

MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF MEAT

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Introduction

The tenderness of meat, and its texture in general, are important factors in the consumer's choice. In the absence of any direct measurement of the tenderness of the muscles, the potential tenderness of meat is judged on the basis of anatomical criteria, such as the type of muscle and the location of carcasses. However, these criteria do not provide a sufficiently clear indication of this potential, which is of great importance, for it is in particular, since it dictates not only the commercial value of the meat but also the manner in which it will be treated (the type of processing required, whether it will be tenderised, or processed). Consequently, it is of great interest to find a reliable means of accurately measuring meat tenderness. This property can vary greatly between animals and also depends on rearing and slaughtering methods and on the way the meat is processed and marketed. There are thus large differences in the tenderness of commercially available meat, even in muscles belonging to the same category as still shown recently by MORGAN *et al.*, (1991). In addition, new developments in production and transformation techniques, such as the breeding of leaner animals, the use of anabolic substances, drastic refrigeration conditions and a more rapid commercialisation, have, to varying degrees, had a harmful effect on meat tenderness (SMULDERS *et al.*, 1991).

Tenderness can be defined as the ease, perceived by the consumer, with which meat structure is disorganised during mastication. Although tenderness cannot be strictly defined in physical terms it involves the aptitude of meat to be sheared, compressed and ground during consumption and therefore depends directly on the mechanical properties of the muscles. Hence mechanical methods were widely used to determine tenderness. The various devices developed have been described in several detailed reviews (SZCZESNIAK and PRIGESON, 1965 ; STANLEY, 1976 ; VOISEY, 1976 ; HARRIS and SHORTOSE, 1988). For a long time, studies dealt mainly with the lack of correlation observed between results obtained with mechanical methods and those from sensory analysis. This approach had significant shortcomings since the correlation coefficients between the results of sensory and mechanical analyses varied greatly and sometimes were not significant depending on the experimental conditions and the factors responsible for variation in texture. Numerous reasons have been suggested to explain these results. For some authors (VOISEY, 1976) the discrepancies observed were due to the fact that the mechanical tests, which are generally empirical, were performed under conditions that were ill managed and far removed from those of sensory analysis. In most tests, the samples were submitted to complex strains under the effects of shearing, compression and traction which varied according to experimental conditions with far lower strain rates than those encountered during mastication (BOURNE, 1977 ; TORNBERG *et al.*, 1985 ; PRÖSCHEL and HOFMANN, 1988). The major problem, however, is that texture is a multidimensional sensory characteristic that cannot be reduced to a single mechanical parameter as was attempted in most tests used. Furthermore, the mechanisms of mastication are very complex and are governed by parameters of load, strain and strain rate that are not known (CHRISTENSEN, 1984 ; TORNBERG *et al.*, 1985).

Despite these criticisms, a recent survey (CULIOLI et LEPETIT, unpublished) involving 82 organisations, belonging to both the public and private sectors, and working in the fields of meat production, quality control and processing, showed that the most widely used mechanical method is the Warner-Bratzler test, an empirical technique developed more than 60 years ago (WARNER, 1928). This test, which has a 80% satisfaction rate, remains the main reference. It is used in parallel with sensory and consumer panels to determine acceptability thresholds for meat (SHACKERFOLD *et al.*, 1991). The main other methods used to characterise the mechanical properties of meat are compression tests (36%), tensile tests (27 %), made under conditions established by STANLEY *et al.*, (1971) and BOUTON and HARRIS (1972c), penetrometry (25%), multi-blade shearing (KRAMER, 1951) and bite tests (10 %) (VOLODKOVICH, 1938). Most tests used to determine meat tenderness, therefore, have been in use for quite some time and little work has been done in recent years to devise new methods. Research has focused on a more analytical approach based on tests performed in closely controlled conditions and having a twofold objective: (i) to determine the structural causes of meat toughness and suggest possible treatments to offset defects in texture and (ii) to have a better understanding of the mechanisms and structures involved in the phenomenon of rupture caused by mastication.

The mechanical properties of meat are closely related to the characteristics of its structural components such as the extent of ageing, sarcomere length, pH and water retention in the myofibrillar structure, the amount of collagen, its cross-linking state and hence its stability, and the spatial distribution of the connective tissue. The aim of this review is to examine the information yielded by mechanical studies on the structural characteristics which influence meat tenderness.

Structural peculiarities of muscle tissue

Meat is a composite material. It is made up of several structural elements which taken together confer on the whole properties that are not possessed separately by the different components. Muscle tissue can be considered as a collection of cylindrical muscle fibres, representing about 85% of the volume, joined together by connective tissue whose mechanical resistance is provided by collagen and elastin fibres.

The muscle fibres, 10 to 100 μm in diameter and up to several centimetres in length, make up the contractile system: they contain large numbers of protein filaments orientated either in the direction of the axis or perpendicularly. Their internal structure has been described in detail by LAZARIDES (1980), STANLEY (1983), LOCKER (1984) and SQUIRE *et al.*, (1987). The connective tissue can be separated

morphologically into three separate but interlinked entities : epimysium, the outer sheath of the muscle ; perimysium, connecting the bundles of muscle fibres ; and endomysium, which encloses each muscle fibre. The last has been described as a feltwork of fibrils with no clear overall directional pattern (BORG and CAULFIELD, 1980 ; ROWE, 1989). However, SWATLAND (1981) has shown that, in the perimysium and the epimysium, the majority of collagenous fibres are wavy and form a well-ordered cross lattice at an angle to the myofibre axis. Collagenous fibres show a maximum waviness in rest length meat and any change in sarcomere length of raw meat induces a change in the waviness and orientation of these fibres. Elastin is found only in the epimysium and the perimysium (ROWE, 1986), generally in far smaller amounts than collagen except in certain muscles such as *Semitendinosus* and *Latissimus dorsi*, which have a special function in locomotion (BENDALL, 1967). Elastin forms a branched network and is composed of large fibres ($\Phi \sim 5-10 \mu\text{m}$) orientated parallel to the muscle fibres and other finer fibres ($\Phi \sim 1-2 \mu\text{m}$) orientated more or less like the large fibres (ROWE, 1986). The main difference between collagen and elastin fibres is that the former are very rigid and inextensible whereas elastin fibres are much more extensible and less rigid. They have a modulus of elasticity of 10^9 Pa and 10^6 Pa , respectively (VILHJELMSSON, 1982). In addition, unlike collagen fibres, which are greatly denatured and contracted by heating, elastin is very thermostable and its mechanical behaviour is not affected by thermal treatments.

Although the present review concentrates mainly on the fibrous structures of meat, mention should also be made of the role of water, the major constituent ($\sim 75 \%$) divided up between the intra (90 %) and extra-cellular (10 %) compartments (cf. reviews of CHOLEWICKI *et al.*, 1989 and of HONIKEL, 1989), and by the lipids. The intramuscular lipid fraction through its rheological properties and its effect on the collagen network in particular has a beneficial influence on tenderness (KOCH *et al.*, 1989). For meat to be palatable a minimum content of 3 % of lipids is needed. Reconciling nutritional and sensory requirements, some authors have even defined a minimum acceptability between 3 and 7.3 % of intramuscular lipids (SAVELL and CROSS, 1988).

The structural elements of muscle tissue are therefore mainly filamentous, and orientated. As a result meat is anisotropic, i.e. it has different physical properties according to the direction considered. This anisotropy has effects not only on mechanical properties but also on electrical (SWATLAND, 1980) and thermal properties in the frozen state, (HILL *et al.*, 1967). It also influences the flow of water (LOCKER and DAINES, 1974 ; LAROCHE, 1982 ; OFFER *et al.*, 1989). As regards mechanical properties, anisotropy results from the internal organisation of the muscle fibres as from the organisation of the connective tissue surrounding the fibres. As a consequence, in order to establish relations between the mechanical characteristics of meat and the properties of its different structural elements, it is necessary to identify not only the direction of the applied strains but also that of all the strains in the tested sample. In certain muscles the direction of the muscle fibres can be considered as the sole axis of anisotropy. However, in flat muscles or in muscles whose tendons are oriented in one direction is not the same as the direction of the muscle fibres there is at least one other axis of anisotropy (LOCKER and DAINES, 1974 ; ROWE, 1977) because the perimysial sheets are orientated preferentially in one direction. In addition to anisotropy, another structural feature determining the behaviour of meat is that certain orientated elements of the structure are in a wavy state which is modified by technological treatments, such as cooking. Consequently, during mechanical tests each structure undergoes different deformations depending on how wavy it is.

The composite and anisotropic nature of meat makes it difficult to analyse its behaviour. However, these structural features have been used in devising mechanical tests to specifically stress a given structure. Another difficulty in analysing meat lies in the existence of variations in connective tissue distribution and sarcomere length exist within each muscle and induce a large variability in the mechanical properties (SEGARD *et al.*, 1974). From the statistical relationship between the number of replicates and the precision of the measurements, DRANSFIELD and McFIE (1980) recommend to use at least 7-10 replicates for the measurement of meat properties.

