2014): Psychrotrophic bacteria in frozen fish with special reference to pseudomonas species. *Benha Vet. Med. J.*, 27 (1):78-83.
 24. Hassan, M. A; Shaltout, F.A.; Arafa, M. M.; Mansour, A.H. and Saudi, K.R. (2013): Bacteriological studies on rabbit meat related to some diseases, *Benha Vet. Med. J.*, 25 (1):94-99.
 25. Hassanin, F. S; Hassan, M. A., Shaltout, F.A., Nahla A. Shawqy and Ghada A. Abd-Elhameed (2017): Chemical criteria of chicken meat. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 33(2):457-464.
 26. Hassanin, F. S; Hassan, M. A.; Shaltout, F.A. and Elrais-Amina, M. (2014): clostridium perfringens in vacuum packaged meat products. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 26(1):49-53.
 27. Hassanien, F.S.; Shaltout, F.A.; Fahmey, M.Z. and Elsukkary, H.F. (2020): Bacteriological quality guides in local and imported beef and their relation to public health. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal* 39: 125-129.
 28. Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F. A. and, Mostafa E.M. (2013): Parasitic affections in edible offal. *Benha Vet. Med. J.*, 25 (2):34-39.

29. Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Lamada, H.M., Abd Allah, E.M. (2011): The effect of preservative (nisin) on the survival of listeria monocytogenes. *Benha veterinary medical journal-special issue [I]*: 141-145.
30. Khattab, E., Fahim Shaltout and Islam Sabik (2021): Hepatitis A virus related to foods. *Benha veterinary medical journal* 40(1): 174-179.
31. Saad M. Saad, Fahim A. Shaltout, Amal A. A. Farag & Hashim F. Mohammed (2022): Organophosphorus Residues in Fish in Rural Areas. *Journal of Progress in Engineering and Physical Science*, 1(1): 27-31.
32. Saif, M., Saad S.M., Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout FA, Marionette Zaghoul (2019): Molecular detection of enterotoxigenic Staphylococcus aureus in ready-to-eat beef products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2019) 7-11.
33. Saif,M., Saad S.M., Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Marionette Zaghoul (2019); Prevalence of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus in some ready-to-eat meat products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2019) 12-15.
34. Farag, A. A., Saad M. Saad, Fahim A. Shaltout1, Hashim F. Mohammed (2023 a): Studies on Pesticides Residues in Fish in Menofia Governorate. *Benha Journal of Applied Sciences*, 8(5): 323-330.
35. Farag, A. A., Saad M. Saad, Fahim A. Shaltout, Hashim F. Mohammed (2023 b): Organochlorine Residues in Fish in Rural Areas. *Benha Journal of Applied Sciences*, 8 (5): 331-336.
36. Shaltout, F.A., Mona N. Hussein, Nada Kh. Elsayed (2023): Histological Detection of Unauthorized Herbal and Animal Contents in Some Meat Products. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary Research* 13(2): 157-160.
37. Shaltout, F. A., Heikal, G. I., Ghanem, A. M. (2022): Mycological quality of some chicken meat cuts in Gharbiya governorate with special reference to Aspergillus flavus virulent factors. *benha veteriv medical journal veterinary* 42(1): 12-16.
38. Shaltout, F.A., Ramadan M. Salem, Eman M. Eldiasty, Fatma A. Diab (2022): Seasonal Impact on the Prevalence of Yeast Contamination of Chicken Meat Products and Edible Giblets. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary Research* 12(5): 641-644.
39. Shaltout, F.A., Abdelazez Ahmed Helmy Barr and Mohamed Elsayed Abdelaziz (2022): Pathogenic Microorganisms in Meat Products. *Biomedical Journal of Scientific & Technical Research* 41(4): 32836-32843.
40. Shaltout, F.A., Thabet, M.G. and Koura, H.A. (2017). Impact of Some Essential Oils on the Quality Aspect and Shelf Life of Meat. *J Nutr Food Sci.*, 7: 647.
41. Shaltout, F.A., Islam Z. Mohammed², El -Sayed A. Afify (2020): Bacteriological profile of some raw chicken meat cuts in Ismailia city, Egypt. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal* 39 (2020) 11-15.
42. Shaltout, F.A.,Islam, Z. Mohammed²., El -Sayed A. Afify (2020): Detection of E. coli O157 and Salmonella species in some raw chicken meat cuts in Ismailia province, Egypt. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 39 (2020) 101-104.
