

24 **Abstract**

25 Meat industries utilize plant material such as celery in cured meat products. Extraction of
26 valuable bioactive compounds, nitrates and nitrites often involves processes that increase
27 cost or lack sustainability. Thus, this study investigated the effect of ball-milled celery
28 powders on the physicochemical, antioxidant, and antimicrobial properties along with
29 curing efficiency in comminuted meat product. Pork sausages loaded with celery powders
30 with different average particle sizes: 265 μm (T1), 68 μm (T2) and 7 μm (T3) were
31 compared to those added without and with sodium nitrite (150 ppm). a^* values were
32 increased for sausages with larger particle size. The L^* values decreased for all celery
33 powders. Residual nitrite for all particle sizes increased in the earlier stages and decreased
34 at the end of storage period. The curing efficiency also increased for larger size particles
35 with an increase until day 9 followed by a gradual decrease. Superfine celery powder had a
36 tendency to improve the antioxidant activities. The antimicrobial effect of celery powders
37 was not comparable with nitrite added sausages. The textural parameters remained
38 unaffected by particle size. Thus, instead of extracts or juices, micronized celery powders
39 could be used to improve the antioxidant activities and curing efficiency of label friendly
40 reformulated meat products.

41

42 **Keywords:** Celery powder, Ball-mill, Natural, Nitrite, Pork sausage

43 **Introduction**

44 Nitrate (NO₃) and nitrite (NO₂) found naturally in the environment are also often
45 utilized in several food products (Moorcroft et al., 2001). These incidentally discovered
46 ions have been used to cure meats for centuries (Pierson and Smoot, 1982). Before the
47 discovery of the curing process, salt was used to preserve meat. However, improved
48 preservation and reddish color development was noticed with a certain type of salt that
49 contained an impurity known as saltpeter, which is a common name for nitrates (Binkerd
50 and Kolari, 1975). Apart from cured meat color, nitrite, which is formed by reduction of
51 nitrate, is also well known for improving aroma, flavor, antioxidant effect, and
52 antimicrobial activity, particularly against pathogen *Clostridium botulinum* (Shahidi and
53 Pegg, 1992; Xi et al., 2012). Despite these advantages, the use of nitrites in meat has been
54 associated with carcinogenic nitrosamines (Sindelar and Milkowski, 2011; Sebranek et al.,
55 2012). Concerns are further raised by occasional reports that link addition of nitrite into
56 meat with cancer. Due to the lack of equivalent substitute for conventional sodium nitrites
57 and nitrates (Gray et al., 1981), natural plant materials are being studied. Among various
58 plants, vegetables such as lettuce, beets, radishes, spinach, and celery are known to contain
59 high concentrations of nitrates as precursors of nitrite (Sindelar et al., 2012). Meat industry
60 has exploited such rich natural sources of nitrate to produce cured meats.

61 To reduce nitrate to nitrite, starter cultures are included to result in the characteristic
62 cured meat color and flavor (Moler et al., 2003; Sebranek et al., 2012). However, the
63 reduction of nitrate to nitrite by microbes is both time-consuming and cost intensive.
64 Moreover, traditionally cured meats were produced with age-old method using naturally
65 present nitrate reducing bacteria to convert nitrate to nitrite (Cassens, 1990). For several

66 years, celery (*Apium graveolens* var. dulce) due to its high nitrate and nitrite contents that
67 has been utilized as a curing and flavoring agent in meat products (Bacus, 1984).
68 Processors usually make use of celery powders as a natural source of nitrate and nitrite in
69 meat products since celery also has low vegetable pigment content along with mild flavor
70 (Sebranek and Bacus, 2007; Horsch, 2014). Furthermore, other constituents of celery such
71 as proteins, fibers, and carbohydrates can positively or negatively influence the formation
72 of nitric acid (Djeri, 2010). Nitric acid in turn can affect the growth of pathogens such as
73 *Clostridium botulinum* and *Listeria monocytogenes* (Horsch, 2014). Celery is also known
74 to contain phenolic acids (such as ellagic acid and pyrogallol) and flavonoids (such as
75 quercetin and hesperitin) that contribute to its antioxidant activities (Sorour et al., 2015).
76 Therefore, this plant with its various constituents can serve many purposes in food
77 applications. Another major consideration is the high demand for natural and organic
78 products because they are perceived to be healthy (Djeri and Williams, 2014).

79 Extraction of bioactive compounds, nitrites and nitrates is commonly achieved via
80 physical and chemical methods that increase production costs. Furthermore, chemical
81 methods such as solvent extraction have demerits that include low extractability and toxic
82 chemical remnants (Huang et al., 2008). Planetary ball-mill treatment is an environment
83 friendly milling technique wherein materials are placed in a container along with balls
84 (Khadka et al., 2014; Ramachandraiah and Chin, 2016). While various sizes and types of
85 container and balls are available, stainless steel and ceramic are commonly used (Khadka et
86 al., 2014). This low cost milling method is known to reduce the particle size of dietary
87 fibers, thereby influencing its physicochemical properties (Liu et al., 2016). Particle size
88 reduction also has several advantages that include improved extractability, solubility and

89 bioavailability of important constituents (Khadka et al., 2014). Particle size reduction also
90 affects other properties such as flowability, water holding capacity, and absorptivity, thus
91 decreasing the amount of ingredients needed (Merkus and Meesters, 2014; Khadka et al.,
92 2014). Although most studies involve the use of concentrate, extracts, or juices, no study
93 has focused on the effect of particle size of celery powders on physicochemical properties
94 or antioxidant activities of meat products. Therefore, the objectives of study were: i) to
95 produce celery powders of different particle size distributions by routine grinding and ball-
96 milling, and ii) to evaluate the effect of particle size on physicochemical properties, curing
97 efficiency, antimicrobial activity, and antioxidant activity.