3 - Influence of measuring conditions on the mechanical behaviour of meat

Among the numerous factors playing a role in mechanical test, dimensions of samples analysed and the rate of strain rate substantially influence the results of the measurements. STANLEY *et al.*, (1971) applied loads in tensile experiments on raw meat perpendicular to the myofibres and observed that the breaking strength decreased as the sample length increased. His explanation was that a fibre breaks at its weakest point, which is more likely to occur the more the sample length increases. This phenomenon is known as "weak-link" (MORTON and HEARLE, 1969). In addition, LEWIS and PURSLOW (1990) reported that when a sample of cooked meat was cut perpendicular to the muscle fibres, the breaking stress increased with the thickness of the sample in the direction perpendicular to the muscle fibres. This is because the probability of an intact perimysial ribbon being included in the specimen increases with specimen thickness. When no perimysium strands are present in the samples, the breaking stress is supported by the perimysial-endomysial junctions. The stress necessary to produce perimysial-endomysial separation is lower than that needed to break perimysium strand. In shearing tests, STANLEY (1971) showed that shear stress was proportional to the thickness of the sample up to a limit of 1 cm in meat. At greater thicknesses the shear stress reached a plateau value, owing to the difficulty of concentrating all the stress along a shearing plane in a product that is composite and thick. This difficulty is not restricted to meat samples and has also been encountered in tests with spun protein fibres (LAROCHE and SALÉ, 1976), but nevertheless depends greatly on the products tested and the measuring geometry (CULIOLI and SALÉ, 1981).

The mechanical behaviour of meat is complex, with a viscoelastic contribution, and its mechanical properties therefore depend on the rate at which strain occurs. However, the influence of strain rate in meat is only slight, whatever the test used. In tensile tests, for example, an increase in strain rate from 5 to 25 % per minute resulted in an increase of only 20 % in the resistance measured at the yield point (LOCKER and WILD, 1982). Furthermore, breaking strength in tensile tests with cooked meat did not significantly vary when strain rate was within the range of 2 to 10 % per minute, whether strain was applied parallel or perpendicular to the muscle fibres (SLOW, 1984). During sinusoidal compression of raw meat, the influence of test frequency on the maximum stress was slight and increased when the maximum strain increased. At 20 % strain, an increase in frequency by a factor of 100 produced an increase in strength by a factor of 2, whereas at 80 % strain the increase was only 1.2 (LEPETIT and SALÉ, 1985). In the same testing conditions, KAMOUN and CULIOLI (1988) showed on cooked meat that whatever the cooking temperature, the compression ratio and the directions of strains, the maximum strain rate increased only by a factor of 1.2 to 2 when the frequency increased by 100. But because of earlier ruptures at higher rates, the maximum stress was not influenced or might even slightly decrease. The influence of strain rate has also been studied in sinusoidal compression performed in harmonic range at low strains. An increase in frequency by a factor of 100 also produced an increase by about 2 in the maximum stress and elastic moduli in a frequency range of 10^{-3} -10 Hz (ALARCÓN-ROJO, 1990). These results show that it is important to clearly define the testing conditions for strain rate. However, because the influence of this factor is limited, even in a range including masticatory conditions, analysing the mechanical properties at high strains would not lead to improvements in sensory-instrumental relations, unlike it has been suggested.

Analysis of muscle fibre properties from mechanical behaviour of meat samples.

Tensile tests

Several kinds of deformation (compression, shearing, traction) have been investigated to analyse muscle fibres. When the deformations are applied parallel to the myofibre axis in a tensile test, the resulting stresses can be transmitted by the sole internal components of the myofibres without the participation either of their membranes or of the connective tissue. Thus, tensile tests have been widely used to study the mechanical properties of muscle fibres. These properties can be determined either by following the stress or strain developed in isometric and isotonic tests or by analysing the relations between stress and strain in tests in which these two parameters vary simultaneously.

With isometric tests it is possible to monitor the active properties of myofibres during *rigor* onset and their passive properties after *rigor* onset (JUNGK *et al.*, 1967; BUSCH *et al.*, 1967; LACOURT, 1972; KHAN, 1974). These tests have the advantage of not applying any load that might modify the kinetics of the phenomenon studied. However, isometric tests yield no information on the mechanical properties of meat (moduli, breaking strength) as the samples are not submitted to any strain. To overcome this, some authors (KHAN, 1974) have established relations between maximum tension developed at *rigor* and shear force determined *post rigor*.

Isotonic tests have also long been used to follow the variation in the mechanical properties of the myofibrillar structure during *rigor mortis* onset. When a muscle is submitted to isotonic tension in the direction of the myofibres, it extends and then recovers all or part of the subsequent extension once the load is released. The variation in extensibility during *rigor mortis* has been studied with varying loads: 5-25 g/cm² (MURRIE and WOLFE, 1979), 40-70 g/cm² (BENDALL, 1973), and up to 100 g/cm² (HONIKEL *et al.*, 1983). Greater stresses destroy the structure of the muscle, which does not regain its initial length after load release. However, the test conditions (stress applied, sample slack length) may have an effect on mechanical evolution *post mortem*. DRANSFIELD *et al.* (1986) showed that the greater the upper limit of the stress was the sooner *rigor mortis* occurred. Cyclic low deformation tests applied to raw *post rigor* meat must be used with caution to follow ageing. They can probably induce a fatigue of the material at low strains (LEPETIT, 1992). They are more adapted to study *rigor* onset.

It is more common to analyse stress-strain relations obtained in monotonic extension tests. BOUTON *et al.* (1975c) showed that an initial yield and a final yield can be defined on these curves and attributed to myofibre and connective tissue resistances, respectively. LOCKER and DAINES (1975b) determined a yield point using another procedure consisting in a stepwise increase in load. In these conditions the samples suddenly reach a point at which extension continues without further loading. LOCKER and WILD (1982) observed that this point varies during ageing of meat. Using an automatic loading system (Yieldmeter) they obtained yield point at an extension of 100 % (fig.1). Tension-time curves showed a well defined plateau in the case of aged meat and more specially at low extension rates. During

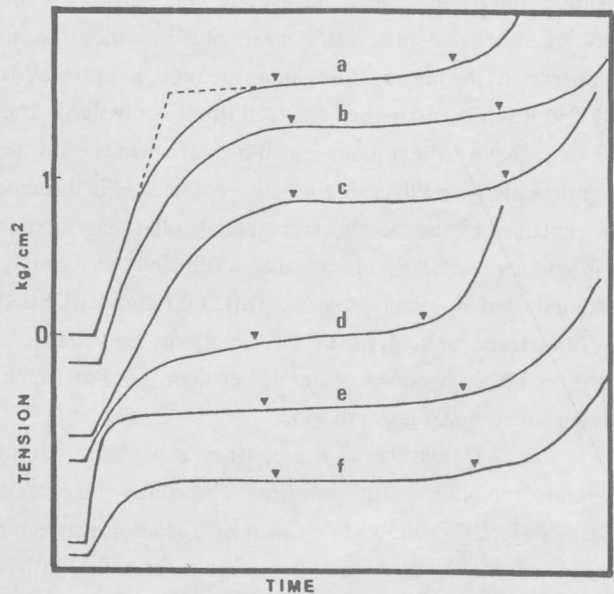


Figure 1 : Tension-time curves obtained at *rigor* (a,b,c) and after ageing during 1 day at 15°C (d,e,f). Deformation rates : 25.0 (a,d), 10.8 (b,e) and 5.4 (c, f) % / min. ▼ : 50 and 100% extension. (From Locker and Wild, 1982).

ageing the yield point decreased by a factor close to 10, from 1.2 to 1.4 kg/cm² at *rigor mortis* to a minimum value of 0.1 to 0.2 kg/cm² in the case of aged *Sternomandibularis* muscle. These authors recommended using the yield point value as an index of ageing. However, the use of the method was called into question in the case of meat that had undergone cold shortening (LOCKER and WILD, 1984), where yield force values similar to those of normal meat. In fact, this is not contradictory since the toughening caused by cold shortening is detected once the meat is cooked and is not directly linked to a lack of ageing. In contrast, the yield point of a muscle that has been in a stretched state is greater than that of a normal muscle. The yield point value increases in particular when the muscle has undergone a rigor extension greater than or equal to 1.4. Correction to bring the yield point back down to the same number of fibres per surface unit decreases but does not cancel the effect of stretching. The marked increase in the yield point observed in high pre-rigor extension was attributed by these authors not to a modification of the myofibrillar structure but to the involvement of the connective tissue (LOCKER and WILD, 1982). An initial yield was also determined by CURRIE and WOLFE (1980) in the pre-rigor phase but at a higher extension. It varied during rigor mortis onset in relation to extra-cellular space. This yield in the pre-rigor state is probably a different event from the initial yield and, according to LOCKER and WILD (1982), corresponds to some kind of failure just before the breaking of the connective tissue network.

