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Additional Information

Highlights:

- The ultrasonic time of flight (TOF) decreased progressively during salting.
- Online monitoring of dry salting is reliable using ultrasound pulse-echo technique.
- The TOF variation during salting was related to the salt gain.
- Classification using ultrasound of loins and hams according to salt gain is viable.

1 **NON-INVASIVE ULTRASONIC TECHNOLOGY FOR CONTINUOUS MONITORING**
2 **OF PORK LOIN AND HAM DRY SALTING**

3 **Marta de Prados, Jose V. García-Pérez*, Jose Benedito**

4 ASPA Group, Department of Food Technology, Universitat Politècnica de València,
5 Camí de Vera s/n, E-46022 València, Spain

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17 *Corresponding author. Tel.: +34 96 387 93 76; fax: +34 96 387 98 39. E-mail address:

18 jogarpe4@tal.upv.es (J. Vicente García-Pérez).

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20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Online ultrasound measurements were taken using pulse-echo mode in loins
22 (*Longissimus dorsi*) and hams at different salting times (up to 30 days). From the time-
23 domain ultrasonic wave, the time of flight (TOF) was computed as well as its variation
24 between two signals (Δ TOF). A progressive decrease in TOF during dry salting was
25 found, which was linked to the salt gain, water loss and the reduction in sample
26 thickness. Predictive models based on the ultrasonic parameters (Δ TOF and initial time
27 of flight, TOF_0) correctly classified 85% of the loins and 90% of the hams into 3 groups
28 of salt content (low/medium/high). The results obtained confirm that the use of the
29 ultrasonic pulse-echo technique is of great potential in the non-destructive monitoring
30 of the dry salting in pork loins and hams, as well as in the prediction of the salt gain for
31 classification purposes.

32

33 **Keywords:** Pork meat, Curing, Ultrasound, Non-destructive technology, Process
34 control

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39 **1. INTRODUCTION**

40 Dry salting is the traditional technique used in meat products with anatomical integrity,
41 such as hams or loins, in order to obtain dry-cured products. In the dry-cured loin and
42 ham industries, an accurate control of the dry salting process is especially complex
43 because of the high degree of heterogeneity in the meat pieces (pH, weight, fat content
44 and moisture, size of the piece...), the effect of the pre-treatments on the product (skin-
45 trimming of the fresh ham or the freezing/thawing processes) and the influence of the
46 different process variables (temperature, relative humidity, position in the salt pile, size
47 of the coarse salt...) (Costa-Corredor, Muñoz, Arnau, & Gou, 2010; García-Gil, Muñoz,
48 Santos-Garcés, Arnau, & Gou, 2014; Fulladosa, Muñoz, Serra, Arnau, & Gou, 2015).
49 All of these factors lead to there being a highly variable salt content in the batches of
50 dry cured hams and loins. This salt content variability is of great concern to the meat
51 industry as an excessive amount of salt produces a too salty taste (Ruusunen &
52 Puolanne, 2005), but an insufficient amount may cause sensory defects, such as
53 pastiness and softness (Albarracín, Sánchez, Grau, & Barat, 2011) or microbiological
54 problems (Desmond, 2006). Thus, the meat industry demands non-destructive quality
55 control techniques that allow the salt content to be determined after the salting stage
56 for quality control purposes.

57 Nowadays, the feasibility of using several non-destructive technologies (X-Ray, NMR,
58 ultrasound...) to determine the salt content in meat products has been tested. In this
59 regard, Fulladosa, Muñoz, Serra, Arnau, and Gou (2015) predicted the salt content in
60 bone-in hams after salting by using an X-Ray inspector. Similarly, Manzocco et al.
61 (2013) proposed predictive models with which to estimate the salt content in ham
62 muscles by using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). In this study, image analysis was
63 carried out in different stages of dry-cured ham processing (before salting, after salting
64 and at different times during resting, maturing and ageing). Recently, ultrasound has

65 also been applied to predict the salt content in brine salted pork meat (De Prados,
66 García-Pérez, & Benedito, 2015) and in dry-salted hams (De Prados, García-Pérez, &
67 Benedito, 2016), by taking ultrasonic measurements before and after salting. An
68 accurate prediction of the salt content after the salting may allow the products to be
69 classified according to the different levels of salt, which can be used for the purposes of
70 optimizing the subsequent processing stages. However, the measurement after salting
71 does not permit the correction of the variability in the batch salt content by reducing the
72 number of over-salted or insufficiently salted pieces. Thereby, the use of non-
73 destructive quality control techniques to monitor the salt gain during the dry salting
74 process is gaining importance in the meat industry as a means of meeting the target
75 salt content in each piece. In this context, ultrasound has been used by De Prados,
76 García-Pérez, and Benedito (2016) to monitor the dry salting process of *Longissimus*
77 *dorsi* and *Biceps Femoris* pork muscles. In this study, the ultrasonic velocity was
78 measured online during salting by the ultrasonic through-transmission mode. That
79 mode is characterized by the use of two transducers in direct contact with two opposite
80 and parallel sides of the sample, which makes its implementation in a ham or loin
81 salting pile very complicated. Otherwise, the ultrasonic equipment could be greatly
82 simplified by using the pulse-echo mode, where a single transducer can be placed on
83 one side of the sample, simultaneously acting as emitter and receiver (Mulet, Benedito,
84 Bon, & Sanjuan, 1999; Awad, Moharram, Shaltout, Asker, & Youssef, 2012). The use
85 of one transducer located in the ham's base during dry salting would facilitate the
86 ultrasonic implementation, reducing the cost and the impact of the ultrasonic
87 measurement on the mass transfers (salt and water).

88 The pulse-echo mode is most commonly used to detect internal defects in metallic
89 materials, but it has also been applied in food characterization. Thus, the pulse-echo
90 mode has been used to determine the ripeness of avocados (Gaete-Garretón, Vargas,
91 León, & Pettorino, 2005), to detect anomalies in the internal structure of Mahon cheese

92 (Benedito, Cárcel, Gisbert, & Mulet, 2001) or bone fragments in deboned chicken
93 breasts (Correia, Mittal, & Basir, 2008) and to measure the sugar content and viscosity
94 of reconstituted orange juice (Kuo, Sheng, & Ting, 2008). Another application of the
95 pulse-echo mode consisted in the monitoring of the cooling and freezing processes in
96 several food products (gelatin, chicken, salmon, beef and yoghurt) (Sigfusson, Ziegler,
97 & Coupland, 2001 and 2004). However, no studies have been found so far in the
98 literature regarding either the online ultrasonic monitoring of the salting process in meat
99 products or the salt gain assessment by means of the pulse-echo mode. Moreover, the
100 ultrasonic monitoring of salting in structural and compositional complex meat pieces,
101 such as whole hams, has not been addressed elsewhere.

