

Manuscript Number: INDA-D-11-00376R1

Title: The influence of fat globule membrane components on the microstructure of low-fat Cheddar cheese

Article Type: Special Issue: NIZO Dairy Conference

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Variations in the microstructure were observed relating to the MFGM content. The structure of the control cheese (SMP) was more irregular with inhomogeneous large voids. Whereas, cheese with BMP had a homogeneous protein network with small voids, showing a smoother, more compact and less coarse structure accompanied by more pronounced fat globules that were uniformly scattered throughout the protein matrix. The starter bacteria were located within the protein networks in clusters which were distributed homogeneously all over the cheese matrix regardless of treatment.

1 **The influence of fat globule membrane components on the microstructure of low-**
2 **fat Cheddar cheese**

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25 **Abstract**

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27 fat globule membrane (MFGM) components achieved by addition of either buttermilk powder (BMP)
28 or skim-milk powder (SMP) to the cheese milk were investigated. Scanning electron microscopy
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35 throughout the protein matrix. The starter bacteria were located within the protein networks in clusters
36 which were distributed homogeneously all over the cheese matrix regardless of treatment.

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38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Consumers often regard cheese with reduced fat content to be of inferior quality (Banks, 2004).
41 Nevertheless, novel technology in cheese manufacture and considerable advances in understanding the
42 biochemical and physicochemical characteristics of low-fat cheese variants have led to potential
43 improvements in terms of flavour, texture and functionality, with major achievements in the area of
44 fresh and soft cheeses. However, there is still work to be done in the area of semi-hard and hard ripened
45 cheeses. Besides, seeking new dairy products that possess health effects beyond the nutritional
46 components has become a way of life for consumers during the last decade.

47 Buttermilk, a byproduct of butter making released during churning of cream, is very rich in
48 milk fat globule membrane (MFGM) (Morin, Pouliot, & Britten, 2008). The MFGM is mainly
49 composed of phospholipids, sphingolipids, glycoproteins and other minor compounds and Morin et al.
50 (2008) found that the phospholipid content was 8.5 times higher in sweet pasteurized buttermilk than in
51 skimmed milk (0.119 % and 0.014 %, respectively). The MFGM fragments have previously been
52 shown to carry many beneficial health effects (Dewettinck et al., 2008; Spitsberg, 2005). It has been
53 reported that MFGM fractions may inhibit colon cancer, suppress gastrointestinal pathogens and may
54 be involved in stress responses (McDaniel, Maier, & Einstein, 2003; Parodi, 2001).

55 Buttermilk has been used as a functional ingredient in many food products, such as salad
56 dressings, chocolate, cheese and yoghurt (Govindasamy-Lucey, Lin, Jaeggi, Johnson, & Lucey, 2006;
57 Mistry, Metzger, & Maubois, 1996; Morin et al., 2008; Trachoo & Mistry, 1998). Many studies have
58 used ultrafiltered or concentrated buttermilk in cheese manufacture (Govindasamy-Lucey et al., 2006;
59 Poduval & Mistry, 1999; Raval & Mistry, 1999). Commercial buttermilk is often subjected to process
60 conditions that are severe and variable (pasteurization temperatures of cream, fermentation, holding
61 time through the evaporation and spray-drying process), which are likely to have major impact on
62 buttermilk microstructure (Morin et al., 2008). Accordingly, most studies have not been able to fully
63 explain the effects and changes in physical and structure characteristics resulting from adding

64 commercial buttermilk to cheese milk. Accordingly, in this present experiment, we produced the
65 buttermilk powder having control of the full processing history from the raw milk.

66 Cheese is stated to have a microstructure consisting mostly of the casein matrix in which the fat
67 globules are entrapped; water or serum is both bound to casein and fills interstices of the matrix that
68 forms a network (Hort & Grys, 2001). Thus knowledge and understanding of the way in which milk
69 components and functional ingredients affect cheese microstructure make it possible to direct the
70 industrial processes towards the production of high-quality low-fat cheeses. Electron microscopy is one
71 of the disciplines which may contribute to this objective.

72 Scanning electron microscopy technique (SEM) has been used extensively as a high resolution
73 analysis to elucidate the state of the casein micelles, type of aggregates and the formation of network
74 during cheese making and of the final cheese products, (Dabour, Kheadr, Benhamou, Fliss, &
75 LaPointe, 2006; Guinee, Auty, & Fenelon, 2000; Kalab, 1985; Kalab, Allan-Wojtas, & Miller, 1995;
76 Kaláb, Yang, & Chabot, 2008; Lopez, Camier, & Gassi, 2007; Poduval & Mistry, 1999; Morin et al.,
77 2008). Findings obtained by the SEM technique have made useful contributions to a better
78 understanding of the complex biochemical structure-function relationships of cheese components.
79 However, it is worthwhile to note that SEM operates under high vacuum where the cheese sample is
80 exposed to a high electron beam and, owing to the high moisture and fat content of the cheese, an
81 extensive sample preparation is required prior to analysis with such steps as sectioning, chemical
82 fixation and dehydration. Additionally, it has been reported that the well-defined structures, e.g. fat
83 globules, can be reliably seen by high resolution topographical images of SEM, and thereby ensure
84 their identification. However, less well-defined particles, e.g. starch or other food additives, were better
85 observed using specific staining microscopy and/or advanced examination techniques, e.g. CLSM
86 (Montesinos-Herrero, Cottell, O’Riordan, & O’Sullivan, 2006).

87 Since the early 1990s, confocal scanning laser microscopy (CSLM) has complemented SEM in
88 cheese microstructure studies (Everett, 2007). CSLM is a technique that has great potential as a tool to

89 improve our understanding of milk and cheese microstructure, and offers a number of advantages over
90 conventional techniques. One of the advantages of this technique is that it can both make visible and
91 chemically differentiate cheese components through the use of specific stains. The basis of staining
92 specimens relies on a number of different mechanisms, e.g. acidic dyes will bind to basic groups and
93 vice versa. In other cases, differential solubility will cause dyes to accumulate according to polarity
94 (Hassan, Frank, Farmer, Schmidt, & Shalabi, 1995; Ong, Dagastine, Kentish, & Gras, 2011). Also,
95 structural information can be obtained in a nondestructive manner and with minimal sample
96 preparation through this technique. In particular, CSLM has proved to be very useful for examination
97 of highly-hydrated and high-fat foods which are difficult in sample preparation using the conventional
98 microscopic techniques without the loss or migration of their components.

