

2013-6

Enhancement of the Phytochemical and Fibre Content of Beef-Patties with Himanthalia Elongata Seaweed

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Recommended Citation

Cox, S., Abu-Ghannam, N. :Enhancement of the Phytochemical and Fibre Content of Beef-Patties with Himanthalia Elongata Seaweed. *International Journal of Food Science and Technology*, Vol.48, issue 11, November, 2013, p. 2239-2249. DOI: 10.1111/ijfs.12210

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Funder: ABBEST

1 **Enhancement of the phytochemical and fibre content of beef-patties with**

2 *Himanthalia elongata* seaweed

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26 **Abstract**

27 The effect of adding *Himanthalia elongata* seaweed (10 - 40% w/w) as a source of
28 antioxidants and dietary fibre on physical, chemical, microbial and sensory traits of
29 cooked beef patties was studied throughout chilled storage. Patties with seaweed
30 showed reduced cooking losses and were nearly 50% more tender as compared to
31 patties without seaweed. Microbiological counts and lipid oxidation were
32 significantly lower in patties containing seaweed ($P < 0.05$), by day 30 of storage
33 there was no bacterial growth in samples with $\geq 20\%$ seaweed and lipid oxidation
34 levels were low (0.61 mg malondialdehyde/kg of sample). Seaweed incorporation
35 significantly increased the dietary fibre (1.64 g per 100 g fw in 40% seaweed-
36 patties), total phenolic content (up to 28.11 mg GAE/100 g fw) and DPPH radical
37 scavenging activity (up to 52.32%) of patties compared to the control. Sensory
38 analysis indicated that the seaweed-patties were accepted by consumers in terms of
39 aroma, appearance, texture and taste. Patties containing 40% seaweed were rated
40 highest in terms of overall acceptability, most likely due to improvement in texture
41 and mouthfeel. Addition of seaweed in the formulation of beef patties leads to the
42 enhancement of the nutritional and technological quality together with an acceptable
43 sensory quality.

44

45 **Keywords:** Functional foods; seaweeds; antioxidants; fibre; product development.

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Growing understanding of the relationship between diet and health is leading to new
49 insights into the effect of food ingredients on physiological function and health,

50 inducing consumer demand for healthy, nutritious foods with additional health
51 promoting functions (Jiménez-Colmenero et al., 2010). Many new products have
52 been developed and marketed, offering increased health benefits and the potential to
53 reduce the risk of diseases. Sales of such “functional foods” in Europe have
54 increased significantly (Annunziata & Vecchio, 2011). Many components may be
55 added to meat, dairy, fish or vegetable-based products to make them “functional”,
56 such as ω -3 fatty acids, prebiotics, probiotics and fibre (Jiménez-Colmenero, 2007).

57 Over the past few decades, meat products have come under increasing scrutiny by
58 medical, nutritional and consumer groups because of the associations established
59 between their consumption (or that of a number of their constituents, such as fat and
60 cholesterol) and the risk of some of the major degenerative and chronic diseases
61 (ischaemic heart disease, cancer, hypertension and obesity). Therefore meat-based
62 functional foods are being seen as an opportunity to improve the “image” of meat
63 and address consumer needs, and also to update the nutritional and dietary goals
64 (Jiménez-Colmenero, 2007). As meat is one of the most important commonly-
65 consumed fast foods, it offers an excellent way of promoting intake of functional
66 ingredients without any radical changes in eating habits (Cofrades et al., 2008). This
67 situation is prompting the emergence of new “healthier” meat products. Most
68 physiologically active substances come from plants, and when combined with other
69 foods such as meat, they can help provide a food with functional effects. The idea of
70 using plant products in the meat industry is not entirely new, as various types of
71 ingredients have been used for their technological, sensory, economic and nutritional
72 effects (Jiménez-Colmenero, 2010).

73 Meat is low in dietary fibre, therefore addition of ingredients containing fibre to
74 common meat products such as patties would be beneficial. Dietary fibre intake

75 provides many health benefits such as reducing the risk of developing diseases
76 including coronary heart disease, stroke, hypertension, diabetes, obesity and certain
77 gastrointestinal disorders. Furthermore, increased consumption of dietary fibre
78 improves serum lipid concentrations, lowers blood pressure, improves blood glucose
79 control in diabetes, promotes regularity, aids in weight loss and appears to improve
80 the immune function (Anderson et al., 2009).

81 Seaweeds are known to be a good source of dietary fibre (Cofrades et al., 2008).

82 Plant biomass or its derived bioactive compounds have been considered as possible
83 functional components in processed meat products for alleviation of the colorectal
84 cancer risk associated with the consumption of processed meats (Demeyer et al.,
85 2008). The introduction of functional ingredients such as botanicals, plant extracts
86 and seaweeds with probable biological activity into processed meat products is
87 receiving abundant attention (Calvo et al., 2008; Cofrades et al., 2008; Hayes et al.,
88 2005; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2009; Valencia et al., 2008). Seaweeds are also
89 high in phytochemicals such as phenolic compounds (Cox et al., 2011). Such natural
90 plant phytochemicals could therefore add further functional ingredients to meat
91 based convenience food products such as beefburgers. It has been reported that 34%
92 of men and 21.9% of women consume burgers in Ireland (Duffy et al., 2005),
93 therefore incorporation of seaweed into such beef patties would have potential as a
94 means of developing a healthier meat product.

95 The aim of this study was to investigate the addition of seaweed at varying
96 concentrations to beef burger patties in order to enhance the levels of fibre and
97 phytochemicals. The effect on sensory properties such as texture, colour and flavor
98 were investigated as were safety aspects such as bacterial enumeration and lipid
99 oxidation which are important principals of product development.

100 **2. Materials and methods**

101 **Chemicals**

102 1,1,3,3-tetramethoxypropane solution, 2, 2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), Folin-
103 Ciocalteu's phenol reagent, gallic acid, sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), Thiobarbituric
104 Acid (TBA), total dietary fibre kit and trichloroacetic acid (TCA) were purchased
105 from Sigma Aldrich Chemie (Steinheim, Germany). Peptone water and plate count
106 agar (PCA) were purchased from Sparks (Dublin, Ireland).