102 The objective of this paper was to investigate the feasibility of applying ultrasound in
103 the pulse-echo mode for both the online monitoring of dry salting in loins and hams and
104 the prediction of the final salt gain.

105 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

106 **2.1 FRESH MEAT SAMPLING**

107 Ten fresh hams and twenty loins (*Longissimus dorsi*) from *Large White* breed pigs
108 were obtained in a local market. Loin and ham pieces were selected with a pH range of
109 between 5.3 and 5.8. In loins, the subcutaneous fat and external connective tissue
110 were removed and samples of 20.0 ± 0.5 cm in length (l) and with an average weight of
111 1.0 ± 0.1 kg (wg) were obtained, keeping the original width (z) and thickness (e) of the
112 muscle.

113 **2.2 DRY SALTING PROCESS**

114 Dry salting experiments in loins and hams were carried out at $2 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ by covering the
115 sample with 6kg or 15kg of coarse salt, respectively (NaCl moisturized at 10% w/w)

116 (Figure 1). The fresh samples and coarse salt were previously stored for 24h at 2°C for
117 tempering purposes. The thickness (e) was measured before and after dry salting in
118 the loins and hams and the thickness reduction (Δe) was calculated. In the case of
119 loins, four replicates were carried out for each salting time (6, 12, 24, 48 and 72h),
120 while in that of hams, one was used for each salting time (4, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16,
121 20 and 30 days).

122 **2.3 ULTRASOUND EXPERIMENTAL SET-UP**

123 Figure 1 shows the experimental set-up used for the ultrasonic measurements during
124 the dry salting of loins and hams. The experimental set-up consisted of four narrow-
125 band piezoelectric transducers of 1MHz and 0.5" crystal diameter, two of them type TA
126 (TA_1 and TA_2) (A303S model, Panametrics, Waltham, MA, USA) and the other two type
127 TB (TB_1 and TB_2) (A103S-RM model, Panametrics, Waltham, MA, USA). The pulse
128 generation and reception (5058PR, Panametrics, Waltham, MA, USA for loins and
129 5077PR, Panametrics, Waltham, MA, USA for hams) was multiplexed to the
130 transducers using a digital input/output device (NI 6501, National Instruments, Austin,
131 TX, USA) and a high-speed digitizer (PXI/PCI-5112, National Instruments, Austin, TX,
132 USA) installed in a PC (Figure 1). The multiplexation unit allowed the signal from the
133 pulser to reach the first transducer every 1h. The ultrasonic signal generated in this
134 transducer crossed the sample, was reflected in the meat/salt interface and returned to
135 the same transducer, sent to the receiver through the multiplexation device and
136 digitized by the oscilloscope (Figure 1). This operation was sequentially repeated in the
137 rest of the transducers by the action of the multiplexation unit.

138 The sample was placed on a layer of salt in direct contact with the four transducers
139 (TA_1 , TA_2 , TB_1 and TB_2 , which corresponds to the four ultrasonic measurement points)
140 inside a plastic container (30x25x15cm for loins and 120x35x20cm for hams) (Figure
141 1). Afterwards, two type-K thermocouples were located in the salt and the sample,

142 respectively; and the rest of the salt was added (total salt amount of 2kg for loins and
143 5kg for hams) until the sample was entirely covered. In the case of hams, a part of the
144 skin in the cushion zone ($177\pm 14\text{cm}^2$) was removed, which coincides with the region
145 where the transducers were placed (Figure 1) and 1mL of water was added on the
146 transducers' surfaces in order to guarantee the acoustic matching, thus, improving the
147 signal intensity. The ultrasonic measurements were taken by the pulse-echo mode at
148 intervals of 1h in the central part of the loins and in the cushion zone of the hams
149 (Figure 1).

150 The time of flight represents the time which elapses between the pulser sending the
151 signal to the transducer acting as emitter, until the signal crosses the sample twice and
152 is detected in the transducer acting as receiver. The time of flight variation (ΔTOF)
153 between two ultrasonic signals was the ultrasonic parameter considered for the online
154 monitoring of the loins and hams. For that purpose, the cross correlation method
155 (Leemans & Destain, 2009) was employed to calculate the ΔTOF between ultrasonic
156 signals one hour apart by using a specific software developed in LABVIEW™ 2015
157 (National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) and the final ΔTOF for the different salting
158 times was computed. The initial time of flight (TOF_0), which corresponds to the raw
159 meat, was calculated through the energy threshold method (Avanesians & Momayez,
160 2015), using the same software.

161 **2.4 CHEMICAL ANALYSIS**

162 The fat, salt and water contents were determined in the fresh muscles and hams. To
163 this end, a piece ($200\pm 50\text{g}$) was taken from each loin after obtaining the fresh muscle
164 sample for the salting process. In the case of the hams, as the sample integrity cannot
165 be altered before salting, the average values of the fat, salt and water contents were
166 obtained from 30 hams of the same breed purchased from the same supplier.

167 Once the salting finalized, the excess salt was removed from the surface of the loins
168 and hams and four cylindrical salted samples ($64\pm 13\text{g}$ for loins and $172\pm 39\text{g}$ for hams)
169 corresponding to the ultrasonic measurement points (Figure 1), were taken by using a
170 cylindrical cutter (5cm in diameter). Each cylindrical salted sample was ground and
171 homogenized before the analysis. The analyses of the fat and water contents were
172 carried out according to AOAC procedures 991.36 and 950.46, respectively (AOAC,
173 1997). The salt content was analyzed following the process described by De Prados,
174 García-Pérez, and Benedito (2015 and 2016). All the analyses were performed in
175 triplicate.

176 The salt (X_S), water (X_W) and fat (X_F) contents of the fresh samples and the salted loin
177 and ham cylinders were expressed as percentages (%) in wet basis (w.b.). The final
178 salt gain (ΔX_S) and the water loss (ΔX_W) were also calculated as an average of the four
179 cylindrical samples from the loins and hams at each salting time.

