The efficiency of Alginic acid, Sodium alginate and Egg white lysozyme in sustain the safety of beef burger Khalid, Tolba; Noha, M. El-Shinawy and Basma, A. Hendy

Reference Lab. for Food Safety, Animal Health Research Institute, Agriculture Research Center (AHRI-ARC), Doki-Giza, Egypt

Received in 23/6/2020 Accepted in 30/6/2020

Abstract

Alginates and its salts specially sodium and potassium and its oligosaccharides in addition to egg white lysozyme have attracted many interests in applied researches due to their positive impact on consumer health through potential antifungal and antibacterial, antioxidant, probiotic, antihypertensive, antidiabetic, antitumor, anticoagulant properties and many other benefits. The evidence is that it was used as a probiotic, feed supplements for aquaculture and poultry as well as cryoprotector for frozen foods. Hence, in this study, we tried to use alginic acid (AA), sodium alginate (SA) and egg white lysozyme (EWL) with different concentrations, either individually or collectively in beef burger. The obtained results showed that 2% AA was the best concentration that caused the most pronounced significant reduction (P<0.05) of Staph. aureus count (from 4.93 log₁₀±0.01 as control to 4.14 $\log_{10}\pm 0.06$ as treated) with reduction rate of 0.79 \log_{10} (16.02%) as compared with 0.5 & 1% AA. In contrary, 2% AA showed weak reduction activity of E. coli count (from 4.95 log10±0.01 as control to 4.48±0.04 as treated) with 0.47 reduction rate (9.5%). The same effect was recorded for SA as 2% had the most pronounced reduction for Staph. aureus count which recorded 4.30 log₁₀±0.04 with reduction rate and incidence of 0.63 (12.78%), while for E. coli, it was recorded $4.78 \log_{10} \pm 0.01$ with 0.17 \log_{10} reduction rate (3.43%). By the same way, it was found that 200 ppm EWL was more effective in controlling of both Staph. aureus (from 4.93±0.01 to 3.98±0.03) with 0.95 reduction rate (19.27%) and E. coli from (4.95 \pm 0.01 to 4.45 \pm 0.02) with 0.5 log₁₀ reduction rate (10.1%). The obtained results proved that a mixture of 200 ppm EWL + 2% SA was most effective concentration among all other treatments used in the present study which recorded 1.04 log₁₀ reduction rate for Staph. aureus count (21.1%) and 0.75 (15.15%) for E. coli. and recommended to be used in food products as antimicrobial combination in competing both organisms used through the present study.

Keywords: Staph. aureus, E. coli, Alginic acid (AA), Sodium alginate (SA), Egg white lysozyme (EWL), Natural antimicrobial activity, sustain safety product. beef burger.

Introduction

Microbial food spoilage is responsible for deterioration of food as reduction in the sensory attributes, nutritional quality and subsequently, great economic losses. Furthermore, wide spread of the food-borne pathogens leads to food poisoning and damage to the consumer health and loss of food safety parameters. Multiple trends nowadays are encouraged to replacement of synthetic additives and use of new natural antioxidant and antibacterial substances with a possible role as nutritional agents. Multiple functionality seaweed extracts could be incorporated into foods as natural preservatives to enhance the food quality, safety and stability (Vijayavel and Martinez, 2010; Gupta and Abu-Ghannam, 2011 and Cox *et al.*, 2014).

Consumers trust and prioritize to food products that have transparency in its contents ingredients/additives that are natural, with reliable names and are appropriate to be good for consumer health (Brewer, 2011). In recent years, there also have been concerns about food safety due to an increasing occurrence of foodborne illness outbreaks caused by pathogenic microorganisms (**Tajkarimi** *et al.*, **2010**). In order to satisfy consumer's demands and retrieve its confidence in the safety of food products, those in charge of the food industry should search for natural alternatives to food additives that have strong antioxidant and/or antimicrobial properties. (Fernandez-Lopez *et al.*, **2005** and **Ahmad** *et al.*, **2015**).

Algins/alginates are available in both acid and salt forms, alginate is a natural anionic polysaccharide extracted from seaweed, which is composed of β -(1–4) linked D-mannuronic acid and α -L-guluronic acid units (Zheng and Kohn, 2014 and Aziz and Karboune, 2018).

Salts of alginic acid including Na^+ , K^+ , Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺out of which, sodium and calcium ions are considered the most effective cations and are commonly used as the gelling agents and they are extracted from brown seaweeds cell walls and also of the intracellular matrix of the brown algae (Phaephyceae) mainly, Laminaria hyperborean, Macrocystis pyrifera, Ascophyllum nodosum; lesser extent Laminaria digitate, Laminaria japonica, Eclonia maxima, Lesonia negrescens, Sargassum spp.(Skurtys et al., 2010; Kraan, 2012; Hay et al., 2013 and Vera et al., 2013) and some bacteria including Azotobacter vinelandii and pseudomonas (Thomas et al., 2013). Furthermore, Alginate succeeded to be produced from Marine algae (Peteiro, 2018). The molecular weight of alginate ranges generally between 500 and 1000 kDa. (Cha and Chinnan, 2004 and Usov, 2013).

In some researches, the term "algin" is used instead of alginate. The goal of the extraction process of sodium alginate is to obtain a product in a dry powdered form. The calcium and magnesium salts do not dissolve in water, while sodium salt is able to be dissolved in water and has a unique swelling, gelling, and mucoadhesive properties (Cardoso *et al.*, 2016 and Szkalska *et al.*, 2016). Alginate Oligosaccharides (OLG) has been reported that they possess antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and antibacterial properties (Han *et al.*, 2019). Seaweed produces metabolites aiding in the protection against different environmental stresses. These compounds showed antiviral, antiprotozoal, antifungal, and antibacterial properties which aids in control of new diseases or multi-resistant strains of pathogenic microorganisms (Perez *et al.*, 2016).

Alginic acid (AA) and sodium alginate (SA) are widely used agents because of their high antimicrobial efficacy and cost effective. Their antimicrobial effects are based on the increase in proton concentration thereby, lowering the external pH. Furthermore, they may affect the integrity of microbial cell membrane or cell macromolecules or interfere with nutrient transport and energy metabolism, causing bactericidal effect (**Ricke**, 2003). Mixtures of alginate with organic acids or essential oils could exert a wider antimicrobial activity (**Theron** *et al.*, 2010).