107

108 **Seaweed material**

109 *Himanthalia elongata* (*H. elongata*) was purchased from Quality Sea Veg., Co
110 Donegal, Ireland. The seaweeds were collected in October 2011 and stored at 4 °C
111 until further use.

112

113 **Preparation of samples**

114 *H. elongata* was washed thoroughly with tap water to remove epiphytes and salt,
115 dried with absorbent paper and then cut into 3 cm long pieces before dehydration.

116

117 **Dehydration and rehydration procedure**

118 Dehydration was carried out as optimized in our previous studies (Gupta et al.,
119 2011). Seaweed samples (5 g) were placed on a drying tray in a single layer. Drying
120 of seaweed was carried out in a drier (Innova 42, Mason Technology, Ireland) at 40

121 °C air drying temperature over a period of 2 hours. Air velocity was $2.0 \pm 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$
122 measured with VWR Enviro-meter digital anemometer (VWR, Ireland). Dried
123 seaweed was rehydrated by immersion in 2 L of distilled water at $80.5 \pm 0.05 \text{ °C}$ for
124 $20 \pm 0.05 \text{ min}$ as optimized in our previous studies (Cox et al., 2011). The seaweed
125 was then ground using a blender (Rotor, Germany) and stored at 4 °C until use.

126

127 **Seaweed-patty preparation**

128 Five different patty formulations were prepared containing 0, 10, 20, 30 and 40%
129 blanched seaweed. Lean beef ($\leq 5\%$ fat) was purchased from a local supermarket and
130 stored immediately in a refrigerator at 4 °C . Meat was cut into smaller pieces using a
131 sterile knife and ground in a meat grinder with a grind size of 4.5mm (Meteor
132 MATR, Ireland) which had been previously sterilised and chilled (4 °C). The
133 seaweed was added to each of the mixtures in sterile bowls and mixed by hand with
134 sterile utensils until the seaweed was homogenous throughout the meat. The final
135 temperature of the meat was $< 12 \text{ °C}$ in all cases and was formed with a manual
136 circular shaped mould. The patties were 1 cm thick and weighed $50 \pm 0.05 \text{ g}$.
137 Samples were cooked in an oven (Rational Combi, Dämpfer, United Kingdom) at
138 200 °C for 15 min until the centre of the patties reached $\geq 70 \text{ °C}$ for over 2 minutes
139 when tested with a temperature probe. The patties were then immediately cooled to 4
140 °C and placed in polyethylene bags (PA/PE, Brodericks Brothers Limited, Ireland)
141 and vacuum packed (La Minerva, Italy). The samples were stored at 4 °C throughout
142 the storage period for 30 days which is typical for a cooked beef product.

143

144

145

146 **Cooking yield**

147 Patties were weighed before cooking and after chilling at 4 °C. To estimate the
148 cooking yield, the patty weights were expressed as a percentage of the initial weight
149 using the following calculation:

150

151
$$\text{Cooking yield (\%)} = 100 \times \frac{\text{cooked weight (g)}}{\text{raw weight (g)}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

152

153 **Total Dietary Fibre**

154 Total dietary fibre (TDF) was determined by Sigma analysis kit (Sigma-Aldrich,
155 Inc., USA) based on AOAC method 991.43. Samples (5 g) were cooked at 100 °C
156 with heat stable α -amylase to initiate gelatinization, hydrolysis and depolymerisation
157 of starch. The samples were incubated at 60 °C with protease (to solubilise and
158 depolymerise proteins) and amyloglucosidase (to hydrolyse starch fragments to
159 glucose). The samples were then treated with four volumes of ethanol to precipitate
160 soluble fibre and remove depolymerised protein and glucose. The residue was
161 filtered, washed, dried and weighed. One duplicate was analysed for protein and the
162 other was incubated at 525 °C to determine ash. The TDF was determined as the
163 weight of the filtered and dried residue less the weight of the protein and ash.

164

165 **Bacterial enumeration**

166 Samples were prepared in a vertical laminar-flow cabinet for the purposes of
167 microbial analysis. For each patty sample, 25 g was taken aseptically and placed in a
168 sterile stomacher bag with 225 ml of peptone water (Scharlau Chemie, Spain). After

169 2 min in a stomacher blender (Stomacher 400, Seward Medical, United Kingdom),
170 appropriate decimal dilutions were spread-plated (100 µl) onto Plate Count Agar
171 (PCA) (Scharlau Chemie, Spain) for total viable counts (TVC) and incubated at 37
172 °C for 24 h. The results were expressed as logarithms of colony forming units per
173 gram of sample (log CFU/g). Samples were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 30 for
174 analysis.

175

176 **pH measurement**

177 The pH of patties (10 g homogenised in 50 ml distilled water) was determined using
178 an Orion Model 520A pH metre (AGB Scientific Ltd) throughout the storage period.
179 Three readings were taken for each sample. Samples were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21
180 and 30 for analysis.

181

182 **Lipid oxidation measurement**

183 Lipid oxidation was assessed on the basis of the amount of malondialdehyde formed
184 during storage. Malondialdehyde is the end-product of lipid peroxidation and was
185 evaluated using the TBARS assay with some modifications (Oussalah et al., 2006).
186 A 10 g portion of each meat sample was blended with 50 ml of distilled deionised
187 water and 10 ml of 15% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) in a stomacher blender
188 (Stomacher 400, Seward Medical, England) for 2 min at 260 rpm. The homogenate
189 was centrifuged at 1500 gravity for 5 min and the supernatant fluid was filtered
190 through a Durapore 0.45 µm HV membrane filter (Millipore). A 2 ml aliquot of 60
191 mmol/L TBA reagent was added to 8 ml of the clear filtrate and vortexed for 15 s

192 and then heated in a boiling water bath for 10 min to develop a pink colour. After
193 cooling on ice to ambient temperature (~ 20 °C), the absorbance of the supernatant
194 was measured spectrophotometrically at 532 nm (Milton Roy Spectronic 1201). The
195 concentration of malondialdehyde in analysed samples was calculated on the basis of
196 a standard curve obtained using serial dilutions of 1,1,3,3-tetramethoxypropane
197 solution. The TBARS value was expressed as mg malondialdehyde/kg (mg
198 MDA/kg) of sample. Samples were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 30 for analysis.