180 **2.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT OF PREDICTIVE MODELS**

181 The influence of the salting time on the ΔX_S , ΔX_W , Δe and ΔTOF in loins and hams was
182 evaluated by means of an analysis of variance. Similarly, the analysis of variance was
183 carried out in order to determine the significant influence of the type of transducer (TA
184 and TB) on the final ΔTOF value during salting. Additionally, a multiple regression
185 model was used to evaluate the influence of the salting time, ΔX_S , ΔX_W and Δe on the
186 ΔTOF . In every case, the Statgraphics® Centurion XV (Statpoint Technologies Inc.,
187 Warrenton, VA, USA) software was used and a significance level of 95% was fixed.

188 The ultrasonic (ΔTOF and TOF_0) and sample parameters (weight, w_g) and salting time
189 (t) were used as independent variables so as to predict the salt gain (ΔX_S) in loins and
190 hams. For that purpose, both the loins and hams were split into two sets; a model set
191 (M) and a validation set (V). The model set (M) included 15 loins and 7 hams, chosen

192 randomly. Their ultrasonic measurement points ($n_{ump}=60$ for loins and 28 for hams)
193 were used to develop multiple regression models with the Statgraphics® Centurion XV
194 (Statpoint Technologies Inc., Warrenton, VA, USA). The optimal number of
195 independent variables and the interactions in the model were obtained using the
196 Marquardt method. The p-value used to keep the independent variables in the model
197 was 0.05. The validation set included 5 loins ($n_{ump}=20$) and 3 hams ($n_{ump}=12$). The
198 overall classification capacity was tested using the optimal model for salt gain
199 prediction. For this purpose, loins and hams and their corresponding ultrasonic
200 measurement points from sets M and V were classified into three different categories.
201 Loins with a salt content of $<2.5\%$ w.b. were considered to have a low level of salt,
202 those with a salt content of $>4.0\%$ w.b. a high level of salt and the remaining ones to
203 have a moderate level of salt. For hams, three categories were also considered (low
204 $<2.0\%$ w.b., medium 2.0-3.0% w.b. and high $>3.0\%$ w.b. salt content level). The levels
205 of salt in loins were higher than in hams due to the fact that the loins are not as thick as
206 hams, so actually, they tend to be saltier.

207 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

208 **3.1 FRESH SAMPLE CHARACTERIZATION**

209 As shown in Table 1, a similar initial salt content (X_S) was observed in loins and hams.
210 However, significant differences ($p<0.05$) were found between the fat (X_F) and water
211 (X_W) contents in fresh loins and hams, the fat content being greater in hams than in
212 loins. The ranges of X_F , X_S , and X_W found in the present study (Table 1) coincide with
213 the ones reported for *Large White* breed loins (*Longissimus dorsi*) and hams in the
214 literature (Cierach & Modzelewska-Kapituła, 2011; Moreiras, Carbajal, Cabrera, &
215 Cuadrado, 2013). Additionally, a high degree of variability was found in the X_F (0.3-
216 6.1% w.b. for loins and 7.5-26.4% w.b. for hams) and X_W (67.9-75.6% w.b. for loin and
217 56.3-70.2% w.b. for ham) compared to the that observed in the X_S (0.10-0.26% w.b. for

218 loins and 0.16-0.33% for hams), which is especially evident in the case of hams (Table
219 1). This compositional variability, especially the fat content and its distribution, should
220 be considered when designing the salting process due to the fact that it may affect the
221 mass transfer (salt gain and water lost) during salting (Cierach & Modzelewska-
222 Kapituła, 2011; De Prados, García-Pérez, & Benedito, 2015).

223 **3.2 COMPOSITIONAL CHANGES DURING DRY-SALTING**

224 Figure 2 illustrates the kinetics of salt gain and water loss in loins and hams during dry
225 salting. The ΔX_S values in the present work were slightly lower than the ones reported
226 by other studies. For example, De Prados, García-Pérez, and Benedito (2016) reported
227 a salt gain of between 2.1 and 6.7% w.b. in loins salted from 6 to 48h. When studying
228 hams that had been dry salted for between 2 and 16 days, Fulladosa, Muñoz, Serra,
229 Arnau, and Gou (2015) and Håseth, Sørheim, Høy, and Egelandsdal (2012) found a
230 salt content ranging from 0.8 to 4.8% w.b. and from 1.2 to 4.5% w.b., respectively. This
231 lower salt gain could be explained by considering that other authors reported the salt
232 content as an average of the whole piece. However, in the present study, the salt gain
233 shown represents the average value between the four cylindrical samples
234 corresponding to the four ultrasonic measurement points of the cushion zone of the
235 ham (Figure 1), which is its thickest part and where the salt diffusion takes longer
236 (Toldrá & Wai-Kit, 2008; Håseth, Sørheim, Høy, & Egelandsdal, 2012). On the other
237 hand, the ΔX_S and ΔX_W in loins and hams showed a marked experimental variability,
238 especially the ΔX_W (Figure 2). As previously mentioned, salting is a complex process
239 affected by the different process variables (temperature, size of coarse salt, quantity of
240 salt, position in the salt pile, salting time...) and the high degree of compositional
241 heterogeneity of the meat pieces. In this study, the process variables were accurately
242 controlled and the pieces (loins and hams) were individually salted (not pile salted).
243 Thus, this great variability in the ΔX_S and ΔX_W could be mainly ascribed to the highly
244 heterogeneous nature of the fresh meat pieces in terms of the content and distribution

245 of the water, fat and connective tissue, among other things. This fact is more relevant
246 in hams due to the presence of both the skin and bone and also to that of different
247 muscles with a greater degree of heterogeneity than in single muscles.

248 **3.3 ULTRASONIC MONITORING OF THE DRY SALTING PROCESS**

249 A gradual decrease of the TOF during salting was found. As an example, Figure 3
250 shows the displacement in the time domain of the ultrasonic signal from the position at
251 time 0 to the one captured after 30 days of salting. As observed, the ultrasonic signal
252 after 30 days is displaced to the left (Figure 3), which illustrates a shortening of the
253 TOF. This could be explained by the fact that ultrasound travels faster in solids, with a
254 high elastic modulus (Benedito, Cárcel, Clemente, & Mulet, 2000), than in liquids
255 (water). Thus, the increase in the solid content during salting, as a result of the salt
256 gain and water loss, leads to an increase in the sample's ultrasonic velocity, and
257 thereby, a decrease in the TOF. When analyzing different kinds of samples (water, fish,
258 juice and meat), several studies have reported an increase in the ultrasonic velocity in
259 line with an increase in the solid content (Kinsler, Frey, Coppens, & Sanders, 1982;
260 McClements, 1995; Ghaedian, Coupland, Decker, & McClements, 1998; Kuo, Sheng, &
261 Ting, 2008; De Prados, García-Pérez, & Benedito, 2015 and 2016).

