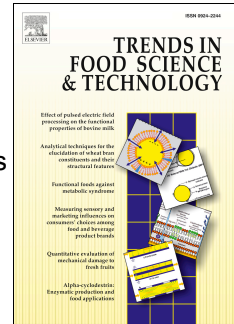


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Objective carcass measurement technologies: Latest developments and future trends

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PII: S0924-2244(20)30728-7

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2020.12.016>

Reference: TIFS 3068

To appear in: *Trends in Food Science & Technology*

Received Date: 14 April 2020

Revised Date: 24 August 2020

Accepted Date: 13 December 2020

Please cite this article as: Delgado-Pando, G., Allen, P., Troy, D.J., McDonnell, C.K., Objective carcass measurement technologies: Latest developments and future trends, *Trends in Food Science & Technology* (2021), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2020.12.016>.

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1 **Objective Carcass Measurement Technologies: Latest Developments and**

2 **Future Trends**

3

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5 **Abstract (word count max. 250)**

6 *Background*

7 Carcass evaluation is a key process to ascertain the value and the quality characteristics of the
8 animal at slaughter. In addition to being the base for monetary transactions between livestock
9 producers and meat processors, in some countries, this evaluation also helps to determine the
10 market allocation of cuts. Recent advances in non-invasive techniques are being tested for
11 their potential to improve classification and grading systems in the meat industry.

12 *Scope and Approach*

13 In this review, global grading and classification practices for pig, sheep and beef carcasses
14 are discussed along with the latest technological developments in objective carcass
15 measurement. We discuss a number of studies predicting marketable attributes such as yield
16 (lean and saleable meat yield), eating quality attributes (inter- and intramuscular fat, meat and
17 fat colour) and carcass dimensions (skeletal structure, ribeye area). Technologies based on x-
18 ray, nuclear magnetic resonance, video image analysis, ultrasound, bioelectric impedance and
19 spectroscopy are discussed, along with recent developments and their possible future
20 adoption.

21 *Key findings and conclusions*

22 DEXA and magnetic induction technologies have been commercialised for the sheep and pig
23 industries, respectively. X-ray technologies and updates in VIA systems could go beyond
24 grading to improve yield and cut dimension predictions. Some technologies could improve
25 process efficiencies through cut sorting and enabling robotic cutting, while also enabling
26 improved value-based payment systems. However, there are challenges associated with their
27 implementation in meat processing plants and further research and development is required in
28 some areas.

29

30

31 **Keywords (6 max):**

32 Grading

33 Classification

34 Meat prediction

35 Automation

36 DEXA

37 VIA

38

39

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41 1. Introduction

42 Evaluation of carcass characteristics is a key process in order to ascertain the quality and the
43 value of the animal at slaughter. Classification systems are those which aim to place a carcass
44 into a class based on descriptors, while grading aims to sort the carcass based on merit,
45 thereby grading has a value element (Allen, 2009; Mitchell, 2019). The grading appraisal is
46 the basis for transactions between livestock producers and meat processors and in some
47 countries, the evaluation helps to determine the market allocation of different cuts (Allen,
48 2009). However, the system used is country dependent, with some systems based on yield
49 prediction, and others that include quality characteristics. A good value-based payment
50 system can lead to the transfer of more accurate price signals throughout the supply chain
51 where there are clear financial incentives for producers to breed animals with attributes that
52 are desired by consumers (Allen, 2009).

53 Subjective evaluation based on standards was the starting point for classifying carcasses, but
54 in an attempt to improve consistency and accuracy, and move towards advanced value-based
55 systems, some countries have introduced objective carcass measurement (OCM). Studies
56 have been conducted on OCM prediction of both lean meat yield (LMY) and saleable meat
57 yield (SMY). LMY is defined as the percentage lean muscle tissue in a carcass while SMY,
58 in modern and practical terms, is defined as the meat trimmed to a specification whereby it is
59 ready for the point of sale. As SMY is specification dependant (i.e. market) and includes
60 variation in quantities of lean and fat and may also include bone, it is more difficult to
61 standardise than LMY. However, some developments in prediction systems have taken place.
62 Eating quality OCM differs as it is a multicomponent attribute (tenderness, juiciness and
63 flavour) as perceived by the consumer (Allen, 2009) but some predictive technologies for
64 objectively measured tenderness have been studied and these are discussed in the later
65 sections.

66 Due to the 4th industrial revolution, the rate of advancement in OCM technologies and
67 commercial uptake has accelerated in recent years, as has the meat industry's requirements
68 and willingness to adopt new technologies. This is driven by the need for automation and
69 improved process efficiency, which require an understanding of the composition and
70 characteristics of the carcass earlier in the process (Narsaiah, Biswas and Mandal, 2020).
71 Another fundamental driver is to reward producers for animals that more closely align with
72 market/consumer demand. A detailed review of several OCM technologies for meat: Dual x-
73 ray absorptiometry (DEXA), Computed Tomography (CT), Magnetic Resonance Induction
74 (MRI), and Ultrasound (US) can be found in Scholz, Bungler, Kongsro, Baulain and Mitchell
75 (2015). Further, Narsaiah et al (2020) provide an overview of broader applications of
76 nondestructive methods for carcass and meat evaluation, which in addition to grading
77 attributes also considers contamination, disease and storage evaluation. The objective of this
78 review is to describe more recent advances in OCM technologies that align with current
79 global practices and therefore could soon emerge to offer improvements in existing
80 commercial objective grading systems or complementary systems for subjective grading.
81 Furthermore, we broaden the scope to developments in other non-commercialised
82 technologies that have limited studies completed on meat applications but could have future
83 potential. In doing so, we aim to provide insight into future developments that could have an
84 impact on the meat industry.

85

86 **2. Carcass grading and classification**

87 A thorough and historical review of global grading and classification systems can be found
88 by Polkinghorne and Thompson (2010). In this section, we provide a brief summary,

89 outlining recent developments, of the classification and grading schemes of the countries with
90 large production and export markets.

91 Carcass evaluation emerged as the quality control needed for the commercial transactions
92 between livestock producers and meat processors. Carcasses are now rarely sold to retailers
93 as a whole; the carcasses are broken down into different cuts and sorted to meet the demands
94 of various markets and retailers. Better knowledge of carcass quality and composition can
95 lead to better allocation of cuts to markets according to their specific demands. Carcass
96 quality covers several factors that can affect the future visual and sensory characteristics of
97 the meat, whereas carcass evaluation usually means variables related to the yield of a carcass.
98 Attributes such as marbling, fat depth and cover, pH, temperature, hanging method, tropical
99 breed content, hormonal growth promoters, texture, and lean and fat colour relate to carcass
100 quality. Yield determination focuses on maturity, eye muscle area, weight, sex, fat level and
101 carcass conformation. Depending on the country and type of animal, the specifications for
102 carcass classification and grading will vary. A summary of the different grading systems and
103 the measured attributes can be found in Table 1. Various objective technologies are already in
104 use in carcass evaluation systems and these are summarised in Figure 1 and discussed in later
105 sections.

106 Beef carcass classification systems can be divided into those which include eating quality
107 grade and those which focus on carcass yield evaluation. Among the countries without eating
108 quality grades are the European Union (EU), most of the MERCOSUR countries and South
109 Africa (Table 1). The EU implemented the EUROP Classification System in 1981 under the
110 European Economic Community Regulations (EEC) No. 1208/81 and No. 2930/81 which
111 ensured uniform classification and price reporting for the member states. This system focuses
112 on carcass yield estimation by visual assessment of the carcass shape known as conformation
113 (from superior to poor) and subcutaneous fat cover (from low to very high) with 5 categories

114 of each. It has been shown that the current EUROP grading system does not indicate
115 marbling and additional indicators for palatability should be applied in the European beef
116 industry (Liu et al., 2020).