99 **Materials and Methods**

100 **Plant materials**

101 Fresh celery (*A. graveolens* L. var. *dulce*) stalks were obtained from a local market,
102 Gwangju, South Korea. Cut celery stalks were cleaned and placed in a hot air oven at
103 100 °C (Labtech, LDO-250F, Namyangju-city, South Korea). Drying temperature of
104 100 °C was decided based on our earlier studies (Ramachandraiah and Chin, 2017), which
105 yielded higher antioxidant activities at this temperature compared to lower temperatures
106 (50 and 75°C).

108 **Ball-mill treatment and particle size analysis (PSA)**

109 Celery stalks dried at 100 °C were pulverized using a 650 W kitchen (dry) grinder,
110 passed through a sieve of 500 mesh to obtain coarse powder (C), and then passed through a
111 sieve of 300 mesh to obtain micro-powders (M). These micro-powders were then subjected

112 to ball-mill (planetary) treatment (Pulversette No. 6; Fritsch, Darmstadt, Germany) by
113 placing powders with ZrO₂ balls (6-mm diameter) and milling at 400 rpm for 24 h to form
114 superfine powders (S). The weight of the balls was four times the weight of the sample.
115 Intermittent milling was undertaken to avoid any overheating of the sample in the container.
116 Particle size distributions of persimmon by-product powders were determined using a
117 Malvern Mastersizer 2000 Particle Size Analyzer (Malvern Instrument Ltd., Malvern, UK)
118 based on laser diffraction. These powders were dispersed in ethanol prior to size
119 distribution measurement.

120

121 **Preparation of porcine sausages**

122 Pork sausages were manufactured using celery powders (1%) with different
123 granularity. Table 1 shows the formulation used in this study for the preparation of pork
124 sausage batter. Porcine muscles were ground with a blender (K55, Crypto Peerless, UK) for
125 thirty seconds. Reference sausages were prepared by mincing the meat with sodium nitrite
126 (NaNO₂), salt (NaCl), and ice water. Similar to conventional sausages, a synthetic
127 antioxidant, butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT), was also added to the reference sausages.
128 Likewise, control sausages were prepared by homogenizing meat without nitrite and
129 treatment sausages were added with celery powders. Celery powders with different particle
130 size added to the formulation were: coarse (T1), micro (T2), and superfine powder (T3).
131 1 % of celery powders were used as preliminary studies showed that increasing this amount
132 led to unfavorable results. These homogenized meat batters were then packed under
133 vacuum and held at 4 °C for 2 h for proper equilibration of batters (Sebranek *et al.*, 2012).
134 Later, these batters were stuffed in casing (polyvinylidene chloride). Sausages were heated

135 to have an internal temperature of 72 °C using a water bath (WB-22, Daihan Scientific,
136 Korea). Cooked sausages were immediately chilled for 30 min. These sausages were then
137 held at 4 °C for 6 h before storing at 20 °C. Quality analysis of vacuum-packed sausages
138 stored at 20 °C was performed every 3 days from 0 to 15 days.

139

140 **Color and pH quantification**

141 A pH-meter (MP-120, Mettler–Toledo, Schwarzenbach, Switzerland) was used to
142 measure pH values of meat samples. Sausage samples (10 g) were added to distilled water
143 (90 ml), blended 30 s and pH measurement was undertaken. Colorimetric assessment of
144 the surface of each sausage was done using a model CR-10 color reader (Minolta, Tokyo,
145 Japan). To determine the color values of the sausages, each sample was cut into 2 cm
146 sections. Color determination was undertaken by placing the colorimeter perpendicular to
147 the cut surface. Parameters analyzed were L* (lightness), a* (redness), and b*
148 (yellowness) values. At least six measurements of each sausage were done for these
149 parameters.

150

151 **Curing efficiency and Pigment analysis**

152 **Residual nitrite analysis**

153 Quantification of residual nitrite was done by using the AOAC method (AOAC, 1990).
154 Approximately 5 g of comminuted sample was initially added with some hot (80 °C)
155 distilled water. Lumps were broken up and the final volume was made to 300 mL. These
156 samples were then placed in a hot (100 °C) water bath for 1 h, filtered with Whatman No. 2
157 paper, and added with water to reach a final volume of 500 mL. Then 25 mL of filtrate was

158 added to 2.5 mL of sulfanilamide and incubated for 5 min. After the incubation, 2.5 mL of
159 N-(1-naphthyl) ethylene diamine (NED) was added and incubated for 15 min. These steps
160 were repeated for nitrite standard solutions. A 0.5 g of Sulfanilamide was dissolved in 150
161 mL of acetic acid (15% v/v). 0.2 g of N-(1-naphthyl)-ethylenediamine·2HCl was dissolved
162 in 150 mL of acetic acid solution (15% v/v). The concentration of nitrite was measured
163 using the standard curve.