43. Shaltout, F.A., E.M. El-diasty and M. A. Asmaa-Hassan (2020): hygienic quality of ready to eat cooked meat in restaurants at Cairo. *Journal of Global Biosciences* 8(12): 6627-6641.
44. Shaltout, F.A., Marrionet Z. Nasief, L. M. Lotfy, Bossi T. Gamil (2019): Microbiological status of chicken cuts and its products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2019) 57-63.
45. Shaltout, F.A. (2019): Poultry Meat. *Scholarly Journal of Food and Nutrition*, 22 1-2.
46. Shaltout, F.A. (2019): Food Hygiene and Control. *Food Science and Nutrition Technology*, 4(5): 1-2.
47. Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Seham N. Homouda and Safaa M. Arakeeb (2019): Natural preservatives in raw chicken meat. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2019) 41-45.
48. Hazaa, W., Shaltout, F.A., Mohamed El-Shate (2019): Prevalence of some chemical hazards in some meat products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2) 32-36.
49. Hazaa, W, Shaltout, F.A., Mohamed El-Shater (2019): Identification of Some Biological Hazards in Some Meat Products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2) 27-31.
50. Gaafar, R., Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Marionette Zaghoul (2019): Molecular detection of enterotoxigenic Staphylococcus aureus in some ready to eat meat-based sandwiches. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2) 22-26.
51. Gaafar, R., Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Marionette Zaghoul (2019): Hygienic profile of some ready to eat meat product sandwiches sold in Benha city, Qalubiya Governorate, Egypt. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 37 (2) 16-21.
52. Saad S.M., Shaltout, F.A., Nahla A Abou Elroos, Saber B El-nahas (2019): Antimicrobial Effect of Some Essential Oils on Some Pathogenic Bacteria in Minced Meat. *J Food Sci Nutr Res.* 2 (1): 012-020.
53. Saad S.M., Shaltout, F.A., Nahla A Abou Elroos² and Saber B El-nahas (2019): Incidence of Staphylococci and E. coli in Meat and Some Meat Products. *EC Nutrition* 14.6.
54. Saad S.M., Hassanin, F. S.; Shaltout, F.A., Marionette Z Nassif, Marwa Z Seif. (2019): Prevalence of Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus Aureus in Some Ready-to-Eat Meat Products.

- American Journal of Biomedical Science & Research*, 4(6):460-464.
55. Shaltout, Fahim (2019): Pollution of Chicken Meat and Its Products by Heavy Metals. *Research and Reviews on Healthcare: Open Access Journal*, 4, 3(381-3382).
 56. Shaltout, F. A.; E.M EL-diasty; M. S. M Mohamed (2018): Effects of chitosan on quality attributes fresh meat slices stored at 4 C. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 35(2): 157-168.
 57. Shaltout and Abdel-Aziz, (2004): ***Salmonella enterica*** serovar Enteritidis in poultry meat and their epidemiology. *Vet. Med. J. Giza*, 52 (2004), pp. 429-436.
 58. Shaltout, F.A., Hala F El-Shorah, Dina I El Zahaby, Lamiaa M Lotfy (2018): Bacteriological Profile of Chicken Meat Products. *SciFed Food & Dairy Technology Journal*, 2:3.
 59. Shaltout, F.A., Mohamed, A.H. El-Shater, Wafaa Mohamed Abd El-Aziz (2015): Bacteriological assessment of Street Vended Meat Products sandwiches in kalyobia Governorate. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 28(2):58-66,
 60. Shaltout, F.A., Mohamed A El shatter and Heba M Fahim (2019): Studies on Antibiotic Residues in Beef and Effect of Cooking and Freezing on Antibiotic Residues Beef Samples. *Scholarly Journal of Food and Nutrition*, 2(1), 1-4.
 61. Shaltout FA, Zakaria IM and Nabil ME. (2018): Incidence of Some Anaerobic Bacteria Isolated from Chicken Meat Products with Special Reference to *Clostridium perfringens*. *Nutrition and Food Toxicology* 2.5: 429-438.
 62. Shaltout FA, Ahmed A A Maarouf and Mahmoud ES Elkhoully. (2017): Bacteriological Evaluation of Frozen Sausage. *Nutrition and Food Toxicology* 1.5; 174-185.
