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Author	Sol-Hee Lee, Hack-Youn Kim
Affiliation	¹ Department of Animal Resources Sciences and Resource Science, Kongju National University, Chungnam, 32439, Korea
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ORCID (All authors must have ORCID) https://orcid.org	Sol-Hee Lee (0000-0003-1124-7095) Hack-Youn Kim (0000-0001-53-3-4595)
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CORRESPONDING AUTHOR CONTACT INFORMATION

For the <u>corresponding</u> author (responsible for correspondence, proofreading, and reprints)	Fill in information in each box below
First name, middle initial, last name	Hack-Youn Kim
Email address – this is where your proofs will be sent	kimhy@kongju.ac.kr
Secondary Email address	
Postal address	Department of Animal Resource Science and Resource Science, Kongju National University, Chungnam 32439, Korea
Cell phone number	+82-10-8727-2928
Office phone number	+82-41-330-1041
Fax number	+82-41-330-1249

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10 **Effects of Sodium Nitrite, Sodium Chloride and Concentrated**
11 **Seawater on Physicochemical Properties of Meat Emulsion Systems**

12
13 **ABSTRACT**

14
15 The objective of this study was to compare the effects of various salts on the
16 physicochemical properties of pork emulsion sausages. Pork sausages were prepared
17 using two different salts, sodium nitrite (SN) and sodium chloride (SC), and
18 concentrated seawater (CSW). The CIE L*, CIE a*, CIE b*, and chroma values of
19 cooked and uncooked sausages with added CSW were significantly higher than those
20 of the sausages with added SC ($p < 0.05$). However, uncooked and cooked sausages with
21 added SN and CSW had similar CIE a* values ($p > 0.05$). The residual NO_2^- content of
22 sausages with added CSW was significantly lower than that of sausages with added SN.
23 Addition of CSW to sausages resulted in a higher cooking yield compared to the other
24 treatments ($p < 0.05$). Addition of SC resulted in significantly higher volatile basic
25 nitrogen (VBN) and thiobarbituric acid (TBA) values compared to the other treatments.
26 Furthermore, addition of CSW enhanced important physicochemical properties,
27 including CIE a*, CIE b*, residual nitrite content, cooking yield, VBN, TBA, textural
28 properties, and cross-sectional area.

29
30 Keywords: sausage, seawater, NO_2^- , replacement, physicochemical properties

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INTRODUCTION

34

35

36 The World Health Organization reported in 2015 that processed meat products contained more
37 than the acceptable maximum daily level of nitrite, drawing widespread public attention (Hur et
38 al., 2019). The International Cancer Institute reported that meat products were defined as first-
39 class carcinogens, and the incidence of colorectal cancer increased by 18% when consumed over
40 50 g per day (IARC, 2015), leading to a sharp decline in the consumption of processed meat
41 products in Korea. Since then, the amount of residual nitrite in processed meat has been strictly
42 regulated and limited to 71 mg/kg in Korea (KFSRI, 2020); however, consumers remain reluctant
43 to purchase these products because of concerns about nitrite.

44 Synthetic nitrite is used as a coloring agent in processed meats, including ham, sausages, and
45 bacon, in order to give the meat a reddish color and make it appear more appetizing. It is also
46 used to decrease rancid odors, enhance flavor, and delay microbial growth (Jung et al., 2002).
47 However, ingestion of excessive amounts of synthetic nitrite has various side effects, including
48 blood vessel dilation and a decreased ability of blood to transport enzymes (Gray and Randall,
49 1979). Owing to the carcinogenic potential of synthetic nitrite (WCRF/AICR, 2007), ongoing
50 research aims to find natural salts and other substitutes to replace it.