164

165 **Pigment analysis for cured samples**

166 Pigment contents of cured sausages were analyzed as described by Pietrasik et al. (2016).
167 To approximately 2.0 g meat sample, 9.0 mL of acetone solvent (acetone diluted to 92.5%
168 using distilled water) was added and mixed for a minute using a glass rod. Tubes
169 containing the samples were incubated at room temperature for 10 min. Later, samples
170 were filtered using Whatman paper No. 42 and the filtrate was analyzed at wavelength of
171 540 nm. A mixture of acetone and water (80:20) was used as blank. Quantification of
172 nitrosyl hemochrome concentration was based on the obtained absorbance ($A_{540} \times 290$)
173 and recorded in parts per million (ppm).

174

175 **Total pigment analysis**

176 Similar to pigment test for cured samples, 9.0 mL of acidified acetone solvent was added
177 and mixed with 2.0 g meat sample. Acidified acetone solvent was prepared by mixing
178 diluted acetone (92.5% in water) and concentrated HCl at a ratio of 2 to 1. Tubes
179 containing samples were set aside at room temperature for 90 min. Following filtration with
180 Whatman No. 42 paper, absorbance of the filtrate was measured at 640 nm. The blank was

181 prepared the same as for pigment analysis of cured samples. Total pigment concentration
182 was calculated as $A_{640} \times 680$ and recorded in ppm.

183

184 **Thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS)**

185 TBARS determination was performed as described by Shinnhuber and Yu (1977). To
186 tubes containing 2 g of test materials, 3 mL of thiobarbituric acid solution (1 g/100 mL)
187 and 17 mL of trichloroacetic acid (2.5 g/100 mL) were added and mixed. Tubes containing
188 the mixture were then heated to 100°C for 30 min. Subsequently, 5 mL aliquot was
189 carefully added to each tube containing 5 mL chloroform, mixed, and centrifuged at 200 g
190 for 5 min. Three mL of the solution from each tube was then transferred to another tube
191 containing 3 mL of petroleum ether. After mixing, the mixture was centrifuged at 200 g for
192 10 min. Malondialdehyde as the reactive substance was quantified at 532 nm using a
193 spectrophotometer (UV-1601; Shimadzu, Co. Kyoto, Japan) and expressed as mg
194 malondialdehyde kg^{-1} .

195 **Microbiological analysis**

196 Total bacterial counts were assessed using total plate count (TPC) agar medium and
197 those of *Enterobacteriaceae* were assessed using violet red bile (VRB) agar medium as
198 described by Chin et al. (2006).

199

200 **Texture profile analysis (TPA)**

201 TPA was performed for sausages using a Universal testing machine 3344 (Instron, Canton,
202 USA). Sausages were cut to dimensions of 1.3 cm (height) and 1.25 cm (diameter) with a
203 puncturing apparatus. Textural parameters such as hardness (gf) and springiness (cm) were

204 analyzed along with machine derived data of gumminess (hardness × cohesiveness), chewiness
205 (hardness × cohesiveness × springiness), and cohesiveness (ratio of active work done under the
206 second compression curve to that done under the first compression curve). The analysis was
207 undertaken using published procedures (Bourne, 1978).

208

209 **Statistical analyses**

210 In this study, three replications were performed and quantification of all parameters were
211 made in duplicate. Data are presented as mean ± standard derivations. SPSS 20.0 for
212 Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for all data analyses. Statistical
213 comparisons were carried out with two-way analysis of variance (treatment and storage time),
214 and *p*-values < 0.05 were considered significant.

215

216 **Results and Discussion**

217 **Physicochemical properties: pH and cut surface color**

218 Average particle sizes of celery powders evaluated by laser diffraction instrument were 265
219 μm for coarse powder, 68 μm for micro powder, and 7 μm for ball-milled or superfine
220 powder. Effects of celery powders (CP) on pH and L* are shown in Table 2. As main
221 factors, treatments and storage time had significant effects (*p* < 0.05). However, no
222 interaction was found between the two factors (*p* > 0.05). The pH values of samples with
223 all treatments were lower than those of reference sausages (*p* < 0.05). The pH values of
224 sausages added with CP of higher particle size (T1 and T2) were lower than those of T3 (*p*
225 < 0.05). Concentration of various constituents including carbohydrates, proteins and
226 polyphenols observed in celery concentrates could possibly influence pH and nitrite

227 reactions (Djeri, 2010; Horsch et al., 2014). It is likely that the amount of phytochemicals
228 in the powders with different particle sizes (T1, T2, & T3) could have affected the pH
229 values.

230 Among color parameters, L^* was affected by treatment and storage ($p < 0.05$). No
231 interaction was found between these factors ($p > 0.05$). Sausages added with CP (all
232 particle sizes) had lower L^* values compared to other sausages ($p < 0.05$). The lowest L^*
233 value was found for sausages added with ball-milled CP (T3). This could be attributed to
234 the increased surface area and in turn to well-dispersed powder. This could be attributed to
235 the increased surface area of powder that can cause particles to be well dispersed in the
236 sausage. Furthermore, it is possible that ball-milling could have enhanced the extraction of
237 pigments from celery stalk. In T3, owing to its lower mean particle size of $7\mu\text{m}$, celery
238 particles were not visible compared to the other two treatments. Decreased L^* values with
239 addition of plant materials have also been reported in other studies (Naveena et al., 2008).
240 CIE redness (a^*) and yellowness, (b^*) are shown in Table 3. The two factors, treatment
241 (particle size of celery powder), storage days (time), and their interaction (treatment and
242 storage days) had significant effects ($p < 0.05$). Sausages added with celery powders had
243 lower redness values but higher yellowness values compared to reference sausages. This
244 might be due to pigments present in celery powders, in agreement with results of Horsch et
245 al. (2014). They suggested that the color differences between natural and conventional
246 nitrite hams was due to plant pigments present in celery concentrates. However, among
247 samples added with celery powders at different particle sizes, redness values decreased
248 with decreasing particle size (granularity). Increasing fineness of powder caused lower
249 redness but higher yellowness (b^*). Interestingly, the redness and yellowness remained

250 stable throughout the storage time for sausages added with sodium nitrite while redness
251 increased and yellowness decreased with storage time for sausages loaded with celery
252 powder. A relatively large increase in the redness of sausages was noticed for the sample
253 added with CP at the largest particle size (265 μm) on day 3 after storage. This indicated
254 that powders with relatively larger particle sizes retained higher nitrite content, which was
255 released gradually during storage.