199

200 **Extraction of phytochemicals**

201 Seaweed-patty samples (5 g) were powdered in liquid nitrogen using a mortar and
202 pestle, then extracted with 50ml of methanol (60%) under nitrogen atmosphere for 2
203 hours. The extraction was carried out at 40 °C at 100rpm in a shaker incubator
204 (Innova 42, Mason Technology, Ireland). Samples were filtered and centrifuged at
205 10,000 rpm for 15 min (Sigma 2K15, Mason Technology, Ireland). Resulting
206 extracts were evaporated to dryness using vacuum polyevaporator (Buchi Syncore
207 Polyvap, Mason Technology, Ireland) at 60 °C. A pressure gradient program was
208 designed for evaporation of the solvents with vacuum conditions of 337 and 72 mbar
209 for methanol and water, respectively.

210

211 **Total phenolic content**

212 The total phenolic concentration (TPC) was measured using the Folin-Ciocalteu
213 method (Taga et al., 1984). In this procedure, 100 µl aliquot of stock sample (extract
214 concentration 1000 µg/ml of water) was mixed with 2.0 ml of 2% Na₂CO₃ and
215 allowed to stand for 2 min at room temperature. Then 100 µl of 50% Folin-

216 Ciocalteau's phenol reagent was added. After incubation for 30 min at room
217 temperature in darkness, the absorbance was read at 720 nm using spectrophotometer
218 (Milton Roy Spectronic 1201). The total phenolic contents were expressed as mg
219 gallic acid equivalent per 100 gram fresh weight (fw) (mg GAE/100 g fw). Samples
220 were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 30 for analysis.

221

222 **DPPH radical scavenging activity**

223 Free radical scavenging activity was measured by 2, 2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl
224 (DPPH) according to the method of Yen & Chen (1995) with some modifications.
225 Samples were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 30 for analysis. Briefly, a 100 µl aliquot
226 of test sample (concentration 50 µg/ml) was placed in a 96-well microtitre plate and
227 100 µl of 0.16 mM DPPH methanolic solution was added. The mixture was shaken
228 and incubated for 30 min in darkness at 25 °C. Changes in the absorbance of the
229 samples were measured at 517 nm using a microplate reader (Powerwave, Biotek,
230 VT, USA).

231

232 The ability to scavenge the DPPH radical was calculated using the following
233 equation given by Duan et al. (2006):

$$234 \text{ Scavenging effect (\%)} = \left[1 - \left(\frac{A_{\text{sample}} - A_{\text{sampleblank}}}{A_{\text{control}}} \right) \right] \times 100 \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

235 Where: A_{control} is the absorbance of the control (DPPH solution without sample),
236 A_{sample} is the absorbance of the test sample (DPPH solution plus test sample) and

237 $A_{sample\ blank}$ is the absorbance of the sample only (sample without any DPPH
238 solution).

239

240 **Texture evaluation**

241 Shear tests were performed using an Instron Universal Testing Machine (Model
242 4301, Canton MA, USA) supported with Bluehill 2 version 2.14 analysis software
243 for materials testing. A Warner Bratzler cutter was used in the shear tests. An
244 aluminum plate with dimensions of 10 x 6 cm², thickness of 1.3 cm and with an
245 opening of 3 mm in the centre was supported in the Instron base. Patty samples (5 g)
246 were sheared at a speed of 200 mm/min. The cutting implement was allowed to
247 travel the depth of the patty, cutting through the sample and hardness was defined as
248 the peak of force-deformation curve recorded in Newtons per mm (N/mm). Ten
249 replications of each sample were carried out. Samples were taken on days 0, 7, 14,
250 21 and 30 for analysis.

251

252 **Colour measurement**

253 Colour analysis was performed using a colourimeter (CIE Lab ColourQuest XE)
254 with D65 illuminant and 10 ° standard observer angle setting. Patty samples (5 g)
255 were taken on days 0, 7, 14, 21 and 30 for analysis. The colourimeter was calibrated
256 against a standard white reference tile ($L^* = 93.97$; $a^* = -0.08$ and $b^* = 1.21$). The
257 colour values were represented on the CIE colour scales in terms of L^*
258 (lightness/darkness), a^* (redness/greenness) and b^* (yellowness/blueness). From

259 these values, total colour change from fresh (DE) was calculated according to the
260 following equation:

$$261 \quad DE = \sqrt{(L^* - L^*_0)^2 + (a^* - a^*_0)^2 + (b^* - b^*_0)^2} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

262 Where; L^*_0 , a^*_0 and b^*_0 are the readings at time zero and L^* , a^* and b^* are the
263 individual readings at each drying time.

264

265 **Sensory characteristics**

266 The sensory acceptance test was conducted in a standardised sensory test room (ISO
267 9599, 2007). Untrained panelists ($n = 20$) were recruited from staff and students of
268 the Dublin Institute of Technology using a five-point hedonic scale. Samples (25 g)
269 were served at the same time on white paper plates with random three-digit numbers,
270 and water at room temperature was provided for mouth-rinsing between samples.
271 The panelists were asked to assign scores for aroma (maximum of 5), appearance
272 (maximum of 5), texture (maximum of 5), flavour (maximum of 5) and overall
273 acceptability of the product (maximum of 5), where 5 was “like extremely” and 1
274 was “dislike extremely”. The overall quality (maximum of 25) was computed by
275 combining scores of all five attributes.

276

277 **Statistical analysis**

278 All experiments were performed in triplicate and replicated twice. All statistical
279 analyses were carried out using STATGRAPHICS Centurion XV software (StatPoint
280 Technologies, Inc., Warrenton, VA). Statistical differences were determined using

281 ANOVA followed by Least Significant Difference (LSD) testing. Differences were
282 considered statistically significant when $p < 0.05$.

283

284 **3. Results and Discussion**

285 **Cooking yield and dietary fibre content of seaweed-patties**

286 Cooking loss was the highest in the control sample which had a 40.28% reduction in
287 yield. As seaweed levels were increased cooking losses declined. The processing
288 losses were 34.80, 34.32, 34.24 and 33.88% for 10, 20, 30 and 40% seaweed
289 concentrations, respectively. This demonstrated that adding seaweed had a
290 significant effect on retaining moisture as compared to control patties ($P < 0.05$).
291 Cofrades *et al.* (2008) and Fernández-Martín *et al.* (2009) also found that the
292 addition of *H. elongata* improved the water-binding properties of pork meat.