The limit strain from which the collagen fibres are put in tension has been widely studied. According to MAGID and LAURENCE (1975) the viscoelastic properties of myofibres are mainly involved up to a 1.8 strain. LOCKER and LEET (1975) showed that isolated myofibres without any collagen can be stretched by a factor 4, whereas connective tissue limits their deformation to a factor 2. When the waviness of collagen fibres in a rest length sample was taken into account, it was shown (LEPETIT, 1991) that the fibres are put under tension at 1.65 strain. As all the collagen fibres are not in the same wavy state, some are put in tension at a lower strain. To specifically measure the properties of myofibres, mechanical tests should be performed at a much lower strain than 1.65. However, this can also influence the mechanical properties of meat determined at high strains. STANLEY *et al.* (1971) showed that breaking energy at rupture decrease during ageing, and hence reveal the mechanical properties of the muscle fibres. But the action of a collagenase was observed to reduce the breaking strength of meat samples, indicating that the connective tissue is also involved in this parameter (EINO and STANLEY, 1973).

To determine more accurately the strain at which myofibres and collagen fibres simultaneously bear stress during a tensile test, SACKS *et al.*, (1988) analysed the effect of a collagenase treatment on the stress-strain curves obtained with extension parallel to muscle fibres. The authors divided up the curve into three distinct areas (fig.2) : a first region, R1, between 0 and 13 % of deformation, a second region, R2, up to 70 % and a final one, R3, where there is rupture. None of the mechanical parameters characterising R1 was affected by the action of the collagenase whereas those of R2 and R3 were modified. The authors concluded that R1 is the region in which the mechanical properties of the muscle fibres alone are brought into play whereas in R2 and R3 the resistance of collagen fibres is involved. The strain of 13 %, above which collagen fibres start to be in tension, is significantly lower than that usually reported. This discrepancy may be explained by the fact that commercial collagenases extracted from *Clostridium histolyticum*, as that used in this study, may be contaminated by other proteases (MIYOSHI and ROSENBLOOM, 1974). Hence proteolysis of the myofibres may have caused the changes in behaviour at strains lower than those at which collagen fibres are normally under tension.

Even if myofibre characterisation is performed at low strains, certain conditions can influence measurement. DAVEY and GILBERT (1977) showed that there is a relation between the initial shape of the force-deformation curves and the distribution of sarcomere length. If a sample is contracted when it sets in rigor, only some of the fibres are involved in the contraction while the others are simply crimped (VOYLE, 1969). Consequently, only the fibres bear the initial stress, and this affects the modulus measured at low strain. Crimping of the fibres can also occur in certain muscles set in *rigor* in a state of extension. Some muscles present *post rigor* contraction when the forces maintaining the muscle are released. This phenomenon, described by ROWE (1982a, b), is due to the elastin fibres of the connective tissue (LEPETIT, 1991). In muscles which have undergone such a *post mortem* contraction, myofibres are crimped and are not involved in the mechanical resistance at low strains. So the relation between the mechanical resistance at low strains of a raw meat sample and that of its myofibres is not evident to establish.

Ageing influences not only the breaking strength of myofibres but also their viscoelastic properties which can be studied by relaxation tests. STANLEY *et al.* (1971) has shown that the parameters characteristic of relaxation curves obtained on meat are modified during ageing. The amplitude of the force decrease, in particular, is higher for aged than for rigor meat. SACKS *et al.* (1988) showed that the mechanical properties of meat are modified during ageing.

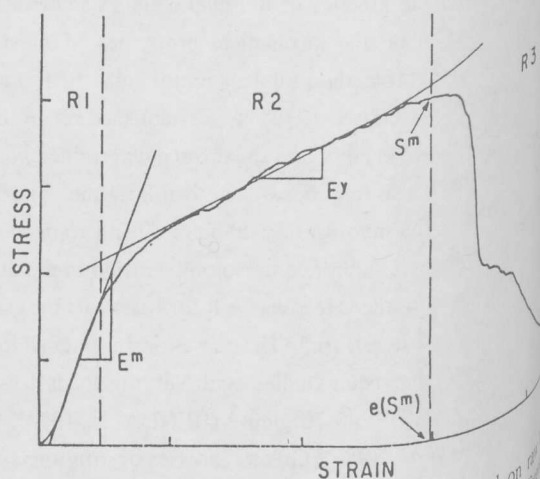


Figure 2 : A typical stress-strain curve obtained on a tensile test parallel to muscle fibres. R1, R2, R3 : different regions; E^m , E^y : moduli; S^m : maximum stress; $e(S^m)$: strain at maximum stress. (From Sacks *et al.*, 1988).

...NER *et al.* (1974), MAGID and LAW (1985) have proposed mathematical equations to model the force-time relationships. Tensile methods can still be used to follow the variation of the mechanical properties of the muscle fibres after meat has been cooked. The deformation curves can always be analysed in terms of initial yield and final yield (BOUTON *et al.*, 1975c ; LOCKER and CARSE, 1983 ; RAO and GAULT, 1990). The initial yield can however become simply an inflexion point on the curves and even be undetectable after cooking at temperatures higher than 70°C (LOCKER and CARSE, 1976). The interpretation of initial and final yields in structural terms is more ambiguous than in the case of raw meat. The extent to which the collagen network is contracted on the cooking temperature, and the effect of this network on the mechanical properties of the sample varies according to the cross-linking state. However, LOCKER *et al.*, (1983) showed that cooking conditions in which collagen was largely solubilised increased the breaking strength from 4.5 kg/cm² to 1.8 kg/cm², while the initial yield was not affected. These authors concluded that connective tissue plays no part in initial yield point. The decrease in initial yield of cooked meat is however far less than the drop in the yield of raw meat.

The peak force determined on cooked meat, although dependent on the resistance of connective tissue, fell by about one third after cooking (PURSLOW, 1991). This is due to the fact that the modifications in myofibre strength during ageing changed the mode of rupture (PURSLOW, 1991). In unaged cooked meat, owing to the high resistance of myofibres, the endomysial-perimysial junction is the first to fail at the boundaries of muscle bundles and so the ruptures cannot be transmitted from one bundle to the next. Bundles then fail individually and the collagen is the last structure to break and this induces high breaking strength. In contrast, cracking of fibre bundles is first observed in aged meat. Rupture is then transmitted perpendicularly to the myofibre from one bundle to the next because the perimysial-perimysial junction is intact and fibre bundles and perimysium fail simultaneously. As a consequence the breaking strength is much lower and lower at lower extensions. The elucidation of the mechanisms of rupture shows that, in cooked meat unlike in raw meat, there is no direct relation between the initial and final yields and the resistance of the myofibres and connective network. The relation may depend on the relative strength of each structure, which varies, in particular with ageing time and cooking conditions.

Compression tests

The first studies on the behaviour of meat in compression were made with devices with non flat compression surfaces, which made strain pattern complex. However, these tests, usually called bite tests (Volodkevich tenderometer, (VOLODKEVICH, 1938), MIRINZ tenderometer (MACFARLANE and MARER, 1966), have been used to study myofibre strength in cooked meat (DAVEY and GILBERT, 1974; RHODES *et al.*, 1972 ; DRANSFIELD *et al.*, 1980-81). It was shown in early studies (STEINER, 1939, as quoted by BATE SMITH and BENDALL, 1949) using the device of Volodkevich that compression measurements could provide evidence of meat ageing. STEINER (1939) observed that the load-displacement curves varied greatly according to the direction of the compression, along or across the grain, and were influenced by cooking. When samples were tested across the grain, STEINER (1939) concluded that muscle fibres and connective tissue both contribute to resistance, while only the latter is involved in the resistance of samples tested along the grain. SEGARDS *et al* (1974) analysed the mechanical behaviour of meat in compression, in a test in which the deformation was applied parallel to the myofibre axis. They showed that, at 20% compression, raw *M. Psoas major*, which is the most tender muscle, has the highest apparent modulus of elasticity while the *Biceps femoris* muscle has the lowest. Although not specified in their study it is likely that expected variations in sarcomere length in *Biceps femoris* muscle should be taken into account to understand the different behaviours of the two muscles. SEGARDS and MOSTETLER *et al.*, (1972) emphasised the role of transverse strain during compression tests and developed a two-dimensional mechanical model which takes into account that transverse strain.

Transverse deformations play an important role in most mechanical tests. When a sample which is not fully compressible is stressed in one direction, it deforms not only in the direction of the applied strain, but also in two other directions, called free strain directions, perpendicular to that applied strain. This makes the analysis of the mechanical behaviour of an anisotropic product complex because, according to the strain direction occurring in the sample, different mechanical properties are involved. In compression tests, it is easy to limit the strains in certain directions by using a cell with two lateral walls. When a sample is compressed in such a cell it can deform laterally in one direction only and the resulting deformation is called free strain. By varying the directions of applied and free strains the whole mechanical behaviour of an anisotropic sample can be detailed. With such a cell and with a product which has only one axis of anisotropy, three basic configurations have been defined, each one referring to a defined couple of applied and free strains (LEPETIT, 1988.) These three configurations are (fig.3) :

- Longitudinal : - applied strain perpendicular to muscle fibres and free strain parallel to muscle fibres
- Transverse : - applied and free strains perpendicular to muscle fibres
- Axial : - applied strain parallel to muscle fibres and free strain perpendicular to muscle fibres.