256

257 **Microbial growth**

258 Results for the effect of celery powder on microbial growth in sausages are presented in
259 Table 2. Similar to pH and L* values, interaction between treatment and storage time was
260 not significant. Addition of celery powder decreased total bacterial count of sausage
261 compared to control sausage, indicating that celery powder might have antimicrobial
262 activity. *Enterobacteriaceae* counts for all treatments were also lower than those of control
263 sausages. Increasing storage time resulted in increased microbial growth. Previous studies
264 have shown that nitrite can retard the growth of microbes such as *L. monocytogenes* without
265 completely stopping their growth even at concentrations used in conventional curing (Xi et
266 al., 2012). Therefore, microbial counts increased with increasing storage time. Moreover,
267 the effect of celery powder as an antimicrobial agent is dependent on the concentration of
268 ingoing nitrite (Xi et al., 2012). Variability in antimicrobial effect of celery powder at
269 different sizes could also be partially due to difference in concentration of nitrite present in
270 celery powders with various particle sizes.

271

272 **TBARS**

273 Results for the ability of celery powder to retard lipid oxidation are summarized in Table 2.
274 Although celery-loaded sausages had lower TBARS values than control sausages, their
275 antioxidant effects were not comparable to those of reference sausages. Higher antioxidant
276 activity observed in reference sausages is mainly due to sodium nitrite and BHT, which are
277 commonly added to meat products. However, in this study, celery powder with the smallest
278 particle size (T3) had higher tendency to decrease TBARS than CP with the other two
279 particle sizes. Some studies have shown that celery powder (CP) is comparable to sodium
280 nitrite for limiting lipid oxidation over time (Sindelar et al., 2007). Variations in nitrite and
281 polyphenolic contents can often lead to different antioxidant and curing effects. It is
282 important to note that antioxidant properties of CP can greatly affect its applicability in food.
283 Nevertheless, CP with different particle sizes had lower TBARS values than control
284 sausages, indicating its antioxidant capacity.

285

286 **Residual Nitrite**

287 For residual nitrite concentrations, significant ($p < 0.05$) interaction between treatment
288 and storage time was found (Table 3). During the initial stage of storage, residual nitrite
289 levels for reference sausages were the highest among all samples. However, with increasing
290 storage time, residual nitrite level decreased as reported in other studies on nitrite added
291 meat products (Xi et al., 2012). CP loaded sausages had progressively higher residual
292 content than reference sausages. Residual nitrite content in celery added ham has been
293 reported to be higher than conventional nitrite added ham (Horsch et al., 2014).

294 Sausage added with CP at particle size of 265 μm had the highest residual nitrite,
295 followed by sausage added with CP at particle size of 68 μm and that at 7 μm . In addition,

296 sausages added with CP at the largest particle size had higher residual nitrite levels in
297 comparison with sausages added with CP at the other two particle sizes throughout the
298 storage time. This is related to increased a^* values of sausages added with these powders.
299 Even with enhanced extraction of ball-milling, sausages added with superfine powders did
300 not have high a^* values. The relatively lower particle size might have exposed larger
301 quantities of nitrite at the initial stage, thereby improving the curing efficiency at the
302 earliest stage. On the other hand, relatively larger particles might have acted as reservoir for
303 nitrates. Larger particles might have retained more nitrates within plant fibers and such
304 nitrate might have been gradually released during storage. Similar variations have also been
305 noticed in other studies (Sindelar et al., 2007). Furthermore, the process of curing through
306 nitrite is a complex one. The addition of nitrite into meat product can result in the
307 formation of an intermediate pigment, nitrosylmetmyoglobin (NO-MMb), which is
308 unstable. It auto reduces with storage time due to the presence of endogenous or exogenous
309 reductants in muscle tissue (Pegg and Shahidi, 2000). In the present study, residual nitrite
310 level of reference sausage decreased with increasing storage time.

311

312 **Total and cured pigment analysis**

313 Effects of celery powders on cured and total pigments are shown in Table 3. The
314 concentration of cured pigment was higher for reference sausage than that for any other
315 treatment. However, the concentration decreased with increasing storage time. At the initial
316 stage of storage, the concentration of cured pigment was higher for lower particle size
317 amongst celery powders. With increasing storage time, the concentration of cured pigment
318 increased. These results are contrary to other studies showing that naturally cured meat

319 products have comparable cured pigments to conventionally cured products (Pietrasik et al.,
320 2016). Such variation in results could be attributed to the lack of uniformity in sample
321 composition (particles retaining varying amounts of nitrates). Similar variation has also
322 been observed in previous studies (Sindelar et al., 2007).