293 The use of dietary fibre in cooked meat products generally improves hydration
294 properties and fat holding capacity, reducing fat and water loss during cooking and
295 increasing emulsion stability (Thebaudin *et al.*, 1997; Cofrades *et al.*, 2000; Jiménez-
296 Colmenero *et al.*, 2005). The objective of the current study was to incorporate
297 seaweed into beef patties in order to achieve healthier meat products while also
298 producing a product with good sensory attributes such as texture. Seaweeds contain
299 large amounts of dietary fibre and have a high water-holding capacity. The water-
300 holding capacity of seaweeds is closely related to the polysaccharide composition of
301 the dietary fibre fractions, and therefore the gelation process will depend on the type
302 and amount of their polysaccharides (Sánchez-Alonso *et al.*, 2006).

303 Traditional beef patties are high in fat content (about 14%). Most of this fat is
304 saturated fatty acid (SFA) (about 60% of total fat), while the monounsaturated fatty

305 acid (MUFA) fraction accounts for about 36% of total fat, and the polyunsaturated
306 fatty acid (PUFA) fraction accounts for about 3% of total fat (Martínez et al., 2011).
307 There are often problems with reduction of fat in finely ground meat products, as it
308 can present a number of difficulties in terms of appearance, flavour and texture. This
309 can cause such products to be less accepted by the consumer (Keeton, 1994; García
310 et al., 2002; Tokusoglu & Ünal, 2003). Manufacturers have introduced several
311 modifications in an attempt to offset the detrimental effects of reducing the fat level.
312 These modifications include the use of non-meat ingredients that could help to
313 convey desirable texture and, more importantly, enhance water-holding capacity
314 (Ako, 1998; Keeton, 1994). In this regard, the incorporation of carbohydrates and
315 fibre have been successful in improving cooking yield, reducing formulation cost
316 and enhancing texture (Keeton, 1994; Jiménez-Colmenero, 1996; Mendoza et al.,
317 1998). There are strict food regulations within the EU in relation to labeling the
318 content of ingredients in food products. A product such as beef patties with seaweed
319 would be required to be labeled as such, and the percentage of both seaweed and
320 beef corresponding to the quantity of the ingredients would be required on the
321 product label (EU Directive 2000/13/EC, 2000).

322 In the current study, dietary fibre may have had an important effect on this
323 technological property because it holds water by adsorption and absorption
324 phenomena and some water is also retained outside the fibre matrix (free water)
325 (Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2010). The total dietary fibre content of the control patty and
326 seaweed-patty at a concentration of 40% can be seen in Fig. 1.

327 Rehydrated seaweed contained 4.02 g TDF per 100 g fw (4.02%) and when
328 incorporated into patties at 40%, the final product contained 1.64 g TDF per 100 g
329 fw (1.64%). These results are in line with Choi *et al.* (2012) who reported that pork

330 patties with dried *Laminaria japonica* incorporated at levels up to 5% contained 1.23
331 to 3.14% dietary fibre. López-López et al. (2010) reported the TDF in pork patties
332 containing dried seaweed (3%) to be 1.36% in the final product which is also lower
333 than that of the present study; however less seaweed was added as it was in dried
334 form. The recommended daily intake of dietary fibre is > 25 g per day (WHO/FAO,
335 2003). The addition of fibre to fast food product which is a commonly consumed and
336 low in fibre would help to increase the daily consumption of dietary fibre amongst
337 the population.

338

339 **Bacterial enumeration and pH of control and seaweed-patties during storage**

340 Microbial growth (log CFU/g) of the vacuum packed seaweed-patties over 30 days
341 of refrigerated storage can be seen in Table 1. There was no significant difference in
342 the total viable counts for all patties (control, 10, 20, 30 and 40% seaweed) within
343 the first 14 days of storage as there was no growth of bacteria in any of the samples
344 ($P > 0.05$). There was a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between the control and the
345 seaweed-patties after 14 days as growth began in the control sample and reached
346 5.41 log CFU/g by day 30. Generally, the addition of seaweed did not affect the
347 spoilage of patties particularly in samples containing > 20% seaweed. A low level of
348 growth (1.09 log CFU/g) was seen in seaweed-patties by day 30, and only in patties
349 containing the lowest level of seaweed (10%). This level was however significantly
350 lower than the control samples ($P < 0.05$).

351 López-López et al. (2010) reported that the total viable counts of beef patties and
352 those with added seaweed ranged from 6 - 6.4 log CFU/g. Cofrades *et al.* (2011) also
353 reported that the TVC for restructured poultry steaks with added seaweed were in

354 excess of 6 log CFU/g, however the levels from both these studies are higher than
355 that of the present findings, most likely due to the fact that the patties were
356 uncooked. There are no guidelines specific to total viable counts in minced beef
357 intended to be eaten cooked apart from the requirement for *Salmonella* spp. to be
358 absent in 10 g of sample. Guidelines set out by the Food Safety Authority of Ireland
359 (FSAI) for Enterobacteriaceae numbers on raw meat samples stipulate that three of
360 five samples of raw meat must have counts of < 5 log CFU/g and no more than two
361 of five samples of raw meat can have counts between 5 and 7 log CFU/g. Meat
362 exceeding these limits is defined as unacceptable. The levels of TVC in the raw
363 patties before cooking in the present study was 2.09 log CFU/g which is well below
364 the FSAI limits and those established by The European Union Commission
365 Regulation (EC No. 2073/2005) on the microbiological criteria for foodstuffs. The
366 pH of the patties (Table 1) was also monitored throughout the shelf life as high
367 levels of microorganisms result in reductions in pH levels (Gómez-López et al.,
368 2007).

369 The initial pH values (day 0) of all patty samples were similar ranging from 6.01 to
370 6.05. These levels are in line with those observed for cooked pork patties with a pH
371 ranging from 6.06 - 6.13 as reported by Choi et al. (2012). Significant differences
372 between the control and seaweed-patties were observed after 14 days of storage. The
373 pH values of all seaweed-patties were 6.00, while that of the control was 5.96, which
374 is only slightly lower. By the end of the storage period (30 days) the pH of the
375 seaweed-patties still had not changed significantly ($P > 0.05$) and was in the range of
376 5.99 - 6.00 while the control had dropped to 5.82. These results are in agreement
377 with those of the bacterial enumeration as the acidity of the control had dropped and

378 was most and likely due to the increase in bacterial growth as compared to the
379 seaweed-patties.