262 Figure 4 illustrates the evolution of the Δ TOF in loins and hams during different salting
263 experiments (24, 72h for loins and 11, 20 days for hams). The same behavior (data not
264 shown) was observed in the remaining experiments (6, 12 and 48h dry salting of loins
265 and 4, 7, 10, 12, 14, 15, 16 and 30 days' dry salting of hams). As can be appreciated,
266 the Δ TOF decreased gradually due to the above mentioned increase in the solid
267 content of the sample. This result is consistent with the increase in the salt content and
268 the decrease in the water content in loins and hams during dry salting, as observed in
269 Figure 2. The Δ TOF evolution was different for each ultrasonic measurement point
270 corresponding to the different transducers (TA_1 , TA_2 , TB_1 and TB_2) (Figure 4). This fact

271 could be linked to the heterogeneity of the compositional changes (ΔX_s and ΔX_w) at
272 each ultrasonic measurement point during salting, which was especially evident in the
273 ham salting experiments (Figure 2). Non-significant ($p>0.05$) differences were
274 observed in the Δ TOF evolution between type TA and TB transducers (Figure 4).
275 Therefore, both types of transducers could be considered equivalent for the purposes
276 of monitoring the salting process.

277 An unexpected, fast decrease in the Δ TOF was observed during the first few hours of
278 dry salting (Figure 4) for both loins and hams, which was not coherent with the kinetics
279 for salt and water diffusion (Figure 2). Similar behavior was observed in the evolution of
280 the ultrasonic velocity in *Longissimus dorsi* and *Biceps femoris* during dry salting (De
281 Prados, García-Pérez, & Benedito, 2016). De Prados, García-Pérez, and Benedito
282 (2016) associated this behavior with the formation of a salt solution between the
283 transducers and the meat, due to the initial extraction of water from the external meat
284 layers, which could partly explain the important decrease in the Δ TOF during the first
285 3h, as may be observed in Figure 4. Additionally, the fast initial Δ TOF could also be
286 associated with the textural changes that take place on the meat surface due to the
287 effect of the salt in contact with the sample. Thus, a test was conducted in order to
288 prove this hypothesis. Two loins (1kg) were salted for 1 and 3h, respectively and the
289 hardness, characterized as the maximum penetration force (N), was evaluated in each
290 loin before and after salting. Penetration test was conducted with a 6mm flat cylinder
291 probe, a crosshead speed of 1mm/s and strain of 20% (penetration distance of 10mm).
292 The results showed that, after 1 and 3h, the salted loins were significantly ($p<0.05$)
293 harder (14.7 ± 1.8 N at 1h and 21.4 ± 3.4 N at 3h) than the fresh ones (8.6 ± 4.0 N). Ruiz-
294 Ramírez, Arnau, Serra, and Gou (2005) related the increase in hardness with the
295 increase in the salt content in the dry cured pork muscles (*Biceps femoris* and
296 *Semimembranosus*). This increase in hardness was linked to the compaction of the
297 myofibrillar structure due to the salt content and an inhibitory effect of salt on the

298 calpains activity (Ruiz-Ramírez, Arnau, Serra, & Gou, 2005; Lorenzo, Fonseca,
299 Gómez, & Domínguez, 2015). Thus, the salt gain and water loss that takes place in the
300 external meat layers during the first few hours gives rise to a great increase in the salt
301 concentration in these layers, leading to a rapid surface textural increase which would
302 explain the fast decrease in the Δ TOF.

303 The TOF and velocity measurements have been used to monitor other food processes.
304 Thus, Sigfusson, Ziegler, and Coupland (2001 and 2004) monitored the cooling and
305 freezing process in different food products by measuring the TOF by means of the
306 pulse-echo mode. Recently, De Prados, García-Pérez, and Benedito (2016) monitored
307 the meat dry salting process online. In that work, the ultrasonic velocity was measured
308 online in *Longissimus dorsi* and *Biceps femoris* by using the through-transmission
309 mode, where the sample's thickness had to be measured and two transducers were in
310 direct contact with two opposite and parallel sides of the sample (De Prados, García-
311 Pérez, & Benedito, 2016). This fact complicates the implementation of ultrasonic
312 technology in the meat industry where pile salting is used. On the contrary, in the
313 present study, the ultrasonic measurements were taken in loins and hams by using the
314 pulse-echo mode, which is characterized by the use of a single transducer and the
315 sample's thickness does not have to be measured. The use of a single transducer on
316 the loin or ham's base during pile salting would simplify the industrial implementation,
317 reduce the cost of the device and minimize the impact of the ultrasonic measurement
318 on the mass transfers (salt and water).

319 Therefore, the results reported in this section confirm that the Δ TOF measured by
320 using the pulse-echo mode could be a useful ultrasonic parameter for the purposes of
321 performing the online monitoring of the salting process in individual loins (average
322 thickness 5.0cm), as well as in more complex and thicker meat pieces, such as hams
323 (average thickness 15.7cm). Additionally, the ultrasonic pulse-echo technique
324 represents a significant improvement for the industrial application of the system

325 compared to the ultrasonic through-transmission technique due to the fact that it avoids
326 the need to measure the sample thickness and the number of transducers required is
327 reduced.