New approaches with natural antimicrobial features, which characterized by i) its more potent ii) less hazardous to the consumers health iii) prolonged action are of very interest nowadays. Consequently, antimicrobial that based on natural origin, such as alginates and its salts which could be obtained from various agro-industrial sources are being studied increasingly. (Andrade *et al.*, 2004 and Kakita and kamishima, 2008).

Many food products are perishable by nature as well as by the action of bacteria contaminating food during food production, preparation, processing, storage, distribution and handling which considered nowadays the major challenges facing food industry due to its effect on both food safety and quality, some of these microorganisms such as Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, Salmonella, Listeria monocytogenes and many other organisms that can potentially cause food-borne illness (Lòpez-Malo et al., 2005). Lysozyme is a natural enzyme obtained from egg white which have a wide spectrum of antimicrobial activity against food-borne pathogens and spoilage bacteria (Gutierrez et al., 2008 and 2009).

Lysozyme as a food preservative inhibits the growth of deleterious organisms, thus improve

the product safety and prolonging its shelf life. Lysozyme also has been used to preserve seafoods, meats, sausages, different kinds of cheese and fresh fruits (**Proctor and Cunning**ham, 1988).

Lysozyme is one of the important proteins found in egg white which represent about 3.5%of total egg white proteins (**Ibrahim** *et al.*, **2007**). There are many forms of lysozyme found in nature, but the one found in egg is considered as the most soluble and stable (**Benkerroum**, **2008**). Enzyme can hydrolyze the β -linkage between N-acetylneuraminic acid and N-acetylglucosamine in bacterial cell walls.

Along with the antioxidant substances, the antimicrobial properties of different preservatives are required to fulfil the quality and safety parameters that compliant with consumer demands, satisfaction and their confidentiality, these substances or products including organic acids, alginic acid and its salts, egg white lysozyme, essential oils, herbal products and phenolic compounds (**Basuny** *et al.*, 2012).

The present study was conducted to determine the efficiency of the antimicrobial activities of alginic acid (AA), sodium alginate (SA), egg white lysozyme (EWL) and a combination of EWL with SA by using different concentrations against *Staph. aureus* and *E. coli* experimentally inoculated in beef-burger.

Materials and Methods

preservatives used in the established experiment: Egg white lysozyme (EWL) AR, BIO BASIC CANADA INC., CAS:12650-88-3.Alginic acid (AA) AR, AVI-CHEM LAB., MUMBAI-INDIA, CAS: 9005-32-7. Sodium alginate (SA) AR, AVI-CHEM LAB., MUMBAI-INDIA, CAS: 9005-38-3

All preservatives which have been used in this study were of analytical grade and watersoluble ingredients and the doses of the preservatives used in the present study (0.5, 1 and 2% of both alginic acid and sodium alginate as well as 100, 150 and 200 ppm of egg white lysozyme) were recommended by several investigators who have used the same or even more than the concentrations in the present study as they suitable to preserve quality characteristics and does not alter the sensory attributes (firmness, color and odor) of food product (Corradini and Innocente, 2002; Walewijk *et al.*, 2008; and Gammariello *et al.*, 2009).

Sample preparation:

One beef meat sample weighted around 4500 g was purchased from butcher shop in Cairo to perform one experiment, where the experiment was repeated three successive times to obtain the mean \pm SD, the bulk sample was transferred under strict hygienic measures to laboratory as soon as possible, minced with addition of ingredients required for production of beefburger. Manufactured beef-burger was divided into five groups, each group contained six samples (a total of 30 samples of 150 g each); 15 samples were contaminated with 5 log₁₀cfu/g *Staph. aureus* and the other 15 samples were contaminated with 5log₁₀cfu/g *E. coli* and treated as follows:

The 1^{st} group; three contaminated samples with *Staph. Aureus* and three contaminated samples with *E. coli* were kept as control positive to estimate the initial bacterial load of both organisms.

The 2^{nd} group; three contaminated samples with *Staph. Aureus* and treated with 0.5, 1 and 2% of AA, separately and the other three contaminated samples with *E. coli*were treated with 0.5, 1 and 2% of AA.

The 3^{rd} group contained six contaminated samples as mentioned in the 2^{nd} group and treated with 0.5, 1 and 2% SA.

The 4th group contained six contaminated samples as mentioned in the 2nd group but treated with 100, 150 and 200 ppm EWL.

The 5th group contained six contaminated samples as in 2^{nd} group but treated separately with a mixture of SA and EWL (0.5% & 100 ppm), (1% and 150 ppm) and (2% & 200 ppm).

The experiment was repeated three times to carry out the statistical operations.

Preparation of tested strains Working solution of *Staph. aureus* and *E. coli* were prepared from reference stock solution stored at -80° C in cryovials. One bead was resuspended in brain heart infusion broth (Oxoid) and incubated overnight at 37°C for 24 hour prior to the experiments to obtain a final viable count of about 10⁹ CFU/ml, serial dilution was made using physiological saline to obtain approximately 10⁵ CFU/ml which used to contaminate the ground beef used in the manufactured of. beef burger, while conducting the experiment under complete aseptic condition.

Preparation of the samples and serial dilution (APHA, 2001):

Twenty-five grams of each sample was transferred aseptically into stomacher bag and stomached with 225 ml of 0.1% sterile peptone water. Transfer by means of pipette 1 ml of the initial suspension into a tube containing 9 ml of sterile diluent. Mix thoroughly by using vortex for 5-10 seconds to obtain 1:100 dilution. Repeat this operation to obtain dilutions 1:1000, 1: 10000 and etc. dilutions.

Enumeration of *Staphylococus aureus* (FDA, 2001)

About one ml. of food homogenate was transferred and distributed over the surface of 3 plates of Baired-Parker agar (eg. 0.4 ml, 0.3 and 0.3 ml), using sterile bended glass spreader. The plates were retained in upright position until inoculum is absorbed by agar for about 10 mints, or placed in upright position in the incubator for about 1 hour. The plates were inverted and incubated for 24-48 hours at 35°C and examined for determination of *Staph. aureus* count.

Enumeration of β -glucuronidase - positive *Escherichia coli* according to (ISO 16649-2:2001) (TBX method):

This method for enumeration and isolation of β -glucuronidase–positive *Escherichia coli* in all kinds of food and feed of animal origin, by growing the organism on tryptone –bile-glucuronide medium (tbx) at 44°C for 24 h. Positive plates showed blue green colonies.