 63. Shaltout FA, El-Toukhy EI and Abd El-Hai MM. (2019): Molecular Diagnosis of *Salmonellae* in Frozen Meat and Some Meat Products. *Nutrition and Food Technology Open Access* 5(1): 1-6.
 64. Shaltout, F.A., A.M.Ali and S.M.Rashad (2016): Bacterial Contamination of Fast Foods. *Benha Journal of Applied Sciences (BJAS)* 1 (2)45-51.
 65. Shaltout, F.A., Zakaria. I. M., Jehan Eltanani, Asmaa. Elmelegy (2015): Microbiological status of meat and chicken received to university student hostel. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 29(2):187-192.
 66. Saad, S. M.; Edris, A.M.; Shaltout, F. A. and Edris, Shima (2012): Isolation and identification of salmonellae and E.coli from meat and poultry cuts by using A. multiplex PCR. *Benha Vet. Med. J.* special issue 16-26.
 67. Saad, S.M. and Shaltout, F.A. (1998): Mycological Evaluation of camel carcasses at Kalyobia Abattoirs. *Vet. Med. J. Giza*, 46(3):223-229.
 68. Saad S. M., Shaltout, F.A., Nahla A Abou Elroos, Saber B El-nahas. (2019): Antimicrobial Effect of Some Essential Oils on Some Pathogenic Bacteria in Minced Meat. *J Food Sci Nutr Res*, 2 (1): 012-020.
 69. Saad S. M., Hassanin, F. S; Shaltout, F.A., Marionette Z Nassif, Marwa Z Seif. (2019): Prevalence of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus Aureus* in Some Ready-to-Eat Meat Products. *American Journal of Biomedical Science & Research*, 4(6):460-464.
 70. Saad S.M., Shaltout, F.A., Nahla A Abou Elroos and Saber B El-nahas. (2019): Incidence of *Staphylococci* and *E. coli* in Meat and Some Meat Products. *EC Nutrition* 14.6 (2019).
 71. Shaltout FA, Riad EM, TES Ahmed and AbouElhassan A. (2017): Studying the Effect of Gamma Irradiation on Bovine Offal's Infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* Bovine Type. *Journal of Food Biotechnology Research*, 1 (6): 1-5.
 72. Shaltout FA, Zakaria IM and Nabil ME. (2018): Incidence of Some Anaerobic Bacteria Isolated from Chicken Meat Products with Special Reference to *Clostridium perfringens*. *Nutrition and Food Toxicology* 2.5 (2018): 429-438.
 73. Shaltout FA, Mohamed, A. Hassan and Hassanin, F. S. (2004): Thermal inactivation of enterohaemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* o157:h7 and its sensitivity to nisin and lactic acid cultures. *1st Ann. Confr, FVM., Moshtohor, Sept, 2004*.
 74. Shaltout FA, El-diasty, E, M.; Elmesalamy, M. and Elshaer, M. (2014): Study on fungal contamination of some chicken meat products with special reference to 2 the use of PCR for its identification. Conference, *Veterinary Medical Journal – Giza*, 60: 1-10.
 75. shaltout, F.A. (2002): Microbiological Aspects of Semi-cooked chicken Meat Products. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 13, 2, 15-26.
 76. Shaltout FA, Thabet, M.G2 and Hanan, A. Koura3. (2017): Impact of some essential oils on the quality aspect and shelf life of meat. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 33, (2): 351-364.
 77. Shaltout FA, Mohammed Farouk; Hosam A.A. Ibrahim and Mostafa E.M. Afifi (2017): Incidence of Coliform and *Staphylococcus aureus* in ready to eat fast foods. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 32(1): 13 - 17.
 78. Shaltout, F.A., Zakaria, I.M., Nabil, M.E. (2017): Detection and typing of *Clostridium perfringens* in some retail chicken meat products. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 33(2):283-291.

79. Shaltout, F. A. (1992): Studies on Mycotoxins in Meat and Meat by Products. M. V. Sc Thesis Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Moshtohor, Zagazig University Benha branch.
80. Shaltout, F. A. (1996): Mycological and Mycotoxicological profile Of Some Meat products. Ph.D. Thesis, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Moshtohor, Zagazig University Benha branch.