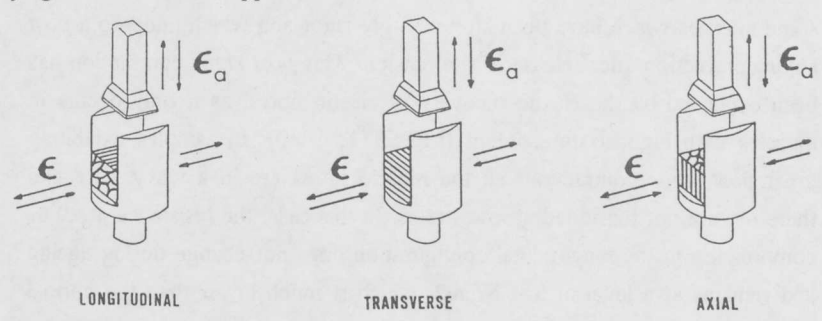


Figure 3 : Schematic representation of the 3 configurations of the compression test. ϵ_a : applied strain ; ϵ : free strain. (From Lepetit, 1988).

The behaviour of meat samples has been analysed with this cell fitted on a sinusoidal compressive device (SALÉ *et al.*, 1984). According to PELEG (1978), the deformation law of tested samples is the same whatever the sample height, which is not the case with classical testing machines, which use a defined and constant displacement rate of the probe.

In a study using these different configurations on raw meat, it was shown that, whatever the configuration, there is a critical compression ratio at which sample elasticity reaches a maximum (LEPETIT, 1988, 1989). This ratio takes different values according to the configurations used and has been called longitudinal, transverse or axial critical compression ratio. These critical compression ratios correspond to the strains at which all the fibres of the collagenous tissue are put under tension as a result of the free strain. For raw meat samples the longitudinal critical compression ratio (LCCR) is about 40%. At compression ratios below LCCR, the collagenous fibres are partially unfolded and do not produce any resistance linked to their mechanical properties. In the longitudinal configuration and for compressions lower than the LCCR, the maximum stress reached during one compression cycle is not related to the connective network resistance but depends on myofibre strength (LEPETIT and SALÉ, 1984 ; 1985). At 20 % compression, which is well below the LCCR, resistance rapidly increased during *rigor mortis* onset and decreased during ageing (LEPETIT and SALÉ, 1984, LEPETIT *et al.*, 1986 ; LEPETIT and CULIOLI, 1987). These mechanical changes are in close link with biochemical events occurring in the myofibrillar structure (fig.4). Moreover, after ageing the resistance measured at 20 % compression is similar (8 - 10 N/cm²) for all muscles in a normal contraction state (fig.5), (LEPETIT and SALÉ, 1984 ; 1985). Ageing can occur in cold-shortened meat which gives the same limit value of resistance as normal meat (LEPETIT, 1989). This is in agreement with the results of LOCKER and WILD (1984) on the yield point of raw meat determined in a tensile test. A 20% compression ratio was also used by TAKAHASHI and SAÏTO (1979), who showed that meat elasticity decreases during ageing in the same way as the detection of connective, but they did not specify the directions of the applied and free strains of the test. If meat has been stretched, ageing can always be followed by resistance at 20% compression in the longitudinal configuration, but the limit value of the resistance after ageing is increased because of the involvement of collagen fibres.

If a muscle has been stretched before *rigor mortis*, the collagenous fibres are partly unfolded and oriented more in the direction of muscle fibres (ROWE, 1974). Thus when a stretched sample is compressed in the longitudinal configuration, the collagenous fibre will take up the tension at a lower deformation (LEPETIT and SALÉ, 1987). In contrast, when a muscle has set in *rigor* in a contracted state, the collagenous fibres are stretched but oriented more perpendicularly to myofibres and therefore need higher compression ratios to be put under tension in the direction of the free strain. Consequently, the strain range in which myofibre characteristics can be determined decreases when meat is stretched and increases when meat is shortened. Elastin fibres can also interact with muscle fibres at low strains in some muscles which have been stretched pre-*rigor* and which undergo a *post rigor* contraction after release of the tension. This *post rigor* contraction has been explained by the elastic recovery of elastin fibres, as it only occurs in muscles with high elastin content (LEPETIT, 1989). In samples exhibiting great *post rigor* contraction, all the muscle fibres are in a wavy state and therefore are not tensioned at low strains. In this case, the resistance at 20 % compression in the longitudinal configuration does not change during ageing and remains at a level of 3-4 N/cm², which is much lower than the normal limit strength of muscle fibres. Although this phenomenon is unusual, it must be detected in order to avoid any misinterpretation of the data. The strain range in which the specific characteristics of myofibres can be measured

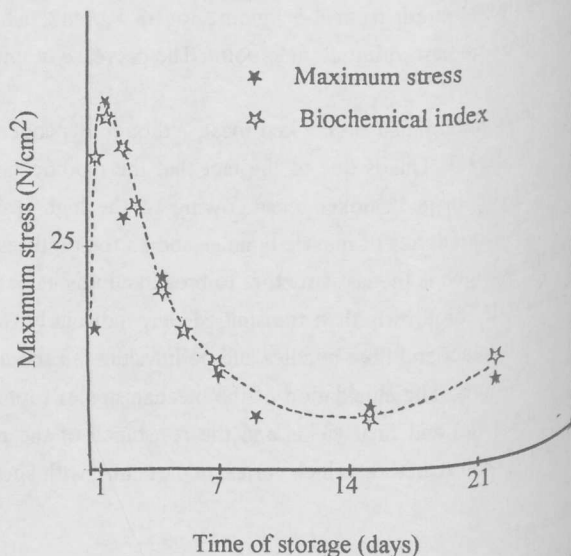


Figure 4 : Variations during storage in the maximum stress and in the biochemical index of ageing (☆). *M. Longissimus* (From Lepetit and Salé, 1984).

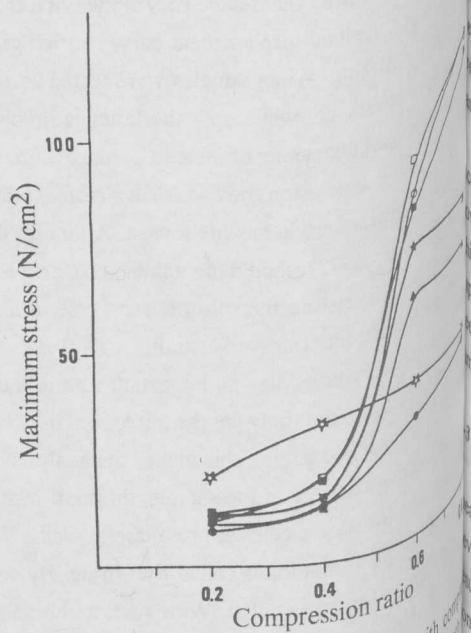


Figure 5 : Variation in maximum stress with compression ratio. Longitudinal configuration. Standard deviations in brackets : □ *Pectoralis profundus* (2.0-6.6), ■ *Biceps femoris* (1.7-1.9), ○ *Semitendinosus* (2.0-3.3), ★ *Triceps brachii* (1.7-1.9), ▲ *Semimembranosus* (1.8-2.0), ● *Longissimus dorsi* (1.8-2.0), ☆ *Psoas major* (3.2-3.8) (From Lepetit and Salé, 1985).

independently of those of collagen and elastin fibres had been determined theoretically (LEPETIT, 1991).

The transverse and axial configurations, although presenting maximum elasticity at a strain for which collagen fibres go into tension, have been shown to be unsuitable for the determination of myofibre characteristics, as the resistance measured in these configurations do not change significantly during ageing (LEPETIT, 1982 1988 1989 ; LEPETIT and CULIOLI, 1987).

The behaviour of cooked meat has also been studied in compression tests. RHODES *et al.*, (1972) analysed the load-deformation diagrams obtained during linear compression using a modified version of the device of Volodkevich that induced a zone of compression between two blunted wedges. The compression was perpendicular to the muscle fibres and the sample was held between two metal walls thereby avoiding deformation perpendicular to the muscle fibres; these conditions correspond to the definition of longitudinal configuration mentioned above. In these conditions, load-deformation curves present an initial peak at about 50-75 % which reflects essentially muscle fibre characteristics. This parameter has been used to quantify meat ageing (DRANSFIELD *et al.*, 1980-1981).

In sinusoidal compression, it has been shown that, as with raw meat, low strains in the longitudinal configuration can be used to measure muscle fibre strength in cooked meat samples (KAMOUN and CULIOLI, 1988), but only at temperatures which do not contract collagen fibres. When collagen does contract, resistance at low strains, in contrast, depends on muscle collagen content. When strain is high, stress-strain curves show a rupture which can be more or less distinct. This rupture occurs for strain that decreases during *post mortem* time in the 45 and 75 % range. Stress at break decreases *post mortem*, particularly when cooking temperatures are around 65°C (fig.6). However, it is influenced by the connective tissue (KAMOUN and CULIOLI, 1989). In contrast, the stress measured in the transverse configuration did not change during ageing denoting the resistance of connective tissue (fig.7). The authors suggested using the ratio of the maximum strains measured in the two configurations as an index of ageing for cooked meat. This ratio is independent of collagen content, and consequently of the type of muscle, and approaches a value of 1 in meat aged for a long time. However, this index may be influenced by the contraction or relaxation of the muscles as the number of fibres (myofibres and connective fibres) taking up the tension in the longitudinal test and the transverse test varies in opposite directions when the contraction state changes.