Statistical analysis: -

Statistical analysis of the obtained data was run in triplicate by using of Statistical Packaging for the Social Science (SPSS) Ver. 20.and the results were expressed as mean and standard deviation (Mean±SD). Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA). The results with p-value less than 0.05 (p \leq 0.05) was considered statistically significant.

List of preservatives versus the concentration of each substance were listed in Table (A)

Table (A). Type and concentration of different preservatives used in the current experiment

Preservatives used	Concentration		
Alginic acid (AA)	0.5 %		
Alginic acid & Sodium alginate (AA)	1 %		
Alginic acid & Sodium alginate (AA)	2 %		
Sodium alginate (SA)	0.5 %		
Sodium alginate (SA)	1 %		
Sodium alginate (SA)	2 %		
Egg white lysozyme (EWL)	100 ppm		
Egg white lysozyme (EWL)	150 ppm		
Egg white lysozyme (EWL)	200 ppm		
Combination of both SA + EWL	0.5 % + 100 ppm		
Combination of both SA + EWL	1 % + 150 ppm		
Combination of both SA + EWL	2 % + 200 ppm		

Results and Discussion

Most food products required strict protection against food poisoning and food spoilage bacteria which gained access to the food as a result of contamination during processing and storage operations. Also, consumers demand for safe product with natural preservatives if required, which promoting food producers and researchers to look for alternatives in order to get safe products and good storage practices which will result in improving product quality and mitigate microbial risk levels without causing nutritional losses and organoleptic changes. In this context natural preservatives are gaining a great interest from research and industry, due to the potential to provide quality and safety benefits, with a reduced consumer health hazard (Lucera et al., 2012).

It was observed from the data recorded in Table and Fig. (1) that the most pronounced reduction rate for Staph. aureus was in the samples of the 2nd group which treated with 2% of AA as compared with the other two concentrations (0.5, 1%) which used for treatment of the other samples in the same group, as the count was reduced to (4.14 $\log_{10}\pm 0.06$) with reduction rate of 0.79 \log_{10} (16.02%) as compared with the 1st control group (4.93 $\log_{10}\pm 0.01$), followed by 1% AA which recorded Staph. aureus count of 4.60±0.02 with reduction rate represented by 0.35 \log_{10} (7.1%). On the other side, SA with 2% concentration represented for the 3rd group was also the most effective one in reducing Staph. aureus count to 4.30 $\log_{10}\pm 0.04$ with reduction rate of 0.63 \log_{10} (12.78%), followed by SA 1% who had achieved reduction rate of 0.15 \log_{10} (3.04%). From the obtained results, it could be concluded that Staph. aureus counts were reduced significantly (P<0.05) in all treatments except, there was no significance difference (p>0.05)between control samples and that treated with 0.5% SA.

Despite these recorded results, there are only two concentrations assimilated by 2% of both AA and SA which had reduction rate exceeded more than 0.5 \log_{10} (0.79 and 0.63 \log_{10} cfu/g) respectively, which cleared that 0.5% SA found to have the least antimicrobial activity against *Staph. aureus* among the other concentrations of AA of the 2nd group and SA of the 3rd group.

Table (1) also showed that E. coli was less affected by either AA or SA as compared with Staph. aureus, in which 2% concentration of AA resulted in reduction of E. coli by 9.5% $(0.47 \log_{10})$, followed by 1% $(0.23 \log_{10})$ 4.67%). While 2% SA was recorded reduction rate of 0.17 log₁₀ (3.43 %) followed by 1% $(0.11 \log_{10} / 2.22\%)$. Statistical analytical results showed that there were an obvious significance differences (P<0.05) of E. coli counts between all samples, excluding, the difference was not significant (p>0.05) between treated samples with 0.5% SA and each of control samples and samples treated with 0.5% AA. Although, there were a significant differences between most of the different treatment concentrations of both AA and SA and control samples for E. coli count, the anti E. coli effect of all treatments as the microbial reduction rate has no tangible effect which does not exceed $0.5 \log_{10}$ which is considered in all measures as a weak or low effect.

It was generally obvious from results in Table and Fig (1) that; (i) The higher the concentration, the more the antimicrobial activity (2% was the best concentration followed by 1% and finally, 0.5% which considered weak and nonsignificant). (ii) All tested concentrations of AA and SA had a marked reduction effect on Staph. aureus as compared with its very weak effect on E. coli (iii) Since the reduction rates of both AA and SA on either Staph. aureus as an example of Gram-positive bacteria or Gram -negative E. coli were not significant, it is not recommended to use either AA or SA alone as antimicrobials but it is preferred to be used in combination with another synergistic antimicrobial substances. This agreed with Scott and Strong (1964) as they indicated that the value of sodium alginate in controlling Staph. aureus food-poisoning microorganism in frozen food is questionable. Also, the obtained results were compatible with Mhadhebi et al. (2012) who found the extract of 24 screened organic fractions of 6 seaweeds from the Tunisian Mediterranean coast were exhibited moderate to weak activity against Staph. aureus; Staph. epidermis, E. coli and Micrococcus luteus. This also

substantiates the findings of Kim *et al.* (2000) and Hay *et al.* (2013) who concluded that Alginic acid and its salts may have other effective functions more important to food than being

antibacterial as thickening agent, stabilizer, emulsifier, chelating agent, encapsulation, swelling, a suspending agent, or used to form gels, films and membrane.

 Table (1). Mean count and reduction rate of Staph. aureus and E. coli using Alginic acid and sodium alginate.

An	timicrobials	Bacterial counts and reduction values (Log ₁₀ cfu/g)						
Group		Staph. aureus			E. coli			
	Concentration	Mean±SD	Reduction		MaardSD	Reduction		
			Rate	%	Mean±5D	Rate	%	
Control	0.0	4.93 ^a ±0.01			4.95 ^a ±0.01			
AA	0.5 %	$4.84^{b}\pm 0.02$	0.09	1.83	$4.90^{b} \pm 0.01$	0.05	1.01	
	1.0 %	$4.60^{\circ} \pm 0.02$	0.35	7.10	4.70°±0.03	0.23	4.67	
	2.0 %	$4.14^{d}\pm 0.06$	0.79	16.02	$4.48^{d} \pm 0.04$	0.47	9.50	
SA	0.5 %	4.90°±0.02	0.03	1.55	4.93 ^{ab} ±0.01	0.02	0.40	
	1.0 %	$4.78^{e} \pm 0.01$	0.15	3.04	$4.84^{e}\pm0.01$	0.11	2.22	
	2.0 %	$4.30^{f} \pm 0.04$	0.63	12.78	$4.78^{f} \pm 0.01$	0.17	3.43	

Mean \pm standard deviation (n=3);

Means in the same column with different superscripted letters are significantly different (p<0.05).