380

381 **Lipid oxidation of control and seaweed-patties during storage**

382 Lipid oxidation generates a series of chemical reactions that can alter the physio-
383 chemical parameters, sensorial attributes (odour, colour and flavour) and shelf life in
384 meat and meat products (Liu et al., 1995). TBARS analysis measures the formation
385 of tertiary products of lipid oxidation, mainly malondialdehyde, which may
386 contribute off-flavour to oxidized fat (Lee et al., 2011). Lipid oxidation in precooked
387 products remains of concern to the meat industry due to the increased demand for
388 convenience foods. Undesirable flavour in precooked meats, commonly described as
389 warmed-over flavour, rapidly develops in cooked meat products during refrigerated
390 storage (Ahn et al., 2002). Precooked meats are likely to oxidize and produce
391 secondary compounds such as hexanal, pentanal, 2,4-decadienal, 2,3-oxtanedione,
392 and 2-octenal (Trout & Dale, 1990). Minced meat and meat products undergo
393 oxidative changes more quickly as grinding exposes lipid membranes to metal
394 oxidation catalysts (Lee et al., 2011).

395 Table 2 shows the effect of different seaweed concentrations on TBARS values of
396 cooked-patties during 30 days of storage. Initial TBARS levels (Day 0) of all
397 samples were similar ranging from 0.18 to 0.20 mg malondialdehyde/kg (mg
398 MDA/kg). TBARS values of all patties containing seaweed were significantly lower
399 ($P < 0.05$) than the control during storage. The TBARS levels began to increase at
400 day 14 of storage. This indicated that there was some protective effect of the
401 seaweed against lipid oxidation in cooked minced beef, potentially due to the

402 increase in phenolic compounds and DPPH activity as discussed. The reduction in
403 lipid oxidation could also be due to the reduction in meat content in the samples (10
404 - 40% less meat) which accordingly would have lower levels of fat present in the
405 samples thus reducing potential oxidation.

406 The differences in TBARS values of seaweed-patties ranged from 0.18 – 0.69 mg
407 MDA/kg from the beginning to end of storage. Therefore, the extent of this lipid
408 oxidation during refrigerated storage may be considered relatively low according to
409 Bhattacharya et al. (1988), Rojas & Brewer (2007) and López-López et al. (2010).
410 The results of the present study are in agreement with López-López et al. (2010) who
411 reported that the TBARS values of seaweed-patties ranged from 0.27 – 0.87 mg
412 MDA/kg during frozen storage.

413

414 **Total phenolic content of control and seaweed patties during storage**

415 The total phenolic content (TPC) of the seaweed-patties over the 30 days of storage
416 is shown in Fig. 2. Phenolic compounds exist as various structures, have different
417 molecular weights and are related to the innate flavour of food. They contain a
418 phenolic hydroxyl group, which has an antioxidative effect through interactions with
419 the phenol ring and has a resonance stabilization effect (Shahidi & Wanasundara,
420 1992). Differences in the TPC of all samples were significant ($P < 0.05$). The control
421 sample contained no detectable phenols at tested levels, while the TPC increased
422 significantly ($P < 0.05$) with increasing seaweed concentrations (10 - 40%). The
423 TPC ranged from 7.05 - 28.11 mg GAE/100 g fw and by day 30 these levels were
424 6.42 – 24.21 mg GAE/100 g fw.

425 **DPPH radical scavenging activity of control and seaweed patties during storage**

426 DPPH is a free radical widely used to determine the free radical-scavenging ability
427 of various compounds (Amarowicz et al., 2004). The DPPH radical scavenging
428 activity of the patties over 30 days of storage is presented in Fig. 3. The control
429 sample contained no detectable phenols at tested levels. The initial levels of DPPH
430 scavenging activity in all seaweed-patty samples were significantly different ($P <$
431 0.05) and ranged from 30.23 - 52.34%. Throughout the storage period the DPPH
432 activity declined significantly for each of the seaweed-patty samples ($P < 0.05$). By
433 day 30, levels were in the range of 26.65 - 40.69% for the different concentrations of
434 seaweeds.

435

436 **Texture of control and seaweed patties during storage**

437 The firmness/tenderness of the patty samples throughout storage is shown in Table 3.
438 The initial tenderness of each of the patties (control, 10, 20, 30 and 40% seaweed)
439 were all significantly different ($P < 0.05$) ranging from 17.50 - 19.06 N/mm. As
440 seaweed levels increase, the patties become more tender. An addition of 40%
441 seaweed represented a 46.98% difference in tenderness levels compared to that of
442 the control. Dietary fibres from different sources have been studied for formulation
443 of different meat products, with a view, among other things, to improve texture. It
444 has generally been found that addition of such fibres to meat augmented firmness
445 (Cofrades et al., 2008; Fernández-Martín et al., 2009; Sánchez-Zapata et al., 2010).
446 However, while some authors have observed increases in firmness with the addition
447 of fibres to meat, others have found no difference or the production of more tender
448 products (Chun et al., 1999; Cofrades et al., 2000; Jiménez-Colmenero et al., 2005;

449 Selgas et al., 2005). López-López (2010) also reported that beef patties containing
450 seaweed were more tender than the control. The effect of seaweed addition on the
451 tenderness of the patties was most likely due to the role played by fibre. The texture
452 of all of the samples in the present study increased (became firmer) throughout
453 storage ($P < 0.05$). The firmness of the control samples was almost double that of
454 those containing 40% seaweed. By the end of the storage period (30 days) the
455 tenderness of the samples ranged from 21.33 – 40.23 N/mm, with the firmest being
456 the control and the most tender were those in patties containing the highest levels of
457 seaweed (40%). This is due to the retention of water in seaweed during the hydration
458 step and the reduction of levels of meat proteins due to its addition.