328 **3.4 INFLUENCE OF THE DRY SALTING ON THE TIME OF FLIGHT**

329 Table 2 shows the thickness reduction (Δe), salt gain (ΔX_S), water loss (ΔX_W) and time
330 of flight variation (ΔTOF) in loins and hams during dry salting at 2°C. As appreciated in
331 Table 2, the longer the salting time, the higher the ΔTOF . Thus, the ΔTOF increased in
332 loins from $-2.7\mu s$ (6h) to $-7.0\mu s$ (72h) and in hams from $-5.5\mu s$ (4 days) to $-17.6\mu s$ (30
333 days) (Table 2). As previously mentioned, and as observed in Table 2, the ΔTOF
334 during salting was related to the ΔX_S and ΔX_W in the samples (loins and hams).
335 Overall, the higher the ΔX_S and ΔX_W , the higher the ΔTOF . In addition, water loss
336 during salting leads to meat shrinkage (García-Gil, Muñoz, Santos-Garcés, Arnau, &
337 Gou, 2014), and thus, to thickness reduction (Δe) (Table 2), which could also contribute
338 to shortening the time of flight. Despite the fact that the ΔX_W and Δe factors affect
339 ΔTOF , the multiple regression model used showed that both factors were statistically
340 non-significant ($p>0.05$) on the ΔTOF prediction, which can be attributed to the fact that
341 the magnitude of the individual effect of these factors can be masked by their highly
342 variable nature in the salting process. Thus, according to the statistical analysis, the
343 ΔTOF is mainly related to the salt gain in the sample during salting.

344 Previous results have shown a similar relationship between the ΔX_S and the change of
345 the ultrasonic velocity regardless of the sample nature (formulated samples from
346 ground pork meat, pork muscles or water solution) (De Prados et al., 2015).
347 Consequently, as velocity of ultrasound in a sample is the ratio between the sample
348 thickness (e) and the TOF, the ΔX_S must be related not only to the ΔTOF , but also to
349 the initial sample thickness and the thickness change (Δe). As far as in the present
350 work the effect of Δe on ΔX_S has been found to be negligible, the models for predicting

351 ΔX_S should consider both ΔTOF and the initial e . As an example of the need of
352 considering the initial sample thickness, it can be observed that the ΔTOF was $-3.3\mu s$
353 in loins ($e_{avg}= 5.0cm$) for a ΔX_S of 2.5% w.b. after 12h of salting, while the ΔTOF was -
354 $11.2\mu s$ in hams ($e_{avg}=15.7cm$) for a similar ΔX_S (2.2% w.b.) after 14 days of salting.
355 However, when the $\Delta TOF/e$ was computed for these two cases, a similar value was
356 found for loins ($-0.7\mu s/cm$) and hams ($-0.8\mu s/cm$). Since measuring the thickness
357 before salting could be complex on an industrial scale, the initial time of flight (TOF_0),
358 related to the sample thickness and velocity of sound in the raw meat, could be used.

359 **3.5 PREDICTIVE MODELS FOR SALT GAIN AND CLASSIFICATION OF LOINS** 360 **AND HAMS**

361 Since the ΔTOF is related to the salt content and the TOF_0 is related to the initial
362 thickness, both ultrasonic parameters (ΔTOF and TOF_0) were used as factors with
363 which to develop predictive models for the salt gain. The ultrasonic measurement
364 points of the M set were used to develop the predictive models as mentioned in section
365 2.5. Eq.1 and Eq.2 show the best models obtained for the salt gain estimation in loins
366 and hams by combining the two ultrasonic variables (ΔTOF and TOF_0) from the pulse-
367 echo measurements. The R^2 and RMSE were 0.787 and 0.73% for loins (Eq.1) and
368 0.774 and 0.57% for hams (Eq.2). Additionally, other predictive models were
369 established, including two variables which can be easily measured at industrial level:
370 one regarding the sample (the initial weight, wg) and the other one related to the salting
371 process (the salting time, t) (Eq.3 for loin and Eq.4 for ham). The inclusion of t and wg
372 provided additional information that improved the predictive models, obtaining a
373 reduced model error (RMSE=0.45% for loins using Eq.3 and 0.43% for hams using Eq.
374 4) and an increase in the determination coefficient ($R^2= 0.923$ for loins and 0.891 for
375 hams). Similar results were obtained by Fulladosa, Muñoz, Serra, Arnau, and Gou
376 (2015) and Håseth et al. (2008) using X-Rays. In these studies, the salt prediction was

377 more accurate than in the present analysis, the RMSE being 0.30% for hams of
 378 different breeds (Fulladosa, Muñoz, Serra, Arnau, & Gou, 2015) and 0.20-0.40% for
 379 ground pork *Semimembranosus* muscles (Håseth et al., 2008).

$$\text{LOIN} \quad \Delta X_s = 3.524 - 0.0039 \cdot \text{TOF}_0^2 - 0.0255 \cdot \text{TOF}_0 \cdot \Delta \text{TOF} \quad \text{Eq.1}$$

$$\text{HAM} \quad \Delta X_s = 0.253 - 0.0003 \cdot \text{TOF}_0^2 - 0.0125 \cdot \Delta \text{TOF}_0 - 0.0066 \cdot \text{TOF}_0 \cdot \Delta \text{TOF} \quad \text{Eq.2}$$

$$\text{LOIN} \quad \Delta X_s = 1.568 + 0.143 \cdot t - 0.0010 \cdot t^2 - 0.0414 \cdot \Delta \text{TOF}^2 + 0.0431 \cdot t \cdot \text{wg} \\ - 0.0034 \cdot t \cdot \text{TOF}_0 - 0.0107 \cdot t \cdot \Delta \text{TOF} \quad \text{Eq.3}$$

$$\text{HAM} \quad \Delta X_s = -39.051 + 0.140 \cdot t - 0.00003 \cdot t^2 + 3.550 \cdot \text{wg} - 0.00004 \cdot \text{TOF}_0^2 - 0.0120 \cdot t \cdot \text{wg} \\ + 0.0001 \cdot t \cdot \text{TOF}_0 + 0.00004 \cdot t \cdot \Delta \text{TOF} \quad \text{Eq.4}$$

380 where ΔX_s is the salt gain (% w.b.), t the salting time (h), wg the initial sample weight
 381 (kg), TOF_0 the initial time of flight (μs) and ΔTOF the time of flight variation (μs).