Fig. (1): Reduction rate (log₁₀cfu/g) of AA and SA on Staph. aureus and E. coli

Moreover, many investigators (Nair et al., 2005; Aguila-Ramírez et al., 2012; Nogueira et al., 2014; El Wahidi et al., 2014and Karthikeyan et al., 2015) found that methanolic extract of AA and SA from seaweeds (L. johnstonii, D. flabellata and U. lactuca) from the Gulf of California showed activity against Staph. aureus, while it poses no observed activity against E. coli. These results were compliant with that obtained in the present study as the AA and SA found to have a little or low antimicrobial activity against E. *coli* in comparison with their slightly to moderate effects on Staph. aureus. While, Osman et al. (2010) and Dhanya et al. (2016) observed the antimicrobial activities of crude extracts from the species of Rhodophyta, Chlorophyta, Ulva reticulata and Phaeophyta against bothof Staph. aureus and E. coli. Such differences in results may be attributed to the difference of in types of seaweeds used and the seasonal variation of antimicrobial activity of the extract. (Padmakumar and Ayyakkannu, 1997). Moreover, Karbassi et al. (2014) attributed the presence of antimicrobial activity of AA on Staph. aureus more than E. coli due to the difference in the cell wall structure and physicochemical characteristics of both microorganisms, in which Staph. aureus have an outer cytoplasmic membrane made from lipopolysaccharide which is easily adhered and penetrated by AA, while E. coli contained rigid peptidoglycan layer outside the cytoplasmic membrane which in unlikely to be penetrated by AA

The U.S. Food and Drug Administration (US-FDA, 2018) had classified food grade sodium alginate as GRAS (generally regarded as safe) substance in Title 21 of the Code for Federal Regulations (CFR) and listed its usage as an emulsifier, stabilizer, thickener and gelling agent. Furthermore, the European Commission (EC) listed alginic acid and its salts (E400– E404) as an authorized food additive (Younes *et al.*, 2017). Alginate is widely used in various industries such as food, beverage, textile, printing, and pharmaceutical (Kim *et al.*, 2000 and Hay *et al.*, 2013). Sodium alginate is the most common salt of alginic acid (Yoo and Krochta, 2011).In this regard, European Food Safety Authority (EFSA, 2017) mentioned that Alginic acid and its salts (E 400–E 404) are authorized to be used in a wide variety of foods. Therefore, there is no fears of poisoning from consuming of alginic acid and its salts as food additives or may poses a risk to the consumer health. They added that, there is no hazards concerned the level of the exposure by using AA and its salts.

The results recorded in Table 2 and Fig. (2&3) revealed that 200 ppm of EWL (4th group) was the most effective concentration and had more pronounced reduction rate for Staph aureus as compared with the other concentrations in the 4thgroup, as the count was reduced to (3.98 \log_{10} cfu/g±0.03) with reduction rate of 0.95 \log_{10} (19.27%) as compared with the 1st control group (4.93 $\log_{10}\pm 0.01$), followed by 150 ppm EWL (4.4 \log_{10} cfu/g ± 0.01) with reduction rate of 0. 53 \log_{10} (10.75%). On the other side, 200 ppm EWL + 2% SA (5^{th} group) was also more effective in reducing Staph. aureus count to 3.89 $\log_{10}\pm 0.01$ with reduction rate of 1.04 \log_{10} (21.1%), followed by 150 ppm EWL + 1% SA which recorded reduction rate of 0.79 \log_{10} (Table 1). From the obtained results, it could be concluded that Staph. aureus counts were reduced significantly (P<0.05) in all treated groups as compared with control group except those samples treated with both 100 and 150 ppm of EWL, did not show any significant differences (P>0.05). It means that those two concentrations (100 ppm and 150 ppm) were found to produce the lowest reduction rates (0.48 and 0.53 log10cfu/g), respectively. Meaning of low antimicrobial activity against Staph. aureus. While, the highest reduction rate (1.04 \log_{10} cfu/g) was recorded for EWL 200 ppm + 2% SA, followed by 200 ppm of EWL alone (0.95 \log_{10} cfu/g) then 150 ppm 0f EWL + 1% SA (0.79 \log_{10} cfu/g) and finally, 100 ppm EWL + 0.5% SA ($0.7 \log_{10}$ cfu/g).

Table 2 and Fig. (2&3) also showed that *E. coli* was less affected by either EWL or a combination of EWL + SA, as compared with *Staph. aureus*, in which only 200 ppm concentration of EWL (4th group) resulted in reduction of *E. coli* count from 4.95 \log_{10} cfu/g ±0.01 (1st control group) to 4.45±0.02 which represented by

 $0.5 \log_{10}$ reduction rate (10.1%), while the other two concentrations (100 ppm and 150 ppm) achieved a weak reduction rates (0.14 and 0.37 \log_{10}), respectively. Moreover, a combination of 200 ppm of EWL with 2% SA (5th group) was able to reduce E. coli count to 4.2 ± 0.08 with reduction rate of $0.75 \log_{10}(15.15\%)$, while the other two concentrations (100ppm EWL + 0.5% SA & 150ppm EWL + 1% SA) were resulted in reduction rates of 0.19 (3.84%) and $0.42 \log_{10} (8.49\%)$, respectively. Also, Table (2) revealed a significance differences (P<0.05) of E. coli count in all treated samples, except the difference was insignificant (P>0.05) between samples treated with 100 ppm EWL (4th group) and that treated with a combination of 100 ppm EWL + 0.5% SA (5th group). Also, there was no significance difference between those treated samples by150 ppm of EWL and that treated with combination of EWL and SA (150 ppm + 1%).

Through the overall results, it could be concluded that the antimicrobial effect of either EWL alone or EWL in combination with SA were not exceeded 0.5 log₁₀cfu/g. Meaning that either EWL or combination of with SA had a weak antimicrobial activity against *E. coli*, except only those samples treated with 200 ppm EWL + 2% SA which recorded reduction rate of (0.75 log₁₀cfu/g) which considered the only effective concentration against *E. coli*.