323 The curing efficiency is the ratio between cured pigment and total pigment in
324 percentage (AMSA, 2012). These results indicated that the efficiency was higher initially
325 for reference sausage than any other sausage, although it decreased with storage time. The
326 curing efficiency for celery powder with the lowest particle size (7 μm) was higher than
327 that of other particle sizes until 3 days after storage. After 3 days, curing efficiencies of
328 samples added with CP at relatively larger particle sizes (T1 and T2) were higher than
329 those added with CP at the lowest particle size (T3). At 6th day, the curing efficiency of
330 sausage added with celery powder was higher than that of reference sausage. Such increase
331 in curing efficiency for celery powder loaded sausages during storage might be due to
332 gradual release of nitrite from celery particles. The presence of some endogenous bacteria
333 might have also led to the gradual conversion of nitrate to nitrite.

334

335 **Textural parameters**

336 Textural parameters of sausages prepared with CP of different particle sizes are shown in
337 Table 4. Regardless of particle size, CP did not significantly affect texture parameters such
338 as hardness, springiness, chewy, gumminess, or cohesiveness of sausages. Even with
339 decreased water-holding capacity of ball-milled celery powders (Ramachandraiah and Chin,
340 2016), textural properties of sausages were unaffected when compared to sausages added
341 with coarse powders. Cell wall components of plant parts possess the ability to retain water

342 during cooking. Previous studies have shown improved textural properties upon addition of
343 some plant materials (Pietrasik et al., 2016). This is often attributed to cell wall
344 polysaccharide such as pectin. In the current study, no such enhanced ability to retain
345 moisture content was noticed. CP with larger particle size (T1) indicating higher
346 particulates (fibers, carbohydrates, and minerals) did not retain moisture better than CP
347 with lower particle size powders. This is different from a previous study showing that the
348 springiness is improved and cohesiveness is lower for CP added ham (Pietrasik *et al.*, 2016).

349

350 **Conclusions**

351 Sausages loaded with celery powder at the largest particle size had higher redness (a*)
352 values but lower yellowness (b*) than those loaded with CP at lower particle sizes during
353 storage. Sausages added with CP at the largest particle size also had higher residual nitrite
354 content than those added with CP at smaller particle sizes. Textural properties of sausages
355 were unaffected by particle size of CP. Thus, celery powders with larger particle size would
356 be preferable for improving physicochemical properties and antioxidant activities of meat
357 products intended for longer storage. Although celery powders had antimicrobial effect,
358 they were not comparable to conventional nitrite. These results emphasize the need for
359 further investigations on the efficiency of conversion from nitrate to nitrite for different
360 particle sizes with the use of starter cultures. It could also be worthwhile to evaluate the
361 effect of an additional natural antimicrobial to reach antimicrobial quality comparable to
362 conventional sausages. Nevertheless, celery powder with different particle sizes could serve
363 as an alternative for developing natural organic label friendly meat products.

364

365 **Conflicts of Interest**

366 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

367 **Author Contributions**

368 Conceptualization: Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Data curation: Ramachandraiah
369 K, Chin KB. Formal analysis: Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Methodology:
370 Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Software: Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Validation:
371 Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Investigation: Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. Writing -
372 original draft: Ramachandraiah K. Writing - review & editing: Ramachandraiah K,
373 Chin KB.

374

375 **Ethics Approval**

376 This article does not require IRB/IACUC approval because there are no human
377 and animal participants.

378

379

380 **References**

381

382 AMSA. 2012. Meat color measurement guidelines, AMSA 31-101.

383 AOAC. 1990. Official Methods of Analysis of AOAC International Vol. 2. 15th ed. AOAC

384 International, Arlington, VA, USA. p 938.

385 Bacus J. 1984. Utilization of microorganisms in meat processing. A handbook for meat

386 plant operators. Research Studies Press, Wiley, England. pp.153-163.

387 Binkerd EF, Kolari OE. 1975. The history and use of nitrate and nitrite in the curing

388 of meat. Food Cosmet Toxicol 13:655-661.

389 Bourne MC. 1978. Texture profile analysis. J Food Technol 32:62-66.

390 Cassens RG. 1990. Nitrite-cured meat Food and Nutrition Press, Inc., Trumbull, CT, pp 3-

391 36.

392 Chin KB, Kim KH, Lee HC. 2006. Physicochemical and textural properties and microbial

393 counts of meat products sold at Korean markets. Korean J Food Sci An 26:98-105.

394 Djeri N. 2010. Evaluation of vegetable TM 504 celery juice powder for use in processed

395 Meat and poultry as a nitrite replacer. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Florida,

396 Gainesville, FL, 1-129.

397 Djeri N, Williams SK. 2014. Celery juice powder used as nitrite substitute in sliced

398 vacuum-packaged turkey bologna stored at 4°C for 10 weeks under retail display

399 light. J Food Qual 37:361–370.

400 Gray JI, Macdonald B, Pearson AM, Morton ID. 1981. Role of nitrite in cured meat flavor:

401 A review. J Food Prot 44:302-312

402 Horsch AM, Sebranek JG, Dickson JS, Niebuhr SE, Larson EM, Lavieri NA, Ruther BL,

403 Wilson LA.

404 2014. The effect of pH and nitrite concentration on the antimicrobial impact of
405 celery juice concentrate compared with conventional sodium nitrite on *Listeria*
406 *monocytogenes*. Meat Sci 96: 400-407.

407 Huang SJ, Tsai SY, Mau JL. 2006. Antioxidant properties of methanolic extracts from
408 *Agrocybe cylindracea*. LWT - Food Sci Technol 39:378-386.