99 Defining the structural properties and their relative magnitude with respect to other similar
100 products will increasingly become a critical criterion for cheese manufacturers seeking to design new
101 products, to maintain the quality of current ones or understand the strengths and weaknesses of the new
102 relative to their competitors.

103 The objective of this study was to investigate the microstructural characteristics of low-fat
104 Cheddar cheese differing in the content of MFGM components. Scanning electron microscopy was
105 used to characterize cheese structure as well as the features of the pure starter culture in the cheese. A
106 further aim was to use CSLM to see and to differentiate the distribution of fat globules and bacterial
107 colonies within the protein matrices, providing complementary insights into the evaluation of cheese
108 microstructure.

109

110 ***2. Material and methods***

111 ***2.1 Experimental design***

112 The Cheddar cheese used in this experiment was made in a replicate block design with two
113 experimental factors. Factor 1. MFGM composition, achieved by adding either butter milk powder

114 (BMP) or skim milk powder (SMP) and cream to the cheese milk. SMP and cream were added to
115 standardize the fat and protein contents in the SMP cheese vats to that in BMP cheese vats; Factor 2.
116 Adjunct culture: addition of two different adjunct cultures *Lb. paracasei* INF448 and *Lb. paracasei*
117 INF456 (characterized by 16s rDNA sequence analysis); both added in the amount of 1×10^2 cfu mL⁻¹
118 milk. However this paper covers only the effect of factor 1, but the full factorial design is described as
119 factor 2 will influence the standard deviation of the mean of each level of factor 1.

120 Six cheese vats were made in three replicate blocks (i.e. cheesemaking days). The six cheese
121 vats were given sample codes according to their additions: SMP (cheese milk with SMP and without
122 adjunct culture), BMP (cheese milk with BMP and without adjunct culture), SMP+448 (cheese milk
123 with SMP and adjunct *Lb. paracasei* INF448), BMP+448 (cheese milk with BMP and adjunct *Lb.*
124 *paracasei* INF448), SMP+456 (cheese milk with SMP and adjunct *Lb. paracasei* INF456), BMP+456
125 (Cheese milk with BMP and adjunct *Lb. paracasei* INF456).

126

127 **2.2. Production of skim milk powder (SMP) and butter milk powder (BMP)**

128 A quantity of 900 L whole milk from the University farm at the Norwegian University of Life
129 Sciences was separated, and the cream was standardized to 36 % fat by addition of skimmed milk. The
130 cream (~95 L) was pasteurized (73°C, 15 s), directly cooled to 7°C and stored at 4°C overnight. The
131 cream was churned to butter in 30 min, with a rise in temperature from 8.5°C to 13.8°C. The buttermilk
132 was sieved through a sterilized cloth bag. The churning yielded ~50 L buttermilk with 1.6 % fat. The
133 buttermilk was stored cold overnight, and then heated to 50°C, and separated to yield 45.8 kg
134 buttermilk with a fat content of 0.6 %. The buttermilk (0.6 % fat) was spray dried directly after
135 separation to yield 3.3 kg BMP (96.6 % dry matter (DM) and 9.8 % fat). From the original milk, 50 L
136 skimmed milk (0.5% fat) was pasteurised (73°C, 15 s) and spray-dried to yield 3.8 kg SMP (97.1 %
137 DM and 2.26 % fat). The SMP and BMP were produced by spray drying (Niro Atomizer, GEA NIRO,

138 Søborg, Denmark) with an inlet air temperature of 185-190°C, and a constant outlet air temperature of
139 85 °C. The spray drier rotary atomizer had a drying rate of 15 L liquid h⁻¹.

140

141 **2.3. Cheese milk**

142 The raw milk was obtained from a local farm in Cork, Ireland. The raw milk was separated (45
143 °C) and standardized to 0.5 % fat using a table top milk separator (Claire, Milky; Althofen, Austria),
144 before pasteurization (72°C, 15 s). Before each cheese making session, three cheese making vats were
145 mixed containing 20 L of milk and 263 g BMP each. Further three vats contained 19.95 L of milk and
146 240 g SMP and 48 g cream (42 % fat; pasteurized at 80 °C) each, to standardise these to the increase in
147 dry matter and fat in vats with BMP. The vats of cheese milk were stored at 4 °C for 17 h and were
148 stirred every 30 min until the powders were fully dissolved to ensure complete hydration of the milk
149 proteins of the powders.

150

151 **2.4. Cheese making and ripening**

152 The cheese milk was heated to 30°C, and 1 % of a single strain starter culture (*Lactococcus*
153 *lactis* ssp. *lactis* ML8), cultured for 24 h in 200 mL reconstituted skim milk (10 % w/v); was added to
154 each of the vats. The adjunct starters, cultured for 24 h in MRS broth, were added 15 min after starter
155 addition.

156 After 45 minutes, rennet (Chy-Max™ Plus; 190 mcu mL⁻¹; Chr. Hansen, Hørsholm, Denmark),
157 35 mL 100L⁻¹ milk (7 mL diluted to 40 mL with pasteurized distilled water), and CaCl₂, 0.1 g 100L⁻¹
158 (18 mL 0.1 M), was added to each of the vats.

159 The cheese milk was coagulated for 40-50 min, and the firmness of the gel was checked before
160 cutting. After cutting the curd was left undisturbed for 5 min before gentle stirring commenced, and
161 then stirred for 5 min followed by increasing the temperature to 39°C in the course of 10 min. The
162 whey was drained at pH 6.20, and the cheese was cut into blocks that were stacked at each side of the

163 cheese vat. The cheese blocks were inverted every 15 min during cheddaring, until pH 5.40 was
164 reached. The cheese blocks were milled (~2 x 2 x 15 cm) and 2.5 % salt (w/w) was added to the cheese
165 curd, and gently mixed in. The curd was transferred to cylindrical cheese moulds lined with
166 cheesecloth, and pressed at 1.0 bar for 30 min. The pressure was then increased to 2.5 bar, and the
167 pressing continued for another 18 h. The cheeses were vacuum packed, and ripened at 8°C over a
168 period of 24 weeks.

169

170 ***2.5. Compositional and statistical analysis***

171 After 24 weeks of ripening the gross composition of the cheese was analysed. Sampling was
172 undertaken according to IDF Standard 50C (1995). Microbial counts, pH and dry matter were measured
173 immediately after sampling. The cheese for analysis of fat was wrapped in aluminum foil and packed in
174 plastic bags sealed under vacuum and then frozen (-20 °C) until analysis.