51 The main natural salt substitutes that have been studied for potential use in processed meat
52 products include kelp, bamboo salt baked in bamboo stems, sea salt from naturally evaporated
53 seawater, and brine from processed seawater (Kim et al., 2010a; Kim et al., 2010b; Lee et al.,
54 2020). There are three main types of brine: brine from the evaporation of sea salt; brine from the
55 long-term storage of sea salt; and brine from machine salt, which is washed with water to remove
56 impurities and the unique bitterness of seawater (Ha and Park, 1998). The brine used in this
57 experiment was concentrated-seawater (CSW), that is, it is obtained after evaporating the sea salt.
58 CSW refers to deep SW removed natural salt. It contains a wide range of minerals and useful

59 trace elements such as Cl, Na, Mg, S, Ca, K, Br, C, and N (Hardie and Eugster, 1980). Many
60 patents have been obtained for fermented drink products produced using CSW (Kim and Oh,
61 2009). There have also been reports of effective treatment with SW of patients with atopic
62 dermatitis and mice with obesity or high levels of cholesterol, demonstrating its suitability for use
63 in drink products (Kimata et al., 2002; Hsu et al., 2011). Furthermore, SW is used in Korea for
64 making tofu (Ko et al., 2013) and for fermenting soy sauce, in order to add flavor and nutrients
65 (Ham et al., 2008). This study investigated the effects of the addition of different amounts of CSW
66 on the color and quality of emulsion sausages. Also it is thought to be replaced NPS and replaced
67 sodium nitrite using natural materials.

69 MATERIALS AND METHODS

71 Preparation of Sausage Samples

72 CSW was supplied by Yeorumul (Incheon, Korea) and used as received. Pork meat
73 (Jungwoo Food, Pocheon, Korea) and pork fat were cut and ground using a grinder (PA-
74 82, Mainca, Barcelona, Spain) equipped with 3 mm plates. Pork ground meat (60%),
75 ground fat (20%), and ice (20%) were placed in a bowl-cutter (K-30, Talsa, Valencia,
76 Spain), with sugar (1%) as the subsidiary material. Three treatments were prepared: 1.2%
77 sodium nitrite (SN) (nitrite: 0.006%), 1.2% sodium chloride (SC), and CSW (20% NaCl,
78 0.007% zinc, 3.3% sodium, 1.8% potassium, and 0.0004% arsenic). The pork meat
79 mixtures with the respective treatments were stuffed into natural hog casings (Woosing
80 Foodtec, Seoul, Korea) using a stuffer (EM-12, Mainca, Barcelona, Spain) and heated in
81 a chamber (10.10 ESI/SK, Alto Shaham, Menomonee Falls, USA) at 80°C until the
82 internal temperature of the samples reached 75°C (Table 1). The treated samples were

83 then left at room temperature (20°C) for 30 min before being stored at 5°C until analysis.

84 The above method was repeated 3 times and used in the experiment.

85

86 **Cooking Yield**

87 Raw samples were placed in natural casings and heated in a chamber (10.10 ESI/SK,

88 Alto Shaham, Menomonee Falls, USA). Sample weights before and after heating were

89 measured, and the following calculation was performed: $\text{Weight after heating/weight}$

90 $\text{before heating} \times 100$.

91

92 **Nitrite Residue (NO)**

93 The nitrite residue contents of the sausages were analyzed using the diazo method

94 employed by the foodsaferykorea (MFDS, 2019). 10 grams of each raw sample was

95 added to 50 mL distilled water and homogenized (Ultra Turex, HMZ-20DN, Poolim

96 Tech, Seoul, Korea). Then, 10 mL of 0.5 M NaOH and 10 mL 12% zinc sulfate solution

97 were added to the turbidity solution, followed by shaking at 80°C. After cooling, 20 mL

98 of ammonium acetate was added. The total volume was adjusted to 200 mL and the

99 solution was mixed and turbidity was filtered. Next, 1 mL of sulfaminide was added to

100 20 mL of the filtrate solution, followed by 1 mL of naphthyl-ethylenediamin and an

101 appropriate amount of distilled water to give a total volume of 25 mL. Nitrite residue

102 values were obtained using a spectrophotometer (SpectraMax iD3, Molecular Devices,

103 San Jose, USA) at 540 nm. A standard solution of nitrite was used to construct the

104 calibration curve.