It is difficult to understand the mechanical behaviour of cooked meat because cooking modifies its compressibility. It is widely accepted that raw meat, like muscle, is incompressible (Poisson ratio $\mu = 0.5$) in the strain range corresponding to that of physiological strain. However, SEGARDS *et al.*, (1977) showed that, at 20 % strain, meat cooked to 63°C became slightly compressible ($0.20 < \mu < 0.26$), in which case the value of the Poisson ratio will determine the extent of the free strain appearing in a mechanical test in response to a strain imposed. It would be necessary therefore to know both the imposed and the free strains to determine how the different elements or structures of a sample are stressed (SEGARDS and KAPSALIS, 1976).

Shear tests
Studies on meat shearing are the most numerous in the field of meat research. Almost all have been made with the Warner-Bratzler device (WARNER, 1928) and have dealt mainly with cooked meat. The results obtained with this device often serve as a reference in comparative studies even though the mechanical significance of the parameters measured are not clearly established and have been widely criticised (VOISEY, 1976). As in tensile and compression tests, the determination of the strains imposed in relation to the myofibres influences the shear force values (MURRAY *et al.*, 1983). The most commonly used configuration is that in which the shearing plane is perpendicular to the muscle fibres. BOUTON and HARRIS (1972a), PAUL *et al.*, (1973), CROSS *et al.*, (1973) have shown that the maximum force

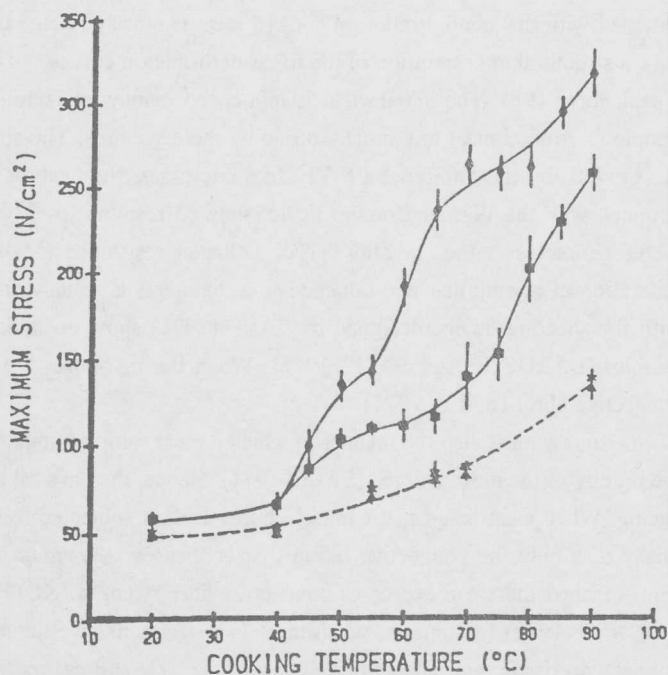


Figure 6 : Variation in maximum stress (σ_m) with cooking temperature. *Semimembranosus* muscle analysed in the longitudinal (—) and transverse (---) configurations at rigor (\blacklozenge ; \star) and after ageing (\blacksquare , \blacktriangle). Core cooking length 30 minutes. Compression ratio 0.8. (From Kamoun and Culioli, 1989).

When strain is high, stress-strain curves show a rupture which can be more or less distinct. This rupture occurs for strain that decreases during *post mortem* time in the 45 and 75 % range. Stress at break decreases *post mortem*, particularly when cooking temperatures are around 65°C (fig.6). However, it is influenced by the connective tissue (KAMOUN and CULIOLI, 1989). In contrast, the stress measured in the transverse configuration did not change during ageing denoting the resistance of connective tissue (fig.7). The authors suggested using the ratio of the maximum strains measured in the two configurations as an index of ageing for cooked meat. This ratio is independent of collagen content, and consequently of the type of muscle, and approaches a value of 1 in meat aged for a long time. However, this index may be influenced by the contraction or relaxation of the muscles as the number of fibres (myofibres and connective fibres) taking up the tension in the longitudinal test and the transverse test varies in opposite directions when the contraction state changes.

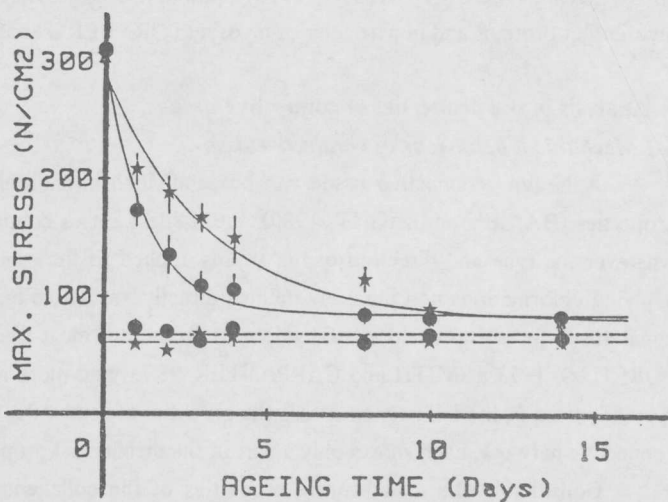


Figure 7 : Variation in maximum stress (σ_m) with ageing time at 6°C. *Semimembranosus* (\star) and *Longissimus* muscles (\bullet) core cooked 30 min. at 65°C. Longitudinal (—) and transverse (---) configurations. (From Kamoun and Culioli, 1989).

obtained with this configuration in cooked meat is closely related to the myofibrillar component of the meat. But BOUTON *et al.* (1975a) gave a structural interpretation of the force-deformation curves. As in tensile or compression tests these curves present an initial yield (YF) and a peak force (PF). The initial yield is influenced mainly by factors affecting myofibrillar structure, suggesting that the strains applied to a sample of cooked meat are initially borne by the myofibres. The strength of the connective fibres can be assessed according to BOUTON *et al.*, (1975b) by the difference PF-YF. In some cases, the analysis of peak force alone can lead to false conclusions; the maximum force obtained with the Warner-Bratzler device may correspond to either the initial or the final yield depending on how the meat is cooked, and therefore express either myofibrillar or collagen resistance (MØLLER, 1980-1981). Moreover in the case of cold-shortened meat, the separation of myofibrillar and connective components is usually difficult (BOUTON *et al.*, 1975c). The diagrams obtained on cooked meat with the shearing device designed by SALÉ (1971) show no initial yield or peak force, and stress reaches a plateau at the rupture of muscle samples (LAROCHE and SALÉ, 1976). When the myofibres are rigid, as in cooked meat, there is simultaneous shearing of muscle and connective fibres (SALÉ, 1971).

In raw meat also the manner in which a meat sample submitted to shear strain between a blade and two knives is deformed depends on the rigidity of the muscle fibres (SALÉ, 1971). Hence, the physical significance of a mechanical parameter measured during a test changes with ageing. When meat is aged, the muscle fibres are not subjected to shearing: their content is gradually pushed away from the stress zone, finally it is only the connective tissue that is sheared. Maximum force (Fm) reached therefore expresses connective fibre strength (KOPP and BONNET, 1982). In contrast, when meat is in *rigor*, muscle fibres and connective tissue are sheared simultaneously. The force measured increases more rapidly but reaches a lower maximum value, characteristic of the couple myofibres-connective tissue (fig.8). The energy (W) expended to achieve rupture decreases during ageing but depends on collagen content. Conversely, the ratio $W/(F_m \times e)$, which includes the initial thickness (e) of the samples and reflects the shape of the diagrams, is independent of the connective tissue and can be used to make a quantitative measurement of ageing (SALÉ and VALIN, 1970).

Shearing tests made on compliant composite products such as raw or cooked meat are therefore complex operations highly dependent on experimental conditions and difficult to interpret in structural terms. This could explain why results varied according to the particular fact that the shear stress of raw meat in different tests (SALÉ and VALIN, 1970; BOUTON and HARRIS, 1972b) was generally lower than that of isolated muscle fibres, i.e., completely devoid of collagen fibres (MARSDEN and HENRICKSON, 1977).

Shear tests have also been used to analyse the viscoelastic properties of meat with low shear rheometers. In this technique, meat is submitted to very low sinusoidal stress or strain between two parallel plates, making it possible to continuously monitor rheological behaviour without causing destruction of the samples. The method has been used to study raw meat properties (ALARCÓN-ROJO, 1990) and to perform thermal scanning analysis on meat slices (BOHLIN *et al.*, 1987; TORNBERG and PERSSON, 1988). Rheological parameters such as complex modulus, storage modulus and loss modulus characterise the viscous and elastic parts of rheological behaviour. They are difficult to interpret in terms of the respective properties of myofibres and collagen fibres. They are influenced neither by myofibrillar proteins nor by ageing (ALARCÓN-ROJO, 1990), although a large increase in rigidity from 55°C up to 60°C seemed to reflect the ageing of myofibrillar proteins and in particular of myosin (TORNBERG and PERSSON, 1988).