175 Dry matter was determined according to IDF Standard 4A (1982). pH was measured as
176 described by Skeie, Lindberg, and Narvhus (2001). Fat was analysed by the van Gulik method
177 according to IDF Standard 222 (ISO 3433) (2008). Total Nitrogen (TN) of cheese was determined by
178 the Kjeldahl method according to IDF standard 20 (1993). Total protein content was calculated by
179 multiplying the TN % by 6.38. Salt content was measured according to IDF Standard 88 (2004).

180 The microorganisms were enumerated on specific media giving the presumptive genera of
181 lactococci on M17 agar (Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK) after aerobic incubation at 30 °C for 4 days.

182 Cheese hardness was measured using the Texture Profile Analysis (TPA) technique on between
183 3 and 9 samples for each cheese (24 weeks of aging). The TPA was performed according to Romeih,
184 Michaelidou, Biliaderis, and Zerfiridis (2002) with a TA-XT2i Texture Analyser equipped with a flat
185 aluminum plunger 75mm in diameter, produced by Stable Micro Systems (Vienna Court, Surrey GU7
186 1YL, UK). Cylindrical samples, prepared using a cylindrical sharp hand cutter, were taken from at least
187 20 mm deep in the cheese blocks, and their dimensions were 35 mm in diameter and 20 mm in height.

188 Samples were compressed axially in two consecutive cycles without yield, with 35% deformation from
189 the initial sample's height at 120 mm/min rate of force application. The force required to attain a given
190 deformation or the maximum force during the first compression in TPA technique, is the TPA hardness
191 measured in Newton.

192 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed using the SAS Enterprise guide 4.0 (SAS
193 Institute Inc., Cary, USA). The treatment factors replicate block and MFGM content formed the
194 statistical model. When analysing the TPA hardness, 7 outliers were removed from the data having
195 been defined as outliers by analysis of the normal distribution.

196

197 **2.6. Microscopy**

198

199 **2.6.1 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)**

200

201 ***Starter cultures***

202 The starter culture was activated in MRS broth media. After incubation for 24 h at 30 °C, 1 mL
203 of the broth was spun down and the supernatant was decanted while the sediment was fixed by addition
204 of 1 mL of the fixation mixture consisting of 1.25 % (v/v) glutaraldehyde and 2 % (w/v) para-
205 formaldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer ($C_2H_6AsNaO_2 \cdot 3H_2O$) for 2 h. A 8 mm glass slide of poly-l-
206 lysine was submerged in the fixed bacterial solution and held for 2 h to carry the bacterial cells on both
207 sides. The glassy film of bacteria was dehydrated in series of aqueous ethanol solutions (70%, 90%,
208 96% and 100%, 5 min in each), and then dried to critical point using CO₂ in a BAL-TEC CPD 030
209 Critical Point Dryer (BAL-TEC AG, FL-9496 Balzers, Germany), and mounted on aluminum SEM
210 stubs, followed by gold coating in a Sputter Coater Polaron SC 7640 (Quorum Technologies Ltd, East
211 Sussex, UK). A high vacuum Zeiss Scanning Electron Microscope EVO-50-EP (Carl Zeiss SMT Ltd.,
212 Cambridge CB1 3JS, UK) was used to view the strains at 10 kV and magnification of 5000x.

213

214 ***Cheese***

215 Small cubic samples from the center of the Cheddar blocks (approximately 3 x 3 mm) were
216 prepared using a surgical blade. The protein network of the cheese cubes was fixed overnight in 4%
217 (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer at pH 6.8. The samples were washed several
218 times in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 6.8) at 15 min intervals, and then the fat was fixed in 2%
219 (w/v) osmium tetroxide (OsO₄) in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate for 1-2 h. The cheese samples were re-
220 washed several times in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer at 15 min intervals, followed by dehydration
221 in increasing concentrations of aqueous ethanol solutions (25%, 50%, 75%, 90% and 100%, 15 min in
222 each). Samples were then dried to critical point using CO₂ in a BAL-TEC CPD 030 Critical Point
223 Dryer (BAL-TEC AG, FL-9496 Balzers, Germany). Following the drying step, some of the dried cubic
224 samples of cheese from each treatment were gently cut from the center into two pieces using a fine
225 scalpel. This was done to explore the internal structure of the cheese cubes, which is free from the fat
226 globules as a result of using series concentrations of ethanol in the dehydration step. This modified step
227 may help in investigating the localization and incorporation of the bacterial cells into the cheese matrix
228 without any interruption from overlapping fat globules. Finally, both samples of complete cubes and
229 divided cubes were mounted individually on aluminum SEM stubs, followed by gold coating as
230 described previously and examined at 5 kV and magnification of 5000x.

231

232 ***2.6.2. Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CLSM)***

233 Cheese cubes (~ 4 x 4 x 10 mm) were prepared and fixed overnight in 4% (v/v) glutaraldehyde
234 as described previously for the SEM method. Cryo-sections, 50 µm in thickness, were taken from the
235 cheese cubes using a cryotome (Microm HM 560 MV, Microm International GmbH, D-69190
236 Walldorf, Germany). The sections were then incubated for 10 min in the dark at ambient temperature
237 with a mix of three fluorescent dyes (50µl of each) consisting of 0.2% (w/v) Fast Green FCF (Sigma-

238 Aldrich, UK), 0.01% (w/v) Nile Red (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) and 0.2% (w/v) Hoechst 33342 (AnaSpec
239 Inc., San Jose, California, USA) for labeling protein, fat and bacteria respectively. Each cheese section
240 was placed between a microscope slide and a cover slip. Samples were then examined at 25 °C with a
241 63x oil objective lens and sequential scan using a Leica TCS SP5 confocal laser scanning microscope
242 (Leica Microsystems CMS GmbH, 68165 Mannheim, Germany), using a helium neon (HeNe) laser
243 with excitation wavelength of 633 nm for proteins (an excitation peak of 622-626 nm and the
244 maximum emission was at 640 nm) and an argon (Ar) laser with an excitation wavelength of 488 nm
245 for fat (an excitation peak of 515-530 nm and an emission of 525-605 nm), while employing a UV laser
246 with excitation wavelength of 405 nm for the bacterial cells (an excitation peak of ~ 350 nm and
247 maximum emission at 461 nm). In the CLSM micrographs, the protein network, fat and bacterial cells
248 were labeled in gray, green and blue, respectively, while the aqueous phase appears as black areas.

