| 1  | Running title: Recent strategies for improving the quality of meat products  |
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| 3  | RECENT STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF   |
| 4  | MEAT PRODUCTS  |
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#### 16 Abstract

Processed meat products play a vital role in our daily dietary intake due to their rich protein content and the inherent convenience they offer. However, they often contain synthetic additives and ingredients that may pose health risks when taken excessively. This review explores strategies to improve meat product quality, focusing on three key approaches: substituting synthetic additives, reducing the ingredients potentially harmful when overconsumed like salt and animal fat, and boosting nutritional value.

To replace synthetic additives, natural sources like celery and beet powders, as well as atmospheric cold plasma treatment, have been considered. However, for phosphates, the use of organic alternatives is limited due to the low phosphate content in natural substances. Thus, dietary fiber has been used to replicate phosphate functions by enhancing water retention and emulsion stability in meat products. Reducing the excessive salt and animal fat has garnered attention. Plant polysaccharides interact with water, fat, and proteins, improving gel formation and water retention, and enabling the development of low-salt and low-fat products. Replacing saturated fats with vegetable oils is also an option, but it requires techniques like Pickering emulsion or encapsulation to maintain product quality.

These strategies aim to reduce or replace synthetic additives and ingredients that can potentially harm health. Dietary fiber offers numerous health benefits, including gut health improvement, calorie reduction, and blood glucose and lipid level regulation. Natural plant extracts not only enhance oxidative stability but also reduce potential carcinogens as antioxidants. Controlling protein and lipid bioavailability is also considered, especially for specific consumer groups like infants, the elderly, and individuals engaged in physical training with dietary management.

Future research should explore the full potential of dietary fiber, encompassing synthetic additive substitution, salt and animal fat reduction, and nutritional enhancement. Additionally, optimal sources and dosages of polysaccharides should be determined, considering their distinct properties in interactions with water, proteins, and fats. This holistic approach holds promise for improving meat product quality with minimal processing.

38 Keywords: nitrite, phosphate, sodium chloride, animal fat, nutrition, meat product

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## Introduction

42 Meat products such as ham, sausage, and jerky are consumed worldwide because they not only supply high-43 quality proteins but are also convenient to use. As consumers demand high-quality meat products, various studies 44 have been conducted to improve the quality properties of meat products [1,2].

45 Various quality factors are present in meat products and synthetic additives such as nitrites and phosphates are 46 added to improve the quality of meat products [3,4]. Owing to consumer concerns regarding the health hazards of 47 synthetic food additives, consistent efforts have been made to develop natural sources that can replace synthetic food 48 additives [5-7]. Sodium chloride (NaCl) is an essential ingredient in meat products because it enhances flavor and 49 solubilizes myofibrillar proteins, which is important for forming a gel that effectively holds water and fat as well as 50 possesses the desired texture [6,8]. However, high sodium intake is considered a detrimental factor for health [9]. 51 Therefore, the reduction of NaCl in meat products without deterioration of quality is required [10]. Fat is an important 52 component in comminuted meat products. The addition of fat to comminuted meat products improves their flavor, 53 juiciness, and texture [11]. However, the replacement of animal fat in meat products is required because the intake of 54 animal fat containing high saturated fatty acids can lead to obesity and cardiovascular diseases [11-13].

Protein gels contain various compounds that can be used as carriers of them [14]. Therefore, enhancing the nutritional value of meat products by the addition of health-beneficial compounds has recently attracted attention. Many studies have attempted to replace synthetic additives, salts, and animal fat with natural sources that have substances beneficial to health as well as the function of each object [15-17]. In addition, researchers have attempted to control the digestibility of proteins and fats in meat products for improving the nutritional quality.

60 Therefore, the objective of this review was to report recent studies conducted to improve the quality of meat61 products. In addition, future research directions for improving the quality of meat products are discussed.

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## **Replacement of synthetic additives**

64 Various synthetic additives such as nitrite, phosphate, and antioxidants are used to produce meat products [3].
65 Among these, synthetic antioxidants have been effectively replaced by natural extracts containing phenolic
66 compounds. In this review, we discussed the replacement of nitrite and phosphate in meat products.

67 Nitrite

Nitrite is a multifunctional additive used in meat products. The addition of nitrite to meat products results in a
 cured color and flavor, reduces lipid oxidation, and inhibits the growth of microorganisms, including *Clostridium botulinum* [18,19]. Generally, replacing synthetic nitrite with natural nitrite is required.