117 On the other hand, countries like Australia, Canada, Japan, South Korea and USA have
118 grading systems that, in addition to yield, include visual and/or eating quality attributes
119 (Table 1). The Australian system grades the carcass based on standards for meat and fat
120 colour, quantity of marbling, eye muscle area, rib fat and the maturity of the carcass as
121 defined by AUSMEAT (AUSMEAT, 2018). An additional system developed by Meat &
122 Livestock Australia and known as Meat Standards Australia (MSA) (MLA, 2016), is a
123 predictive eating quality model based on consumer sensory data, which aims to grade
124 individual cuts according to a cooking method. This method has recently been described as
125 the ‘Gold Standard’ of eating quality grading for beef (Mitchell, 2019). The ability of the
126 MSA system to predict eating quality outside of Australia has been demonstrated through EU
127 research projects (ProSafeBeef and ProOptiBeef) and in other countries (France, Poland,
128 Ireland, Northern Ireland, Japan, South Korea, New-Zealand, the USA and South Africa)
129 (Bonny et al., 2018). Recently, the ability of the MSA system to grade meat quality in Poland
130 was successfully demonstrated in a study whereby Polish consumers categorised the eating
131 quality grades of grilled beef at 6 mm and 25 mm thickness (Pogorzelski et al., 2020). The
132 ability of more countries to grade for eating quality using a standardised method could
133 become a reality with the recent establishment of International standards for eating quality.

134 The International standards for carcass assessment and consumer testing have been accepted
135 by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Bovine Language
136 Standards and through the work of the International Meat Research 3G Foundation, training
137 on beef eating quality grading systems can be accessed globally. The goal is to develop an

138 international predictive model of beef palatability (Hocquette et al., 2020; Polkinghorne,
139 2019).

140 With regard to sheep carcasses a similar approach to beef classification is followed by most
141 countries (Table 1). In Europe and South Africa sheep carcasses are classified following the
142 same characteristics as in bovine: carcass weight, age, conformation and fat cover. In
143 Australia, the AUS-MEAT system also adds the depth at the GR site (110mm from the
144 carcass midline over the 12th rib) and the MSA establishes certain standards (in terms of
145 carcass weight, fat class, GR depth, pH and ageing) and categorises the carcasses according
146 to their dentition. The MSA system also includes the appropriate cooking methods for each
147 cut, however development in the MSA EQ grading for sheep is far less extensive than the
148 beef system (Pannier, Gardner, O'Reilly, & Pethick, 2018).

149 In most countries, pig carcasses are classified according to a lean meat yield estimation
150 mainly based on measures of carcass weight and fat thickness. Only the Japanese Meat
151 Grading Association (JMGA) have a secondary grade assessment for pig carcasses. This is
152 based on drip, texture, meat and fat colour and marbling. In the EU, pig carcasses must be
153 classified, based on the lean meat yield of the carcass, according the SEUROP scale under
154 EC regulation No 1249/2008, which was updated as being mandatory for plants processing
155 more than 150 carcasses per week as an annual average in Commission Delegated Regulation
156 (EU) 2017/1182.

157 The next sections review technological developments which have been applied recently or
158 have potential to be applied to the classification and grading of sheep, beef and pig carcasses.

159

160 **3. Latest developments in non-invasive methods for the determination of body and**
161 **carcass composition:**

162 **3.1. X-ray based technologies**

163 X-ray technologies are based on the different degrees of attenuation of the x-rays as a
164 consequence of the different densities of the body/carcass tissues (lean muscle, bone, fat). In
165 the following sub-sections the most employed x-ray technologies by the meat industry will be
166 discussed.

167 **3.1.1. Computed Tomography (CT)**

168 In the late 1960s, Dr Godfrey Hounsfield deduced that if an x-ray beam was passed from all
169 directions onto an object, getting all the information from all the x-ray transmissions will lead
170 to the observation of the object's internal structure. This was the origin of computed
171 tomography (CT). Since then, four generations of CT scanners have been developed. In the
172 current CT systems, the x-ray source rotates and the attenuation, after passing through the
173 object, is measured by stationary ring detectors, thus enabling the generation of 3D images
174 after data processing by a computer. The tissues of interest: fat, muscle, and bone, all have
175 different mass attenuation coefficients that are transformed into CT numbers or Hounsfield
176 units (HU). The HU increases with increasing density such that fat, water and bone have
177 average HU units of -50 to -100, 0 and 700-3000, respectively, whereas muscle usually
178 ranges between 0-140 (Scholz et al., 2015).

179 The first applications of CT scanning in meat-producing animals were for estimating the
180 body composition of live pigs (Kolstad and Vangen, 1996; Font-i-Furnols et al., 2015). With
181 recent technologies and chemometrics, values of the prediction accuracy have improved (as
182 defined by the coefficient of determination R^2 and/or root mean square error). Coefficients of
183 determination (R^2) are as high as 0.98-0.99 for protein, moisture and fat, while the root mean
184 square errors of prediction (RMSEP) are 0.63, 1.03 and 1.14 for protein, moisture and fat
185 percentages, respectively (Font-i-Furnols, Carabus, Pomar, & Gispert, 2015). Today, CT is

186 recognised as the ‘Gold Standard’ in determining the LMY of carcasses. As such, it is
187 recognised under EU Commission Regulation (EC) No 1249/2008 as one of the calibration
188 methods for other online classification devices such as ultrasound, optical probes and
189 magnetic induction (Olsen, Christensen, & Nielsen, 2017). Research has focused on new
190 applications beyond being a calibration tool. As shown in Table 2, CT has been applied for
191 the determination of carcass composition (Matika et al., 2016; Navajas et al., 2010),
192 intramuscular fat (IMF) (Clelland et al., 2018; Font-i-Furnols, Brun, & Gispert, 2019; Font-I-
193 Furnols et al., 2014; Lambe et al., 2017) and cut weights (Font-I-Furnols et al., 2014). Other
194 studies on CT scanning include the prediction of fat and lean weights from primal cuts of
195 growing pigs ($R^2=0.994$ and 0.993 for fat and lean, respectively) (Carabus, Sainz, Oltjen,
196 Gispert, & Font-i-Furnols, 2015) but Font-i-Furnols et al. (2019) found that intramuscular fat
197 (IMF) prediction from CT images of live pigs had medium to low accuracy (RMSEP=0.56-
198 0.66). However, more recently, Font-i-Furnols et al. (2020) found out that CT was a suitable
199 technology for determining pig carcass composition before slaughter. Another recent
200 application has been the creation of a 3D model pig atlas from the live animal for delineating
201 the anatomy of porcine organs, skeleton and muscles (Ho, Yu, Gangsei, & Kongsro, 2019). In
202 sheep meat research, the use of CT scanning has been applied in a genome-wide association
203 approach whereby CT-measured productivity traits were studied for their association with
204 molecular polymorphisms in UK Texel sheep (Garza-Hernandez et al., 2018).

205

206 Even though CT scanning is a good tool with the ability to differentiate between tissues of
207 interest in the animal, carcass or primal cuts, there are several limitations to its application
208 and these present challenges for it being an on-line method. Some overlap may appear in
209 animals as some tissues have similar HU, such as mammary tissue and fat, skin and meat and
210 fat and marrow (Olsen et al., 2017; Scholz et al., 2015). It is important to note that differences

211 in the operating protocols and manufacturers/brand of scanners can present problems when
212 comparing the results from different experiments. Thus, standardisation of these protocols
213 and selecting the mass attenuation coefficients is essential. There is a need to further
214 standardise the HU to reduce uncertainty in CT results (Olsen et al. 2017). This could be
215 achieved by developing phantoms that mimic the different tissue densities and then adjust the
216 settings per HU depending on the outcome. But even with that harmonisation there will still
217 be more sources of uncertainty such as the image reconstruction by the software (dependent
218 on the brand) and the image post processing used to classify the pixels into the desired tissues
219 (Olsen et al., 2017).