382 The usefulness of ultrasound as a reliable method of classifying loins and hams
 383 according to the different levels of salt gain was tested by using the best predictive
 384 models (Eq.1, Eq.2, Eq.3 and Eq.4). For that purpose, the validation (V) and model (M)
 385 sets of the whole loins and hams and each ultrasonic measurement point were
 386 classified into three different categories of salt gain (ΔX_s), as mentioned in section 2.5.
 387 Similar percentages of correctly classified samples (CC) at the ultrasonic measurement
 388 points (79% in loins and 75% in hams) and in the whole pieces (85% in loins and 90%
 389 in hams) were computed (Table 3) by using only the ultrasonic parameters (Eq.1 and
 390 2). On the other hand, the classification improved by using Eqs.3 and 4, especially in
 391 the case of loins (Table 3). In this regard, the percentage of CC ultrasonic
 392 measurement points increased from 79% to 86% for loins and from 75% to 78% for
 393 hams. In the case of whole loins, the percentage of CC samples increased from 85% to
 394 95% whereas no improvement was found for whole hams.

395

396 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

397 The gradual shortening of the time of flight during the dry salting of loins and hams was
398 mainly related to the salt gain. 85% of the loins and 90% of the hams were correctly
399 classified by using predictive models based on the ultrasonic parameters. A slight
400 improvement in the percentage of correctly classified samples was achieved in loins
401 (95%) with the inclusion of the sample's weight and salting time in the predictive model.
402 Therefore, the ultrasound pulse-echo mode could be a useful technique for continuous
403 dry salting monitoring, as well as for the salt gain prediction for classification purposes.
404 In addition, the pulse-echo technique is characterized by the use of a single transducer
405 on one side of the sample, which facilitates the industrial implementation of this non-
406 destructive technique compared to the through-transmission mode.

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Figure 1. Experimental set-up for online ultrasonic measurements in loins and hams during dry salting.

Figure 2. Experimental kinetics of salt gain (ΔX_s) and water loss (ΔX_w) in loins and hams during dry salting at 2°C.

Figure 3. Variation of the time of flight (ΔTOF) between the first and last ultrasonic signals captured in a ham dry salted for 30 days at 2°C.

Figure 4. Time of flight variation (ΔTOF) in loins (**A** and **B**) and hams (**C** and **D**) during dry salting (24-72h for loins and 11-20 days for hams) at 2°C. Each series corresponds to a different ultrasonic measurement point (TA_1 , TA_2 , TB_1 and TB_2).

Figure 1

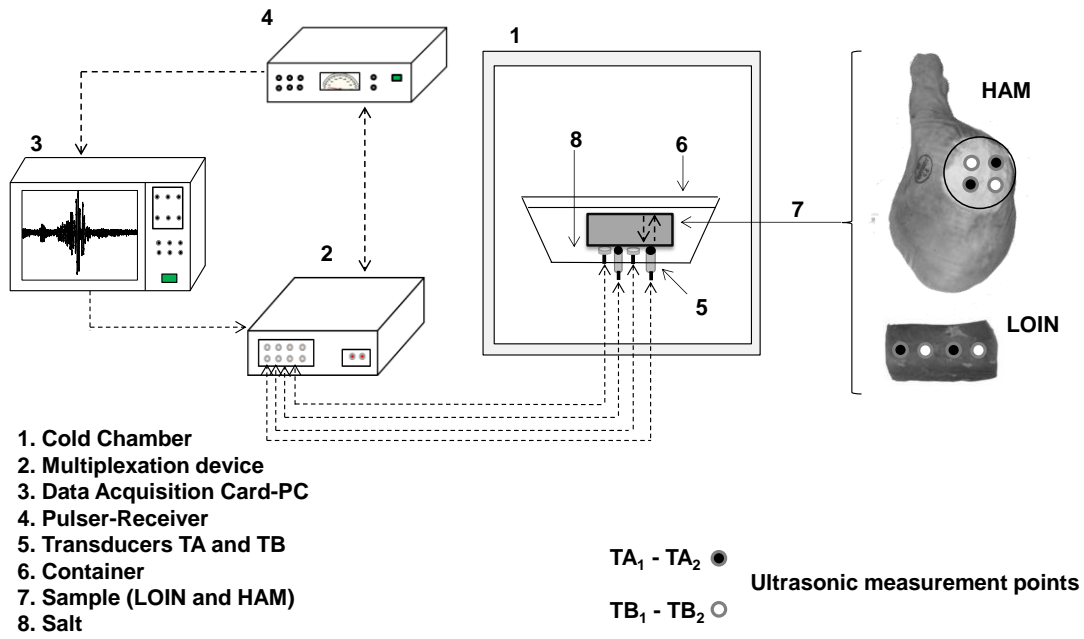


Figure 2

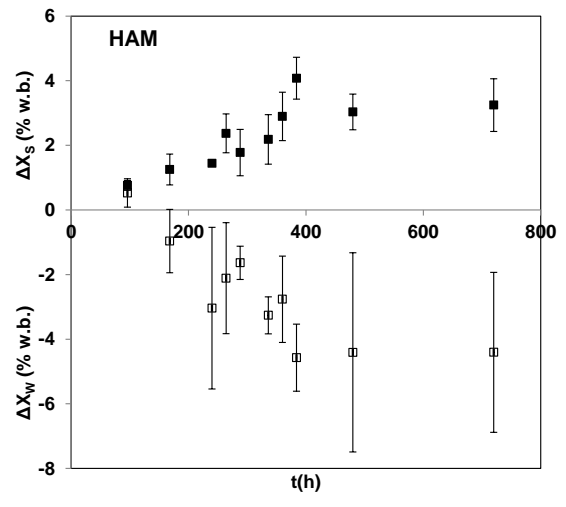
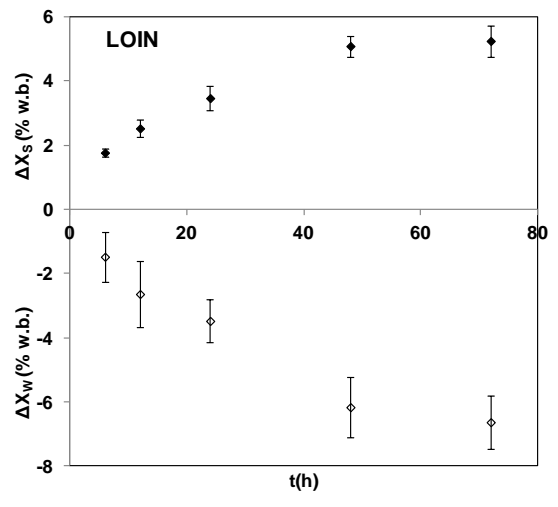