249

250 **3. Results and discussion**

251 Only the effects of the first experimental factor the milk fat globule membrane compounds are
252 covered by this paper. The effects of the adjuncts are described in another manuscript where the
253 microbial development of the cheeses is characterised.

254

255 ***3.1. Cheese composition and texture***

256 Significant differences in the gross composition and the TPA hardness of the cheeses after 24
257 weeks of ripening are shown in Table 1. The butter milk powder considerably reduced the content of
258 dry matter by 1 % and the pH by 0.04 in the ripened cheese. Significant differences between the
259 replicate blocks and the adjuncts were found, explaining the large standard deviation found for some of
260 the parameters analysed. Additionally, no influence from the experimental factors was found on the
261 content of protein, fat in dry matter or the salt content which were on average 32.11 ± 0.64 %, $13.7 \pm$

262 0.6 % and 1.6 ± 0.2 %, respectively. The content of presumptive lactococci was on average $\log 6.9 \pm$
263 0.5 cfu g^{-1} .

264 The TPA hardness measurements (Table 1) clearly revealed a considerable reduction in the
265 textural hardness as a function of added BMP. The SMP cheese was the hardest, reflecting the potential
266 effect of BMP in softening the cheese texture. The TPA hardness is affected by cheese composition,
267 such as protein content, protein degradation and the interaction between casein and fat and/or other
268 cheese components (Heertje, 1993; Tunick, 2000). No significant difference between SMP and BMP
269 was found on the proteolysis as measured by the content of free amino acids (results not shown). The
270 effect of buttermilk in reducing cheese hardness appears to be linked to its MFGM fragments, which
271 were incorporated with the casein matrices, and played a lubricant role that provided a smoother and a
272 soft texture. This physical function of buttermilk has also been demonstrated by other studies; i.e.
273 Poduval and Mistry (1999) for reduced-fat Mozzarella cheese and Trachoo and Mistry (1998) for low-
274 fat yogurt. Also, Mistry et al. (1996) reported that reduced-fat Cheddar cheese made with 5% UF-sweet
275 buttermilk had lower hardness values after 4 weeks of ripening than its control counterpart cheese.

276

277 ***3.2. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)***

278

279 ***3.2.1 Conventional technique micrographs (surface scanning of cheese cube samples)***

280 The SEM micrographs of low-fat Cheddar cheese ripened for 6 months are shown in Fig. 1. The
281 protein matrix (gray area) formed a continuous phase permeated by amorphous voids (black areas), and
282 spherical fat globules of different sizes. As these micrographs show, an obvious variation in the cheese
283 microstructural properties was obtained between low-fat Cheddar cheeses made with either addition of
284 SMP (Fig. 1A) or BMP (Fig. 1B). An extremely porous, open and coarse structure was obtained in
285 low-fat Cheddar cheese with SMP addition, while cheese with added BMP was more dense and
286 homogeneous.

287 Despite the fact that a uniform protein content was achieved in both cheese treatments, cheese
288 with addition of SMP had irregularly aggregated protein folds and large matrix clusters interrupted by
289 large pores filled with serum which appeared as cavities embedded in the cheese matrix. The trend to
290 formation of apparent cavities was expected according to the age of the cheese. Earlier studies (El-
291 Zeini, El-Aasser, Anis, & Romeih, 2006; Poduval & Mistry, 1999; Tunick et al., 1993) have indicated
292 that an increase in the size of the cavities would occur during aging in different cheese varieties due to
293 the weakening of the paracasein matrix caused by proteolysis or CO₂ production by starter or non-
294 starter bacteria.

295 In contrast, the microstructure of the low-fat Cheddar cheese with BMP added, as shown in Fig.
296 1B, reveals a homogeneous systematic protein aggregate network. The protein matrix appeared as a
297 smooth continuous phase of aggregated micelles, characterized by a compact fusion and a dense
298 structure. The BMP cheese structure was more regular and had fewer voids compared to that of cheese
299 with SMP, and the effect of the BMP addition was most probably attributed to the high levels of
300 MFGM components in the BMP. The BMP used in this study was prepared from cream pasteurized at
301 73°C. This promotes a higher retention of MFGM components in the buttermilk than is obtained from
302 raw-cream as stated by Morin, Jimenez-Flores and Pouliot (2007). Furthermore, it has been reported
303 that MFGM fragments may physically be entrapped within the paracasein network (Morin et al., 2008).
304 It could induce direct interactions with casein (CN) by folding CN micelles inside reconstituted
305 aggregates reflecting the functional properties of buttermilk in dairy product structures (Morin et al.,
306 2008 and Ong et al., 2011). In this context, Lopez et al. (2007) have stated that cross-links can be
307 formed between MFGM components and the casein matrix, which in turn strongly affects the
308 rheological and microstructure properties of milk gels. In addition, BMP cheese tended to have a higher
309 moisture content compared to that of SMP cheese (Table 1), which is mainly attributed to the increased
310 hydration capacity of the buttermilk components, particularly its phospholipids. This result is in
311 agreement with those of Morin et al. (2008), Raval and Mistry (1999) and Turcot, Turgeon and St-

312 Gelais (2001) who reported that addition of buttermilk increased the moisture content of low-fat
313 cheese.

314 Although a uniform fat-in-dry-matter basis was achieved in all cheese treatments, the spherical
315 fat globules were more pronounced and more uniformly scattered throughout the protein matrices in the
316 BMP cheese compared to the SMP cheese structures (Fig. 1). Addition of BMP tended to cause
317 inclusion of a higher number of discrete fat globules differing in size within the protein matrix, whereas
318 fat globules were more often trapped and embedded within the protein matrix of the SMP cheeses. The
319 more hydrated the texture, the more systematically distributed were the fat globules and the presence of
320 MFGM components and these, taken all together, may contribute to a softer and less firm texture of the
321 BMP cheese compared to its SMP counterparts. This finding goes in parallel with the hardness values
322 (Table 1) for these treatments and is in agreement with the results of Mistry et al. (1996) and Turcot,
323 St-Gelais and Turgeon (2002) who concluded that addition of UF-buttermilk to cheese milk led to
324 softer texture properties of reduced and low fat Cheddar cheeses.

325 Surprisingly, the observation of starter within these cheese micrographs was infrequent and
326 difficult to clearly define (Fig 1). The starter culture (*Lc. lactis* subsp. *lactis* ML8) appeared attached
327 and embedded within the protein network and distributed all over the cheese matrix. This finding leads
328 us to investigate and develop other techniques to explore the distribution and localization of these
329 bacterial cells within the cheese matrix.