220 In addition, medical CT devices are not currently practical on-line in meat processing due to
221 cost, operational speed and safety issues. Systems must be operated in lead-lined rooms to
222 protect operators from radiation leakage, and parts are expensive to replace. The gantry
223 aperture is usually <1m in diameter which precludes scanning entire beef sides over a certain
224 weight. Nonetheless, there are recent developments aimed at improving the usefulness of CT
225 in the meat industry. An online CT unit for application on meat cuts (0.5m aperture) has been
226 developed which removes the safety concerns for operating CT because the unit is contained.
227 The unit works at a speed of up to 600 samples per hour and has no cooling requirement. It
228 could be developed for multiple applications in the boning hall such as automated sorting of
229 high-value cuts based on eye-muscle area, improved trimming accuracy or intramuscular fat
230 prediction (DTI, 2017). Another potential commercial application is the use of CT to predict
231 IMF with high precision ($R^2=0.86$, $RMSE=2.01$) (Cook & Anderson, 2017) and it has been
232 demonstrated to predict IMF more accurately than the MSA marbling score ($R^2=0.89$ v 0.81)
233 (Anderson, Cook, Williams, & Gardner, 2018). This could offer the ability to objectively
234 determine some parameters of eating quality prediction. In the same trial, algorithms were
235 devised to enable automation tasks by locating specific carcass locations. Described as an

236 opportunity that could offer the meat industry a ‘quantum leap’, approaches are being devised
237 to test CT scanners from the aviation industry for meat industry application (Seaton, 2017)
238 which could overcome many hurdles associated with on-line CT. It is evident that a lot of
239 research has been devoted to CT use in meat production animal studies over the last decades.
240 It remains the most promising technology for determination of lean, fat and bone portions and
241 for providing 3D images of meat cuts so if future developments can operate at line speed,
242 vertically and address safety concerns, it could have a future role in carcass grading, beyond
243 being a calibration tool.

244 **3.1.2. DEXA**

245 Dual x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) couples the x-ray information acquired at two energy
246 levels (high and low) and was initially designed for the measurement of bone mineral density.
247 The main parameter collected after the scan is the difference (ratio) between the attenuation
248 from the high- and low-intensity x-ray, the so called R-value. The individual pixels are
249 divided into two types: pixels from soft tissue (no bone) and pixels with bone. The R-value is
250 used to determine the fat content from the former and the bone content from the latter,
251 whereas the lean content is estimated as a difference between the two (Pomar, Kipper, &
252 Marcoux, 2017). Bone mineral content and bone mineral density can also be obtained.
253 Due to its high accuracy, DEXA has been repeatedly used for compositional studies in live
254 pigs, carcasses and cuts (Bernau et al., 2015; Kremer, Fernandez-Figares, Forster, & Scholz,
255 2012). In general, the use of DEXA for predicting sheep body or carcass composition has
256 been deemed to be accurate and effective (MacGhee et al., 2017).
257 Several research studies have elucidated the possible information that can be gained from
258 DEXA such as the estimation of body composition in live calves (MacGhee et al., 2017) and
259 to predict the lean and fat of the 9-11th rib cut in beef (Prados et al., 2016). López-Campos et

260 al. (2017c) estimated via linear regression the lean, fat and bone content from beef carcasses
261 ($R^2=0.88, 0.95, 0.53$, respectively) and primal cuts using DEXA. When the authors used
262 partial least square regression for the prediction, the coefficients increased to 0.98. The lean
263 prediction for most of the primal cuts had $R^2 > 0.94$ whilst for fat, the R^2 were > 0.91
264 excluding the fore-shank. The prediction of total and saleable yield of beef carcasses has been
265 recently evaluated in 316 half-carcasses by the same group (López-Campos et al., 2017b).
266 The accuracy of prediction of total carcass lean and fat was higher ($R^2=0.98$) than saleable
267 yield of the loin, rib and chuck (R^2 from 0.7 to 0.97).

268 As with CT, standardised processes are required. A comparison of two different DEXA
269 instruments for the estimation of body composition in 77 live pigs showed significantly
270 different lean, fat and bone predictions between instruments (Losel, Kremer, Albrecht, &
271 Scholz, 2010). Therefore, inter-comparisons require a prior cross validation in order to be
272 able to make the data from particular studies comparable. In addition, the accuracy will be
273 affected by species related and other factors. Scholz, Kremer-Rücker, Wenzel,
274 Pappenberger, and Bernau (2013) compared the accuracy of the same DEXA instrument for
275 the estimation of fat and meat in different species (61 pigs, 93 lambs and 34 calves). Not
276 surprisingly, predictive accuracy was higher for the carcass than for *in vivo* animals, and
277 generally was also higher in pigs, followed by lambs and then calves. DEXA estimation of
278 body composition *in vivo* was strongly affected by the content of the gastrointestinal tract,
279 being much higher in ruminants than in non-ruminants such as pigs. In another species-
280 related study, using the same device, López-Campos et al. (2017a) presented a comparison of
281 the DEXA accuracy for carcass composition in 230 beef steers, 104 cows, 155 lambs and 212
282 pigs using the same instrumentation and procedure. RMSE for fat percentage was the lowest
283 in cows (0.0987) and highest in lamb (0.1478), while similar for steers and pigs (0.1160,

284 0.1133, respectively). In the case of lean, the lowest RMSE was for steers (0.0913), followed
285 by pigs (0.0954), cows (0.1182) and lambs (0.2085).

286 Another issue is the beam hardening effect, when for example using thick and/or very dense
287 samples, the lower energy photons are attenuated and only the higher energy ones contribute
288 to the beam resulting in artefacts on the image. A study by Kipper, Pomar, Marcoux, and
289 Radünz Neto (2015) showed that the thickness of meat samples affected the percentage of fat,
290 soft tissue and lean mass estimated by DEXA but did not affect the estimation of fat mass. It
291 must be noted that the level of water in fat-free tissues could also present a problem when
292 using DEXA technologies as this ratio is considered to be constant and changes in body
293 weight are an important factor (Pomar et al., 2017). For example, drip loss from the carcass is
294 a factor to be considered, especially at commercialisation, depending on the post-mortem
295 time of analysis.

296 Prediction of LMY by DEXA has reached commercialisation in the lamb industry with
297 several units being installed in New Zealand and Australia and recent studies have
298 demonstrated that it is a superior method for fat prediction in sheep carcasses than standard
299 GR measurements which are used in Australia with good results for fat ($R^2=0.91$,
300 $RMSE=1.91\%$) when compared to CT determination (Connaughton et al 2020). Much of the
301 development work was conducted through the Advanced Livestock Measurement
302 Technologies (ALMTech) programme in Australia, a genetically and phenotypically diverse
303 subset ($n=559$; 2-4 mm GR tissue depth, 10.9 - 39.3 kg hot carcass weight (HCW)) of
304 carcasses were selected and CT scanned for calibration of DEXA which resulted in R^2 of
305 fat%, lean% and bone% of 0.89, 0.74 and 0.71 and root-mean square errors of 1.42, 1.69, and
306 0.80, respectively (Gardner et al., 2016). Trimmed cuts were also CT-scanned and algorithms
307 were derived to predict the cut-weight, with DEXA estimating the weight of most
308 commercial cuts with an $R^2 >0.85$ (Williams et al., 2017). This could offer processors the

309 ability to predict the weight of commercial cuts prior to bone-out and therefore allow sorting
310 according to market demand (Williams et al., 2017).

311 The application of DEXA to predict fat percentage in beef has also been assessed. When
312 using a prototype DEXA system in a shipping container, 51 beef carcasses were CT and
313 DEXA scanned to determine a DEXA value to predict CT fat%. DEXA estimates described
314 88% of the variation in whole carcass CT fat% (RMSE=3.21) (Gardner et al., 2017). DEXA
315 has been proven as an effective method for the determination of LMY in sheep, and future
316 work on a large data set could lead to improved RMSE values for beef. Commercially, it has
317 also been successfully coupled with robotics for automated cutting of sheep carcasses,
318 leading to accurate cutting, the possibility of improved yield on higher value cuts and a
319 reduced incidence of operator injuries. However, the system often requires a large footprint
320 and must be constructed in lead-lined rooms for staff safety. Furthermore, it provides LMY
321 information on the chilled carcass so in countries which require conformation scores on a hot
322 carcass for grading, other systems will be required. Nonetheless, DEXA has potential to
323 provide information about market specific traits on certain cuts and to inform robotic systems
324 so it could become a more common technique to grade carcasses based on LMY. However,
325 it's uptake will be processor specific as decisions to invest in the technology will be based on
326 factors such as throughput (i.e. payback timeframe), factory space, if automated cutting is
327 desired and governance of grading in that country.