409 Khadka P, Ro J, Kim H, Kim I, Kim JT, Kim H, Cho JM, Yun G, Lee J. 2014.
410 Pharmaceutical particle technologies: an approach to improve drug solubility,
411 dissolution and bioavailability. Asian J Pharm Sci 9:304-316.

412 Liu Y, Wang L, Liu F, Pan S. 2016. Effect of Grinding Methods on Structural,
413 Physicochemical, and Functional Properties of Insoluble Dietary Fiber from Orange
414 Peel. Int J Polym Sci. doi: 10.1155/2016/6269032

415 Merkus HG, Meesters, GH. 2014. Tailoring properties for optimal performance. In Particle
416 Technology Series. Merkus HG, Meesters GMH (ed). pp. 24, 26, 27. Springer Int
417 Publishing, New York, USA.

418 Moler JKS, Jensen JS, Skibsted LH, Chel SK. 2003. Formation of nitrite-cured pigment,
419 nitrosylmyoglobin, from metmyoglobin in model systems and smoked fermented
420 sausages by *Lactobacillus fermentum* strains and a commercial starter culture. Eur
421 Food Res Technol 216:463-469.

422 Moorcroft MJ, Davis J, Compton RG. 2001. Detection and determination of nitrate
423 and nitrite: a review. Talanta 54:785-803.

424 Naveena BM, Sen AR, Vaithyanathan S, Babji Y, Kondaiah N. 2008. Comparative
425 efficacy of pomegranate juice, pomegranate rind powder and BHT in cooked
426 chicken patties. Meat Sci 80:1304–1308.

427 Pegg RB, Shahidi F. 2000. Nitrite curing of meat. In The N-nitrosamine problem and nitrite
428 alternatives. Trumbull CT (ed). Food & Nutrition Press, Inc. Trumbull, Connecticut,
429 NE, USA. PP 40-46.

430 Pierson MD, Smooth LA. 1982. Nitrite, nitrite alternatives, and the control of *Clostridium*
431 *botulinum* in cures meats. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 17:141-187.

432 Pietrasik Z, Gaudette NJ, Johnston SP. 2016. The use of high pressure processing
433 to enhance the quality and shelf life of reduced sodium naturally cured restructured
434 cooked hams. Meat Sci 116:102-109.

435 Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. 2016. Evaluation of ball-milling time on the
436 physicochemical and antioxidant properties of persimmon by-products powder.
437 Innov Food Sci Emerg Technol 37: 115–124.

438 Ramachandraiah K, Chin KB. 2017. Impact of drying and micronization on the
439 physicochemical properties and antioxidant activities of celery stalk. J
440 Sci Food Agric 97: 4539-4547.

441 Sebranek JG, Bacus J. 2007. Natural and organic cured meat products: Regulatory,
442 manufacturing, marketing, quality, and safety issues. AMSA White paper series 1:
443 1-15.

444 Sebranek JG, Jackson-Davis AL, Myers KL, Lavieri NA. 2012. Beyond celery and starter
445 culture: Advances in natural/organic curing processes in the United States. Meat Sci
446 92: 267-273.

447 Shahidi F, Pegg RB. 1992. Nitrite-free meat curing systems: Update and review. Food
448 Chem 43:185-191.

449 Shinnhuber RO, Yu TC. 1977. The 2-thiobarbituric acid reaction, an objective measure of
450 the oxidative deterioration occurring in fats and oils. *J Oleo Sci* 26: 259–267.

451 Sindelar JJ, Milkowski AL. 2012. Human safety controversies surrounding nitrate and
452 nitrite in the diet. *Nitric Oxide* 26:259-266.

453 Sindelar JJ, Milkowski AL. 2011. Sodium nitrite in processed meat and poultry meats: A
454 review of curing and examining the risk/benefit of its use. *AMSA White paper*
455 *series* 3:1-14.

456 Sindelar JJ, Cordray JC, Sebranek JG, Love JA, Ahn DU. 2007. Effects of varying levels of
457 vegetable juice powder and incubation time on color, residual nitrate and nitrite,
458 pigment, pH, and trained sensory attributes of ready-to-eat uncured ham. *J Food*
459 *Sci* 72: 388–395.

460 Sorour MA, Naglaa HMH, Ahmed MHM. 2015. Natural antioxidant changes in fresh and
461 dried celery (*Apium graveolens*). *Am J Energy Eng* 3:12-16.

462 Xi Y, Sullivan GA, Jackson AL, Zhou GH, Sebranek JG. 2012. Effects of natural
463 antimicrobials on inhibition of *Listeria monocytogenes* and on chemical, physical
464 and sensory attributes of naturally-cured frankfurters. *Meat Sci* 90:130–138.

465
466
467
468

469 **Table 1. Formulation of pork model sausages incorporated with celery powders**
 470 Treatments: CTL (No Nitrite), Ref (Nitrite 150 ppm; BHT 100 ppm), T1 (Celery powder
 471 265 μm), T2 (Celery powder 68 μm), T3 (Celery powder 7 μm).

Ingredients (%)	CTL	REF	T1	T2	T3
Lean meat	55.0	55.0	55.0	55.0	55.0
Back Fat	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
Water/Ice	23.1	23.1	22.1	22.1	22.1
Salt (NaCl)	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50
Sodium tripolyphosphate (STPP)	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.40
BHT	-	0.010	-	-	-
Sodium Nitrite (NaNO₂)	-	0.015	-	-	-
Celery powder	-	-	1.0	1.0	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

472 Treatments: CTL (No Nitrite), Ref (Nitrite 150 ppm; BHT 100 ppm), T1 (Celery powder
 473 265 μm), T2 (Celery powder 68 μm), T3 (Celery powder 7 μm).