81. Shaltout, F.A. (1998): Proteolytic Psychrotrophes in Some Meat products. *Alex. Vet. Med. J.*14 (2):97-107.
82. Shaltout, F.A. (1999): Anaerobic Bacteria in Vacuum Packed Meat Products. *Benha Vet. Med.J.*10 (1):1-10.
83. Shaltout, F. A. (2000): Protozoal Foodborne Pathogens in some Meat Products. *Assiut Vet. Med. J.* 42 (84):54-59.
84. Shaltout, F. A. (2001): Quality evaluation of sheep carcasses slaughtered at Kalyobia abattoirs. *Assiut Veterinary Medical Journal*, 46(91):150-159.
85. Shaltout, F. A. (2002): Microbiological Aspects of Semi-cooked Chicken Meat Products. *Benha Vet. Med. J.* 13(2):15-26.
86. Shaltout, F.A. (2003): *Yersinia Enterocolitica* in some meat products and fish marketed at Benha city. The Third international conference Mansoura 29-30 April.
87. Shaltout, F. A. (2009): Microbiological quality of chicken carcasses at modern Poultry plant. The 3rd Scientific Conference, Faculty of Vet. Med., Benha University, 1-3 january.
88. Shaltout, F. A. and Abdel Aziz, A.M. (2004): Salmonella enterica Seroovar Enteritidis in Poultry Meat and their Epidemiology, *Vet. Med. J.*, Giza,52(3):429-436.
89. Shaltout, F. A. and Abdel Aziz, A. M. (2004): Escherichia coli strains in slaughtered animals and their public health importance. *J. Egypt. Vet. Med. Association* 64(2):7-21.
90. Shaltout, F. A., Amin, R., Marionet, Z., Nassif and Shima, Abdel-wahab (2014): Detection of aflatoxins in some meat products. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 27(2) :368-374.
91. Shaltout, F. A. and Afify, Jehan Riad, EM and Abo Elhasan, Asmaa, A. (2012): Improvement of microbiological status of oriental sausage. *Journal of Egyptian Veterinary Medical Association* 72(2):157-167.
92. Shaltout, F. A. and Daoud, J. R. (1996): Chemical analytical studies on rabbit meat and liver. *Benha Vet. Med.J.*8 (2):17-27.
93. Shaltout, F. A. and Edris, A.M. (1999): Contamination of shawerma with pathogenic yeasts. *Assiut Veterinary Medical Journal*, 40(64):34-39.
94. Shaltout, F. A.; Eldiasty, E. and Mohamed, M.S. (2014): Incidence of lipolytic and proteolytic fungi in some chicken meat products and their public health significance. *Animal Health Research Institute: First International Conference on Food Safety and Technology* 19-23 June 2014 Cairo Egypt pages 79-89.
95. Shaltout, F. A.; Eldiasty, E.; Salem, R. and Hassan, Asmaa (2016): Mycological quality of chicken carcasses and extending shelf – life by using preservatives at refrigerated storage. *Veterinary Medical Journal -Giza (VMJG)*62(3)1-7.
96. Shaltout, F.A.; Salem, R. Eldiasty, E.; and Diab, Fatema. (2016): Mycological evaluation of some ready to eat meat products with special reference to molecular cauterization. *Veterinary Medical Journal -Giza* 62(3)9-14.
97. Shaltout, F. A., Elshater, M. and Wafaa, Abdelaziz (2015): Bacteriological assessment of street vended meat products sandwiches in Kalyobia Governorate. *Benha Vet. Med.J.*28 (2):58-66.
98. Shaltout, F. A.; Gerges, M.T. and Shewail, A. A. (2018): Impact of Organic Acids and Their Salts on Microbial Quality and Shelf Life of Beef. *Assiut veterinary medical journal*, 64(159): 164-177
99. Shaltout, F. A.; Ghoneim, A.M.; Essmail, M.E. and Yousseif, A. (2001): Studies on aflatoxin B1 residues in rabbits and their pathological effects. *J. Egypt. Vet. Med. Association* 61(2):85-103.
100. Shaltout, F.A. and Hanan, M.T. El-Lawendy (2003): Heavy Metal Residues in Shawerma. *Beni-Suef Vet. Med. J.* 13(1):213-224.
101. Shaltout, F.A. and Hashim, M.F. (2002): Histamine in salted, Smoked and Canned Fish products. *Benha Vet. Med.J.*13 (1):1-11.