328 **3.1.3. Others**

329 There are other x-ray based technologies that have been used for compositional
330 determinations in meat products. Transmission radiography, the simplest x-ray approach, has
331 been used to estimate total fat and salt content in hams (de Prados et al., 2015). Frisullo,
332 Marino, Laverse, Albenzio, and Del Nobile (2010) used micro-CT for the rapid estimation of

333 IMF in five different commercial cuts obtaining high correlations ($R^2 > 0.92$) with chemical
334 fat content.

335 Hoban et al. (2016) utilised small angle x-ray scattering synchrotron technology for the
336 determination of ovine meat quality. The authors found that this technology could moderately
337 determine myofibrillar characteristics related with meat tenderness and to evaluate the
338 differences of IMF in ovine carcasses.

339 Recent advances in x-ray technologies have focused on increasing image resolution, or
340 utilising robotics (rotating x-ray) and enabling phase contrast x-ray imaging (PCI). PCI
341 provides complementary information in addition to conventional attenuation-based imaging
342 and allows for enhanced tissue characterization, such as quantification of protein, lipid, and
343 water content within each 3D voxel (Willner et al., 2016). However, these applications have
344 not yet reached commercialisation.

345

346 **3.2. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) based technologies**

347 **3.2.1. Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)**

348 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is based on NMR and involves transforming the signal
349 information into 3D grey scale images. MRI is based on spatial localization of the NMR
350 signal by a Fourier transformation. MRI images are generated by classifying the tissues
351 according to the relaxation times of protons (T_1 and T_2). These two constants provide
352 different intensities of images: while white matter is brighter than grey matter in T_1 -weighted
353 images, it is darker in T_2 -weighted images (Carabus, Gispert, & Font-I-Furnols, 2016). The
354 former acquisition is performed first, and only if it does not give enough contrast, the T_2 -
355 weighted acquisition is performed as it requires longer sequences. There are two types of
356 MRI scanners: low and high field. Low field scanners (also known as open scanners) operate

357 at around 0.23 T (Tesla), while high-field ones (or closed MRI) can operate up to 3 T. Better
358 and more rapid resolutions are obtained with closed MRI. The tissue structures present in
359 meat — muscle, fat, and connective tissue — can be exceptionally well differentiated using
360 MRI in a volumetric way (Baulain, 1997). The vast majority of the literature using MRI in
361 animal science is focused on live pigs, scanning the live animal at selected points (loin,
362 thorax region, ham) and obtaining the correlations with body components (Bernau et al.2015;
363 Kremer et al., 2012). Recently, Bernau, Schwanitz, Kremer-Rücker, Kreuzer, and Scholz
364 (2018) used MRI to analyse different body composition traits (including testis volume) in live
365 pigs and compared them to boar taint indicators (androsterone, skatole, and indole levels)
366 post-slaughter. It was found that entire boars had larger testis volumes and belly fat and these
367 were associated with higher levels of androsterone.

368 Both closed and open MRI have a maximum bore diameter of 70 cm (wide bore MRI),
369 although most instruments have 60 cm diameter. Due to these size constraints, beef carcasses
370 cannot be analysed if they have not been previously cut into primals. Lee et al. (2015) used
371 MRI in beef cuts purchased from a local market to observe if prediction of marbling was
372 accurate. The results showed a strong correlation between the chemically measured IMF and
373 the MRI determination ($R^2=0.986$). The authors also pointed out the potential use of MRI to
374 measure the distribution of IMF. This would be advantageous as there is no analytical method
375 that can do this. As previously mentioned, IMF is currently assessed, both subjectively and
376 objectively, in some countries on the rib-eye cross section and this only serves as an indicator
377 of marbling throughout the muscle. Therefore, an objective method that could determine IMF
378 would be favourable for eating quality grading. Despite the good resolution and accuracy of
379 MRI, there have been limited experiments on meat due to the size constraints, the high cost of
380 the instrument and the longer times for data acquisition, when compared to other devices.

381 The most important advances in MRI have been in the software, increasing the scan speed
382 and the image quality. In the USA, a high-field MRI of 7T has been approved, doubling what
383 was available previously (Fornell, 2016). Another innovation came from researchers at the
384 University of Aberdeen who developed a Fast Field Cycling MRI, which is described as
385 being like a hundred MRI's at once (Abdn, 2017). The unit, which is based on the deliberate
386 switching of magnetic fields, was developed through the EU Horizon 2020 programme under
387 the project IDentIFY. By switching magnetic fields, opposed to constant frequency in
388 standard MRI, very detailed images are achieved. The first commercial application is for
389 medical imaging but it serves as an example of the advancements in the field. Similar to CT,
390 commercialisation of MRI for meat grading will only be likely if several hurdles such as cost,
391 safety, resolution at high speed and ability to analyse larger animals are addressed.

392 **3.2.2. Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy and Quantitative Magnetic** 393 **Resonance**

394 NMR can also be used for spectroscopy applications. In this process, magnetic resonance
395 spectroscopy (MRS) aims to separate and measure different metabolites on the basis of the
396 variation in resonance frequencies of nuclei with different magnetic environments (Baulain,
397 1997). In animal science, the hydrogen proton is most frequently used but ^{31}P and ^{13}C have
398 also been employed to give insight into energy metabolism. A low field and more affordable
399 MRS is the time domain (TD)-NMR, that has been successfully applied to small samples
400 (~15g) of meat for fast prediction of quality characteristics (Pereira et al., 2013). In addition,
401 it was recently reported that TD-NMR has the potential of being applied as a beef eating
402 quality grading instrument as it provided good linear predictions for fat (0.88), moisture
403 (0.79) and drip loss (0.79) and a promising correlation with tenderness (0.58) (Webster,
404 2019).

405 Quantitative magnetic resonance (QMR) is a relatively new non-invasive and non-imaging
406 method that is still in the evaluation phase for farm animals. The difference from MRI is that
407 the scan takes place at once in the whole body and the time domain signal rather than the
408 spectrum, is processed directly (Mitchell, Ramsay, & Scholz, 2012). One of the advantages of
409 QMR results is that they are not dependent on the hydration of the fat-free tissue, as opposed
410 to DEXA, although an underestimation of fat content can occur (Bosy-Westphal & Muller,
411 2015). QMR has been successfully employed for assessing changes in body composition of
412 piglets (Mitchell et al., 2012) but as this is one of the less explore technologies for meat
413 application, further research is required.

414 **3.3. Bioelectromagnetic Methods: Bioelectrical Impedance Analysis (BIA),** 415 **Total-body electrical conductivity (TOBEC) and Magnetic Induction (MI)**

416 The electromagnetic properties of the animal, carcass and meat are highly correlated with the
417 fat tissue content and therefore bioelectromagnetic technologies could be applied to
418 understand the animal or carcass composition. Adipose tissue has lower water content and
419 ions than any other tissue in the animal, hence it is a poorer conductor of electricity.
420 Bioelectrical Impedance Analysis (BIA) involves placing contacts on the animal and
421 measuring the reactance (capacitance) and resistance (resistive) that are used to calculate
422 impedance. Total-body electrical conductivity (TOBEC) differs from BIA in that it does not
423 involve the use of electrodes but a surrounding coil is utilised instead, generating a
424 radiofrequency electromagnetic field that is absorbed in proportion to body conductivity
425 (Allen & McGeehin, 2001). Based on the same principle, Magnetic Induction (MI) measures
426 the small perturbations of a variable magnetic field due to the passage of a body through it
427 (Ellis, 2001).

428 BIA has been used to predict free-fat mass in buffalo calves obtaining high accuracy
429 ($R^2=0.967$) (Sarubbi, Baculo, & Balzarano, 2008). More recently, Silva et al. (2018) obtained
430 good prediction of carcass composition in young goats using BIA. When combined with
431 other parameters such as carcass length, and carcass cold weight, it accurately predicted
432 carcass fat weight ($R^2=0.94$), intermuscular fat weight ($R^2=0.95$) and chemical fat content
433 ($R^2=0.86$).

434 TOBEC accurately predicted the lean meat percentage in beef leg primals and pork carcasses
435 ($RSD=2.08\%$ and $RSD=1.97\%$, respectively) (Allen & McGeehin, 2001). It can also be
436 used for body composition prediction (fat free lean and protein mass) in live animals with
437 high accuracy ($R^2=0.94$) (Simeonova, Todorov, & Schinckel, 2012). Simoncini et al. (2012)
438 used MI equipment (Lenz Fat-Analyzer™) to predict the lean content of hams obtaining high
439 accuracy ($R^2=0.90$), while a lower accuracy ($R^2=0.80$) was found for pork bellies using an
440 updated version (HAM-Inspector II™) of the aforementioned equipment (Daumas, Monziols,
441 Rodriguez, Alvarez-García, & Causeur, 2019).