105

106 **Color**

107 CIE L^* , a^* , and b^* values were measured for the inner surfaces of cooked and uncooked
108 samples using a colorimeter (CR-10, Minolta, Tokyo, Japan). Hue angle values were
109 calculated using the following formula: $\tan^{-1}(b^*/a^*)$. Chroma values were calculated
110 using the following formula: $(a^{*2}+b^{*2})^{1/2}$.

111

112 **Protein Solubility**

113 Protein solubility (total, myofibrillar, and sarcoplasmic proteins) was determined as
114 described by Lee et al. (2020). To determine the total protein solubility content, 2 g of
115 raw better was added to 20 mL 1.1 M potassium iodide was added to a 0.1 M potassium
116 phosphate (pH 7.4). The same procedure was used to prepare samples for sarcoplasmic
117 protein solubility experiments, except that 0.025 M potassium phosphate (pH 7.4) was
118 used. Samples were homogenized for 2 min and incubated overnight at 2°C, before
119 being centrifuged at 4,032×g for 15 min at 4°C and filtered using Whatman No. 4 filter
120 papers. Protein solubility values were obtained using a spectrophotometer (SpectraMax
121 iD3, Molecular Devices, San Jose, USA) at 540 nm. Protein content was calculated
122 using the following formula: optical density×upper diluent multiple×buffer dilution
123 factor×a value (protein concentrate).

124

125 **Cross-sectional Area**

126 Sausages were cut into 1cm slices and stored in a deep freezer (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
127 USA) at -85°C. The frozen samples were cut into 10 µm section at -25 °C using a
128 Cryostat Cryo-cut microtome (CM3050S, Leica, Germany). The sausage cross-
129 sectional area was measured using a photo-activation imaging microscope (NiS-
130 Element, Nikon, Japan).

131

132 **Thiobarbituric Acid and Volatile Basic Nitrogen**

133 The thiobarbituric acid (TBA) values of the pork sausages were determined according
134 to the distillation method described by Choi et al. (2007). Volatile basic nitrogen (VBN)
135 was measured by the Conway microdiffusion method. TBA values were expressed as
136 mg malonaldehyde/kg sausage, and TBA values were expressed as mg%. TBA and
137 VBN experiments were performed 10 days after manufacturing of the sausages. TBA
138 values were calculated using the following formula: Absorbance of the sample \times 7.8,
139 VBN values were calculated using the following formula: (Sample titration amount-
140 Sample titration amount) \times 1 \times 0.02.14.007 \times 100/sample volume.

141

142

143

144 **Statistical Analysis**

145 All data were analyzed based on a minimum of four independent experiments using one-
146 way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in SAS (version 9.3). Results are expressed as mean
147 values with standard error of the means. Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) among the mean
148 values were determined using ANOVA with Duncan's multiple range test ($p < 0.05$).

149

150

Results and Discussion

151

152 **Cooking Yield**

153 Cooking yield has a significant influence on consumer preference as it affects the

154 moisture content and tenderness of food (Ruusunen et al., 1999). Figure 1 shows the
155 cooking yields of emulsion pork sausages with the addition of SN, SC, and CSW. The
156 CSW treatment group showed a significantly higher yield of 95.08% compared with the
157 other treatment groups, with the SC treatment group having the lowest value of 85.86%.
158 The addition of CSW in solution is believed to maximize the extraction of salt-soluble
159 proteins by dissociating into Na^+ and Cl^- . This facilitates the combination with
160 myofibrillar molecules, in contrast to the SC and SN treatments, which are added in
161 powder form (Kim et al., 2010a; Lee et al., 2020). Similarly, Lee et al. (2020) reported
162 that the cooking yields of chicken breast sausages treated with 15% and 20% SW were
163 higher than those of chicken breast sausages with added NPS.