102. Shaltout, F.A.; Hashim, M. F. and Elnahas, s. (2015): Levels of some heavy metals in fish (tilapia nilotica and Claris lazera) at Menufia Governorate. *Benha Vet. Med. J.* 29 (1):56-64.
103. Shaltout, F. A. and Ibrahim, H.M. (1997): Quality evaluation of luncheon and Alexandrian sausage. *Benha Vet. Med.J.* 10 (1):1-10.
104. Shaltout, F.A.; Nassif, M and Shakran, A. (2014): Quality of battered and breaded chicken meat products. *Global Journal of Agriculture and Food Safety Science* – 1(2) ISSN 2356-7775.
105. Shaltout, F. A., Amani M. Salem, A. H. Mahmoud, K. A. (2013): Bacterial aspect of cooked meat and offal at street vendors level. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 24(1): 320-328.
106. Shaltout, F. A. and Salem, R.M. (2000): Moulds, aflatoxin B1 and Ochratoxin A in Frozen Livers and meat products. *Vet. Med. J.* Giza 48(3):341-346.
107. Yasser H. Al-Tarazi, A. Al-Zamil, Shaltout FA. and H. Abdel- Samei (2002). Microbiological status of raw cow milk marketed in northern Jordan. *AVMJ Volume 49 Issue 96* Pages 180-194

108. Shaltout FA, Zakaria IM and Nabil ME. (2018): Incidence of Some Anaerobic Bacteria Isolated from Chicken Meat Products with Special Reference to *Clostridium perfringens*. *Nutrition and Food Toxicology*, 2(5):429-438.
109. Shaltout, F. A.; El-diasty, E.M. and Mohamed, M. S. (2014): Incidence of lipolytic and proteolytic fungi in some chicken meat products and their public health significance. 1st Scientific conference of food safety and Technology .2014, pp. 79-89.
110. Shaltout, F. A.; El-diasty, E.M.; Salem, R. M. and Asmaa, M. A. Hassan. (2016): Mycological quality of chicken carcasses and extending shelf -life by using preservatives at refrigerated storage. *Veterinary Medical Journal – Giza* ,62(3) :1-10.
111. Shaltout FA, R.M. Salem, E.M. El-Diasty and W.I.M. Hassan. (2019): Effect of Lemon Fruits and Turmeric Extracts on Fungal Pathogens in Refrigerated Chicken Fillet Meat. *Global Veterinaria* 21 (3): 156-160.
112. Shaltout FA, El-diasty, E, M.; Elmesalamy, M. and Elshaer, M. (2014): Study on fungal contamination of some chicken meat products with special reference to 2 the use of PCR for its identification. Conference, *Veterinary Medical Journal – Giza* vol. December 2014/12/17 vol.60 1-10.
113. Shaltout, F. A.; Salem, R. M; El-diasty, Eman and Fatema, A.H. Diab. (2016): Mycological evaluation of some ready to eat meat products with special reference to molecular characterization. *Veterinary Medical Journal – Giza*. 62(3): 9-14.
114. Shaltout FA, Ahmed, A.A. Maarouf, Eman, M.K. Ahmed (2018): Heavy Metal Residues in chicken cuts up and processed chicken meat products. *Benha veterinary medical journal*, 34(1): 473-483.
115. Shaltout, F. A.; Hanan M. Lamada, Ehsan A.M. Edris. (2020): Bacteriological examination of some ready to eat meat and chicken meals. *Biomed J Sci & Tech Res.*, 27(1): 20461-20465.
116. Sobhy, Asmaa and Shaltout, Fahim (2020): Prevalence of some food poisoning bacteria in semi cooked chicken meat products at Qaliubiya governorate by recent Vitek 2 compact and PCR techniques. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 38 (2020) 88-92.
117. Sobhy, Asmaa and Shaltout, Fahim (2020): Detection of food poisoning bacteria in some semi-cooked chicken meat products marketed at Qaliubiya governorate. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal* 38 (2020) 93-96.
118. Shaltout, F. A. (2024): Abattoir and Bovine Tuberculosis as A Reemerging Foodborne Disease. *Clinical Medical Reviews and Report*, 6(1):1-7.
119. Shaltout, F. A. (2023): Viruses in Beef, Mutton, Chevon, Venison, Fish and Poultry Meat Products. *Food Science & Nutrition Technology*, 8(4):1-10.