71 The general method for replacing synthetic nitrite is the use of extracts or homogenates of natural plants after the 72 conversion of endogenous nitrate in plant to nitrite [18]. Various natural nitrite sources containing nitrate or nitrite 73 (pre-converted from nitrate), such as celery, beet, and spinach powders, have been reported. However, there are reports 74 of a lack of microbial safety in meat products containing natural nitrite sources [20]. The production of nitrite from 75 natural sources is limited, because it is determined by the nitrate content of the plant. Therefore, a large amount of 76 natural nitrite must be added to reach the level required to ensure the safety of meat products. However, the addition 77 of natural nitrite sources in meat products is limited to preventing undesirable effects of plant flavor on the flavor of 78 meat products [18-21]. Therefore, studies have been conducted to develop natural nitrite sources that have no 79 undesirable effects on the sensory quality of meat products. Recently, arugula extract (pre-conversion of nitrate to 80 nitrite) [1] and radish derivatives (pre-conversion of nitrate to nitrite) [23] were tested as natural nitrite sources in 81 fermented sausage and restructured cooked ham, respectively. No undesirable effects on the sensory quality of meat 82 products with a curing effect similar to that of sodium nitrite have been reported (Table 1) [1, 23].

83 A new concept using atmospheric cold plasma to replace synthetic nitrite has been reported [24,25]. Plasma is an 84 ionized gas containing reactive oxygen and nitrogen species [26, 27]. The reactive nitrogen species in the plasma can 85 produce nitrite by reacting with water molecules [28]. Therefore, atmospheric cold plasma has been used as a new 86 technology to produce natural nitrite sources because nitrite can be generated in natural substances with plasma 87 treatment, regardless of the nitrate content. Marcinkowska-Lesiak et al. [29] reported that plasma-activated milk 88 powder (treated with cold plasma and then freeze dried) contains 1,306 ppm of nitrite. Pork sausages have been 89 effectively cured using plasma-activated milk powder with reduced lipid oxidation, aerobic bacterial growth, and 90 desirable sensory quality [29]. Jo et al. [17] also observed that 4,870 ppm of nitrite was generated in winter mushroom 91 powder with cold plasma treatment, and ground ham cured by plasma-treated winter mushroom powder exhibited 92 physicochemical properties similar to those of ground ham cured with sodium nitrite. Jo et al. [26] reported no toxicity 93 in plasma-treated winter mushroom powders.

94 The curing molecule in meat products is nitric oxide degraded from nitrite via sequential chemical reactions [18]. 95 In muscles, NO can be endogenously generated from 1-arginine through the action of NO synthase. Luo et al. [30] 96 observed that nitrosylmyoglobin, a pigment for cured color, was formed in pork batter after the addition of L-arginine 97 and Lactobacillus fermentum and reported that it was caused by NO generation from L-arginine by the action of NO 98 synthase in Lactobacillus fermentum. Liu et al. [31] reported that the activity of nitric oxide synthase continued for 3 99 d postmortem. In addition, nitrosylmvoglobin was formed in pork batter owing to ultrasound treatment because 100 ultrasound treatment increased the calcium concentration in the cytoplasm and then activated calmodulin, which is a 101 protein that activates NO synthase [32].

102 As explained above, various methods have been reported to replace synthetic nitrite, such as the use of natural 103 nitrite sources, atmospheric cold plasma technology, and NO synthase systems. However, the antimicrobial activity 104 of the reported methods as substitutes for synthetic nitrites has not been suggested (Table 1). An important role of 105 nitrite in meat products is to control pathogenic bacteria, including *Clostridium botulinum*. Therefore, future studies 106 on the development of synthetic nitrite substances should investigate their antimicrobial activities against pathogenic 107 bacteria. However, care should be undertaken when using nitrite in meat products because it can form carcinogenic 108 nitroso compounds [33]. Therefore, methods for inhibiting nitrosamine formation in meat products must be 109 continuously developed.

#### 110 **Phosphate**

Phosphates are multifunctional additives that are found in meat products. Various inorganic phosphates with chain structures are permitted in the manufacturing of meat products. Although acidic phosphates, such as sodium acid pyrophosphate ( $Na_2H_2P_2O_7$ ), can be used as curing accelerators, the most phosphate used in meat products are alkaline phosphates such as sodium pyrophosphate ( $Na_4P_2O_7$ ) and sodium tripolyphosphate ( $Na_5P_3O_{10}$ ) because of their multifunctional roles and relatively high solubility compared to other phosphates [34]. Although inorganic phosphates have low toxicity, an inorganic phosphate intake of less than 1,000 mg/day is recommended [35, 36]. Unlike nitrite, the use of organic phosphate to replace synthetic phosphate (inorganic phosphate) is limited, because natural substances possess low content of phosphate. Therefore, synthetic phosphate in meat products has been replaced by substances with functions similar to those of phosphate in meat products. Alkaline phosphates generally used in meat products improve the water-holding capacity, emulsion stability, textural properties, and oxidation stability by increasing pH, dissociating actomyosin, increasing ionic strength, and chelating metal ions [36].