164

165 **Nitrite Residue (NO) and Color**

166 Table 2 lists the nitrite residue content in emulsion pork sausages treated with SN, SC,
167 and CSW. The SN treatment group had a significantly higher nitrite content (29.35 ppm)
168 than the other treatment groups ($p < 0.05$). Sebranek and Bacus (2007) reported that the
169 nitrite content of sea salt varied depending on the region in which it was produced, and
170 Froning et al., (1969) found that Mediterranean sea salt contained between 1.1 and 1.2
171 ppm of nitrite. The NO_2^- molecules of SN and CSW combine with myoglobin to form
172 nitroso-myoglobin, resulting in a pink color. The remaining nitrite content of SW after
173 the formation of the N-myoglobin complex was much lower, thus, CSW is considered to
174 be appropriate for use as a coloring agent.

175 The colors of emulsion pork sausages treated with various amounts of SN, SC, and CSW
176 are shown in Table 3. The lightness and yellowness values before and after heating were
177 significantly higher in the CSW treatment group ($p < 0.05$) than in the other groups,

178 whereas the redness value showed no significant difference between the CSW and SN
179 groups ($p>0.05$). The preservation of redness in meat products is an important factor that
180 promotes consumers' desire to buy (Sánchez-Escalante et al., 2003). According to
181 Resurreccion (2004), natural additives are preferred over synthetic additives owing to
182 consumers' increasing interest in health. CSW can be used to achieve the nitroso-
183 myoglobin coloration effect without the addition of synthetic nitrite. The hue angle value
184 before and after heating was significantly increased by the addition of SC ($p<0.05$); that
185 is, the redness value of the SC group was lower than those of the SN and CSW groups,
186 as the hue angle is inversely related to redness. The chroma values before and after heating
187 were much higher in the CSW group; this can be attributed to the presence of minerals in
188 the SW (Hataguchi et al., 2005). All these results indicate that synthetic nitrite could be
189 replaced by CSW.

190

191 **Protein Solubility and Cross-sectional Area**

192 Table 4 lists the protein solubility content in emulsion pork sausages treated with SN,
193 SC, and CSW. Total protein solubility content was no significant difference was observed
194 among the treatments ($p>0.05$). The sarcoplasmic protein solubility was significantly
195 higher in the CSW treatment group. The samples in the CSW group showed a
196 significantly higher myosin protein solubility content than those in the SC and SN
197 ($p<0.05$). Myofibrillar protein solubility is an important factor in processed meat products,
198 as it affects emulsion, physical properties, viscosity, and customer preference (Doyle and
199 Glass, 2010). The CSW group had the highest myofibrillar protein solubility at 530
200 mg/mL, which increased its emulsifying capacity and resulted in the highest cooking
201 yield.

202 Figure 2 displays cross-sections of emulsion pork sausages with the addition of SN, SC
203 and CSW observed under electron microscopy. As shown in the figure, the fat molecules
204 in part CSW were more uniformly distributed than those in parts SN and SC. This visually
205 confirmed that the sausages treated with CSW were better able to form stable emulsions
206 than those treated with SN and SC. Youssef and Barbut (2010) reported that salt-soluble
207 proteins are extracted during the production of sausages to concentrate and build protein
208 matrices in the O/W interface. Conversely, proteins are pulverized during the formation
209 of emulsions, which destroys components including muscle fibers and filaments and
210 continuously decreases the size of fat tissues (Intarasirisawat et al., 2014). These findings,
211 together with the observation of uniform particles in the electron microscopy images,
212 suggest that the samples in the SW treatment group had the highest emulsifying capacity.

213

214 **VBN and TBA**

215 Figure 3 depicts the VBN and TBA values for emulsion pork sausages with the addition
216 of SC, SN, and CSW. The VBN of the SC treatment group was 15.87 ± 0.93 mg%,
217 significantly higher than those of the SN treatment group (11.91 ± 0.70 mg%) and the 15%
218 CSW group (11.21 ± 1.14 mg%) ($p < 0.05$). This suggests that safe production is possible
219 without exceeding the maximum VBN content of 20 mg% stipulated in the food code
220 (KFSRI, 2020). Hwang et al. (2018) reported similar results, in which the group treated
221 with SN had lower VBN values than the group treated with SC. Since the increase in
222 VBN levels is due to chemical changes during storage and increased proteolytic
223 microorganisms (Han, 2006), it is common to add NPS to sausages to prevent
224 deterioration. Since CSW and SN showed similar values, it was considered that adding
225 CSW produced excellent results.