The obtained results in the present study complied with Shelef and Seiter (1993) and Branen and Davidson (2004) as they concluded that susceptibility of Gram-negative bacteria to lysis by lysozyme can be increased by the use of outer membrane disrupting agents. this is what we tried to apply in the current study by using sodium alginate (2%) as distrupting agent which proved its ability to inhibit Escherichia coli as a gram-negative bacterium along with lysozyme (200 ppm) more than using lysozyme alone. It means the existence of synergistic effect between them. Also, Aminlari et al. (2014) attributed the Weak effect of EWL on E. coli due to the presence of hydrophobic outer membranes of gram-negative bacteria which generally disrupt lysozyme activity. Cegielska-Radziejewska While. et al. (2009& 2010) and Derde et al. (2014) stated

that the inhibitory effect of lysozyme on *Escherichia coli* may be attributed to the rapid increase in the permeability of the bacterial outer membrane by forming large size pores, which considered the source of protection against the effect of antimicrobials

Antimicrobia	ls	Bacterial counts and reduction values (Log ₁₀ cfu/g)					
		Staph. aureus			E. coli		
Group	Concentration	Mean±SD	Reduction		MaaniSD	Reduction value	
			Value	%	Mean±5D	Value	%
Control		4.93 ^a ±0.01			4.95 ^a ±0.01		
EWL	100 ppm	4.45 ^b ±0.02	0.48	09.74	4.81 ^b ±0.01	0.14	2.83
	150 ppm	$4.4^{b}\pm 0.01$	0.53	10.75	4.58°±0.01	0.37	7.48
	200 ppm	3.98°±0.03	0.95	19.27	$4.45^{d} \pm 0.02$	0.5	10.1
EWL + SA	100 ppm + 0.5%	$4.23^{d} \pm 0.05$	0.70	14.20	$4.76^{b} \pm 0.02$	0.19	3.84
	150 ppm + 1%	$4.14^{e} \pm 0.06$	0.79	16.02	$4.53^{\circ} \pm 0.03$	0.42	8.49
	200 ppm + 2%	$3.89^{f} \pm 0.01$	1.04	21.10	4.2 ^e ±0.08	0.75	15.15

Table (2). Mean reduction values of *Staph. aureus* and *E. coli* using EWL and a mixture of different concentrations of EWL + SA.

Mean±standard deviation (n=3);

Means in the same column with different superscripted letters are significantly different (p < 0.05).



Fig. (2): Reduction rates of different EWL concentrations



Fig. (3): Reduction rates of different concentrations of EWL + SA EWL+SA RR: Egg white lysozyme + Sodium alginate Reduction Rate EWL = ppm, SA= %

Numerous efforts are conducted to find natural alternatives to prevent bacterial and fungal growth in foods as in recent years, because of the great consumer awareness and concern regarding synthetic chemical additives, while the consumer trust increased with foods preserved using natural antimicrobial additives including plant extracts and their essential oils, enzymes (egg white lysozyme), peptides, bacteriocins, bacteriophages and fermented ingredients have become used as they are considered very popular and considered as safe alternatives to chemical or synthetic antimicrobials. To inhibit the growth of undesirable microorganisms in food, the antimicrobials can be directly added into the product formulation (Aziz and Karboune, 2018). This is what we tried to apply in the current research through addition of egg white lysozyme beside alginic acid or its salts to beef burger during its manufacturing in lab.

Cha *et al.* (2002) reported that SA in combination with either acetic acid, nisin or lysozyme was exhibited the highest inhibitory effect against all the investigated Gram-positive and Gram-negative microorganisms. This agreed with the recorded results in the present study as the antimicrobial effect of combination of EWL + SA salt of all three concentrations on *Staph. aureus* and only a concentration of 200 ppm EWL + 2% SA on *E. coli* in beef-burger was increased strongly which indicates the presence of a synergistic action.

The effect of EWL did not showed a significant reduction (P>0.05) in E. coli growth while combination effect between Nicin and lysozyme had a best performance (P<0.05) in increasing the antibacterial activity against E. coli and Staph. aureus (Moshtaghi et al., 2018). This support the obtained data in the present study where it showed the use of 200 ppm of EWL had a significant effect on Staph. aureus while the same concentration found to have a lower activity against E. coli. Combination between 2% SA and 200 ppm EWL increased the Synergistic action and improve the activity strength against E. coli (P<0.05). In this respect, Huopalahti et al. (2007) mentioned also that Lysozyme is known for its antibacterial property, especially against Grampositive bacteria.

Lower reduction values were reported by Malinowska-Panczyk and Kotodziejska (2009) who found that lysozyme 400 mg/l. was able to induce significant reduction (P<0.05) of *Staph*. aureus strains by 0.4 log cycles from (8.9 ± 0.1) to 8.5±0.1), while, lysozyme showed nonsignificance \log_{10} cfu/g reduction (P>0.05) for *E. coli* K-12 (from 8.8±0.1 to 8.8±0.1). In this regard, Fedtke et al. (2004) and Sudagidan and Yemenicioglu (2012) concluded that lysozyme 5 mg/ml did not show enormous effective inhibition on growth of Staph. aureus while at the same time, the reduction rate was significant (P<0.05). These results support the hypothesis that lysozyme resistance is an important virulence factor for aureus Furthermore Matouskova et al. (2016) mentioned that the inhibitory effect against E. coli was very slight and at lower concentrations of lysozyme, no effect was observed. And more antimicrobial effect induced as high concentration used (1 mg/ml was more effective than 0.5 mg/ml.). While, Higher results were recorded by Vilcacundo et al. (2018): who concluded that native HEWL showed a reduction of 1.6 log₁₀cfu of E. coli while heat denaturated HEWL at 120 °C and pH 6.0 (1.0 mg/mL) inhibited 78.20% of the growth of *E. coli*.

Hen egg white lysozyme (E1105)is a widely used enzyme authorized for food preservation in **EU under EC Regulation No.2008/1333** on food additives. EWL has also been accepted as an antimicrobial substance in Ready-to-eat products (**FDA**, 2007 and Colak *et al.* 2015).