122 Dietary fiber is considered an alternative to phosphate in meat products. Dietary fiber has excellent water- and 123 fat-binding capabilities [37]. Therefore, it has been used to improve the water holding capacity and emulsion stability 124 of phosphate-free meat products [6, 38]. Yuan et al. [38] found a decrease in cooking loss and an increase in emulsion 125 stability with the inhibition of lipid oxidation in phosphate-free frankfurters with the addition of seaweed dietary fiber 126 (Table 2). In addition, the addition of winter mushroom powder (44.5% dietary fiber) to phosphate-free beef patties 127 resulted in a decrease in cooking loss and inhibition of lipid oxidation by increasing the pH of the batter and water 128 and fat binding [6, 39]. However, the addition of dietary fiber sources as phosphate alternatives to meat products did 129 not increase the solubility of myofibrillar proteins, which is an action of phosphate, and result in a decrease in the 130 hardness of gel products [6, 17]. Therefore, methods are needed to improve the solubility of myofibrillar proteins and 131 the formation of desirable gel structures in phosphate-free meat products using dietary fiber sources. Pinton et al. [40] 132 used ultrasound treatment with bamboo fiber in a phosphate-free meat emulsion and found that the emulsion stability 133 and textural properties were improved because of the improvement in water-holding capacity and the increase in 134 myofibrillar protein solubility by a modification in the protein structure. In addition, Jeong et al. [2] reported that hot-135 boned pork had high solubility of myofibrillar protein, and pork gel manufactured using hot-boned pork and winter 136 mushroom powder without phosphate showed quality properties similar to those of pork gel containing phosphate.

137 An activity of phosphate in meat products is a dissociation of actomyosin formed in the postmortem muscle [34, 138 41]. High-pressure treatment improves the solubility of myofibrillar proteins by dissociating actomyosin [41, 42]. 139 Guan et al. [42] reported that the stability of pork emulsions was improved when high-pressure processing and soy 140 protein isolate hydrolysates were used. However, Jeong et al. [43] reported that the strength of pork gel manufactured 141 from pork treated with high pressure was lower than that of the gel containing phosphate, although the actomyosin 142 content in pork and the solubility of myofibrillar proteins decreased and increased, respectively, with high-pressure 143 processing at 200 MPa. A previous study found that phosphate in meat products not only increased solubilized proteins 144 but also enhanced the stability of the gel structure through phosphate group-mediated interactions between proteins [44]. Therefore, the low gel strength with low structural stability in meat gels may be caused by phosphate-free systems,
although the water-holding capacity, emulsion stability, and protein solubility were improved using dietary fiber and
techniques such as ultrasound and high pressure.

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# 149Reduction of the ingredients potentially harmful when

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#### overconsumed

151 NaCl

152 NaCl is an essential ingredient in meat products, especially comminuted meat products, because it provides 153 desirable textural properties and flavor in gel products. The addition of NaCl to meat products increases their ionic 154 strength and consequently solubilizes myofibrillar proteins [10]. Solubilized myofibrillar proteins act as emulsifiers 155 and form aggregated elastic gels that effectively hold water and fat [45]. In addition, Cl<sup>-</sup> increase net charges in 156 myofibrillar proteins and increase the water-holding capacity of meat products [39]. Generally, an addition of NaCl 157 at a level of 1.5-2.5% is required to obtain meat products of desirable quality. However, a high intake of Na<sup>+</sup> can 158 cause various diseases, such as hypertension and cardiovascular damage [8]. Therefore, efforts to reduce Na<sup>+</sup> levels 159 in meat products are ongoing. Many studies have investigated the effects of other chloride salts, such as potassium 160 chloride (KCl), calcium chloride, and magnesium chloride as substitutes for NaCl in meat products. Among the 161 chloride salts, KCl has similar properties to NaCl in terms of increased solubility of myofibrillar proteins and water-162 holding capacity in meat products [46]. However, the bitter taste of KCl limits its widespread applications.

Various quality factors, such as the solubility of myofibrillar proteins, water-holding capacity, emulsion capacity and stability, gel-formation capacity, salty flavor, and microbiological safety, deteriorate in low-salt meat products [39, 47]. Recently, plant polysaccharides have attracted attention as substances for improving the quality of low-salt meat products. Plant polysaccharides can be categorized into anionic, cationic, and neutral types based on their surface charges and can directly interact with water, fat, and proteins [48]. Gao et al. [49] observed that the addition of konjac glucomannan to low-salt myofibrillar protein gels increased gel strength by unfolding myofibrillar proteins and promoting disulfide bonds in the gel matrix (Table 3). Zhao et al. [50] applied ultrasound-treated carrageenan to a 170 low-salt chicken meat paste. They also reported that carrageenan improved the solubility of myofibrillar proteins 171 through the interaction between carrageenan and protein, and the water-holding capacity through the interaction 172 between carrageenan and water molecules. The application of ultrasound with plant polysaccharides in low-salt meat 173 products not only improves the solubility of myofibrillar proteins but also improves microbiological safety, which can 174 be a problem in low-salt meat products [50, 51]. Gao et al. [51] found that the combination of guar gum and ultrasound 175 treatment in low-salt chicken myofibrillar protein emulsions synergistically improved emulsion stability by increasing 176 emulsion viscosity and reducing droplet size.