226 Heras et al. (2003) identified TBA as a critical indicator for food storage. Previously,
227 Tarladgis et al. (1960) had discussed the importance of extracting substances that react
228 with TBA from food using a distillation method. In our work, the SC treatment group had
229 significantly higher TBA values (3.12 ± 0.01 mg/kg) than the other treatment groups
230 ($p < 0.05$). These results were consistent with those of Shahidi and Hong (1991), who
231 found that SN had a greater ability than SC to suppress fat oxidation in the production of
232 sausages. The similarity of both the VBN and TBA values between the SN and CSW
233 treatment groups indicates that CSW is a suitable natural substitute for SN.

234

235 **Conclusion**

236 Addition of CSW resulted in a significantly higher cooking yield compared to addition
237 of SN or SC, and similar redness to that achieved with addition of SN, despite CSW
238 containing less nitrite than the SN. CSW treatment also resulted in significantly higher
239 myofibrillar protein content compared to the other two treatments, and similar VBN and
240 TBA values to those obtained using SN. These results propose that CSW could be used
241 to replace the synthetic additive SN in processed meat products.

242

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340

341

342 **Table 1. Formulation of pork emulsion sausage with various salts**

(%)

Ingredients		¹ SN	² SC	³ CSW
Main	Meat	60	60	60
	Fat	20	20	20
	Ice	20	20	5
	CSW	-	-	15
Total			100	
Additive	SN	1.2	-	-
	SC	-	1.2	-
	Sugar	1	1	1

343

344 ¹) SN; Sodium nitrite, ²) SC; Sodium chloride, ³) CSW; Seawater.

345

346 **Table 2. Nitrite residue (NO) of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various salts**

Traits	¹ SN	² SC	³ CSW	⁴ SEM
NO (ppm)	29.35 ^a	3.77 ^b	3.69 ^b	12.64

347 All values are mean.

348 ^{a-b} Mean in the same row with different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

349 ¹) SN; Sodium nitrite, ²) SC; Sodium chloride, ³) CSW; Seawater,

350 ⁴) SEM: Standard error of the means (n = 12)

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352 **Table 3. Color of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various salts**

Traits		¹ SN	² SC	³ CSW	⁴ SEM
Uncooked	CIE L*	66.10 ^b	64.45 ^c	69.48 ^a	2.30
	CIE a*	11.95 ^a	7.33 ^b	12.18 ^a	2.35
	CIE b*	18.70 ^b	18.68 ^b	19.80 ^a	0.65
	Hue angle (H°)	57.42 ^b	68.58 ^a	58.41 ^b	0.09
	Chroma (C)	22.19 ^b	20.06 ^c	23.24 ^a	3.03
Cooked	CIE L*	70.35 ^b	70.00 ^b	71.53 ^a	0.77
	CIE a*	5.95 ^a	5.00 ^b	5.83 ^a	0.47
	CIE b*	16.63 ^b	16.68 ^b	17.60 ^a	0.50
	Hue angle (H°)	70.31 ^c	73.31 ^a	71.69 ^b	0.02
	Chroma (C)	17.66 ^b	17.41 ^b	18.54 ^a	9.73

353 All values are mean.

354 ^{a-c} Mean in the same row with different letters are significantly different (p<0.05).

355 ¹) SN; Sodium nitrite, ²) SC; Sodium chloride, ³) CSW; Seawater,

356 ⁴) SEM: Standard error of the means (n = 12)

357 Hue angle calculated as $\text{Tan}^{-1}(b/a)$: 90°=yellow, 180°=green and 0°=red Chroma calculated as $(a^2+b^2)^{1/2}$.