442 Despite the high accuracy and relative safety (electromagnetic field is really low), the use of
443 TOBEC and MI by the meat industry is scarce and mainly focused on ham grading and the
444 estimation of chemical lean in boxed manufactured meat (Allen & McGeehin, 2001). The
445 two main reasons slaughterhouses might have not invested on these technologies are that the
446 tunnel is horizontal and also too small to fit a whole beef carcass (Allen & McGeehin, 2001).

447 However, the EU recently approved the use of MI for SEUROP grading of pig carcasses in
448 Spain and Poland (GMSteel, 2018). The system (gmSCAN) has been designed for slaughter
449 plants as it is upright (vertical), contactless and can process 900-1000 carcasses per hour.

450 Using multiple transmitter coils to generate a variable and low intensity magnetic field, the
451 lean meat yield can be calculated due to the differences in the dielectric properties of fat and
452 bones compared to lean in a certain range of frequencies. The system obtained a RMSEP of

453 1.94% for the prediction of LMY in pig carcasses following a trial on 130 carcasses in Spain.
454 The concept is based on the use of contactless MI to measure the dielectric properties of the
455 carcass. In the calibration trials, the system also predicted the LMY and weights of primal
456 cuts. The prediction error obtained for the LMY was 1.7% for the ham, 1.98% for the belly,
457 1.74% for the shoulder and 2.15% for the loin. In addition, the unit could predict the weight
458 in the primal cuts with prediction errors for the ham of 372g, 257g for the belly, 148g for the
459 shoulder and 255g for the loin. While the technology has been successfully developed and
460 commercialised for pig carcasses, it would be interesting if future studies assess its
461 applicability to sheep and beef carcasses.

462 **3.4. Ultrasound (US)**

463 Ultrasound (US) is based on the reflection of sound energy when it encounters any physical
464 material. There are two types of applications, as a non-destructive diagnostic tool ($>1\text{MHz}$)
465 or as a processing technology ($\sim 20\text{-}100\text{ kHz}$). For the latter, high-intensity US ($10\text{-}1000$
466 W/cm^2) is employed, while high frequency ($>100\text{ kHz}$) low-intensity ($<1\text{ W}/\text{cm}^2$) US is used
467 as a non-destructive analytical tool for quality control.

468 High correlations between the US measurements on the live animal with corresponding
469 measurements on the carcass have been found for ribeye area in cattle (R^2 up to 0.92) (Scholz
470 et al., 2015), subcutaneous fat in sheep (R^2 up to 0.95) (Silva, 2017) and IMF in pigs (R^2 up
471 to 0.92) (Carabus et al., 2016). Table 3 shows the range of US applications including
472 prediction of carcass and quality characteristics to genetic improvement in pigs, sheep and
473 cattle.

474 A Danish company, Frontmatec Smoerum A/S (formerly known as Carometec A/S, Smorum,
475 Denmark), launched in 1994 the first 3D automatized US device (Autofom™) that allowed
476 the on-line grading of pig carcasses by LMY predicted from hundreds of backfat thickness

477 and muscle thickness measurements. It was authorised for use in France, Hungary and the
478 UK (Carometec, 2017). The recently improved version of the model (Autofom™ III) has now
479 been authorised as a grading system in Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, Finland, Germany, Italy,
480 Poland, Spain and Sweden. Outside the EU, Choi et al. (2018), used the Autofom™ III to
481 predict primal and commercial cut weights in pig carcasses. Calibration models for deboned
482 shoulder blade, shoulder picnic, loin, belly, and ham demonstrated R^2 of 0.77 to 0.86 but
483 other groups of cuts did not perform as well (spare rib, back rib, jowl, false lean, and
484 diaphragm cuts resulted in $R^2 < 0.34$). Nonetheless, as demonstrated and discussed by Choi et
485 al. (2018), the Autofom™ III is more accurate than its predecessor (Autofom™ I) and
486 demonstrates that technologies are advancing towards improved accuracies.

487 Within ultrasound imaging, there is a direct relationship between sound frequency and image
488 quality. Shorter wavelengths give better resolution, but longer ones are needed to reach more
489 depth in the tissue. The current focus is on transducer improvement so that they become
490 smaller and easier to use.

491 Even though this technology is very advanced in pigs (suitable on-line due to wet skin after
492 the scalding process ensuring good acoustic contact), the same technology cannot be
493 implemented on beef or sheep carcass due to air pockets following de-hiding which would
494 impede proper access of the sound energy (Allen, 2009). Addis et al. (2020) tried to predict
495 hind-leg muscles weight of yearling dairy-beef steers with ultrasound measurements of EMA
496 obtaining low percentage of variability explained (39.9%). Therefore, it is likely that
497 applications on sheep and beef will only be useful on live animals, while it is a successful pig
498 carcass grading technology.

499 **3.5. Video Image Analysis (VIA)**

500 VIA systems are based on the differences in light intensity received by a video camera (e.g.
501 fat from lean meat). In a detailed review by Craigie et al. (2012), the evolution and
502 development of VIA for beef carcass evaluation is thoroughly discussed. VIA technology can
503 be divided into two groups; a hand-held VIA system which can be used for quality grading
504 (typically IMF), rib-eye area, colour and fat thickness measured at the quartering site of the
505 carcass and whole-carcass VIA systems which can assess carcass attributes related to yield or
506 composition (fat cover, conformation). In 2007, the USDA approved the first VIA hand-held
507 systems to determine rib-eye area, marbling score and the quality grade at the 12th-13th rib
508 (Woerner & Belk, 2008). Recent studies have assessed the ability of the VGB2000 to grade
509 beef carcasses in other countries and adapt it to a different grading location on the carcass.
510 For example, Schulz and Sundrum (2019) demonstrated that with some software
511 modifications, the VGB2000 could grade for marbling in German beef carcasses (n=354)
512 with a regression coefficient (R^2) of 0.78 (grading at the left and right side at 10-11th rib). The
513 same system has recently been assessed for its ability to predict MSA marbling score, fat
514 thickness and rib-eye area (Langbridge, 2018). The VIA system correlated with an expert
515 plant grader for marbling ($R^2=0.682$), fat thickness ($R^2=0.689$) and rib-eye area ($R^2=0.782$).
516 The MIJ-30 grading camera (Meat Image Japan, Japan) is another VIA system for grading
517 quality attributes. Kuchida, Sakaguchi, Kano, Goto, and Komine (2018) tested the ability of
518 this device to measure IMF percentage and rib-eye area obtaining a high correlation with
519 visual grade scores ($R^2=0.964$ and $R^2=0.926$, respectively).

520 In Europe, Oceania and South America, whole-carcass VIA systems from four different
521 companies have been adopted for beef grading: VBS 2000 (E+V GmbH), VIAScan (Cedar
522 Creek), BCC-2.1 (Carometec A/S) and MAC-S (Normaclass). The first three systems were
523 tested by Allen and Finnerty (2000) on 7247 beef carcasses. These systems (VBS 2000,
524 VIAScan and BCC 2.1) were able to predict EUROP conformation and fat classification

525 scores and saleable meat yield with acceptable accuracy. The percentage of confirmation
526 classifications within one subclass from the subjective panel was 95.4, 97.0 and 94.2 for the
527 VBS2000, BCC2 and VIA Scan, respectively, while fat class was lower at 74.6, 80.4 and
528 72.0%. SMY was predicted with an error reported as an RSD of 1.12-1.2% between the three
529 systems (Allen, 2009). Craigie et al. (2012) calculated the median R^2 of the commercially
530 available VIA systems according to the available data. The authors reported that for the
531 prediction of saleable meat yield, fat percentage and bone percentage, the coefficients of
532 determination were 0.70, 0.80 and 0.82, respectively. Irish abattoirs were the first to adopt
533 automated grading by VIA in 2004 following calibration trials conducted under EU
534 Regulations (EU 2017/1182, p.19) and many EU countries have since conducted their own
535 authorisation trials. There have also been recent trials on the upgraded model of the Danish
536 BCC-2, now known as the BCC-3, which is comprised of 8 pillars containing up to 40
537 cameras. The no-contact system can operate at a continuous line speed of 520 half
538 carcasses/h. The system is currently installed in four European slaughter-plants and a South
539 American plant while it undergoes assessment and calibration. A test on 86 carcass sides in a
540 Danish plant demonstrated the ability of the system to predict the weight of the pistol cut,
541 inside, knuckle and rump from veal with prediction errors of 0.910 kg, 0.280 kg, 0.191 kg
542 and 0.162 kg, respectively (Esberg, Christensen, & Lauridsen, 2019).