Lysozyme exhibits a strong antimicrobial activity against Gram-positive bacteria and some gram-negative bacteria. It damages peptidoglycans in bacteria cell wall by catalyzing hydrolysis of β -1-3 glycosidic linkage between Nacetylmuramic acid and N-acetylglucosamine. Furthermore, EC No. 1272/2008 proclaimed that alginic acid and its salts were classified as GRAS (generally recognized as safe) when used as a preservative in manufactured meat products. Meaning it does not constitute a public health hazard. Furthermore, World Health Organization (WHO) allow the use of lysozyme as a preservative in foods. Currently, it is being used in Chinese noodles, cheese, sushi, kimuchi pickles, and wine production

(Abeyrathne et al., 2013)

Conclusion and Recommendation

This review of results has shown that

The natural antimicrobials have the potential to replace chemical additives in meat products to accomplish and satisfy the consumer its safety and quality.

The strong antimicrobial activities of some Enzymes like egg white lysozyme were shown to be promising natural antimicrobials due to their ability to produce antimicrobial compounds or due to their ability to disintegrate the outer membrane of some bacteria; however, their applications in food products have to be further investigated as they could able to effect on *Staph. aureus* as gram positive bacteria while, have a slightly effect on gram negative bacteria (*E. coli*)

It is required from the scientist's further exploration of these natural antimicrobials to determine their synergy and allow their more effective use in food products. Moreover, further studies are needed in order to determine the best method of incorporation of these natural additives into food.

Further researches on alginic acid and its salts are required, in particular incorporation with other natural antimicrobial agents, to improve its ability to eliminate or reduce the contamination to an acceptable level which be safe and does not constitutes a public health hazard.

References

- Abeyrathane, N.S.; Ahn, D.U. and Lee, Y.H. (2013). Egg white proteins and their potential use in food processing or as nutraceutical and pharmaceutical agents. A review, poul. Sci.,;92(12):3292-3299.
- Águila-Ramírez, R.N.; Arenas-González, A.; Hernández-Guerrero, C.J.; González-Acosta, B.; Borges-Souza, J.M.; Veron, B.; Pope, J. and Hellio. C. (2012). Antimicrobial and antifouling activities achieved by extracts of seaweeds from Gulf of California, Mexico. Hydrobiological., 22(1): 8–15.
- Ahmad, S.R.; Gokulakrishnan, P.; Giriprasad, R. and Yatoo, M.A. (2015). Fruit-based natural antioxidants in meat and meat prod-

ucts: A review. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr., 55:1503–1513.

- Aminlari, L.; Hashemi, M.M. and Aminlari,
 M. (2014). Modified Lysozymes as Novel Broad Spectrum Natural Antimicrobial Agents in Foods. J Food Sci., 4, 79: 6.
- Andrade, L.R.; Salgado, L.T.; Farina, M.; Pereira, M.S.; Mourao, P.A.S. and Filho, A.G.M. (2004). Ultrastructure of acidic polysaccharides from the cell walls of brown algae. Journal of Structural Biology, 2004, 145 (3), pp. 216–225.
- **APHA** "American Public Health Association" (2001). Compendium of Methods for Microbiological Examination of food. 4th Ed., Washington, DC, USA.
- Aziz, M. and Karboune, S. (2018). Natural antimicrobial/antioxidant agents in meat and poultry products as well as fruits and vegetables: A review. Food Sci. and Nutri. J., 58 (3): 486–511.
- **Branen, J.K. and Davidson, P.M. (2004).** Enhancement of nisin, lysozyme, and monolaurin antimicrobial activities by ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid and lactoferrin. Int. J. Food Microbiol., 90, 63–67.
- Basuny, A.M.; Nasef, S.L.; Mahmoud, E.A.M. and Arafat, S.M. (2012). Use of medicinal and aromatic plants for increasing quality of some bakery products. *Int. Sci. Invest. J.* 1, 1–22.
- Benkerroum, M. (2008). Antimicrobial activity of lysozyme with special relevance to milk. Afr. J. Biotechnol., 7, 4856-4867.
- **Brewer, M.S. (2011).** Natural antioxidants: Sources, compounds, mechanisms of Action, and potential applications. Compr. Rev. Food Sci. Food Saf., 10:221–247
- Cardoso, M.J.; Costa, R.R. and Mano, J.F. (2016). Marine origin polysaccharides in drug delivery systems. Mar. Drugs, 14, 34.
- Cegielska-Radziejewska, R.; Lesnierowski, G.; Szablewski, T; Kijowski, J. (2009). Antibacterial activity of hen egg white lysozyme modified by thermochemical technique. Eur. Food Res. Technol., 228, 841 -845.
- Cegielska Radziejewska, R.; Lesnierowski, G.; Szablewski, T; Kijowski, J. (2010). Physico-chemical properties and antibacterial activity of modified egg white-

lysozyme. Eur. Food Res. Technol., 231, 959 -964.

- Cha, D.S. and Chinnan, M.S. (2004). Biopolymer-based antimicrobial packaging: A review. Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr., 44:223– 237.
- Cha, D.S.; Choi, J.H.; Chinnan, M.S. and Park, H.J. (2002). Antimicrobial films based on Na-alginate and k-carrageenan. LWT -Food Sci. Technol. 35:715–719.
- Colak, B.Y.; Peynichou, P.; Galland, S.; Oulahal, N.; Assezat, G. and prochazka, F. (2015). Active biodegradable sodium caseinate films manufactured by blow-film extrusion: effect of thermo-mechanical processing parameters and formulation on lysozyme stability. Ind. Crop. Prod., 72: 142-151.
- **Corradini, C. and Innocente, N. (2002).** Parametri chemiometrici e descrittori sensoriali del Montasio DOP Notiziario ERSA, 4,pp.43 -45.
- Cox, S.; Turley, G.H.; Rajauria, G.; Abu-Ghannam, N. and Jaiswal, A.K. (2014). Antioxidant potential and antimicrobial efficacy of seaweed (*Himanthalia elongata*) extract in model food systems. J. Appl. Phycol., 26:1823–1831.
- Derde, M.; Lechevalier, V.; Guérin-Diard, G.; Cochet, M.F.; Jan, S.; Baron, F. and Nau, F. (2014). Hen egg white lysozyme permeabilizes Escherichia coli outer and inner membranes. J Agric. Food Chem., 61, 9922-9929.
- Dhanya, K.I.; Swati, V.I.; Vanka, K.S. and Osborne, W.J. (2016). Antimicrobial activity of *Ulva reticulata* and its endophytes. J. Ocean Univ. China, 15: 363–369.
- EC No. 1272 (2008). European regulations on classification and packaging of substances and mixtures. Text with EEA relevant. Chapter, 13 (20): 3.
- **ECregulation (2008).** Regulation (EC) No. 1333/2008 of the European parliament and of the Council. Official Journal of the European Union,L 354/16-33.
- El Wahidi, M.; El Amraoui, B.; El Amraoui, M. and Bamhaoud, T. (2014). Screening of antimicrobial activity of macroalgae extracts from the Moroccan Atlantic coast. Ann. Pharm. Fr., 73: 190–196.
- **European Food Safety Authority** "EFSA" (2017). Re-evaluation of alginic

acid and its sodium, potassium, ammonium and calcium salts (E 400–E 404) as food additives. EFSA J., 15, 11.