330

331 **3.2.2 Modified technique micrographs (entire matrix of cheese cube samples)**

332 The uneven clarity of the starter culture (*Lc. lactis* subsp. *lactis* ML8) in the cheese micrographs
333 (Fig. 1) stimulated a development and improvement in the microstructure examination in order to
334 explore the manner of distribution of the bacterial cells within the cheese matrix. By cutting the dried
335 cubic cheese samples from the center; the internal structure was exposed, and the fat globules were
336 removed by the ethanol series extraction during sample preparation (see section 2.6.1). The

337 microstructure obtained with this technique as shown in Fig. 2 clearly revealed that the protein matrices
338 (gray area) appeared as a continuous phase of a smooth, flat consolidated surface permeated by
339 heterogeneous voids (black area), without the appearance of the network obtained in the previous
340 examination technique (Fig. 1). The appearance shown in Fig. 2 resulted from the fine scalpel cut step
341 of the fixed and dried cubic cheese samples (see section 2.6.1).

342 In this context, the distribution of milk fat globules can be clearly seen through the numerous
343 smooth surfaced concave areas, which are mostly spherical in shape and were originally occupied by
344 fat globules (white arrows) as described above.

345 These micrographs show that the cocci, most probably the starter culture (*Lc. lactis* subsp. *lactis*
346 ML8), appeared in clusters immersed and uniformly dispersed throughout the protein matrix (black
347 arrows), which is in parallel to the appearance of the pure strain (Fig 3). The starter cells appeared as
348 discrete globular cocci gathered in clusters randomly distributed. Besides in the cheese micrographs, a
349 collection of hollows appeared, which most probably are areas of cells removed during the sample
350 preparation process in particular with regard to the cutting of the dried cheese cube samples.

351 Overall, it can be observed from the microstructure properties revealed in Fig. 2 that the protein
352 matrix formed a continuous uniform phase in both SMP cheese (Fig. 2A) and BMP cheese (Fig. 2B).
353 However, the pronounced uneven size and shapes of voids were noticeably less marked and fewer in
354 number in the BMP cheese than in the SMP cheese, reflecting the higher fusion of casein aggregates
355 and the increased network formation obtained by addition of BMP. This effect of buttermilk was also
356 identified by Lopez et al. (2007) and Morin et al. (2007) as a vital factor influencing the microstructure
357 characteristics of the cheese. These structure characteristics are similar to those obtained by the
358 previous formal examination technique presented in this work.

359 By the conventional SEM technique it was difficult to see the distribution and localization of
360 bacterial colonies, most probably owing to the sample preparation. However, by the modified SEM

361 technique applied in the current study we were able to see and describe the bacteria with a degree of
362 high resolution.

363

364 ***3.3. Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CLSM)***

365 A CLSM technique was used to differentiate between the structural components of the cheese
366 and to make the preferential localization of bacterial colonies visible throughout this cheese matrix in
367 comparison with the findings of SEM.

368 The CLSM micrographs presented in Fig. 4 reveal a cheese structure with features that
369 resemble those observed by the SEM techniques (Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). Fig. 4 shows the protein matrix
370 (gray area) as a continuous uniform phase permeated by heterogeneous voids (black area) representing
371 the aqueous serum pores. The milk fat globules appear as discrete green spots differing in shape and
372 size. Previously, an observation using CLSM in Emmental cheese showed that fat was dispersed in the
373 cheese matrix in three phases; as individual fat globules, as coalesced fat globules resulting from the
374 fusion of individual fat globules, and finally as nonglobular fat (free fat) of larger size than the other
375 phases (Lopez et al., 2007). This may explain the different sizes and shapes of fat in Fig. 4. An obvious
376 finding was that the localization of fat noticed in CLSM images (Fig. 4) suggest that the globules are
377 not only entrapped in the protein network, but also protrude into the serum pores. According to Ong,
378 Dagastine, Kentish and Gras (2010) the native MFGM acts as a natural emulsifying agent that enables
379 the fat to remain in the aqueous phase.

380 Further, Fig. 4 shows that the clusters of starter cells were of uneven size and had different
381 shapes (blue spots) distributed randomly in the cheese matrix. This finding is compatible with Fig. 3 of
382 the pure starter strain image and Figs. 2A and 2B of the Cheddar cheese structure by the modified SEM
383 technique.

384 Consistent with the microstructural characteristics obtained by SEM, under CLSM the cheeses
385 with added BMP (Fig. 4B) appeared homogenous, with rather small and evenly distributed pores and a

386 network consisting of a relatively fused protein phase. Cheeses with added SMP (Fig. 4A), however,
387 had noticeably rather large pores which appeared as cavities embedded in the cheese matrix, reflecting
388 the porous and coarse structure of the SMP cheese.

389 Lopez (2005) has stated that milk caseins are able to associate with the fat globule membrane,
390 forming a protein layer which in turn enables the newly formed phase to behave as pseudo-protein
391 particles, becoming an integral part of the protein matrix during coagulation. Also, Ong et al. (2011)
392 have suggested that chemical bonds may exist between the fat globule membrane components and the
393 protein matrix. This might allow for more rearrangement to take place in the cheese matrix, again
394 favouring the formation of a more homogeneous and compact structure in the BMP cheeses.

395 In summary, CLSM provided structural information compatible with that from SEM.
396 Furthermore, CLSM allowed a visualization of the cheese chemical composition as well as the
397 distribution and localization of bacteria within the cheese matrix. Structure imaging was achieved by
398 the combination of specific stains, which effectively avoided any artifacts due to possible cross-
399 reactions of the multi-stains used.

400

401 **4. Conclusion**

402 Addition of BMP softens the texture of low fat Cheddar cheese as shown by decreased hardness
403 values, and the microstructure analysis supported these findings. The structural network of the BMP-
404 added cheeses was characterized by a smooth and dense protein matrix, in which spherical fat globules
405 exhibited a more uniform dispersion and were more pronounced compared to those of SMP cheeses.

406 The modified SEM technique used, provided a peerless tool over the conventional technique for
407 monitoring the genuine localization and distribution of bacterial colonies in the cheese matrix without
408 disturbance of other cheese structure compounds.

409 Qualitatively, the microstructure attributes revealed by CLSM were similar to the structure
410 observed using SEM, but CLSM also had the capacity to specifically distinguish the different

411 components of the cheese. The staining procedure we used has shown protein, fat and starter clusters
412 and their manner of incorporation in the cheese matrix.