543 Whole carcass VIA instruments have also been developed specifically for sheep carcasses.
544 Rius-Vilarrasa, Bünger, Maltin, Matthews, and Roehe (2009) used the E+V VBS2000 to
545 predict dissected primal meat yields obtaining R^2 from 0.86 to 0.97. Using VIA Scan,
546 Einarsson, Eythorsdottir, Smith, and Jonmundsson (2014) predicted lean meat yields in the
547 leg, loin and shoulder with a $R^2 = 0.61, 0.31$ and 0.47 , respectively.

548 VIA systems are, therefore, useful tools to predict carcass conformation in a consistent way
549 and can be successfully applied under harsh environments such as abattoirs. It can be

550 installed in-line, speed is adequate for the meat industry requirements and it is non-intrusive
551 such that measurements can be done without contact with the carcass. The main drawback is
552 that the information provided only comes from the external (visible) surface of the carcass or
553 side. This is important if carcass composition is to be estimated, as conformation and fat class
554 are not considered good predictors of composition (Craigie et al., 2012) or intramuscular fat
555 (Liu et al., 2020). Fat content is especially difficult for VIA, as it is the most variable
556 component and is deposited in several locations in the carcass with the proportions in
557 different locations being dependant on breed, sex, maturity and diet (Craigie et al., 2012) and
558 due to VIA only determining the subcutaneous fat cover, it loses accuracy as the fat depth
559 increases (Allen, 2009).

560 Incorporation of 'time of flight' (TOF) technology presents another opportunity to improve
561 accuracy and resolution of the cameras of VIA systems. TOF provides 3D imaging using an
562 infrared light source that illuminates the object and a detector receives the reflected light, so
563 the depth information is added to the image. In all cases, a significant amount of research is
564 required to prove the capabilities of the technologies. Nonetheless, TOF cameras have been
565 proposed to be used as part of multi-sensor equipment (such as CT) to improve computer
566 aided surgery (Pycinski, Czajkowska, Badura, Juszczuk, & Pietka, 2016) so their application
567 could be emerging. In addition, as the technology field is fast evolving, and with that, the
568 availability and cost of technologies is improving.

569 **3.6. Optical and Spectroscopic Probes**

570 In the 1980s several optical probes were developed based on the difference in reflectance of
571 fat and muscle. The Fat-O-Meater (FOM) was created by researchers in the Danish Research
572 Meat Institute and in New Zealand the Fat Depth Indicator, which later became the Hennessy
573 Grading Probe (HGP) was developed. Both probes were originally designed for use on pig

574 carcasses and are still used by the pig industry. In a recent conference, a new probe model
575 based on fibre optical sensors and near infrared was tested on pig carcasses obtaining
576 accurate predictions of lean meat ratio (Sun, Leng, Ma, Xu, & Xie, 2017). There is some
577 research on the use of these probes on sheep carcasses (Hopkins et al., 2013), but as with all
578 methods based on predicting carcass composition from subcutaneous fat depths, they are less
579 accurate on beef and sheep than on pig carcasses for two main reasons. Firstly, the
580 subcutaneous fat depot is a higher proportion of total carcass fat in pigs than in ruminants, so
581 the part-whole relationship is weaker in the latter. Secondly, the subcutaneous fat layer is less
582 even in ruminants, a situation that is made worse by hide removal, whereas the skin of pig
583 carcasses is generally left on, preserving the more even layer. In the case of lamb carcasses,
584 the generally lower fat depth range has been highlighted as a potential drawback for the use
585 of these probes. However, Kongsro, Roe, Kvaal, Aastveit, and Egelanddal (2009) observed
586 high prediction accuracies using the HGP on lamb carcasses; fat and muscle weights were
587 predicted with $R^2=0.93$ and 0.85 , respectively. When compared to the GR knife, no
588 improvements in accuracy were found (Siddell, McLeod, Toohey, van de Ven, & Hopkins,
589 2012) and it has also been reported that in the current state, the variation from the HGP is too
590 high to be implemented in lamb abattoirs (Fowler et al., 2017).

591 In relation to meat quality, near-infrared (NIR) and Raman spectroscopy probes have been
592 studied extensively. However, both spectroscopic techniques have shown high variability
593 when predicting shear force, with R^2 values ranging from 0.01 to 0.74 (Berri et al., 2019).
594 NIR spectroscopy has also been used as a research tool to predict sensory traits with better
595 accuracy. Nonetheless, we cannot assert that the spectroscopic techniques are good predictors
596 of sensory traits for several reasons: intensity scales used in sensory assessment are narrow
597 and thus the accuracy is reduced, the samples tested with the probe will not be the same as

598 the ones tested by the consumers, and the samples present a great amount of heterogeneity
599 due to the nature of the muscle, animal maturity and breed (Berri et al., 2019).
600 Combining spectroscopic and imaging techniques such as Hyperspectral or Multispectral
601 Imaging (HSI or MSI respectively) offers promise (Jackman, Sun and Allen, 2011). These
602 devices have the ability of generating an actual image with a spectral range for each of the
603 pixels. Naganathan et al. (2016) have recently developed a prototype of HSI camera to be
604 used on the ribeye surface of hanging carcasses in a commercial setup. The device was used
605 on 274 beef carcasses and was able to predict shear force with an accuracy of 86.7% (using
606 101 carcasses for validation). In addition, other HSI and MSI devices such as MKII
607 (Frontmatec) and Tenderspec are have been evaluated. The MKII was able to predict IMF
608 from 400 lamb loins (24 h postmortem) with a root mean square error of 0.8% (Gardner,
609 2018). In a proof-of-concept study on the application of the Tenderspec to predict tenderness
610 and IMF in Australian beef, 95% accuracy was achieved in identifying carcasses certified as
611 tender. In addition, marbling scores derived from the US algorithms were more highly
612 correlated to IMF than subjectively determined MSA marbling scores (Calkins, 2019).
613 Therefore, hurdle technologies or advances in accuracy of technologies could lead to spectral
614 techniques for prediction of eating quality attributes in an abattoir.

615 **4. Future Directions**

616 Technologies from other industries (e.g. medicine or aviation) are likely to lead to
617 developments which could be applied within the meat industry. A small summary of the
618 future directions for each of the non-invasive methods discussed in this review is presented in
619 Figure 2. Apart from the advances already discussed in the previous sections, there are others
620 that in the future could also generate an impact on the meat industry. An emerging
621 biomedical imaging methodology based on the microwave spectrum and the dielectric

622 properties of soft tissue is being developed; this technique is called microwave tomography
623 (MWT) (Semenov, 2009). This technology, as opposed to x-ray based technologies and in
624 line with NMR, uses non-ionizing radiation to obtain tomographic projection sets. MWT has
625 the potential to be used in medical imaging for detection of different tissue malignancies
626 (Semenov, 2009) but it has also been explored as an imaging technology for industrial
627 processes (Wu & Wang, 2017). Golnabi, Meaney, and Paulsen (2016) studied the conjoint
628 use of MRI and MWT to obtain increased accuracy in breast 3D images. This technology is
629 still under development and with no real timing on when it would be available as a
630 commercial medical device.

631 The University of Pennsylvania School of Veterinary Medicine in partnership with the
632 imaging technology company 4DDI have developed a robotic CT scanner that collects a full
633 360 degrees of high-resolution medical images of live horses using two robotic arms (Hocter,
634 2016); this could overcome the issue of the restriction of carcass size especially for beef with
635 current CT. In 2016, the company MB Telecom installed its first aircraft scanner which can
636 scan an entire aircraft in about 6-8 minutes (Gillet, 2016). The x-ray scanner is mounted on a
637 crane boom that beams a triangle of radiation down through the plane, while a robotic device
638 pulls the aircraft through the scanning area and is able to scan objects as small as coins.
639 As the rate of technology advancement increases, there is great opportunity for the meat
640 industry to evolve.