474
 475
 476
 477
 478
 479
 480
 481
 482
 483
 484
 485
 486

487 **Table 2. Physicochemical and microbiological properties of pork sausages as affected**
 488 **by celery powder particle sizes**

	pH	L*	TPC	VRB	TBARS
Treatment	*	**	*	*	*
Storage	**	**	*	*	**
(Treatment x Storage)	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
Treatment †					
Control	6.08 ^{bc}	78.2 ^a	3.06 ^a	2.44 ^a	0.40 ^a
Ref	6.12 ^a	75.6 ^b	2.21 ^d	1.21 ^d	0.24 ^c
T1	6.07 ^{bc}	69.6 ^{cd}	2.40 ^c	1.52 ^c	0.32 ^b
T2	6.05 ^c	67.7 ^d	2.48 ^c	1.46 ^c	0.33 ^b
T3	6.10 ^{ab}	65.3 ^e	2.70 ^b	1.71 ^b	0.28 ^{bc}
SEM	0.013	0.13	0.09	0.10	0.025
Storage (days)					
0	6.16 ^a	71.8 ^a	0.74 ^e	0.51 ^e	0.20 ^c
3	6.08 ^{bc}	71.9 ^a	1.76 ^d	0.57 ^e	0.25 ^{bc}
6	6.04 ^c	71.6 ^{ab}	2.41 ^c	0.85 ^d	0.30 ^b
9	6.06 ^{bc}	71.2 ^{bc}	2.94 ^b	1.82 ^c	0.38 ^a
12	6.09 ^b	71.3 ^{bc}	3.36 ^a	2.21 ^b	0.40 ^a
15	6.07 ^{bc}	71.0 ^c	3.45 ^a	2.81 ^a	0.45 ^a
SEM	0.014	0.15	0.06	0.08	0.027

489 †Treatment: same as in Table 1; L*, CIE lightness; TPC, total plate count (total bacteria); VRB,
 490 violet red bile (*Enterobacteriaceae*). T1, 265 µm, T2, 68 µm, T3, 7 µm. NS = not significant;
 491 * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$.

492 ^{a-e} Means with different superscripts in the same column (treatment) are different ($p < 0.05$).

493 ^{a-e} Means with different superscripts in the same column (storage day) are different ($p < 0.05$).

494 SEM, Standard error of the mean.

495 **Table 3. CIE a*, b*, residual nitrite, cured and total pigments of pork sausages as**
 496 **affected by different particle sizes**
 497