459

460 **Colour of control and seaweed patties during storage**

461 Colour was evaluated in order to detect the tendencies for seaweed addition to cause
462 changes in the beef-patties, given that colour is one of the main parameters
463 determining consumer acceptance of a product (Cofrades et al., 2008). Seaweed
464 addition had an immediate effect on colour parameters of patties in comparison to
465 the control (Table 4). At the initial stage (day 0), the L^* values of the patty samples
466 with seaweed incorporated were higher than that of the control (colour was lighter).
467 Seaweed concentrations (10 – 40%) also had a significant effect on the L^* values as
468 the patties became lighter in colour with increasing seaweed levels ($P < 0.05$). It has
469 been reported that usually in meat products, the higher the moisture content, the
470 higher the lightness (L^*) value (Pérez-Alvarez et al., 1999; Alesón-Carbonell et al.,
471 2005; Fernández-López et al., 2008). The higher L^* values could therefore also be

472 due to the high moisture content of the seaweed and the moisture retention upon
473 cooking as compared to the control.

474 The a^* values of the samples containing seaweed were significantly different (day 0)
475 as compared to the control ($P < 0.05$), with values ranging from 7.05 (10% seaweed)
476 to 8.39 (control). This parameter is a measure of the redness/greenness of a sample
477 with lower a^* readings containing more green pigments. This would explain the
478 reduction in a^* values as compared to the control as blanched *H. elongata* is bright
479 green in colour. The initial b^* values (day 0) were significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher
480 than the control patties containing no seaweed. This parameter is a measure of the
481 yellowness/redness of the samples and the higher b^* values of the seaweed-patties
482 indicate an increase in yellow colour.

483 With respect to colour during storage; L^* values changed significantly for all
484 samples ($P < 0.05$). The L^* values decreased by day 30, indicating a slight darkening
485 of the samples, with the exception of patties with 30 and 40% seaweed which
486 became slightly lighter in colour. There was a significant increase in a^* values for all
487 samples (except 20 and 30% seaweed-patties) by day 30, which indicated that the
488 redness of the samples increased slightly, this indicated that there was a reduction in
489 the green colour of the blanched seaweed. There was also a significant increase in b^*
490 values for all samples (except 10 and 20% seaweed-patties) by day 30. This indicates
491 that there was a reduction of the yellowness of the samples.

492 Although there were differences in the colour values throughout the storage period,
493 most of the colour parameters of the patty samples were basically steady (slightly
494 changed) which was also reported by Shan et al. (2009) who studied the effects of
495 adding spice and herb extracts to raw pork. Although the addition of seaweed

496 changed the colour of the patties as compared to the control, this is in line with meat
497 colour changes upon the addition of spice and herbs which are traditionally added to
498 meats. In order to determine the acceptability of the colour, this was taken into
499 account in the sensory analysis.

500

501 **Sensory analysis**

502 In order to determine if the seaweed-patties were acceptable in terms of aroma,
503 appearance, texture and taste, a preliminary consumer acceptability test was
504 undertaken. Table 5 summarises the sensory scores for aroma, appearance, texture,
505 taste and overall acceptability of control and seaweed-patties. The samples tested by
506 the sensory panel were the control (with no added seaweed), a mid-range seaweed-
507 patties (20% seaweed) and patties with 40% added seaweed which would have the
508 maximum level of antioxidants and TDF. Aroma, appearance, texture and taste of
509 the seaweed-patties were found to be significantly different to the control ($P < 0.05$).
510 The sensory scores for aroma ranged from 4.23 (20% seaweed) to 4.61 (control). The
511 fact that no strong seaweed aroma was detected could be attributed to blanching the
512 seaweed prior to adding to the meat.

513 The sensory score for appearance ranged from 4.23 to 4.84, with the score reducing
514 with increasing seaweed concentration. This showed that the patties without the
515 incorporation of seaweed were more visually appealing to the sensory panel,
516 however the mean score for all samples was still above 4, which is a positive result.
517 The scores for texture were significantly higher with increased levels of seaweed (P
518 < 0.05). Therefore the panel detected that seaweed altered the texture and possible
519 mouthfeel of the patties which was one of the objectives of the study. The addition of

520 blanched seaweeds over dried seaweeds in the present study offers exploitation of
521 the gelling properties of the seaweeds. This would also contribute to the
522 technological properties of the seaweed such as reducing cooking losses.

523 The seaweed-patties also had a significantly higher score for taste than the control
524 with 20% seaweed-patties ranking the highest ($P < 0.05$). The 40% seaweed-patty
525 ranked highest in the overall acceptability score ($P < 0.05$) with the control receiving
526 the lowest score. The results of the present study are promising particularly when
527 compared to those reported in literature. Piñero et al. (2008) found that the taste
528 scores for beef patties with added oat fibre to be lower than the control. Cofrades et
529 al. (2011) reported that while all restructured poultry steaks with added *H. elongata*
530 were judged acceptable by a sensory panel, the control received a higher score for
531 overall acceptability than those containing seaweed. On the other hand, Choi et al.
532 (2012) stated that sensory evaluations indicated that the greatest overall acceptability
533 in pork-patties was also attained in samples containing seaweed.

534

535 **4. Conclusion**

536 The addition of *H. elongata* to meat products in the development of functional foods
537 opens up new potential for seaweed utilisation. Incorporating such seaweeds is of
538 interest from a technological and functional point of view. The seaweed had a
539 positive effect on the cooking yield of the patties due to their hydrocolloid content
540 which reduce cooking losses. Total dietary fibre, polyphenolic content and
541 antioxidant activity were increased due to the incorporation of seaweed. Storage life
542 was enhanced in samples containing seaweed as compared to the control and lipid
543 oxidation was also greatly reduced due to the levels of phytochemicals present in the

544 seaweed. The seaweed also had a positive effect on the texture of the patties as they
545 were more tender than the control which was also confirmed in the sensory analysis
546 study. The seaweed-patties were found overall to be acceptable by a sensory panel,
547 particularly in terms of texture.

548

549 **Acknowledgements**

550 The authors acknowledge funding from the Dublin Institute of Technology under the
551 ABBEST Programme. The authors would like to thank Sofia Reis, Amit Kumar and
552 Gaurav Rajauria for their technical support.