641 Objective carcass measurement, when performed accurately, could lead to more accurate
642 payment systems for producers driving improvements in meeting market or consumer
643 requirements. In addition, data collected could be used to inform other systems such as
644 robotic sorting and cutting or traceability technologies, leading to overall improved process
645 efficiencies. A recent study by Toohey, van de Ven, and Hopkins (2018), consulted with 65
646 red meat processors to gather their perspective on objective measurement and found that 88%

647 considered online measurement to have a role in the future. However, technology adoption
648 will be case dependent as various factors play into the suitability of technologies per
649 processor and factory and the grading methodology used in that country. Understanding the
650 hurdles to technology adoption and variations between processors in the meat industry is
651 therefore critical. If technologies are to be widely adopted as cited by Coleman (2013), who
652 conducted interviews with 63 processors in Australia, new projects on OCM need to consider
653 the cost of plant changes, the on-site expertise for operation and maintenance, workforce
654 requirements in remote areas and the cost of training staff. Increased competitiveness
655 amongst technology manufacturers could lead to capital cost reductions in future decades
656 (Esberg et al., 2019) however, the pay-back benefit of additional prediction accuracy will also
657 be a consideration.

658

659 **5. Conclusions**

660 Grading and classification systems vary between countries, with some based on yield or
661 quality or both. A combination of both yield and quality measurement will most accurately
662 describe the true value of the carcass, with objective systems offering potential to improve
663 accuracy. In addition, systems may become more consistent globally with the establishment
664 of international standards. Collaboration on a global scale, coupled with advancements in
665 technology, could lead to genuine value based marketing systems where there are clear and
666 transparent pricing signals between consumers and producers. By more accurately describing
667 the carcass, selection for phenotypic traits and accurate payment systems will direct
668 genotypic selection. The rate of technology advancement has increased as has the meat
669 industry's level of innovation and technology adoption. Several decades ago, VIA and optical
670 probes were introduced into carcass evaluation systems. Whole carcass VIA offers a rapid,

671 on-line and safe objective method for EUROP grading, LMY and SMY or hand-held VIA
672 devices can be used for quality grading; however it is limited by only providing an external
673 view of the carcass. In the last decade, DEXA was introduced for sheep and is currently being
674 assessed for beef. The technique allows for rapid on-line prediction of LMY but is not
675 suitable for every processor as it requires substantial space, investment and stringent safety
676 protocols. In addition, it is commonly applied to the cold carcass, whereas other techniques
677 like VIA, US and MI can be applied earlier in the process to the hot carcass. These challenges
678 could be addressed as more companies innovate, such as those with equipment in the aviation
679 sector, however they are not yet suited to the vertical line set-up of meat processing plants.
680 Ultrasound and magnetic induction have been commercialised for LMY prediction in pigs.
681 Ultrasound has been successful in predicting LMY in pigs and has been opted for by large
682 processors with justified throughput, in favour of optical probes which still require manual
683 operation. However, ultrasound accuracy is dependent on good contact with the animal,
684 which limits its adoption in beef and sheep whose exterior is less smooth and prone to air
685 bubbles which impede transmission. It will be interesting to see if recent innovations in
686 magnetic induction can be translated to the beef and sheep sectors as this no-contact,
687 continuous, vertical on-line technique has been shown to accurately predict LMY and primal
688 weight in pigs.

689 The requirement to accurately describe the carcass in order to utilise other outcomes of
690 Industry 4.0 such as robotics, IoT (internet of things), data traceability and increased
691 competitiveness, may accelerate the adoption of objective carcass measurement in the future.
692 Another driver will be accurately determining the eating quality of beef for improved
693 consumer satisfaction and consistency in palatability in order to compete in a competitive
694 protein market. This could see countries which currently do not grade for quality introduce

695 additional grading steps. However, the ability of processors to avail of technologies to
696 facilitate these changes will be case dependant.

697

698 **Acknowledgements**

699 This work was supported by Meat Technology Ireland (MTI) a co-funded industry/Enterprise
700 Ireland Project (TC 2016 002).

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Appendix

Relevant Legislation and Regulations

Commission regulation (EC) No 1249/2008 of 10 December 2008 laying down detailed rules on the implementation of the Community scales for the classification of beef, pig and sheep carcasses and the reporting of prices thereof. Retrieved 10 Jan 2019 <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/reg/2008/1249/oj>

Commission Delegated Regulation (EU) 2017/1182 of 20 April 2017 supplementing Regulation (EU) No 1308/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council as regards the Union scales for the classification of beef, pig and sheep carcasses and as regards the reporting of market prices of certain categories of carcasses and live animals. Retrieved 31 March 2020. <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1585621409583&uri=CELEX:32017R1182>

Council Regulation (EEC)No 1208/81 of 28 April 1981 determining the Community scale for the classification of carcasses of adult bovine animals. Accessed 31 March 2020 <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CONSLEG:1981R1208:19910429:EN:PDF>

Commission Regulation (EEC) No 2930/81 of 12 October 1981 adopting additional provisions for the application of the Community scale for the classification of carcasses of adult bovine animals. Accessed 31 March 2020 <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CONSLEG:1981R2930:19910730:EN:PDF>

Tables

Table 1. Characteristics of carcass classification and grading schemes from main livestock producers and exporters

Country Scheme	Australia		Brazil	Canada	Europe	Japan	South Africa	USA
	AUS-MEAT	MSA	-	Canada	EUROP	JMGA		USDA
Beef	Carcass weight Sex Dentition Grain fed Optional: Maturity Meat colour Fat colour Marbling Fat thickness Eye muscle area	Cut-based Quality Carcass weight Sex Tropical breed Hanging method HGP Ossification Marbling Rib fat thickness pH Hump height Meat colour* Ageing time Cooking method	Carcass weight Sex Dentition Fat cover	Sex Quality Conformation Maturity Colour muscle Colour fat covering Yield and marbling on 12 th rib Carcass weight Ribeye area Fat thickness Intramuscular fat	Animal Type Carcass weight Sex Conformation Fat cover	Sex Quality Marbling Colour and brightness muscle Firmness and texture Fat colour and lustre Yield Left side weight On 6 th rib: Ribeye area Rib thickness Fat thickness	Carcass weight Sex Dentition Conformation Fat cover	Sex Quality (12 th rib) Marbling Maturity Firmness Yield Carcass weight Kidney, pelvic and heart fat External fat Ribeye area
Sheep	Carcass weight Sex Dentition Fat class Depth at GR	Carcass weight Dentition Fat class Depth at GR Hanging method pH Ageing	-	Carcass weight Age Sex Quality Maturity Fat thickness Muscling Fat cover	Carcass weight Age Conformation Fat cover	-	Carcass weight Sex Dentition Conformation Fat cover	Quality+Yield Flank fat streakings Maturity Conformation

		Cooking method		colour Flank muscles colour Yield Fat thickness at 12 th rib					
Pig	Carcass weight Sex Fat thickness at P2	-	Not official Own industry classifications Carcass weight Fat thickness	Lean Yield Carcass Weight Fat depth	Carcass weight Lean meat content	Sex Primary grade Carcass weight Backfat thickness Secondary grade Drip Texture Meat colour Fat colour Marbling	Sex Classes Carcass weight Meat percentage Fat thickness	Sex Carcass weight Backfat thickness Muscling	

*MSA measured but removed from EQ prediction (MLA, 2016)

Table 2. Recent research on the application of CT to carcass characteristics and quality traits