413 Together these techniques provide a complementary and more thorough assessment of the
414 microstructure of cheese and of other more hydrated dairy products. The results of this study offer a
415 better understanding of the functional impact of BMP on cheese structure, which may lead to a better
416 comprehension of the functional properties and quality attributes of low-fat Cheddar cheese. Addition
417 of BMP proved to be a promising option to direct the industrial processes to the production of high-
418 quality low-fat cheeses with additional nutritional properties.

419

420 ***Acknowledgments***

421 We would like to acknowledge the Norwegian Research Council, the Norwegian Foundation
422 for Research Levy on Agricultural Products, the Norwegian Agricultural Agreement Research Fund
423 and TINE SA for financial support. Prof. Paul McSweeney and Dave Waldron at Dept. of Food and
424 Nutritional Sciences at the University College Cork, Ireland for assistance during cheesemaking and
425 cheese analyses. Elin Ørmen and Trygve Krekling at the Norwegian University of Life Sciences,
426 Department of Plant and Environmental Sciences (IPM) for their assistance during the cheese
427 microstructure analysis.

428

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520

521 **Figure headings**

522

523 **Fig. 1.** SEM micrographs (5000x) of low-fat Cheddar cheese (surface of cubic samples): **(A)** Cheese of
524 skim milk (SMP), **(B)** Cheese of butter milk (BMP). Scale bar is 2 μm .

525

526 **Fig. 2.** SEM micrographs (5000x) of low-fat Cheddar cheese (entire matrix of cubic samples): **(A)**
527 SMP and **(B)** BMP. Black arrows indicate the starter cluster cells and white arrows indicate
528 voids of removed fat globules. Scale bar is 2 μm .

529

530 **Fig. 3.** SEM micrographs (5000x) of *Lc. lactis* ssp. *lactis* ML8. Scale bar is 3 μm .

531

532 **Fig. 4.** CLSM micrographs (63x) of low-fat Cheddar cheese treatments: **(A)** Cheese of skim milk
533 (SMP), **(B)** Cheese of butter milk (BMP). Protein is labeled in gray, fat is in green and bacterial
534 cells are in blue. The aqueous phase appears in black. Scale bar is 10 μm

535

536

Table 1. Dry matter (DM %), pH and the texture properties as measured hardness on a Texture analyzer (TPA hardness) of the cheeses after 24 weeks of ripening (Values are means \pm SD).

The *p*-statistics of each experimental factor is shown in the last two rows of the table (n = 18).

	DM (%)	pH	Hardness (N)
SMP	52.97 (\pm 0.95)	5.25 (\pm 0.11)	148.2 (\pm 12.7)
BMP	51.83 (\pm 1.01)	5.22 (\pm 0.11)	132.6 (\pm 15.3)
Powder	0.0002	0.01	0.0024
Rep block	0.0002	0.0001	ns

*ns: not significant

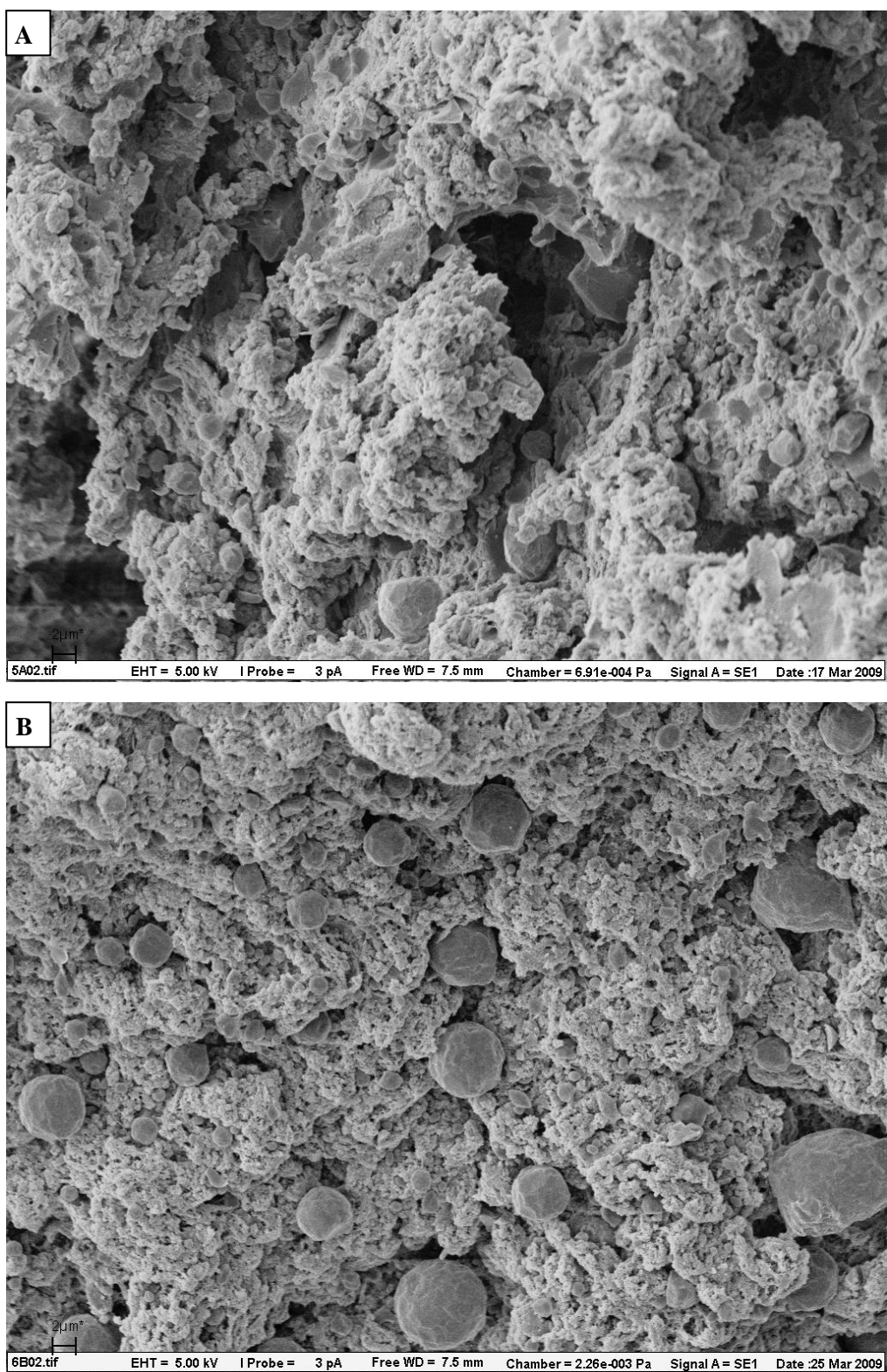


Fig. 1.