5- Analysis of the properties of connective tissue

5-1 Mechanical behaviour of connective tissue

Although connective tissue can be subdivided into different levels of organisation, which have their own chemical and mechanical properties (BAILEY and LIGHT, 1989), the tissue forms a continuum throughout a meat sample and unlike muscle fibres can be sheared whatever the type and direction of the strains applied to the samples. Thus it is possible to yield information on the mechanical properties of connective tissue by applying deformations non precisely defined directly, on whole muscle. This has led to the development with various degrees of sophistication of apparatuses for the prediction of tenderness from raw meat measurements (HINNERGARDT and TUOMY, 1970; HANSEN and PURCHAS, 1973; SMITH and CARPENTER, 1973, and more recently SHORTHORSE *et al.*, 1988; PHILLIPS, 1992). However, the apparatuses currently used in the industry to assess the potential of tenderness of muscles. Although different types of deformation can be used to assess the mechanical properties of connective network, each shows only a part of the mechanical properties of this tissue.

Considering the load bearing properties of the collagenous network in connective tissue, PURSLOW (1989) suggested that the connective network acts as a mechanism to prevent both over-stretching and over-contraction of muscle by providing rapidly very considerable resistance at some limit strains. Thus, connective tissue would be the limiting factor in the rupture of meat, whatever the internal or external forces applied. Considering the two levels of organisation involved in meat texture, the perimysium plays the major role in mechanical properties whereas the endomysium acts at a more subtle level (LIGHT *et al.*, 1985). Most studies on the mechanical properties of connective tissue have focused on the

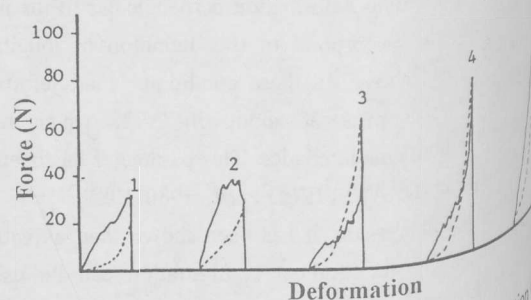


Figure 8 : Influence of ageing on the force-deformation curves obtained in shearing. M. Longissimus dorsi (1), Psoas major (2), Semitendinosus (3), Pectoralis profundus (4) and Semitendinosus (5). (—) 1 day and (---) 8 days *mortem*. (From Salé, 1971).

gen, which is the most determinant factor but some showed that in elastin and the ground substance could have an influence, albeit to a lesser extent (CROSS *et al.*, 1973 ; BAILEY and LIGHT, 1989).

Isometric tension tests have been used to analyse the heat-behaviour of collagen. They have been made mainly on collagen structures such as the tendons, skin and isolated epimysial fibres. They consist in measuring the tension developed during continuous heating, generally in a neutral isotonic medium, up to boiling temperature. The maximum force per unit section area and the temperature at which this occurs have been related to the heat stable molecular cross links of collagen and to its thermal solubility (KOPP and BONNET, 1987).

This method has also been used on meat samples : similar tension curves were observed but with the maximum tension reached at the maximum heating temperature. The value of this maximum tension is related to the amount of collagen (KOPP, 1977) but is also influenced by its cross linking state (KOPP, 1976). Although isometric tests provide valuable information on collagen cross-linking particularly in the low thermal solubility range (KOPP and BONNET, 1987), tests carried out on meat should be interpreted with caution since maximum tension is influenced by the contraction state of the muscle (ROCHDI *et al.*, 1983) : muscles which set up in rigor in a stretched state exhibit higher tension, owing to the organisation of the connective network. Moreover, these tests do not mimic what actually happens during the cooking of meat as samples are not allowed to contract. These conditions of restraint directly influence the mechanical properties of connective tissue (SNOWDEN *et al.*, 1977) and the denaturation of collagen (ROCHDI *et al.*, 1985). To have a precise idea of the mechanical properties of intramuscular connective tissue in cooked meat, LEWIS and PURSLOW (1989) recommended performing the mechanical tests directly on perimysium excised from a cooked sample.

As previously mentioned, in tensile tests in which deformation is applied parallel to muscle fibres, whether on raw or cooked meat, the breaking parameters depend on the properties of both the connective tissue and muscle fibres (STANLEY *et al.*, 1971 ; 1972).

Tests perpendicular to muscle fibres (adhesion tests) have been proposed as a means of evaluating the specific properties of connective tissue (POOL, 1967 ; BOUTON *et al.*, 1972c ; PENFIELD *et al.*, 1976). They allow stresses to be transmitted throughout the sample. They allow stresses to be measured by the connective tissue only : the breaking strength measured in that test does not vary during post-rigor tenderisation (BOUTON *et al.*, 1972b). In this test, as in others, the strength of the connective tissue is closely dependent on the contraction or stretched state of the sample, whether this state is achieved by changing the sarcomere length of raw meat (BOUTON *et al.*, 1974) or by thermal contraction during cooking (BOUTON *et al.*, 1976). In fact, any change in the contraction or stretched state produces a change in not only orientation and waviness but also in the number of collagenous fibres per unit of area under load.

Therefore, for a given length ratio of a meat sample, which represents the deformation of a sample compared to its rest length state in the muscle, the state (orientation and waviness) of the collagenous fibres depends on how this length ratio has been reached, by pre-rigor or post-rigor deformation or by thermal contraction. Therefore, the geometrical state of the fibres in the final network must be known before their properties can be determined from a measurement of the mechanical properties of the connective network performed on a meat sample. The consequence of pre-rigor deformation on the

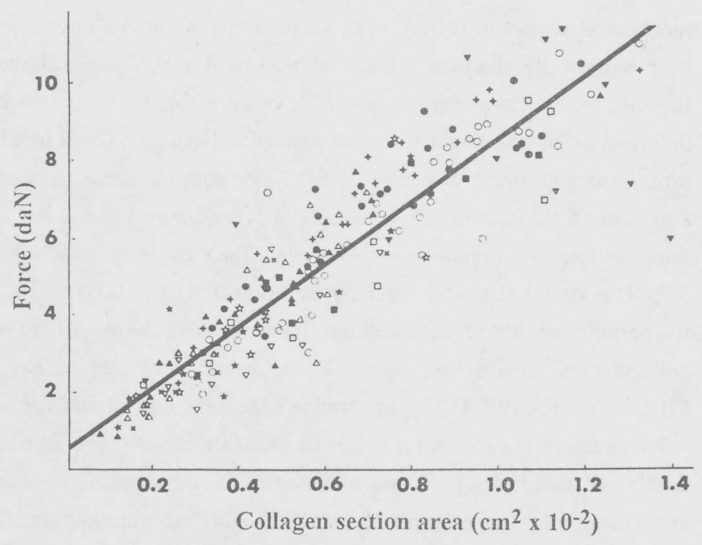


Figure 9 : Maximum shear force versus section area of sheared intramuscular collagen. 7 *Pectoralis profundus* and *Rectus abdominis* muscles. (From Kopp and Bonnet, 1982).

muscle (ROCHDI *et al.*, 1983) : muscles which set up in rigor in a stretched state exhibit higher tension, owing to the organisation of the connective network. Moreover, these tests do not mimic what actually happens during the cooking of meat as samples are not allowed to contract. These conditions of restraint directly influence the mechanical properties of connective tissue (SNOWDEN *et al.*, 1977) and the denaturation of collagen (ROCHDI *et al.*, 1985). To have a precise idea of the mechanical properties of intramuscular connective tissue in cooked meat, LEWIS and PURSLOW (1989) recommended performing the mechanical tests directly on perimysium excised from a cooked sample.

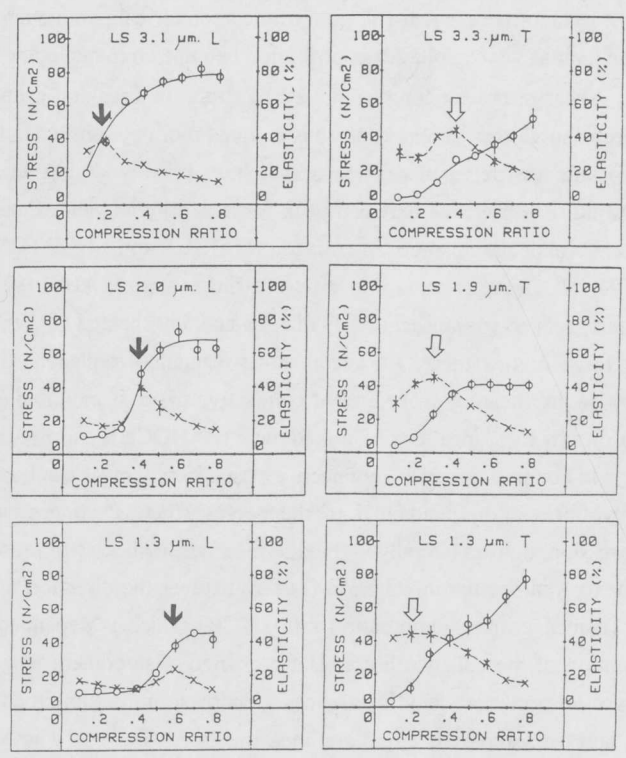


Figure 10: Influence of compression ratio on maximum stress (○) and elasticity (×) in the longitudinal (L) and transverse (T) configurations for a *Semimembranosus* muscle. LS : sarcomere length (μm). An increase in LS induces a decrease in the longitudinal critical compression ratio (↓) and an increase in the transverse critical compression ratio (↓). (From Lepetit, 1989).