		Storage days					
		0	3	6	9	12	15
a*	CTL	6.60 ± 0.1 ^{Ac}	5.80 ± 0.1 ^{Bd}	5.76 ± 0.26 ^{Bd}	5.83 ± 0.25 ^{Bd}	5.97 ± 0.2 ^{Be}	5.93 ± 0.25 ^{Be}
	REF	11.23±0.25 ^{Aa}	11.15± 0.12 ^{Aa}	11.31± 0.21 ^{Aa}	11.33± 0.26 ^{Aa}	11.36± 0.21 ^{Aa}	11.25± 0.21 ^{Aa}
	T1	7.60 ± 0.26 ^{Cb}	9.73 ± 0.38 ^{Bb}	10.10± 0.10 ^{Bb}	10.20± 0.10 ^{Bb}	10.37±0.15 ^{ABb}	10.23±0.06 ^{ABb}
	T2	5.40 ± 0.10 ^{Bd}	6.77 ± 0.45 ^{Ac}	7.35 ± 0.34 ^{Ac}	7.17 ± 0.15 ^{Ac}	7.20 ± 0.10 ^{Ac}	7.00 ± 0.10 ^{Ac}
	T3	4.77± 0.15 ^{Ce}	6.00 ± 0.82 ^{Bd}	6.67 ± 0.51 ^{ABc}	6.73 ± 0.40 ^{ABc}	6.60 ± 0.36 ^{ABd}	6.40 ± 0.10 ^{Bd}
	CTL	9.30 ± 0.10 ^{Ac}	9.27 ± 0.06 ^{Ac}	9.33 ± 0.21 ^{Ab}	9.00 ± 0.26 ^{Ac}	9.30 ± 0.10 ^{Ab}	9.03 ± 0.15 ^{Ac}
b*	REF	5.30 ± 0.10 ^{Ad}	5.40 ± 0.17 ^{Ad}	5.50 ± 0.36 ^{Ac}	5.57 ± 0.38 ^{Ad}	5.67 ± 0.25 ^{Ac}	5.77 ± 0.35 ^{Ad}
	T1	14.50±0.20 ^{Aa}	12.97±0.21 ^{Bb}	12.70±0.20 ^{Ba}	12.70±0.10 ^{Bb}	12.97±0.15 ^{Ba}	12.80±0.10 ^{Bab}
	T2	13.97±0.38 ^{Ab}	12.87±0.31 ^{Bb}	12.47±0.25 ^{Ba}	12.70±0.36 ^{Bb}	12.60±0.20 ^{Ba}	12.63±0.06 ^{Bb}
	T3	14.73±0.50 ^{Aa}	13.67±0.38 ^{Ba}	12.93±0.76 ^{Ba}	13.27±0.15 ^{Ba}	13.17±0.31 ^{Ba}	13.27±0.40 ^{Bab}
	CTL	0.00 ^{Ac}	0.00 ^{Ac}	0.00 ^{Ae}	0.00 ^{Ab}	0.00 ^{Ae}	0.00 ^{Ad}
	REF	29.83±1.70 ^{Aa}	28.36±0.49 ^{ABb}	26.63±0.75 ^{Bbc}	21.50±1.21 ^{Ca}	17.60±0.61 ^{Da}	8.21±0.17 ^{Ea}
Residual nitrite PPM (µg/g)	T1	11.30±0.91 ^{Db}	36.56±3.66 ^{Aa}	33.90±4.06 ^{Ba}	23.13±1.22 ^{Ca}	12.53±0.42 ^{Db}	7.44±0.10 ^{Eb}
	T2	9.63±0.64 ^{Cb}	29.96±1.85 ^{Ab}	28.26±1.05 ^{Ab}	22.96±2.60 ^{Ba}	7.43±0.20 ^{DEc}	6.67±0.06 ^{Ec}
	T3	8.73±0.44 ^{Db}	29.10±2.13 ^{Ab}	25.93±0.52 ^{Bc}	21.7±0.66 ^{Ca}	6.8±0.15 ^{Ed}	6.56±0.07 ^{Ec}
	CTL	22.33±0.46 ^{Bb}	19.63±0.12 ^{Ce}	24.00±0.17 ^{Ab}	10.07±0.23 ^{Ed}	10.70±0.35 ^{Dc}	7.37±0.23 ^{Fe}
	REF	48.23±0.29 ^{Aa}	25.47±0.58 ^{Cd}	32.80±0.35 ^{Ba}	15.63±0.29 ^{Dd}	14.97±0.06 ^{Eb}	13.27±0.40 ^{Fc}
	T1	11.27±0.06 ^{Fe}	38.23±0.06 ^{Aa}	30.77±0.58 ^{Bc}	24.83±0.81 ^{Ca}	15.67±0.40 ^{Eb}	17.37±0.06 ^{Da}
Cured Pigments (mg/kg)	T2	13.33±0.12 ^{Fd}	35.07±0.23 ^{Ac}	24.03±0.29 ^{Bb}	22.20±0.69 ^{Cb}	17.33±0.46 ^{Da}	16.13±0.29 ^{Eb}
	T3	14.97±0.23 ^{Ec}	36.23±0.98 ^{Ab}	23.03±0.29 ^{Bd}	17.70±1.39 ^{Cc}	11.43±0.23 ^{Fc}	15.97±0.12 ^{Db}
	CTL	98.17±0.12 ^{Aa}	97.00±0.17 ^{Ba}	83.23±0.75 ^{De}	83.37±0.81 ^{De}	95.37±0.23 ^{Cb}	84.13±0.06 ^{Ea}
	REF	91.47±0.58 ^{Cd}	65.53±0.64 ^{Fe}	94.37±0.23 ^{Bb}	75.57±0.46 ^{Eb}	83.03±0.23 ^{Dd}	101.17±0.23 ^{Ab}
	T1	95.70±0.17 ^{Bb}	79.80±0.35 ^{Dc}	88.67±0.58 ^{Cd}	70.50±0.35 ^{Ed}	66.73±0.23 ^{Fe}	115.83±0.64 ^{Aa}
	T2	88.87±0.23 ^{Ce}	78.47±0.46 ^{Dd}	91.50±0.52 ^{Bc}	74.00±0.17 ^{Ec}	98.47±0.23 ^{Aa}	98.33±0.46 ^{Ac}
Total Pigments (mg/kg)	T3	93.07±0.06 ^{Bc}	84.40±0.69 ^{Db}	136.60±1.21 ^{Aa}	69.57±0.46 ^{Ee}	86.23±0.12 ^{Cc}	84.23±0.12 ^{Dd}

498 [†]Treatment: same as in Table 1: a*, CIE redness; b*, CIE Yellowness

499 ^{a-e} Means with the same letter and in the same column are not different ($p > 0.05$).

500 ^{A-F} Means with the same letter and in the same row are not different ($p > 0.05$).

501

502

503

504
505

Table 4. Textural properties of pork sausages as affected by different particle sizes

Treatment	Texture Profile Analysis					
		Hardness (gf)	Springiness (mm)	Gumminess	Chewiness	Cohesiveness
Control	Mean	3144 ^a	4.43 ^a	25.23 ^a	117.8 ^a	0.0073 ^b
	SD	49	0.76	0.53	18.7	0.001
Ref	Mean	3365 ^a	4.40 ^a	30.45 ^a	131.3 ^a	0.009 ^{ab}
	SD	75	0.52	8.31	17.08	0.002
T1	Mean	3612 ^a	4.46 ^a	29.41 ^a	131.8 ^a	0.0082 ^{ab}
	SD	213	0.55	2.1	22.2	0.0008
T2	Mean	3399 ^a	4.13 ^a	35.08 ^a	143.3 ^a	0.0103 ^a
	SD	474	0.55	6.74	21.5	0.0009
T3	Mean	3372 ^a	4.96 ^a	28.58 ^a	140.4 ^a	0.0084 ^{ab}
	SD	281	1.15	5.58	34.1	0.0008

506

[†]Treatment: same as in Table 1

507

^a Means with the same letter in the same column are not different ($p > 0.05$).

508

509

510

511

Control

Reference

T1

512



521

T2

T3

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532



533 **Figure 1. Cut surfaces of pork sausages at day 0.** Control (No nitrite added), Reference (150 ppm Nitrite), T1 (Celery powder; 265
534 μm), T2 (Celery powder; 70 μm), T3 (Celery powder; 7 μm).

535