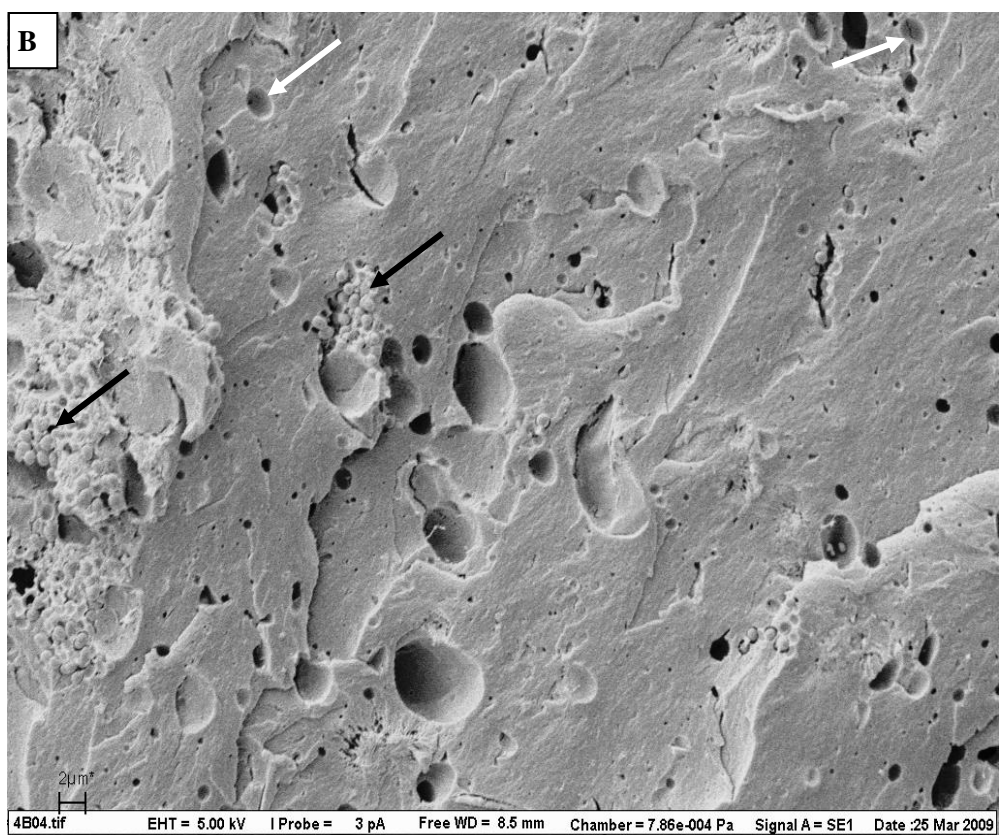
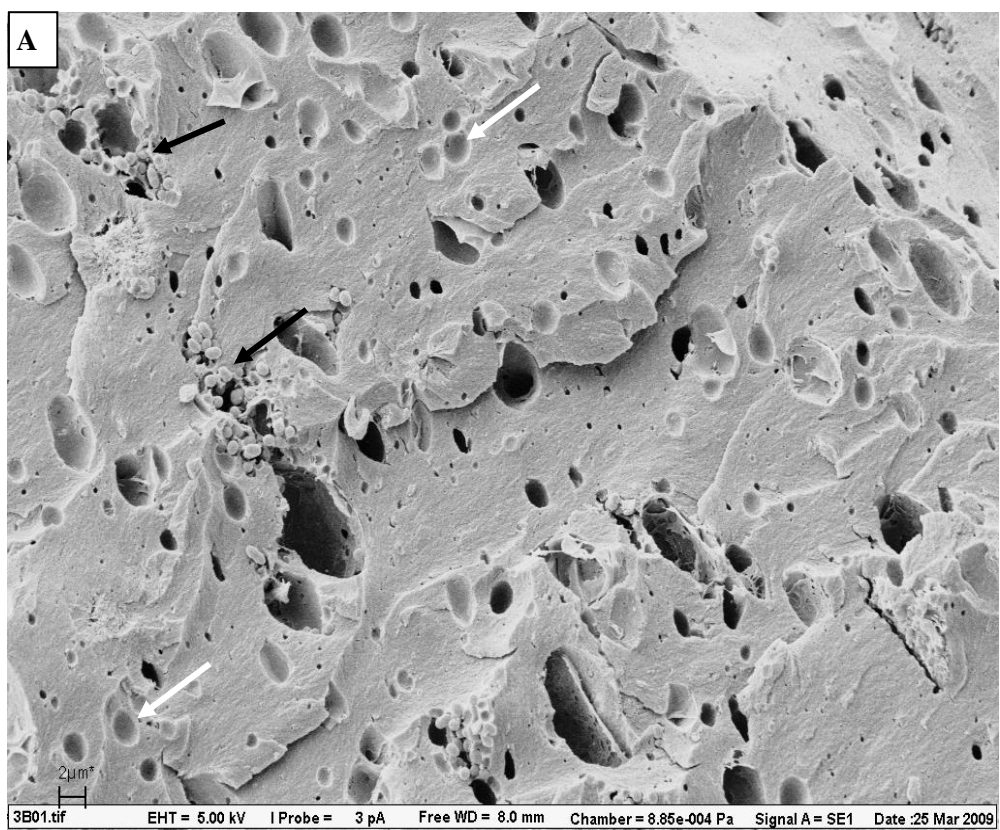


Fig. 2.