The use of non-meat proteins in meat products improves their quality because of their emulsion and gel-forming capacities. Li et al. [52] observed a decrease in cooking loss and an increase in the hardness of low-salt pork myofibrillar protein gels when soy protein isolate was added with high hydrostatic pressure treatment. The use of chicken bone powder, a byproduct, to improve low-salt pork batter was investigated by Zhan et al. [53]. They found that the  $Ca^{2+}$  ions released from chicken bone transformed the conformation of myofibrillar proteins and consequently increased the hardness and chewiness with a decrease in the cooking loss of pork gel. However, the fat in the pork gel was not effectively holed by chicken bone powder [53]

Quality deterioration of low-salt meat products is primarily caused by the low solubility of myofibrillar proteins. The solubility of myofibrillar proteins in raw meat is an important processing property. Defective meat, such as PSE, has lower solubility of myofibrillar proteins, and consequently, its use results in quality deterioration of meat products [54, 55]. Therefore, the selection of raw meat with high myofibrillar protein solubility is extremely important to manufacture low-salt meat products. Various techniques have been developed to predict meat quality [56,57]. The selection of raw meat with proven quality using prediction techniques can effectively improve the quality of low-salt meat products.

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#### 192 Animal fat

Animal fat is a common ingredient in emulsion-type meat products. The addition of animal fat improves the processing yield, textural properties, and flavor of meat products, and 20–30% fat cooperates with emulsion-type meat products. However, excessive intake of animal fat containing saturated fatty acids in the human diet can cause various diseases, such as obesity, cardiovascular diseases, and cerebrovascular diseases [58]. Therefore, along with increasing
 interest in low-fat meat products, researches have focused on the maintaining of the overall quality while reducing fat
 content [11-13].

199 Reducing fat in meat products induces quality deterioration in terms of texture and flavor. Therefore, substances 200 that compensate for the low quality of low-fat meat products are required. Plant polysaccharides are promising 201 substitutes for fats. Bohrer et al. [59] found that a reduction in fat from 20% to 5% in beef batter resulted in decreased 202 hardness and chewiness (Table 4). They applied microcrystalline cellulose as a fat substitute in beef batter containing 203 5% fat and observed the improvement of textural properties compared to those of beef batter with 20% fat [59]. 204 Pietrasic and Soladove [60] used pea starch to improve the quality of low-fat bologna and reported that cooking loss 205 decreased and hardness and chewiness increased. Sodium alginate was investigated as a fat replacement in frankfurters, 206 in which the fat content was reduced from 18% to 3% with the addition of a sodium alginate solution [61]. Kang et al. 207 [61] reported that sodium alginate in reduced-fat frankfurters led to the unfolding of the myofibrillar protein, transit 208 of the-helix into other secondary structural forms, and formation of a network with a myosin tail, and found an increase 209 in the cooking yield and hardness of reduced-fat frankfurters.

210 Vegetable oils are considered healthier lipids than animal fat because they contain more unsaturated fatty acids 211 than animal fat. However, the addition of vegetable oils to meat products results in quality deterioration because the 212 added oils are not effectively retained in the gel structures of the meat products. Recently, the use of structured or 213 solidified oils, such as protein- or polysaccharide-based emulsions and Pickering emulsions, as alternatives to animal 214 fat has increased [62, 63]. Zhao et al. [62] found that frankfurters containing a 7% pork back fat and 7% quinoa protein 215 emulsion (protein:soybean oil, 3:1) had textural properties similar to those of frankfurters containing 14% pork back 216 fat. In addition, the sensory properties of reduced fat (pork back fat) frankfurters do not differ from those of high-fat 217 frankfurters [62]. Rezaee and Aider [63] used a Pickering emulsion manufactured using canola oil, canola protein, 218 and xanthan as replacements for animal fat. The replacement of beef fat at 50% by a Pickering emulsion in the gel of 219 mechanically separated meat showed no differences in cooking yield, firmness, or elasticity of the gel [63]. In addition, 220 lipid oxidation in gels containing Pickering emulsions was inhibited during storage compared with gels containing 221 animal fat [63].

## **Reinforcement of nutritional value**

In previous sections, we discussed strategies to reduce or replace synthetic additive and ingredients in meat products that could potentially harm human health. There are also direct methods for enhancing the nutritional value of meat products by adding natural ingredients that exhibit health benefits.

227 Dietary fiber, as a substitute for synthetic additives or saturated fats, can also be integrated into meat products to 228 promote better health. Incorporating dietary fiber into meat products has the potential to lower the calorie content per 229 serving, aiding in weight management [64]. Notably, dietary fiber plays a positive role in human gut health. As dietary 230 fiber remains undigested by human enzymes in the small intestine, it passes through the digestive tract intact, reaching 231 the colon and supporting the growth of beneficial gut microbiota. Moreover, sufficient fiber intake can add bulk to the 232 stool, aiding in maintaining regular bowel movements and preventing constipation [65]. Furthermore, research has 233 indicated that dietary fiber may contribute to preventing chronic diseases by reducing serum lipid levels and blood 234 pressure as well as regulating blood glucose concentrations to manage diabetes [66]. Among the various types of 235 dietary fiber that are incorporated into meat products, carrageenan is often used for its stability under cold and freeze-236 thaw conditions and water-binding properties, and oat, soy, pea, psyllium, cellulose, and vegetable fibers are suitable 237 choices for enhancing meat products [64, 67]. Dietary fibers such as pectin, glucans, cellulose derivatives, inulin, 238 chitosan, and gums have emerged as natural emulsifiers, effectively stabilizing lipid droplets through their surface-239 active properties at the oil-water interface and enhancing viscosity in the continuous phase [66]. Incorporating these 240 natural emulsifiers not only bolsters the stability of meat products but also presents potential health benefits through 241 improved emulsion properties. However, further investigations are required to explore the direct effects of dietary 242 fiber addition to meat products on human health.