mechanical properties of the collagenous network in the raw state have been extensively analysed. FIELD and FABER (1970) have shown that the mechanical anisotropy of the endomysium can be described by the deformation of a somewhat slack system of collagenous fibres in a helical arrangement around the muscle fibres. These authors calculated that such a system of collagenous fibres results in a maximum volume for muscle fibres and so in a minimum tension, when their angle to muscle fibres is 55° . The same value was obtained experimentally by ROWE (1977) for the perimysium. Taking into account the variation in the angle between the collagen and muscle fibres with the deformation of the muscle fibres, FIELD and FABER (1970) determined the modulus of the endomysial collagen fibres and showed that it is of the same order as that obtained on tendon. PURSLOW (1989) showed that in the perimysium, in which the arrangement of the collagen fibres, unlike in the endomysium, can be clearly observed, there is a great variation in the angle between the collagen and muscle fibres on both sides of the theoretical value determined for a given sarcomere length. Considering the volume fraction of perimysium in muscle, PURSLOW (1989) predicted the stress produced by collagen fibres in tensile tests parallel to the muscle fibres on pre-rigor meat and concluded that the stiffness of the perimysium was negligible up to about $3.8 \mu\text{m}$. As there is a direct relationship between the limit sarcomere length in tension and the limit sarcomere length in contraction, this result implies that collagen fibres can be contracted only at sarcomere lengths lower than $0.9 \mu\text{m}$. The results of a study that considered both the waviness of the collagenous fibres in rest length meat and the usual limit of $1.1 \mu\text{m}$ for sarcomere length in cold-shortened meat showed that the contribution of collagen is negligible in a narrower range, between $1.1 \mu\text{m}$ - $3.3 \mu\text{m}$ (LEPETIT, 1991). This is in agreement with the results of DICKSON (1970), which give higher values of tensile stress of meat from $3.2 \mu\text{m}$ - $3.3 \mu\text{m}$ than those predicted by the model of PURSLOW (1989). In fact, there is a distribution of the geometrical parameters of collagenous fibres around a mean value, which makes it difficult to define a precise limit at which collagen contribution becomes non negligible.

Shear tests have long been used to study the breaking properties of meat mainly with the Warner-Bratzler device. In such a test, it has been shown that sample rupture is induced more by tensile strains than by shearing strains (VOISEY, 1976). HARRIS and SHORTOSE (1988) later restricted this conclusion to raw or only slightly cooked meat. The resistance of connective tissue is usually determined by measuring the difference between peak force and initial yield. Indeed that difference is not affected by ageing of meat and varies in a manner as expected changes in collagen (HARRIS and SHORTOSE, 1988). Shear strength of raw meat samples has been studied by HARRIS and BONNET (1982) using a specific shearing system (SALÉ, 1971). These authors showed that the maximum shear force of raw meat is linearly related to the section of collagen actually sheared (fig.9), but that the degree of collagen cross-linking does not affect the maximum shear force of raw meat. An accurate assessment of collagen strength by this method can be obtained only if myofibre strength is known; otherwise the shearing procedure of connective tissue is modified (SALE, 1971). It is therefore not suitable for determining collagen strength either on raw rigor meat or on cooked meat (LAROUCHE and SALÉ, 1976).

In compression tests, connective tissue in raw meat can be analysed at high strains only, whether the free strains are in the direction of the myofibres or perpendicular to them. Nevertheless, connective tissue is the structure preferentially strained if the sample is compressed, deform laterally in the direction perpendicular to muscle fibres (LEPETIT, 1982; 1989, LEPETIT and CULIOLI, 1987). The mechanism is similar to what occurs in adhesion tests. Whatever the direction of free strains the connective network is put under tension at a compression ratio (named critical compression ratio, CCR) which is dependent on sarcomere length as a result of variations in both the waviness and the orientation of the collagen fibres. But a change in sarcomere length has an opposite effect according to the direction of the free strains: an increase in sarcomere length produces a decrease in the longitudinal CCR and an increase in the transverse CCR (fig. 10). The longitudinal CCR and the sarcomere length are linearly related (fig. 11). These results have been confirmed by ABUSTAM *et al.* (1987) who showed that the variation in the correlation coefficient between maximum stress reached during compression of raw meat and collagen content is dependent on the free strain direction, these authors showed that the correlation coefficient increases in a sigmoid fashion with the maximum strain reached during the test, becomes significant from 0.3-0.4 strain range and reaches a maximum value (~ 0.8) in destructive conditions. When the maximum stress at a high strain can still be related to collagen content (CULIOLI *et al.*, 1990) but the correlation coefficient is lower values closely dependent on the thermal stability of the collagen and on cooking conditions. In cooked meat the correlation coefficient is under tension at lower compression ratios because of the thermal contraction of collagen (KAMOUN and CULIOLI, 1988). The determination of the CCR has not been performed yet and is made more difficult owing to the large increase in myofibre strength concomitant decrease in that of the perimysium (LEWIS and PURSLOW, 1989). Connective network strength can be more easily determined when meat samples completely break. Hence tensile and shear tests are more suitable than compression and bite tests, in

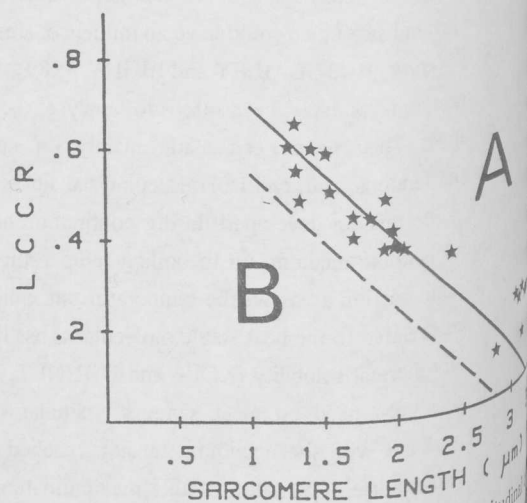


Figure 11 : Influence of sarcomere length on longitudinal compression ratio (LCCR). M. *Semimembranosus*. Theoretical curve (—); Curve vertically shifted by 0.15 (---); experimental points; (A) strain range where collagen is under tension or broken; (B) strain range for strength measurement. (From Lepetit, 1991).

...to reach rupture in reproducible conditions. However, even in tensile tests rupture of connective network in cooked meat follows a complex pattern which depends on the direction of the applied strain with respect to the myofibres and on the respective strengths of myofibres and collagen fibres (PURSLOW, 1991). Tensile tests along the myofibres is ten fold higher than that measured across the fibres, which indicate a participation of myofibres in the former case. Although in compression the ratio between longitudinal and transverse stresses is also linked to the myofibre strength, this ratio is much lower than that obtained in tension (KAMOUN and CULIOLI, 1989). In tensile tests PURSLOW, 1985) the first event seen is the opening up of cavities between fibre bundles involving the peri-endomysial junction (PURSLOW, 1985). Then the cavities join up and finally perimysial strands rupture. The breaking strength is determined by the amount and distribution of perimysium. The maximum stress reaches values in the 30 to 60 kPa range whether or not intact strands of perimysium are present in the sample tested (LEWIS and PURSLOW, 1990).

Effect of the organisation of the connective network on the mechanical properties of meat.

Although it was first suggested many years ago that the pattern of the perimysial network has an effect on meat tenderness (BRADY, 1937) it is the least studied of the different characteristics of connective tissue that influence the mechanical properties of meat. Yet, in raw meat it may contribute to the 30 to 40 % variance in the mechanical resistance of the connective tissue not due to the level of collagen content (DUMONT, 1985 ; 1988). Furthermore, this pattern is a criterion in the professional assessment of muscles based on the coarseness of their grain determined subjectively by passing the thumb over a muscle section (HAMMOND, 1952).

The connective network, by its mechanical action, is directly involved in muscle development. It dictates the shape of the muscle and it deforms during contraction. The pattern of the network varies widely between muscles and also between animals (SCHMITT *et al.*, 1967 ; DUMONT and SCHMITT, 1973), while crossbreeding of *Bos indicus* with *Bos taurus* produces a coarser-grained meat (SCHMITT and DUMONT, 1982), and offspring of male Angus, Hereford and Shorthorn have finer-grained meat than that of male Charolais, Brangus and other animals (DAMON *et al.*, 1960).

There have been conflicting results on the relation between the size of the muscle bundles bordered by the connective sheets and the tenderness of the meat. Some workers associated large bundles with a finer structure and greater tenderness (BRADY, 1937) while others have observed a negative relation between these features (COOPER *et al.*, 1968). These discrepancies can be partly explained by the complexity of the structural organisation (fig.12) and the different levels of structuring should therefore be taken into account (DUMONT, 1985).