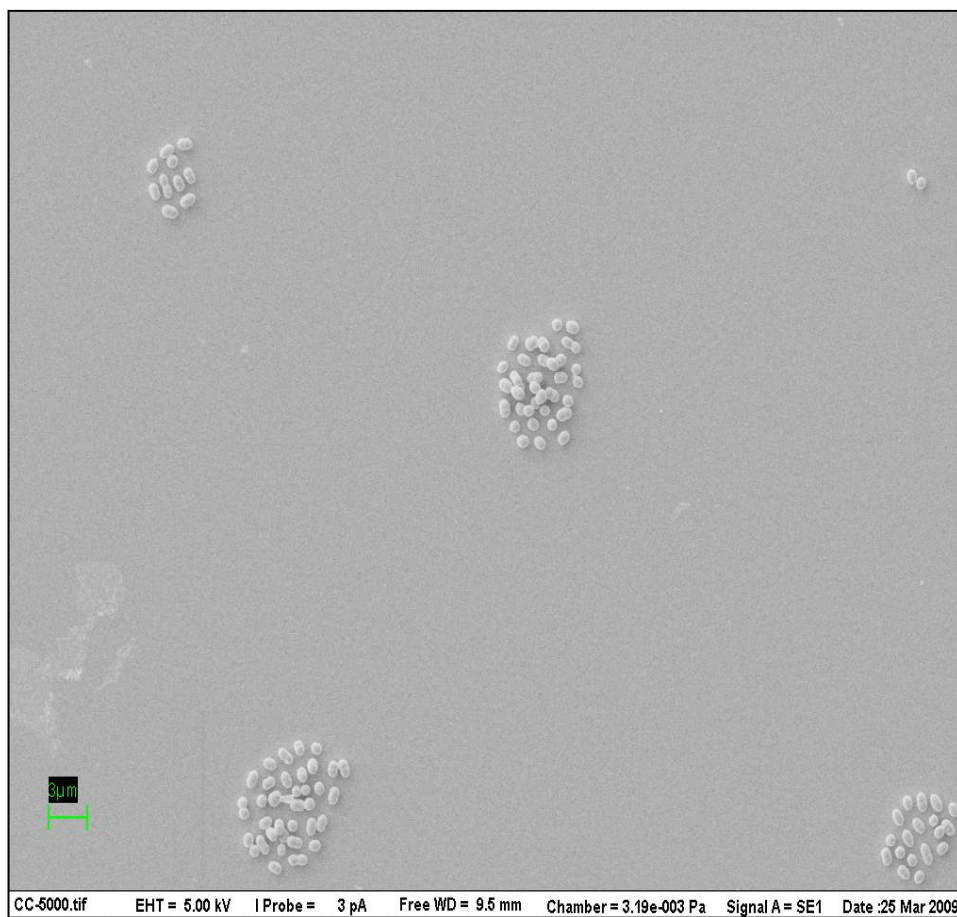


Fig. 3.

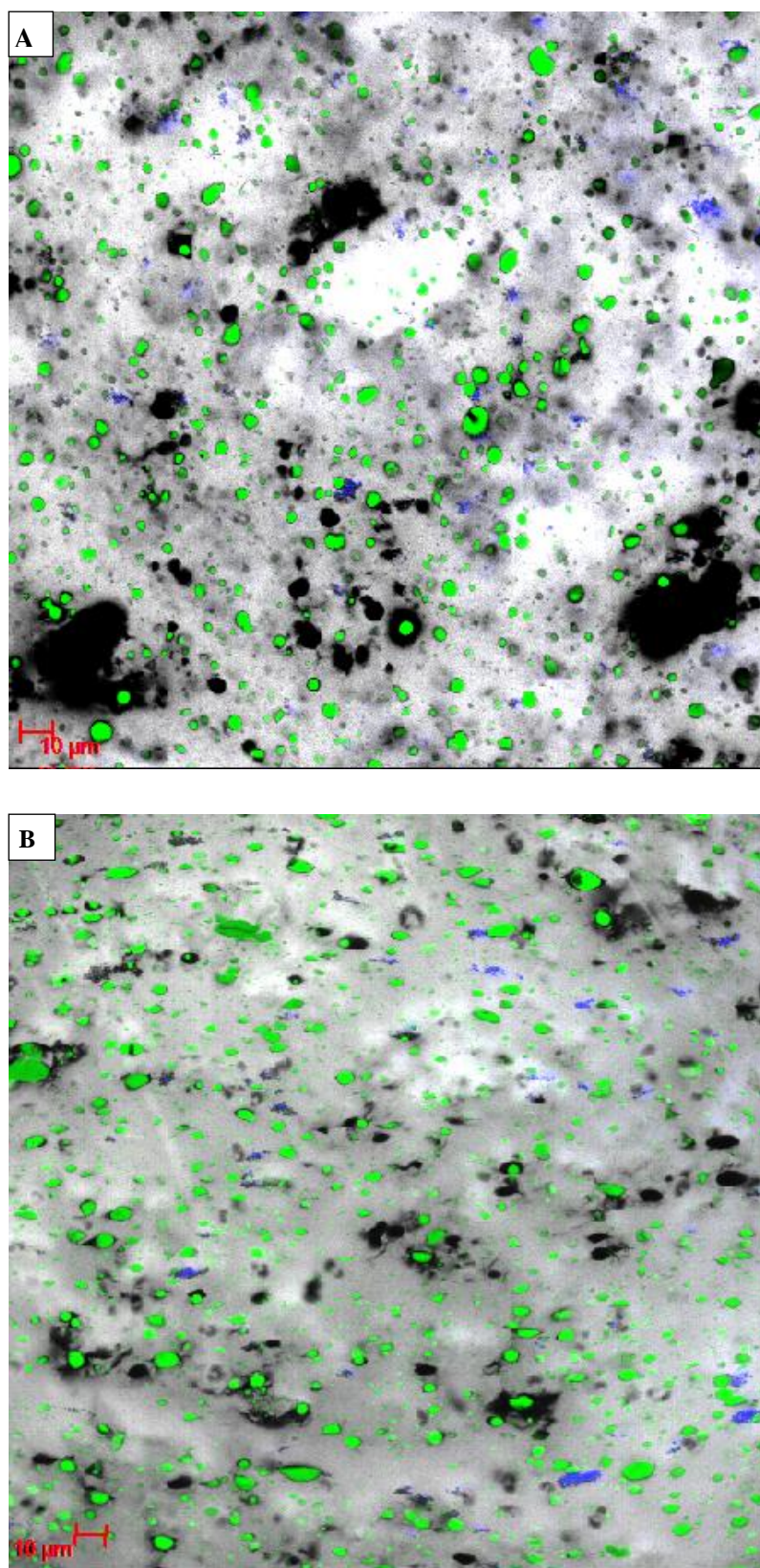


Fig. 4.

2.1 Experimental design

Cheddar cheeses were made in a replicate block design with two experimental factors; Factor 1. Replicate block, which was milk obtained at three different cheesemaking days; Factor 2. MFGM composition, achieved by adding either butter milk powder (BMP) or skim milk powder (SMP) and cream to the cheese milk. SMP and cream were added to standardize the fat and protein contents in the SMP cheese vats to that in BMP cheese vats. Six cheese vats were made in each of the three replicate blocks. Three vats where the milk was added SMP and three where the milk was added BMP.