243 Interestingly, the primary nutrients in meat that can potentially cause adverse health effects are protein and fat. 244 This susceptibility arises from the excessive oxidation of fats and proteins during processing, storage, and cooking, 245 resulting in the formation of carcinogens [68,69]. Consequently, studies have been conducted to mitigate oxidation 246 and reduce potentially carcinogenic compounds by altering the raw meat characteristics or incorporating natural 247 antioxidants. The presence of saturated fatty acids and cholesterol in meat products has raised concerns among 248 consumers regarding health issues and cardiovascular diseases [58]. As a result, verifying the fatty acid profiles of 249 meat has garnered attention. A study conducted an examination of the fatty acid composition of grain- and grass-fed 250 beef rich in saturated fatty acids reported that grass-fed beef exhibited a reduction of 2,773 mg in total saturated fatty 251 acids compared with grain-fed beef [70]. Additionally, grass-fed beef has an elevated content of n-3 polyunsaturated

252 fatty acids, which offer enhanced health benefits. The authors noted that grass-fed beef provided heightened protection 253 against cardiovascular diseases. Furthermore, Zhang et al. [71] explored the influence of probiotics in feed and 254 revealed the augmented presence of arachidonic acid, eicosapentaenoic acid, and gamma-linolenic acid in sheep meat, 255 leading to an improved fatty acid composition. The increased content of unsaturated fatty acids contributes to a 256 reduction in low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol, commonly referred to as 'bad' cholesterol, while concurrently 257 elevating high-density lipoprotein cholesterol. High-density lipoprotein cholesterol facilitates the removal of excess 258 cholesterol from the bloodstream, thereby reducing the risk of cardiovascular disease [72]. Moreover, n-3 fatty acids 259 are recognized for their anti-inflammatory properties and potential to enhance brain function [71]. Consequently, a 260 higher n-3 fatty acid content has the potential to increase the nutritional value of meat products.

261 Although increasing the presence of unsaturated fatty acids in meat products imparts health advantages, it also 262 introduces potential concerns related to lipid oxidation. Lipid oxidation is primarily driven by processes such as free-263 radical chain reactions, metal ion-catalyzed oxidation, and photooxidation, ultimately yielding oxidative byproducts 264 that can have adverse health implications, such as mutagenic and genotoxic effects [73]. Given the inherent antioxidant 265 properties of plant extracts, the incorporation of natural antioxidants has been shown to prevent oxidative progress in 266 meat products [74,75]. In a study by Kim et al. [76], the introduction of loquat leaf extract into restructured beef jerky 267 effectively inhibited lipid and protein oxidation during storage through the radical scavenging and chelating capacities 268 of the extract. Lee et al. [77] compared 25 natural extracts and highlighted the potency of Nelumbo Nucifera Gaertner 269 extract in reducing lipid oxidation in pork sausages during storage. However, a different perspective emerged from 270 the studies by Bae et al. [74] and Yoon et al. [75], where the use of plant extracts as natural curing agents paradoxically 271 led to an increase in lipid oxidation during storage due to a reduction in residual nitrite content due to the incorporation 272 of antioxidants. Hence, there is a crucial need to comprehensively understand the effects and underlying mechanisms 273 of action of plant extracts in processed meat products, specifically their effects on oxidation.

Antioxidants play a significant role in inhibiting the generation of potential carcinogens in meat products. As part of the processing, meat products often undergo curing and smoking. However, when these products are cooked at high temperatures, the formation of carcinogenic compounds such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), N-nitroso compounds, and nitrosamines can be triggered [78]. PAHs are hydrocarbon molecules characterized by multiple benzene rings. Although lighter PAHs with two or three rings (such as naphthalene, fluorine, and acenaphthene) are less toxic owing to their volatility, more stable and heavy PAHs (such as pyrene, chrysene, and fluoranthene) tend to exhibit greater toxicity [68]. In addition, nitrosamines often arise in meat products through reactions between nitric 281 oxide or nitrite and nitrozable substrates such as secondary amines [69]. The primary mechanism of inhibiting the 282 generation of PAHs and N-nitroso compounds is the ability of antioxidants to scavenge free radicals [68,79]. Cho et 283 al. [80] demonstrated that the addition of a 0.4% Perilla frutescens extract to pork patties hindered both lipid oxidation 284 and PAH formation. Similarly, Shen et al. [81] found that adding 2.5% green tea extract to roasted ducks substantially 285 suppressed PAH formation by 79.7%, owing to its abundant phenol content. Deng et al. [82] reported that the inclusion 286 of apple polyphenols (0.03%) in dry-fried bacon reduced N-nitrosomethyl phenylamine formation and mitigated lipid 287 and protein oxidation. By incorporating natural antioxidants, the production of harmful oxidative byproducts and 288 reactive species can be minimized, and the consumption of these antioxidants can also yield additional health benefits 289 for individuals by reducing oxidative stress and promoting the overall well-being.