Objective	Application	Results	Reference
Composition	In vivo lambs	$R^2=0.92, 0.74$ and 0.85 for fat, bone and muscle weight, respectively	Matika et al., 2016
Measurement of IMF	In vivo lambs and pigs	Regression coefficient of $0.51-0.71$ (lambs) and 0.18 (pigs)	Clelland et al., 2018; Kongsro & Gjerlaug-Enger, 2013
Carcass composition	Heifers and Steers	$R^2=0.97$ for meat, fat and bone	Navajas et al., 2010
Meat content compared to EUROP	Suckling bulls	A better predictor of the meat content than the EUROP classification in suckling bulls ($r=0.7$ vs. $r=0.55$)	Holló, Barna, & Nuernberg, 2014
Cut weight and fat	Holstein bulls and steers rib section	R_p^2 of 0.88 and 0.98 for cut weight and fat, respectively $R_p^2=0.60$ for IMF	Font-I-Furnols et al., 2014
IMF	Pigs	$R_p^2=0.17$ (all muscles), $R_p^2=0.42$ (sirloin), $R_p^2=0.07$ (ham)	Font-I-Furnols et al., 2019
IMF	Lambs	Good correlation ($r=0.71$) IMF v Soxhlet	Anton, Zsolnai, Hollo, Repa, and Hollo, 2013
IMF	Lamb cuts	IMF prediction reached only moderate values ($R^2=0.36$)	Lambe et al., 2017

Table 3. Recent research on the application of ultrasound (US) on live animals and carcasses

Objective	Animal	Results	Reference
High value cuts weight	Bradford steers	$R^2=0.36$ (striploin weight)	Cardoso et al., 2020
Genetic evaluation of Ultrasound measured traits	Nellore beef	Ribeye area, backfat thickness and rump cap fat measured with US have potential for genetic improvement	Abreu et al., 2019
Carcass and muscle weight	Pelibuey ewes	$R^2=0.51-0.66$ (carcass weight), $R^2=0.44-0.57$ (muscle weight)	Chay-Canul et al. 2019
Yield of valuable cuts	Pig carcasses	$R^2=0.98$ (belly muscle thickness), $R^2=0.93$ (loin %)	Janiszewski et al., 2019
Hot carcass weight and GR fat depth	Crossbred lambs	$R=0.33-0.71$ (hot carcass weight), $R=0.38-0.74$ (fat depth GR)	Massender et al. 2019
Yield grades	Angus steers	Higher Ribeye Area lower yield grades	Armstrong et al., 2018
Chemical composition of carcass	Nellore beef	$R^2=0.94$ (protein) ^a , $R^2=0.74$ (fat) ^b , $R^2=0.96$ (water) ^b	Castilhos et al., 2018
Fatty acid synthase gene polymorphisms	Qinchuan cattle	Two SNPs associated with US carcass traits	Raza et al., 2018
Carcass characterisation	Mediterranean light lambs	US measurements used for characterisation	Esquivelzeta et al., 2017
Marbling	Pig carcasses	$R=0.811$ (IMF from inside carcass US)	Ludwiczak et al., 2017
Carcass merit	Hereford and Simmental cattle	Only in Hereford cattle US measurements more reliable than manual measurements (Fat thickness, longissimus muscle area and marbling score).	Su et al., 2017
IMF	Pigs	R^2 up to 0.92	Carabus et al., 2016

^aUS rump fat thickness in addition to shrunk body weight and hip height, ^bUS rump fat thickness in addition to shrunk body weight and age

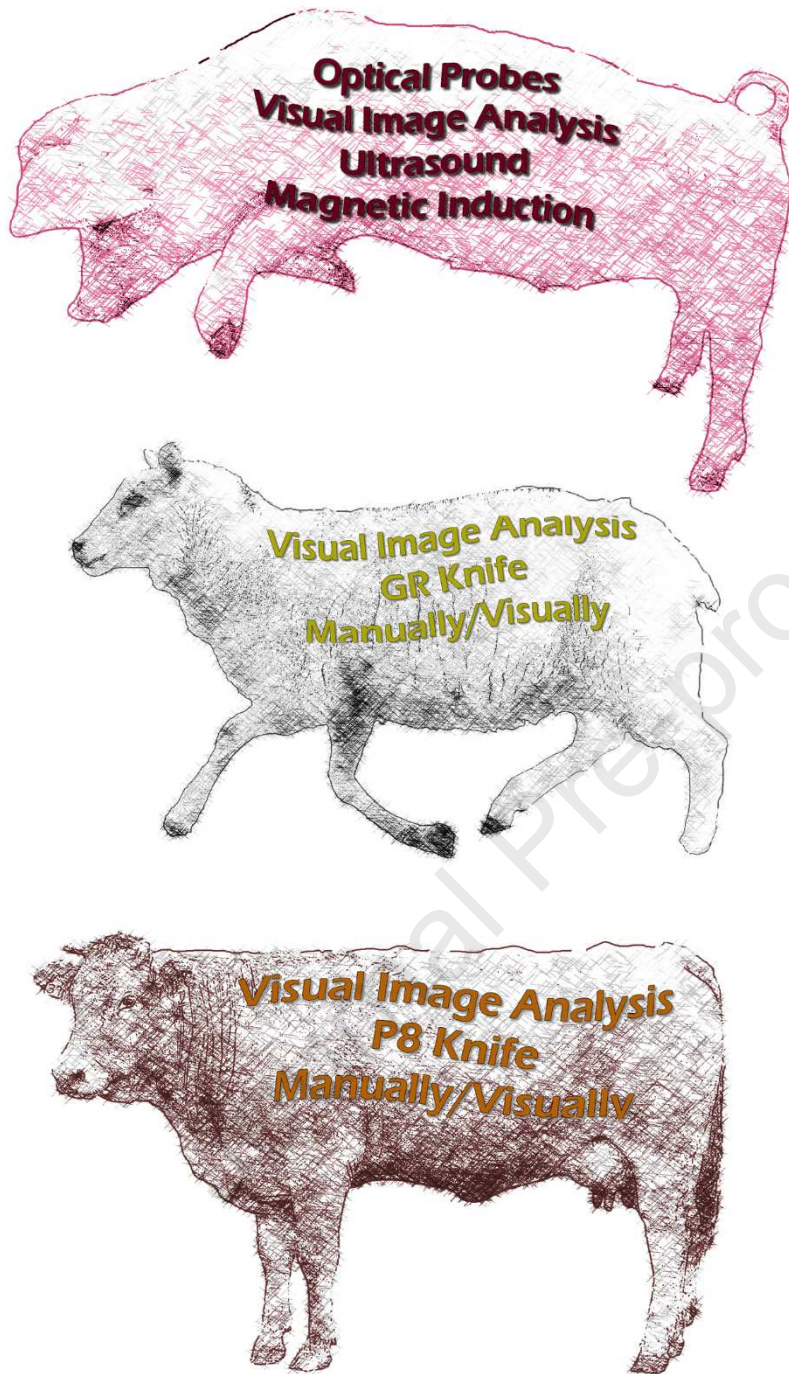


Figure 1. Current commercialised technologies for grading pigs, sheep and cattle carcasses

TECHNOLOGY	FIELD	INNOVATION	CONSIDERATIONS FOR MEAT INDUSTRY
X-Ray Technologies	Veterinary	CT Scanner for equines	Able to scan full bovine carcass 3D image of full carcass
	Aviation	Plane CT scanner Baggage scanners	No external radiation On-line application Intramuscular Fat determination
NMR Technologies	Medicine	High Field MRI Fast Field Cycling MRI Time Domain NMR Microwave Tomography	Eating quality grading Improved image resolution Not yet applicable in industry setting
Magnetic Induction	Engineering	Upright and contactless Used in pig industry	Lamb industry for lean and fat content
Video Image Analysis	Imaging	Handheld devices Time of Flight	Eating quality grading Improved accuracy and resolution
Hyper/Multi Spectral Imaging	Geology	Specific probes for meat industry requirements	Eating quality grading Intramuscular fat determination Tenderness prediction

Figure 2. Future directions of objective carcass measurement technologies

Highlights:

- ~~Grading for both eating quality and yield can lead to improved value based systems~~
 - ~~Global grading systems differ but international standards for EQ grading exist~~
 - ~~CT remains the gold standard for lean meat yield~~
 - ~~Recent commercialised updates of VIA, DEXA and magnetic induction exist~~
-
- A summary of global beef, sheep and pig grading practices is provided
 - International standards for beef grading could lead to improved eating quality
 - Grading for both eating quality and yield can lead to improved value based systems
 - Recent commercial advances in VIA, DEXA and magnetic induction are discussed
 - Perspectives on future directions for objective carcass measurement are provided