Figure 3

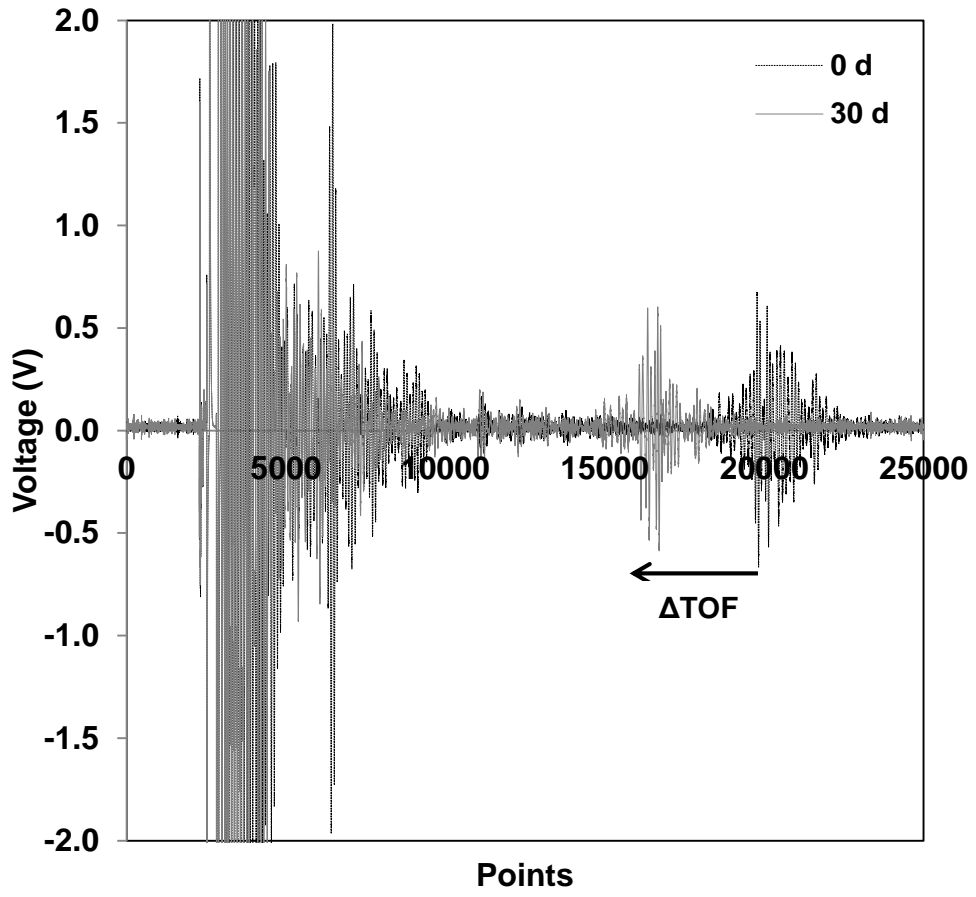


Figure 4

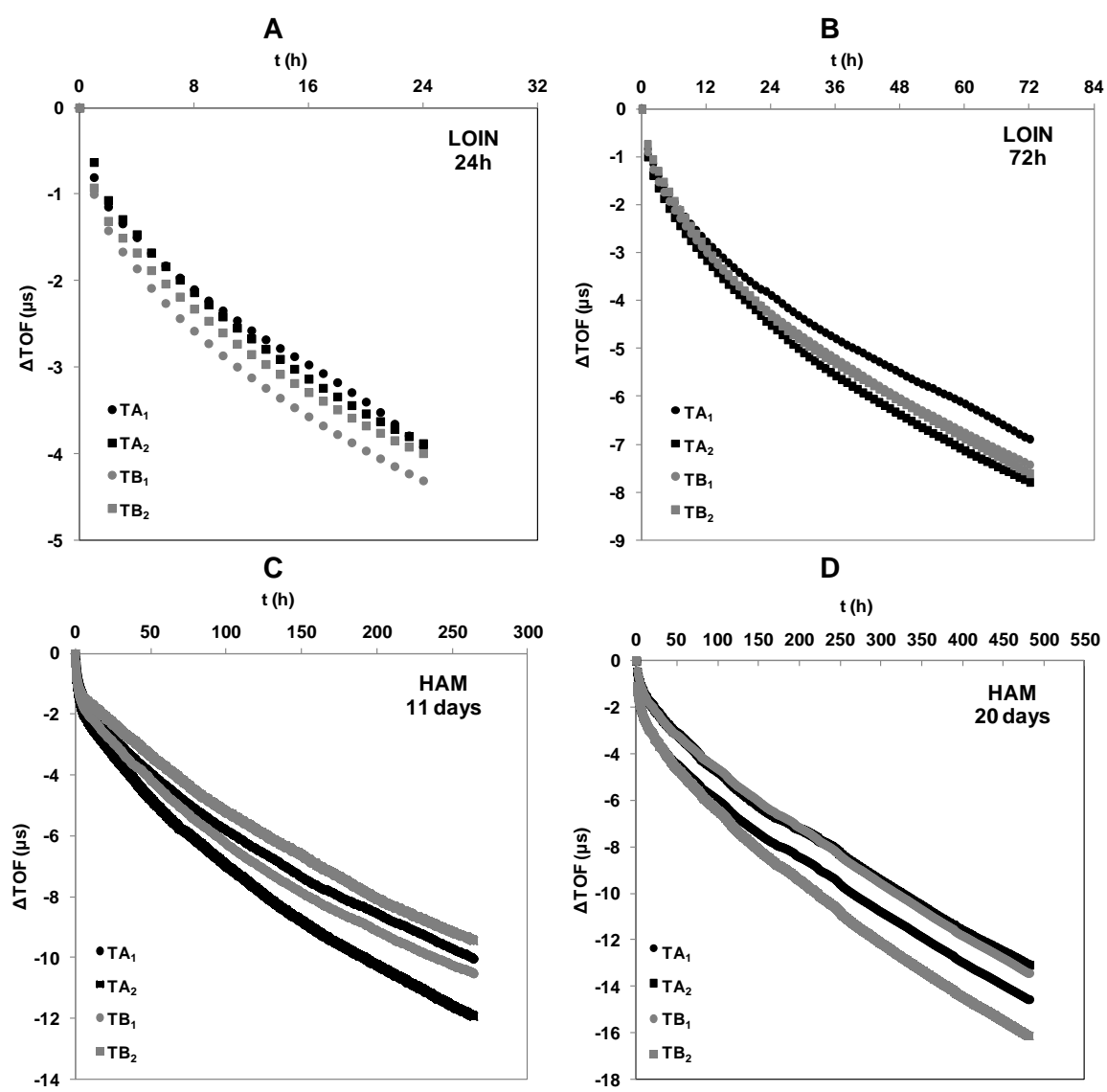


Table 1. Fat (X_F), water (X_W) and salt content (X_S), thickness (e), width (z), length (l) and weight (wg) of the fresh loins and hams*.