290 As meat is a protein-rich food, assessing its nutritional value often involves evaluating protein quality through 291 amino acid composition and protein bioavailability. Although meat exhibits excellent protein digestibility in the 292 human body, digestibility can be altered during processing or storage. This is particularly important for specific groups 293 such as infants, older adults, and patients, where low digestibility might be a challenge, necessitating efforts to enhance 294 protein digestibility in meat and meat products to optimize post-intake utilization and digestion efficiency [83]. 295 Enhanced protein digestibility in meat is frequently achieved through both thermal and nonthermal treatments. High-296 temperature cooking ( $\geq 100$  °C) during processing can lead to reduced digestibility, owing to muscle fiber shrinkage 297 and protein coagulation. In contrast, mild cooking temperatures (60-80 °C) promote digestibility by facilitating protein 298 unfolding [84]. As a result, studies exploring methods such as sous-vide cooking [85,86], application of pressure 299 during heating to induce meat protein dissociation [87], and optimization of conventional cooking techniques (stewing, 300 grilling, roasting, frying, etc.) have been undertaken [88-90]. Nonthermal treatments may involve conventional aging 301 and nonthermal technologies [91]. Conventional aging enhances the in vitro protein digestibility of beef [92], and a 302 recent study by Lee et al. [93,94] revealed that pre-freezing prior to aging can further accelerate beef protein 303 degradation, leading to even greater in vitro protein digestibility. Non-thermal technologies induce changes in native 304 intra-/intermolecular interactions, altering secondary, tertiary, and quaternary structures, thereby affecting the 305 digestive properties of meat [83]. Non-thermal methods such as high-pressure processing [91], pulsed electric field 306 [95], and ultrasound [96] have also been reported to enhance protein digestibility in meat. However, it is important to 307 approach non-thermal techniques with caution, as alterations in protein oxidation and denaturation can be substantial, 308 even in the absence of heat-induced changes, necessitating careful investigation of the appropriate conditions [83].

309 In addition, the enhancement of the attributes of meat products can involve the modification of lipid digestibility. 310 A notable challenge in reducing animal fat content is the potential deterioration of sensory qualities. Given that fats 311 considerably contribute to the sensory appeal of meat products, a novel approach has been proposed to reduce the 312 digestion and absorption rates of fats without directly decreasing their content [66]. In this approach, lipid 313 encapsulation is widely used, involving the direct emulsification of lipid sources with stabilizing agents such as 314 biopolymers and low-molecular-weight surfactants [97,98]. The reduction in lipid digestibility and digestion rates 315 using post-encapsulation is mainly attributed to hindered diffusion and limited access of lipases to lipid droplets [66]. 316 Santiaguín-Padilla et al. [99] examined the encapsulation of pork fat in meat emulsions with pectin and observed a 317 20% reduction in triglyceride degradation during in vitro digestion. Similarly, Cofrades et al. [100] employed 1% 318 methylcellulose in pork lard emulsions and reported an 18% decrease in the extent of lipolysis after encapsulation. 319 Diao et al. [101] used glycerolysis of triacylglycerol in pork lard to transform it into diacylglycerol with lower fat 320 accumulation in the human body. The lipid digestibility of lard emulsion enriched with diacylglycerol surpassed that 321 of conventional pork lard; however, the researchers observed that a higher diacylglycerol content could potentially 322 reduce fat accumulation in the body after absorption [101]. Although many studies have focused on the encapsulation 323 of lipid sources with functional ingredients in food emulsions [63, 98, 102], the application of encapsulated fats in 324 meat products and the resulting changes in lipid digestibility should be further investigated in the future studies.

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### **Summary**

Meat products can supply high-quality protein to humans and are very important in the meat industry in terms of promoting the added value of fresh meat. Improvement in the quality of meat products is required in various aspects to meet consumer needs.