The influence of the connective network organisation on the mechanical properties of meat has been evidence in the studies of ROWE (1977). This author studied the mechanical behaviour of raw muscle slices subjected to tensile stress perpendicular to the axis of the muscle and observed that the direction of the stress in relation to the orientation of the connective lamellae directly affected the amount of deformation in creep test and the moduli measured during tensile tests. The orientation of the lamellae depends on the shape, size and orientation of the muscle bundles and varies within a same muscle and between muscles (ROWE, 1977 ; SIRET *et al.*, 1990). The variability in mechanical properties between muscles and between samples from the same muscle might thus be due in part to the distribution of the perimysium which could also be responsible for the low correlations obtained between measurements made on different samples of raw and heated meat. Finally, it is likely that the mechanical behaviour of cooked meat is also influenced by the organisation of the connective network.

The influence of the connective network organisation on the mechanical properties of meat has been confirmed by the studies of DUMONT (1988). This author showed that the relation between the shear strength measured on raw meat and the collagen content of the muscle depends on the type of muscle and animal. He suggested the ratio F/C, in which F is the mean shear force on raw meat and C the collagen content expressed by the ratio hydroxyproline/total nitrogen, as a structuring factor of the connective network on which the mechanical properties of meat partly depend. It has also been shown (DUMONT, 1983) that the linear density of the connective network (the number of lamellae per length unit) in raw meat measured, considering all the structural levels, according to the longer axis of large stained histological sections cut perpendicular to the myofibres is closely related ($r = 0.89$) to the maximum shear force.

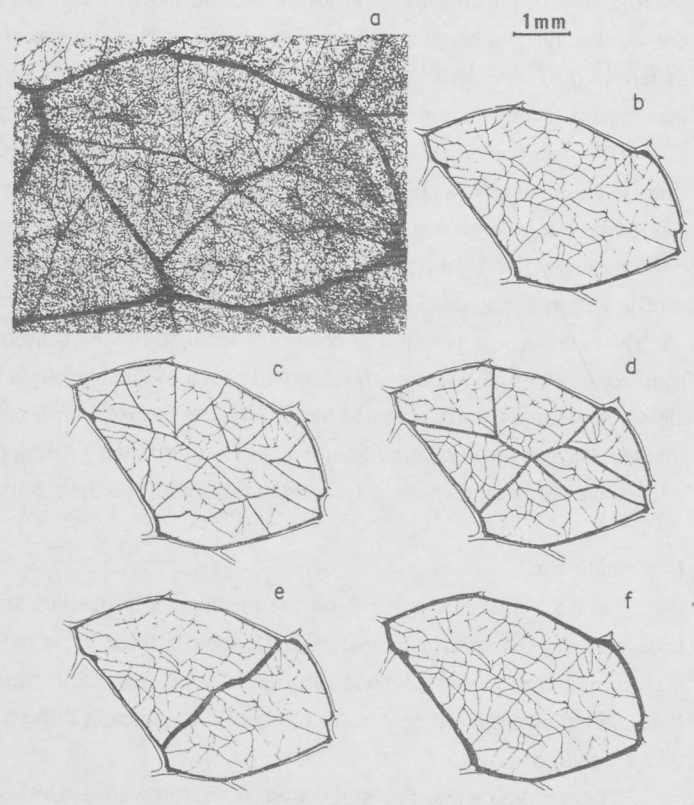


Figure 12 : Different levels of organisation of the perimysial network. Muscle section (a). Primary (b), secondary (c), tertiary (d), quaternary (e) and principal (f) bundles. (From Schmitt *et al.*, 1979).

By taking into account just the main sheet of the network, ABUSTAM *et al.* (1987) obtained similar results in a compression test. However, no conclusive results have emerged from the various studies on the incidence of the perimysium distribution on mechanical properties because variations in the network are always accompanied by related variations in collagen content (ABUSTAM *et al.*, 1987) and collagen thermal solubility (NORMAN, 1982) whose respective impacts have not been determined. Furthermore, the relations between mechanical measurements and the characteristics of the network are often restricted to linear density, just one of the 26 descriptors proposed by DUMONT (1985). The thickness of the main and secondary sheets, in particular, should also be taken into consideration. These come up against the problem of obtaining a perfectly distinctive perimysial network in which the different myofibre bundles could be identified. Although the connective network and its constituents can be closely studied on stained histological sections, even by image analysis (SCHMITT and DUMONT, 1969; SCHMITT *et al.*, 1979; TOTLAND *et al.*, 1985), the same method cannot be easily applied to study whole sections of muscles. Consequently, a technique for obtaining whole muscle sections was designed (SCHMITT and DUMONT, 1980), but with which it is difficult to totally identify the perimysial network so that analysis is often restricted to myofibre bundles.

5-3 Application of ultrasound methods to the structural analysis of connective tissue

Ultrasound techniques have been used for some time in the meat production sector to determine simultaneous fat thickness and muscular development in the live animal (KEMPSTER *et al.*, 1979; GLODEK, 1984) and more recently in meat processing to determine the fat content of carcasses (MILES *et al.*, 1990). These methods are based on the analysis of the propagation velocity of the ultrasonic waves, influenced by the composition of the muscles, and particularly by their fat content, or on the measurement of the distance between an ultrasonic transducer and a fat-lean meat or fat-bone interface acting as a specular reflector to the ultrasonic waves. Other ultrasound techniques have also been used to study muscle tissue, such as subjecting tissue to ultrasound pulses and analysing the diffraction pattern. When an incident ultrasonic wave encounters local modifications in density and compressibility in the sample studied of a small dimension compared to the wave length, it is diffused in numerous small waves in all directions. The signals thus diffused from the surface of the transducer and give rise to images presenting a random graininess or mottling. This phenomenon, which is known as "speckle", is well-known in echographic imaging (BURCKHARDT, 1978; WAGNER *et al.*, 1983). Statistical analysis of this speckle pattern of the specular reflection of the ultrasounds on structures of greater size than the wave length, characterised by impedance variations, provides information on intramuscular fat content and its distribution (HAUMSCHILD and CARLSON, 1983; BRETHOUR, 1990) and on the heterogeneity of the meat as influenced by the presence of connective sheets (ABOUELKARAM *et al.*, 1992). These ultrasound methods are non-destructive and hence could be used to characterise and classify muscles. However, they do not provide so detailed a description of the pattern of the connective sheets as the direct analysis of the network. Furthermore, they are not able, for the present, to distinguish the respective contributions of the fat deposited in the connective structure and the collagen fibres, which have opposite effects on the mechanical properties of the meat.

The methods used to analyse the ultrasonic signals diffused could be adapted for the study of the mechanical properties of meat. They could be used as a complement to current methods, most of which determine the overall behaviour of the product tested but are unable to provide information non destructively on the distribution of the mechanical properties within the sample. By coupling a static mechanical deformation with a high frequency (i.e. ultrasonic) mechanical deformation OPHIR *et al.* (1991) devised a method of determining the profile within a product. They correlated couples of ultrasonic lines from a sample at rest and from the same sample mechanically deformed and showed that it is possible to determine local strain and consequently, as the applied stress is known, the values of local elastic modulus. Rigid zones within the sample, not normally seen by direct observation of echographic images, can thus be detected. When applied to a slab, this method clearly revealed the differences in mechanical behaviour between fat and lean tissue. OPHIR *et al.* (1991) have shown that the method could be used for the quality control and grading of meat. However, the resolution, which depends among other things on the wavelength used, the characteristics of the signal and the mechanical contrast in the tissue, would have to be sufficiently fine.

6 - Conclusion

For a long time, research on the mechanical properties of meat focused mainly on the development of devices for evaluating the texture of cooked meat. As they generally gave a force value determined under various deformation conditions, no universal method of assessing texture was established. About 20 years ago, there was a change in direction, and studies concentrated on a critical analysis of current methods advocating a more fundamental approach to determine which structures are in fact stressed during mechanical tests and under which conditions.

It was shown that the application of tests in well-defined conditions of deformation and the determination of several parameters from the force-deformation curves could yield information on the mechanical properties of the connective tissue and the myofibrils. It is possible to analyse the variations in the characteristics of these structures as affected by different factors, both biological and technological. This can be done successfully in raw meat because of the peculiar structural features of the collagen fibres. In cooked meat the two are closely linked and their mechanical properties usually interfere to induce the overall mechanical behaviour. Thus it is still difficult to study cooked meat to determine with certainty and in all cases whether the variations in a mechanical parameter are the result of changes in the strength of the myofibrillar structure or in the connective structure itself or in the association myofibres-connective network.

Much still remains to be done in the prediction of cooked meat texture from measurements on the muscle. It will require non destructive methods to determine both collagen and myofibre strength. While a non destructive assessment can be made of the latter on muscle samples of well-defined geometry in which anisotropic factors are under control, the method has yet to be applied to a muscle, or a portion of muscle, in which anisotropy is less easily controlled. Although the collagen content of a sample of raw meat can be determined mechanically, it is not at present possible to do so in non destructive conditions. Moreover, the extent of cross-linking of the collagen cannot always be assessed mechanically in raw meat. The influence of the distribution of the perimysial network on the mechanical properties of meat is not yet fully known, and methods to characterise this network need to be developed. Research efforts should be devoted to providing the meat industry with a method capable of assessing as essential a characteristic of its raw material as tenderness.

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