	LOINS	HAMS
X_F (% w.b.)	2.4±1.9 ^a	14.0±3.7 ^{b*}
X_W (% w.b.)	72.7±2.1 ^c	65.5±2.9 ^{d*}
X_S (% w.b.)	0.18±0.05 ^e	0.23±0.05 ^{e*}
e (cm)	5.0±0.8 ^f	15.7±0.6 ^g
z (cm)	11.0±0.8 ^j	27.8±2.8 ⁱ
l (cm)	20.0±2.0 ^j	49.4±6.0 ^k
wg (kg)	1.0±0.1 ^l	10.3±0.9 ^m

Mean values and standard deviations.

Different letters in the same row indicate significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between loins and hams.

* Average values and standard deviations of 30 fresh *Large White* breed hams .

Table 2. Salt gain (ΔX_S), water loss (ΔX_W), thickness reduction (Δe) and time of flight variation (ΔTOF) in loins and hams during dry salting at 2°C.

SAMPLE	TIME	Δe(cm)	ΔX_S (% w.b.)	ΔX_W (% w.b.)	ΔTOF (μs)
LOIN	6h	-0.23±0.58 ^a	1.8±0.2 ^a	-1.5±1.5 ^a	-2.7±0.8 ^a
	12h	-0.47±0.99 ^a	2.5±0.5 ^b	-2.6±1.9 ^b	-3.3±0.6 ^b
	24h	-0.24±0.45 ^a	3.5±0.7 ^c	-3.5±1.2 ^b	-4.6±1.0 ^c
	48h	-1.15±0.59 ^a	5.1±0.6 ^d	-6.2±1.8 ^c	-6.0±0.7 ^d
	72h	-0.45±0.48 ^a	5.3±0.9 ^d	-6.6±1.6 ^c	-7.0±0.9 ^e
HAM	4 days	-1.71±0.49 ^{abc}	0.8±0.1 ^a	0.5±0.3 ^a	-5.5±0.5 ^a
	7 days	-1.36±0.27 ^{bc}	1.3±0.3 ^{ab}	-1.0±0.6 ^b	-8.8±0.8 ^{bc}
	10 days	-1.28±1.88 ^{bc}	1.4±0.1 ^b	-3.0±1.5 ^{de}	-8.0±1.0 ^b
	11 days	-1.17±0.63 ^{bc}	2.4±0.4 ^{de}	-2.1±1.1 ^{bcd}	-10.3±1.3 ^{cd}
	12 days	-0.40±0.50 ^c	1.8±0.5 ^{bc}	-1.6±0.3 ^{bc}	-11.0±1.5 ^d
	14 days	-0.93±0.49 ^{bc}	2.2±0.5 ^{cd}	-3.3±0.4 ^{de}	-11.2±1.0 ^d
	15 days	-2.88±1.31 ^a	2.9±0.5 ^{ef}	-2.8±0.8 ^{cd}	-13.1±1.5 ^e
	16 days	-2.18±0.89 ^{ab}	4.1±0.4 ^g	-4.6±0.7 ^f	-14.2±0.4 ^e
	20 days	-5.15±1.24 ^d	3.0±0.3 ^f	-4.4±1.9 ^{ef}	-14.3±1.4 ^e
30 days	-4.75±1.27 ^d	3.2±0.5 ^f	-4.4±1.6 ^{ef}	-17.6±0.5 ^f	

Average values and standard deviations.

Table 3

Table 3. Classification of loins and hams according to different levels of salt gain (ΔX_S) by using the best predictive models (Eqs.1 and 3 for loins and Eqs.2 and 4 for hams).

		Ultrasonic measurement points				Whole loins						
		CC for different levels of ΔX_S (% w.b.)				CC for different levels of ΔX_S (% w.b.)						
		n_{UMP}	<2.5	2.5-4.0	>4.0	TOTAL	n_S	<2.5	2.5-4.0	>4.0	TOTAL	
LOINS	Eq.1	M	60	11/19 (58%)	15/17 (88%)	23/24 (96%)	63/80 (79%)	15	3/4 (75%)	4/5 (80%)	6/6 (100%)	17/20 (85%)
		V	20	4/5 (80%)	4/6 (67%)	6/9 (67%)		5	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	2/3 (67%)	
	Eq.3	M	60	16/19 (84%)	14/17 (82%)	24/24 (100%)	69/80 (86%)	15	4/4 (100%)	5/5 (100%)	6/6 (100%)	19/20 (95%)
		V	20	5/5 (100%)	4/6 (67%)	6/9 (67%)		5	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	2/3 (67%)	
		Ultrasonic measurement points				Whole hams						
		CC for different levels of ΔX_S (% w.b.)				CC for different levels of ΔX_S (% w.b.)						
		n_{UMP}	<2.0	2.0-3.0	>3.0	TOTAL	n_S	<2.0	2.0-3.0	>3.0	TOTAL	
HAMS	Eq.2	M	28	9/12 (75%)	6/9 (67%)	6/7 (86%)	30/40 (75%)	7	2/3 (67%)	2/2 (100%)	2/2 (100%)	9/10 (90%)
		V	12	4/6 (67%)	3/4 (75%)	2/2 (100%)		3	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	
	Eq.4	M	28	10/12 (83%)	5/9 (56%)	7/7 (100%)	31/40 (78%)	7	2/3 (67%)	2/2 (100%)	2/2 (100%)	9/10 (90%)
		V	12	5/6 (83%)	2/4 (50%)	2/2 (100%)		3	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	1/1 (100%)	

M and V refer to the model and validation set, respectively.

n_{UMP} and n_S are the number of ultrasonic measurement points (UMP) and samples (S) in each set.

CC represents the correctly classified samples and is expressed as the percentage of correctly classified n_{UMP} or n_S (in parenthesis/brackets) and as the ratio between the correctly classified and total n_{UMP} or n_S for each level of salt gain.