330 After reviewing recent literature, we identified three strategies for improving meat product quality: replacement 331 of synthetic additives, reduction of unhealthy ingredients, and reinforcement of the nutritional value of meat products. 332 We observed that the substances containing dietary fiber used in all three strategies had various functions. To replace 333 synthetic additives, natural plant powders can be converted into natural nitrite sources by cold plasma treatment. 334 Natural plant powders have been shown to replace phosphate in meat products because of their water- and fat-binding 335 abilities. Plant polysaccharides improve the quality of low-salt meat products by improving the water-holding capacity 336 and emulsion stability through interactions between polysaccharides and water, protein, or fat. Emulsions of vegetable 337 oils, proteins, and polysaccharides have shown a good ability to substitute animal fat in meat products. In addition,

| 338 | dietary fiber has various biological functions that prevent various diseases in the human body. Therefore, the addition |
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| 339 | of dietary fiber substances to meat products improves their quality by replacing nitrite and phosphate, reducing salt   |
| 340 | and fat, and reinforcing nutritional values. However, the use of dietary fiber sources in meat products has mostly been |
| 341 | conducted for one objective such as synthetic additive replacement or the reduction of unhealthy ingredients.           |
| 342 | In future studies, we believe that the effect of dietary fiber sources in meat products must be investigated for their  |

343 multifunctional roles as both substitutes for synthetic additives and partial substitutes for salt and animal fat, as well 344 as for nutritional value improvement. In addition, polysaccharides have different properties in terms of surface charge 345 and activity of water, proteins, and fat molecules. Therefore, optimal sources and dosages for the quality of meat 346 products must be determined. This is an appropriate method to improve the quality of meat products with minimal 347 processing.

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# Tables

| Ingredients/tech<br>nologies   | Meat<br>product<br>type        | Effects   | Mechanism  | Reference                              |
|--|--------------------------------|---|--|--|
| Arugula extract<br>(pre-converted<br>from nitrate to<br>nitrite)     | Fermented sausage              | Development of cured<br>color<br>Reduction of lipid<br>oxidation  | Nitrite converted<br>from endogenous<br>nitrate  | Serdaroğlu et al.<br>[1]               |
| Celery powder<br>(pre-converted<br>from nitrate to<br>nitrite)       | Pork<br>emulsion<br>sausage    | Improvement of color<br>Undesirable texture<br>properties   | Nitrite converted<br>from endogenous<br>nitrate  | Jin and Kim<br>[22]                    |
| Radish<br>derivatives (pre-<br>converted from<br>nitrate to nitrite) | Restructure<br>d cooked<br>ham | Development of cured<br>color<br>No undesirable flavor  | Nitrite converted<br>from endogenous<br>nitrate  | Guimaraes et al.<br>[23]               |
| Milk powder<br>(cold plasma<br>treated)                              | Pork<br>sausage                | Development of cured<br>color<br>Inhibition of lipid<br>oxidation<br>Inhibition of total aerobic<br>bacteria growth<br>Desirable texture property | Generation of nitrite<br>in milk by cold<br>plasma treatment,<br>Addition of more<br>protein       | Marcinkowska-<br>Lesiak et al.<br>[29] |
| Winter<br>mushroom<br>powder (cold<br>plasma treated)                | Ground<br>ham                  | Development of cured<br>color<br>Inhibition of lipid<br>oxidation   | Generation of nitrite<br>in winter mushroom<br>homogenate by cold<br>plasma treatment              | Jo et al. [17]                         |
| L-arginine and<br>Lactobacillus<br>fermentum                         | Pork meat<br>batter            | Generation of nitrosyl-<br>myoglobin,<br>increase in red color  | Production of nitric oxide   | Luo et al. [30]                        |
| Ultrasound<br>treatment  | Pork meat<br>batter            | Generation of nitrosyl-<br>myoglobin,<br>increase in red color  | Production of nitric<br>oxide from L-<br>arginine in pork<br>meat using<br>ultrasound<br>treatment | Leães et al. [32]                      |

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625 Table 1. Recent studies for the replacement of synthetic nitrite in meat products.

| Ingredients/tech<br>nologies  | Meat<br>product<br>type | Effects   | Mechanisms  | Reference             |
|---|-------------------------|---|---|-----------------------|
| Seaweed<br>dietary fiber  | Frankfurter             | <ul> <li>Decrease in cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Increase in emulsion<br/>stability</li> <li>Improvement in<br/>textural properties</li> <li>Inhibition of lipid<br/>oxidation</li> </ul> | Improvement of<br>water holding<br>capacity<br>Increase of<br>antioxidant activity  | Yuan et al. [38]      |
| Winter<br>mushroom<br>powder  | Beef patty              | <ul> <li>Decrease in cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Inhibition of lipid<br/>oxidation</li> <li>Reduced hardness</li> </ul>   | Increase of pH<br>Improvement of<br>water holding<br>capacity<br>Increase of<br>antioxidant activity                              | Jeong et al. [6]      |
| Hot-boned pork<br>with winter<br>mushroom<br>powder                           | Pork gel                | <ul> <li>Decrease in cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Reduced hardness</li> </ul>  | Increase of pH<br>Improvement of<br>water holding<br>capacity<br>Increase of<br>antioxidant activity<br>Low actomyosin<br>content | Jeong et al. [2]      |
| Bamboo fiber<br>and ultrasound<br>treatment                                   | Meat<br>emulsion        | <ul> <li>Increase in emulsion<br/>stability</li> <li>Improvement in<br/>textural properties</li> </ul>  | Increase of pH<br>Improvement of<br>water holding<br>capacity<br>Modification of<br>protein structure                             | Pinton et al.<br>[40] |
| Soy protein<br>isolate<br>hydrolysates<br>with high<br>pressure<br>processing | Pork<br>emulsion        | <ul> <li>Increase in emulsion<br/>activity and stability</li> <li>Inhibition of lipid<br/>oxidation</li> <li>Decrease in droplet<br/>size</li> </ul>                                    | Improved<br>interaction<br>between lipids and<br>proteins<br>Increase of<br>antioxidant activity                                  | Guan et al. [42]      |
| High pressure processing  | Pork gel                | <ul> <li>Increase in<br/>myofibrillar protein<br/>solubility</li> <li>Low gel strength</li> </ul>   | Actomyosin<br>dissociation  | Jeong et al. [43]     |