- **FDA (2007).** Guidance for Industry and Other Stakeholders: Redbook 2000.Toxicological Principles for the Safety Assessment of Food Ingredients. Center for Food Safety and Applied Nutrition.
- Fedtke, I.; Gotz, f. and Peschel, A. (2004). Bacterial evasion of innate host defenses the Staphylococcus aureus lesson. Int. J. Med. Microbiol., 294: 189–194.
- Fernandez-Lopez, J.; Zhi, N.; Aleson-Carbonell, L.; Perez-Alvarez, J. A. and Kuri, V. (2005). Antioxidant and antibacterial activities of natural extracts: Application in beef meatballs. Meat Sci. 69:371–380
- (FDA) Food and drug administration (2001). Detection and enumeration of *Staphylococcus aureus* in food. *Staphylococcus aureus*. Bacteriological analytical manual. 8th Ed. Chapter 12. Gaithersburg, P.562.
- Gammariello, D.; Conte, A.; Di Giulio, S.; Attanasio, M. and Del Nobile, M.A. (2009). Shelf life of stracciatella cheese under modified atmosphere packaging. J. of Dairy Sci., 92,483-490.
- Gupta, S. and Abu-Ghannam, N. (2011). Recent developments in the application of seaweeds or seaweed extracts as a means for enhancing the safety and quality attributes of foods. Innov. Food Sci. Emerg. Technol., 12: 600–609.
- Gutierrez, J.; Barry-Ryan, C. and Bourke, P. (2008). The antimicrobial efficacy of plant essential oil combinations and interactions with food ingredients. Int. J. Food Microbiol., 129, 91-97.
- Gutierrez, J.; Barry-Ryan, C. and Bourke, P. (2009). Antimicrobial activity of plant essential oils using food model media: efficacy, synergistic potential and interaction with food components. Food Microbiol., 26, 142-150.
- Han, Z.L.; Yang, M.; Fu, X.D.; Chen, M.; Su, Q.; Zhao, Y.H. and Mou, H.J. (2019). Evaluation of prebiotic potential of three marine algae oligosaccharides from enzymatic hydrolysis. Mar. Drugs, 17, 173.
- Hay, I.D.; Rehman, Z.U.; Moradali, M.F.; Wang, Y. and Rehm, B.H.A. (2013). Mi-

crobial alginate production, modification and its applications. Microb. Biotechnol., 6, 637–650.

- Huopalahti, R.; Fandino, R.L.; Anton, M. and Schade, R. (2007). Bioactive egg compounds, Springer, NY., 3-66.
- **Ibrahim, H.R.; Hoq, M.I. and Aoki, T.** (2007). Ovotransferrin possesses SOD-like superoxide anion scavenging activity that is promoted by copper and manganese binding. Int. J. Biol. Macromol., 41, 631-640
- **ISO 16649-2 (2001).** Microbiology of food and animal feeding stuffs Horizontal method for the enumeration of beta-glucuronidasepositive Escherichia coli -- Part 2: Colonycount technique at 44 degrees C using 5bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl beta-Dglucuronide.
- Kakita, H. and Kamishima, H. (2008). Some properties of alginate gels derived from algal sodium alginate. Journal of Applied Phycology, 2008, 20(5), pp. 543-549.
- Karbassi, E.; Asadinehad, A.; Lehocky, M.; Humpolicek, P.; Vesel, A.; Novak, I. and Saha, P. (2014). Antibacterial Performance of Alginic Acid Coating on Polyethylene Film. Int. J. Mol. Sci., 15(8): 14684-14696.
- Karthikeyan, K.; Shweta, K.; Jayanthi, G.; Prabhu, K. and Thirumaran, G. (2015). Antimicrobial and antioxidant potential of selected seaweeds from Kodinar, Southern Coast of Saurashtra, Gujarat, India. J. Appl. Pharm. Sci., 5: 35–40.
- Kim, Y.J.; Yoon, K.J. and Ko, S.W. (2000). Preparation and properties of alginate superabsorbent filament fibers crosslinked with glutaraldehyde. J. Appl. Polym. Sci., 78, 1797–1804
- **Kraan, S. (2012).** Algal polysaccharides, novel applications and outlook. In: Chang C.-F., editor. Carbohydrates—Comprehensive Studies on Glycobiology and Glycotechnology. In Tech; Rijeka, Croatia: 2012.
- Lucera, A.; Costa, C.; Conte, A. and Del Nobile, M.A. (2012). Food applications of natural antimicrobial compounds. Front. Microbiol. 3, article (287), 1-13.
- Lopez-Malo, A.; Alzamora, M.S. and Palou, E. (2005). Aspergillus flavus growth in the presence of chemical preservatives and naturally occurring antimicrobial compounds. Int. J. Food Microbiol., 99, 119-128.