553

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760 **Legends to Figures**

761 **Fig. 1. Total dietary fibre content of control and seaweed patties**

762 **Fig. 2. Total phenolic content of control and seaweed patties during storage (■:**
763 **10%; ▲: 20%; –: 30%; ●: 40% seaweed)**

764 **Fig. 3. DPPH radical scavenging activity of control and seaweed patties during**
765 **storage (■: 10%; ▲: 20%; –: 30%; ●: 40% seaweed)**

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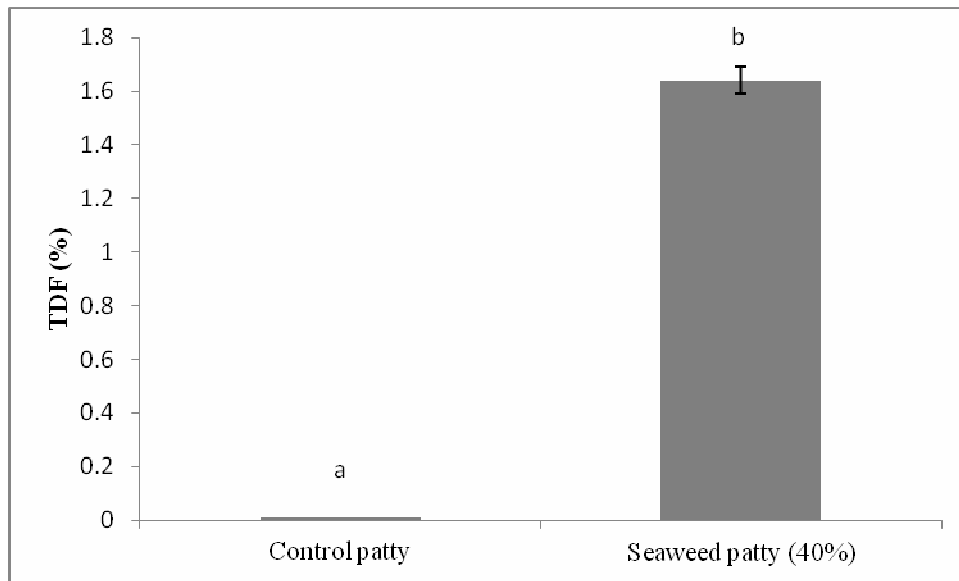
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792 **Fig. 1. Total dietary fibre content of control and seaweed patties**

793 Each value is presented as mean \pm SD (n = 3).

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821 **Table 1. Bacterial enumeration and pH of control and seaweed patties during**
 822 **storage**

Patty	Control (0%)	10% seaweed	20% seaweed	30% seaweed	40% seaweed
Bacterial enumeration (log CFU/g)					
Days					
0	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az
7	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az
14	1.10±0.01by	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az
21	3.05±0.03cy	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az
30	5.41±0.02dx	1.09±0.01by	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az	0.00±0.00az
pH					
Days					
0	6.05±0.03ay	6.04±0.02ay	6.03±0.02az	6.01±0.02az	6.02±0.02az
7	6.00±0.01az	6.01±0.02az	6.00±0.03az	6.00±0.02az	6.01±0.03az
14	5.96±0.01by	6.00±0.01az	6.00±0.02az	6.00±0.02az	6.00±0.03az
21	5.95±0.02by	6.00±0.02az	6.00±0.01az	5.99±0.02az	5.99±0.02az
30	5.82±0.01cy	5.99±0.02bz	5.99±0.02bz	6.00±0.03az	6.00±0.03az

823 Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6, bacterial enumeration; n = 3, pH).

824 Means within each column with different letters (a – e) differ significantly (*P* < 0.05).

825 Means within each row with different letters (v – z) differ significantly (*P* < 0.05).

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834 **Table 2. Lipid oxidation of control and seaweed patties during storage (mg**
 835 **malondialdehyde/kg)**

Day	Control (0%)	10% seaweed	20% seaweed	30% seaweed	40% seaweed
0	0.19±0.03ax	0.20±0.01ay	0.18±0.02az	0.19±0.01ax	0.19±0.04ax
7	0.45±0.05bv	0.25±0.03bw	0.27±0.03bx	0.22±0.01by	0.24±0.06bz
14	0.77±0.05cv	0.40±0.06cw	0.38±0.01cx	0.39±0.03cy	0.45±0.06cz
21	0.89±0.04dv	0.61±0.05dw	0.55±0.05dx	0.57±0.04dy	0.56±0.02dz
30	1.12±0.02ew	0.69±0.02ex	0.69±0.06ex	0.66±0.02ey	0.61±0.02ez

836 **Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).**

837 **Means within each column with different letters (a – e) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).**

838 **Means within each row with different letters (v – z) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).**

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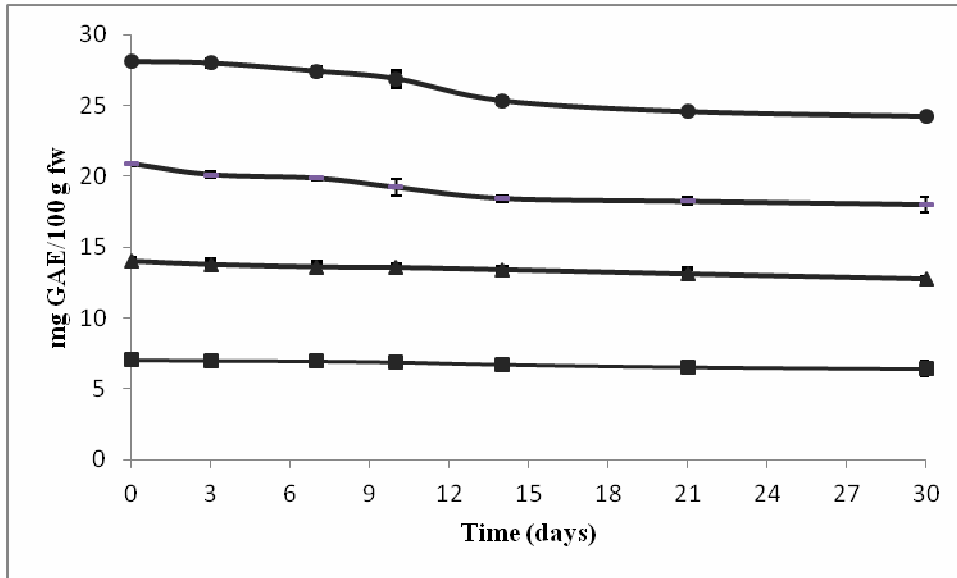
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851 **Fig. 2. Total phenolic content of control and seaweed patties during storage (■:**
 852 **10%; ▲: 20%; —: 30%; ●: 40% seaweed)**
 853 **Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).**