358

359

360

361

362 **Table 4. Protein solubility of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various salts**

Traits (mg/mL)	¹ SN	² SC	³ CSW	⁴ SEM
Total Protein Solubility	743.83	689.27	785.16	35.53
Sarcoplasmic Protein Solubility	254.15 ^b	251.59 ^b	269.19 ^a	0.04
Myofibrillar Protein Solubility	494.68 ^b	427.68 ^c	530.98 ^a	14.65

363 All values are mean.

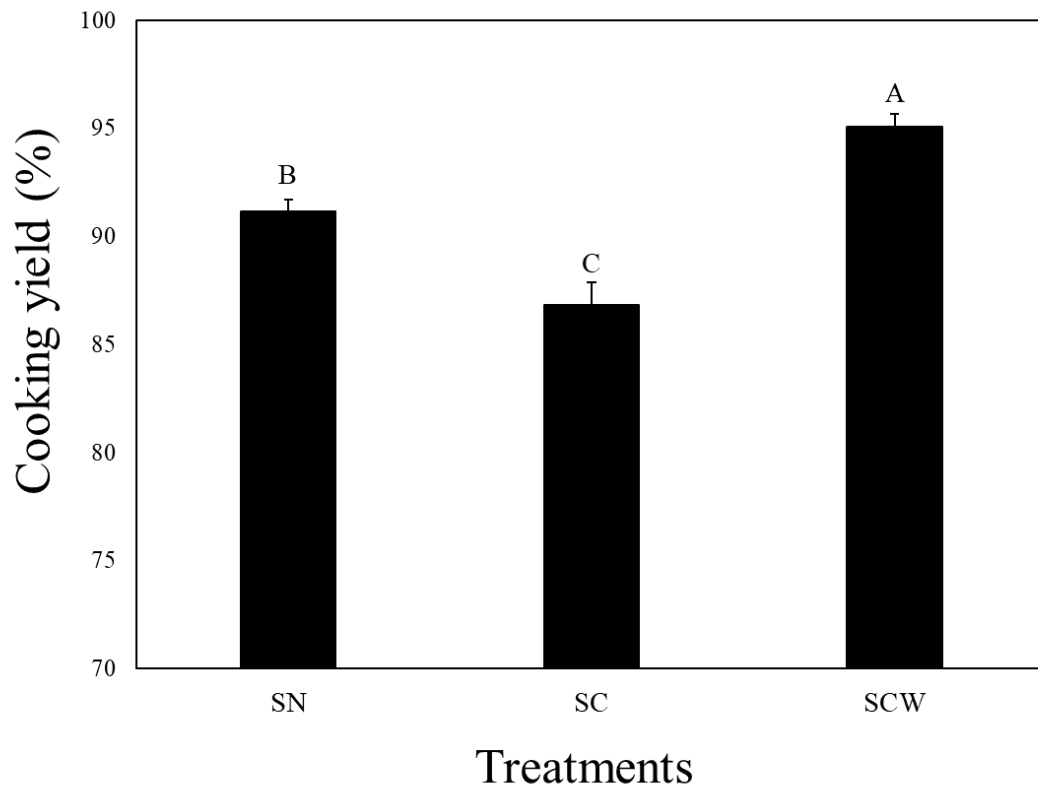
364 ^{a-c} Mean in the same row with different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

365 ¹ SN; Sodium nitrite, ² SC; Sodium chloride, ³ CSW; Seawater,

366 ⁴ SEM: Standard error of the means (n = 12).

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370 **Fig. 1. Cooking yield of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various salts** ^{A-C} Mean

371 in the same bars with different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$). SN; Sodium nitrite, SC; Sodium

372 chloride, CSW; Seawater.