- Malinowska-Panczyk, E. and Kotodziejska, I. (2009). Effect of lysozyme or nisin on survival of some bacteria treated with high pressure at subzero temperature. Brazilian J. of Microbiol., 40(4): 767-777.
- Matouskova, P.; Marova, I.; Bokrova, J. and Pavla Benesova, P. (2016). Effect of Encapsulation on Antimicrobial Activity of Herbal Extracts with Lysozyme. Food Technol. Biotechnol., 54(3): 304–316.
- Mhadhebi, L.; Chaiebb, K. and Bouraoui, A. (2012). Evaluation of antimicrobial activity of organic fractions of six marine algae from Tunisian Mediterranean coasts. Int. J. Pharm. Pharm. Sci., 4: 534–537.
- Moshtaghi, H.; Rashidimehr, A. and Shareghi, B. (2018). Antimicrobial Activity of Nisin and Lysozyme on Foodborne Pathogens Listeria Monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, Salmonella Typhimurium, and Escherichia Coli at Different pH. J. of Nutrition and Food Security, 3(4): 193-201.
- Nair, R.; Kalariya, T. and Chanda, S. (2005). Antibacterial activity of some selected Indian medicinal flora. Turkish Journal of Biology 29: 41-47.
- Nogueira, L.F.; Morais, E.C.; Brito, M.A.; Santos, B.S.; Vale, D.L; Lucena, B.F.; Figueredo, F.G.; Guedes, G.M.; Tintino, S.R. and Souza, C.E. (2014). Evaluation of antibacterial, antifungal and modulatory activity of methanol and ethanol extracts of *Padina sanctae-crucis*. Afr. Health Sci., 14: 372–376.
- **Osman, M.E.H.; Abushady, A.M. and Elshobary, M.E. (2010).** *In vitro* screening of antimicrobial activity of extracts of some macroalgae collected from Abu-Qir bay Alexandria, Egypt. Afr. J. Biotechnol.,9: 7203–7208
- Padmakumar, K. and Ayyakkannu, K. (1997). Seasonal variation of antibacterial and antifungal activities of the extracts of marine algae from southern coasts of India. Bot., 40:507–515.
- Perez, M.J.; Falque, E. and Dominguez, H. (2016). Antimicrobial Action of Compounds from Marine Seaweed. Marine Drug J., 14 (3): 52.
- Peteiro, C. (2018). Alginate production from marine macroalgae, with emphasis on kelp farming. In Alginates and Their Biomedical

Applications; Rehm, B.H.A., Moradali, M.F., Eds.; Springer Singapore: Singapore, 2018; pp. 27–66.

- **Proctor, A.A. and Cunningham, F.E. (1988).** The chemistry of lysozyme and its use as a food preservative and a pharmaceutical. 26 (4):359-395.
- Ricke, S.C. (2003). Perspectives on the use of organic acid and short chain fatty acid as antimicrobials. Poult. Sci., 82, 632–639.
- Shelef, L. and Seiter, J. (1993). Indirect antimicrobials. Davidson, P.M. and Branen, L.A. (Eds.), Antimicrobials in Food, Marcel Dekker, New York, NY. (1993), pp. 544-555.
- Scott, L.G. and Strong, D.H. (1964). Effect of sodium alginate on *Staphylococcus aureus* during mild heating and freezing. Appl. Microbiol., 12(2): 146-149.
- Skurtys, O.; Acevedo, C.; Pedreschi, F.; Enrione, J.; Osorio, F.; Aguilera, J.M. (2010).
 Food hydrocolloid edible films and coatings.
 In Food Hydrocolloids Characteristics, Properties and Structures; Hollingworth, C.S., Ed.; Nova Science Publishers, Inc.: New York, NY, USA, pp. 41–80.
- Sudagidan, M. and Yemenicioglu, A. (2012). Effects of Nisin and Lysozyme on Growth Inhibition and Biofilm Formation Capacity of Staphylococcus aureus Strains Isolated from Raw Milk and Cheese Samples, Food Protec. J., 75(9): n1627-1633.
- Szekalska, M.; Puciłowska, A.; Nska, S.E.; Ciosek, P.; Winnicka, K. (2016). Alginate: Current use and future perspectives in pharmaceutical and biomedical applications. Int. J. Polym. Sci. 2016, 17.
- Tajkarimi, M.M.; Ibrahim, S.A. and Cliver, D.O. (2010). Antimicrobial herb and spice compounds in food. Food Control J., 21: 1199–1218.
- Theron, M.M.; Lures, J. and Rykers, F. (2010). "Application of organic acid in food preservation" in *Organic Acids and Food Preservation*, eds Taylor and Francis Group (Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press), 51–95.
- Thomas, S.; Visakh, P.M.; Mathew, A.P. (2013). Eds. Advances in natural polymers. Springer-Verlag: Berlin, pp. 193-254.
- **U.S. Food and Drug Administration (2018)**. Code for Federal Regulations Title 21 Part 184—Direct Food Substances Affirmed as Generally Recognized as Safe. Available

online:https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/ scripts/cdrh/cfdocs/cfcfr/CFRSearch.cfm? fr=184.1724.

- **Usov, A.I. (2013).** Chemical structures of algal polysaccharides. In: Domínguez H., editor. Functional Ingredients from Algae for Foods and Nutraceuticals. Wood head Publishing; Cambridge, UK: 23–86.
- Vera, J.; Castro, J.; González, A. and Moenne, A. (2013). Review: Seaweed polysaccharides and derived oligosaccharides stimulate defense responses and protection against pathogens in plants. Mar. Drugs., 9:2514–2525.
- Vijayavel, K. and Martínez, J.A. (2010). In vitro antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of two Hawaiian marine Limu: Ulva fasciata (Chlorophyta) and Gracilaria salicornia (Rhodophyta) J. Med. Food., 13:1494– 1499.
- Vilcacundo, R.; Mendez, P.; Reyes, W.; Romero, H.; pinto, A. and Carrillo, W. (2018). Antibacterial Activity of Hen Egg White Lysozyme Denatured by Thermal and Chemical Treatments. Scientia Pharmaceutical, 86(4): 1-17.
- Walewijk, A.; Cooper-White, J. and Dunstan, D. (2008). Adhesion measurements between alginate gel surface via texture analysis. Food Hydrocolloid, Ene; 22 (1): 91-96.
- Yoo, S. and Krochta, J.M. (2011). Whey protein-polysaccharide blended edible film formation and barrier, tensile, thermal and transparency properties. J. Sci. Food Agric., 91, 2628–2636
- Younes, M.; Aggett, P.; Aguilar, F.; Crebelli, R.; Filipic, M.; Jose Frutos, M.; Galtier, P.; Gott, D.; Gundert-Remy, U.; Georg Kuhnle, G. (2017). Re-evaluation of alginic acid and its sodium, potassium, ammonium and calcium salts (e 400–e 404) as food additives. EFSA J., 15, 5049.
- **Zheng, Z and Kohn, J. (2014).** Principles of Tissue Engineering, 4th Ed. Edited by Robert Lanza, Robert Langer and Joseph Vacanti.