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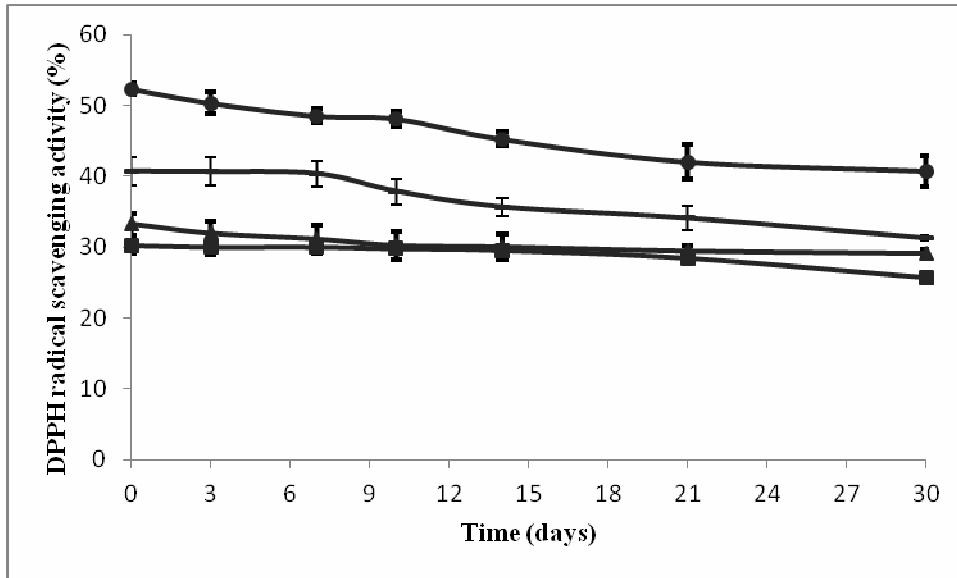
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867 **Fig. 3. DPPH radical scavenging activity of control and seaweed patties during**
 868 **storage (■: 10%; ▲: 20%; —: 30%; ●: 40% seaweed)**
 869 **Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).**

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884 **Table 3. Texture of control and seaweed patties during storage (N/mm)**

Day	Control (0%)	10% seaweed	20% seaweed	30% seaweed	40% seaweed
0	18.06±1.68av	19.06±1.16aw	17.63±1.35ax	17.50±1.10ay	17.77±1.34az
7	25.33±2.31bv	21.25±1.55bw	19.82±1.94bx	18.88±2.30by	18.54±1.25bz
14	32.76±3.30cv	25.11±3.32cw	23.42±2.30cx	22.38±2.38cy	20.11±3.33cz
21	38.22±1.98dv	26.77±2.33dw	24.02±1.34dx	22.78±2.87dy	20.87±2.10dz
30	40.23±1.76ev	28.44±3.54ew	24.54±2.04ex	23.98±2.12ey	21.33±3.45ez

885 Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).

886 Means within each column with different letters (a – e) differ significantly (*P* < 0.05).

887 Means within each row with different letters (v – z) differ significantly (*P* < 0.05).

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Table 4. Colour of control and seaweed patties during storage (Hunter L*, a*, b*)

Coordinate	Day	Control (0% seaweed)	10% seaweed	20% seaweed	30% seaweed	40% seaweed
L*	0	36.63±0.22aw	39.06±0.08ax	39.08±0.16ax	40.12±0.03ay	40.25±0.11az
	7	35.89±0.56bv	37.08±1.23bw	37.89±0.23bx	40.15±0.80by	41.58±1.12bz
	14	34.63±0.11cv	37.99±0.47cw	37.66±0.29cx	41.25±0.88cy	40.99±0.87cz
	21	34.39±1.18dv	37.39±0.85dw	37.56±0.10dx	41.72±1.02dy	40.12±0.17dz
	30	35.49±1.12ev	37.45±0.52ew	38.12±0.23ex	41.56±1.6ey	40.32±1.07ez
a*	0	8.39±0.04av	7.05±0.33aw	7.96±0.24ax	7.99±0.12ay	8.32±0.09az
	7	8.73±0.09bv	7.12±0.44bw	8.23±0.20bx	8.01±0.39by	8.33±0.56az
	14	9.70±0.56cv	6.96±0.56cw	7.99±0.34cx	8.22±0.23cy	8.87±0.41bz
	21	9.37±0.45dv	6.98±0.25dw	7.58±0.03dx	7.97±0.25dy	8.12±0.57cz
	30	8.91±0.78ev	7.88±0.23ew	7.77±0.87ex	7.87±0.33ey	8.56±0.41dz
b*	0	14.22±0.12av	16.67±0.11aw	16.00±0.02ax	16.54±0.14ay	16.66±0.13az
	7	15.51±0.54bv	16.69±0.14ax	15.97±0.25by	16.99±0.10bz	16.67±0.66az
	14	15.82±0.12cv	16.61±0.45bw	16.04±0.30cx	17.11±0.03cy	17.25±0.49bz

21	15.21±0.13dv	16.55±0.78cw	15.97±0.24dx	17.10±0.65cy	17.32±0.23cz
30	15.74±0.45ev	16.56±1.10dw	15.93±0.55ex	16.67±0.70dy	17.22±0.87dz

Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 6).

Means within each column with different letters (a – e) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

Table 5. Mean scores for aroma, appearance, texture and taste of the control and seaweed patties

Patty	Sensory attributes				
	Aroma	Appearance	Texture	Taste	Overall acceptability
Control	4.61±0.66a	4.84±0.37a	3.00±0.95a	3.76±0.61a	3.75±1.64a
20% seaweed	4.23±0.83b	4.30±0.48b	3.07±0.44b	4.23±0.83b	4.09±0.88b
40% seaweed	4.38±0.77c	4.23±0.59c	3.69±0.49c	4.15±0.80c	4.25±0.78c

Each value is presented as mean ± SD (n = 20).

Means within each column with different letters differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