Table 2. Recent studies for the replacement of inorganic phosphate in meat products.

| Ingredients/tec<br>hnologies                               | Meat<br>product<br>type  | Effects  | Mechanisms  | Reference         |
|--|--|--|---|-------------------|
| Konjac<br>glucomannan                                      | Beef<br>myofibrillar<br>protein gel<br>(0.3 M<br>NaCl)           | • Increase in the gel<br>strength  | Unfolding of<br>myofibrillar proteins<br>Promotion of<br>disulfide bonds in<br>the gel matrix   | Gao et al. [49]   |
| Carrageenan<br>with ultrasound                             | Chicken<br>meat paste<br>(1.0%<br>NaCl)                          | <ul> <li>Decrease of cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Improvement of<br/>texture properties</li> </ul>  | Increase in<br>myofibrillar protein<br>solubility via<br>ultrasound treatment<br>and interaction<br>between<br>carrageenan and<br>proteins<br>Improvement in<br>water holding<br>capacity by the<br>hydrogen bond<br>between<br>carrageenan and<br>water molecule | Zhao et al. [50]  |
| Guar gum<br>with ultrasound                                | Chicken<br>myofibrillar<br>protein<br>emulsion<br>(1.0%<br>NaCl) | • Improvement of<br>emulsion stability   | Increase in emulsion<br>viscosity<br>Reduction of droplet<br>size   | Gao et al. [51]   |
| Soy protein<br>isolate with<br>high pressure<br>processing | Pork<br>myofibrillar<br>protein gel<br>(1.0%<br>NaCl)            | <ul> <li>Decrease of cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Improvement of<br/>texture properties</li> </ul>  | Improvement of<br>water and fat<br>holding capacity   | Li et al. [52]    |
| Micro-/nano-<br>scaled chicken<br>bone                     | Pork batter<br>(0.5%<br>NaCl)                                    | <ul> <li>Decrease of cooking<br/>loss</li> <li>Increase of hardness<br/>and chewiness</li> </ul> | Promotion of<br>protein orderly<br>aggregation by<br>conformational<br>transition of protein  | Zhang et al. [53] |

633 Table 3. Recent studies for the reduction of sodium chloride.

| Ingredients/te chnologies  | Meat<br>product type   | Effects  | Mechanisms  | Reference                      |
|--|--|--|---|--------------------------------|
| Microcrystalli<br>ne cellulose   | Beef batter<br>(5% fat)  | Improvement in texture properties  | Increase in water<br>holding and gel<br>rigidity  | Bohrer et al.<br>[59]          |
| Pea starch   | Bologna<br>(18% fat)   | • Improvement in<br>cooking yield<br>Improvement in<br>hardness and chewiness  | Increase in water<br>holding capacity<br>Gel forming ability  | Pietrasik and<br>Soladoye [60] |
| Sodium<br>alginate   | Frankfurter<br>(10% fat)   | <ul> <li>Improvement in cooking yield</li> <li>Improvement in hardness</li> </ul>  | Increase in water<br>holding capacity<br>Interaction between<br>myosin tail and<br>alginate   | Kang et al. [61]               |
| Quinoa<br>protein<br>emulsion<br>(protein :<br>soybean oil,<br>3 : 1, v/v) | Frankfurter<br>(50% fat<br>replacement<br>)                            | • No differences in<br>cooking yield, texture<br>properties, and sensorial<br>properties   | Increase in water<br>holding capacity<br>Interaction between<br>quinoa protein and<br>water molecules<br>Conformation of<br>uniform and<br>compact gel<br>structure | Zhao et al. [62]               |
| Canola<br>proteins-<br>xanthan based<br>Pickering<br>emulsion              | Mechanicall<br>y separated<br>meat gel<br>(50% fat<br>replacement<br>) | <ul> <li>No differences in<br/>cooking yield and<br/>textural properties<br/>(firmness and elasticity)</li> <li>Increase in unsaturated<br/>fatty acid composition</li> <li>Decrease in lipid<br/>oxidation</li> </ul> | Specific<br>mechanisms were<br>not reported   | Rezaee and<br>Aider [63]       |

| 1 able 4. Recent studies for the reduction of annual fat. | 635 | Table 4. Recent studies for the reduction of animal fat. |
|---|-----|--|
|---|-----|--|