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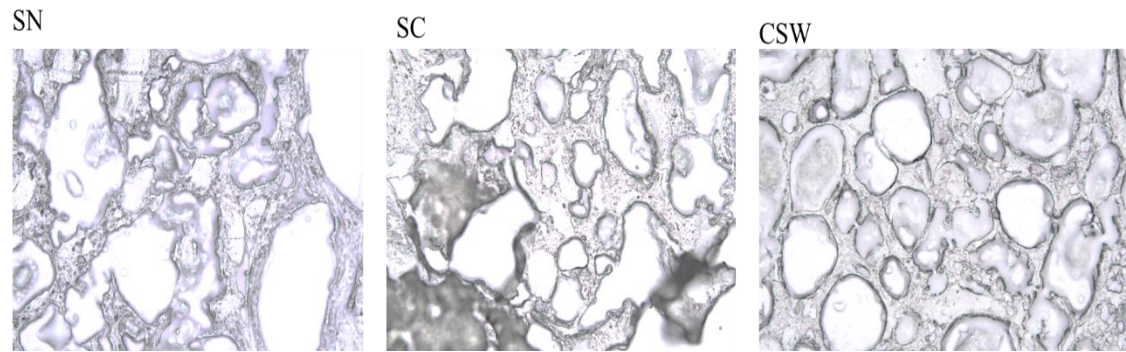
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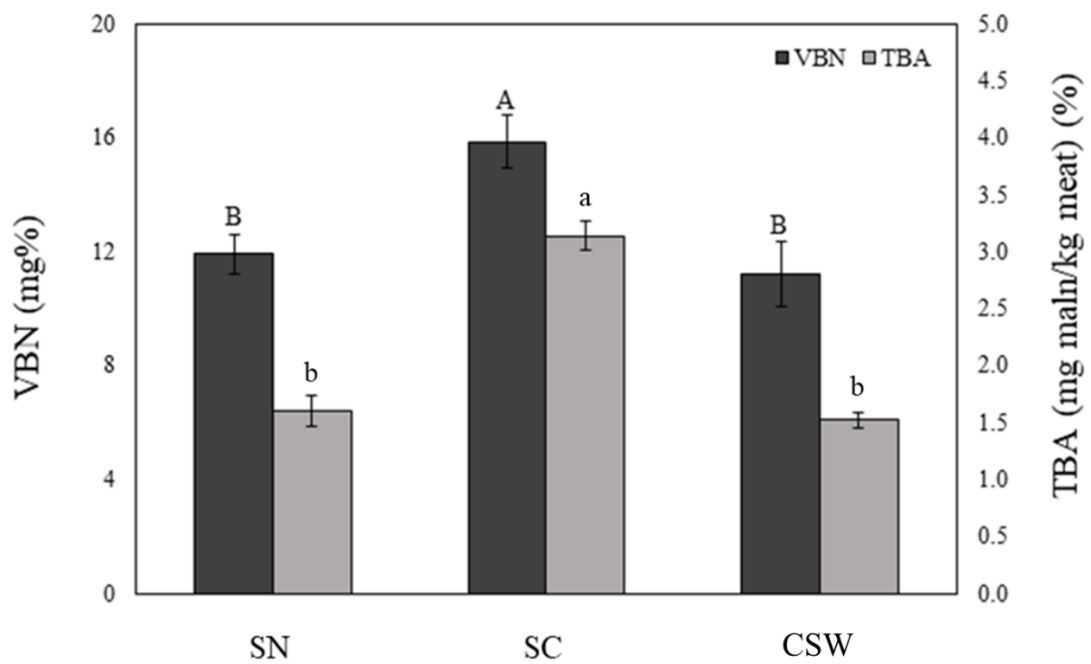
Fig. 2. Sausage cross section area of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various

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salts SN; Sodium nitrite, SC; Sodium chloride, CSW; Seawater

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388 **Fig. 3. VBN and TBA of pork emulsion sausage formulated with various salts** ^{A-B}

389 Mean of VBN value in the same bars with different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$). ^{a-c} Mean
 390 of TBA in the same row with different letters are significantly different ($p < 0.05$). SN; Sodium nitrite, SC;
 391 Sodium chloride, SW; Seawater

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