

Highlights

- Shear work affects structure, fat particle size and creep behaviour of cheese.
- Excessive shear work causes loss of anisotropic nature of model Mozzarella cheese.
- Elastic response of model cheese increased with increase in shear work levels.

10 **Abstract**

11 The effect of shear work input on the microstructure, fat particle size and creep behavior of
12 model Mozzarella type cheeses was studied. Cheese samples were prepared in a twin screw
13 cooker at 70 °C by mixing protein and fat phases together with different amounts of shear
14 work input. Major changes in cheese structure were observed while working at 150 rpm and
15 250 rpm screw speeds. Confocal microstructures plus macroscopic observations showed
16 systematic changes in structure with increased shear work inputs with unmixed buttery liquid
17 observed at $<5 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$, typical Mozzarella type microstructures (elongated fat-serum
18 channels) at $6\text{-}15 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$ and homogeneously distributed, small size fat droplets at $>58 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$.
19 ¹. At very high shear work inputs, $> 75 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$, striations or anisotropy in the microstructures
20 had disappeared and small micro-cracks were evident. A 4-element Burger's model was
21 found adequate for fitting the creep data of model cheese at 70 °C but a 6-element model was
22 required at 20 °C. As shear work input increased retarded compliance decreased and zero
23 shear viscosity increased indicating the more elastic behavior of the cheeses with higher shear
24 work input. Changes in the protein matrix appear to be the main reason for increased elastic
25 behavior.

26 Key words: Shear work, Microstructure, Retarded compliance, Fat particle size

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The process of Mozzarella cheese manufacture includes a hot-water (60-85 °C) stretching and
30 working step that is normally carried out with single or twin screw cheese cookers. In this
31 process step proteins in the cheese curd form into large protein strands resembling fibers and
32 fat-serum pools are distributed within this fibrous network (McMahon, Fife, & Oberg, 1999).
33 The presence of the fat-serum channels helps to deliver the desired melt functionality for
34 pizza applications. Numerous studies have been conducted in the recent past using twin screw
35 cookers for the manufacture of imitation cheese (Noronha, O’Riordan, & O’Sullivan, 2008;
36 El-Bakry, Duggan, O’Riordan, & O’Sullivan, 2010a, b), process cheese (Glenn, Daubert,
37 Farkas & Stefanski, 2003; Kapoor, Lehtola, & Metzger, 2004) and Mozzarella cheese
38 (Mulvaney, Rong, Barbano, & Yun, 1997; McMahon et al., 1999; Yu & Gunasekaran, 2005;
39 Sharma, Munro, Dessev, Wiles, & Buwalda, 2016a; Sharma, Munro, Dessev, & Wiles,
40 2016b). These studies focussed mainly on the effect of processing or formulation on melt
41 functionality.

42 Sharma et al. (2016a) studied the steady shear rheology of model Mozzarella cheeses
43 manufactured in a twin screw Blentech cooker with shear work input as a major variable.
44 Steady shear viscosity increased exponentially with shear work input indicating strong work
45 thickening. Very high shear work inputs led to macroscopic structural breakdown of the
46 cheese network with disappearance of the fibrous structure, loss of stretch, serum syneresis
47 and decrease in melt functionality. These phenomena were attributed mainly to an increase in
48 the strength of protein-protein interactions. Steady shear viscosity was negatively correlated
49 with melt functionality. Sharma et al. (2016b) studied the oscillatory rheology of the same set
50 of model Mozzarella cheeses. Frequency sweeps indicated that the cheese transformed from a
51 viscoelastic liquid to a viscoelastic solid upon working at 70 °C. A critical stage indicating

52 viscoelastic transition during processing was identified at a shear work input of 58.2 kJ.kg^{-1} at
53 150 rpm. Mulvaney et al. (1997) also emphasised that the viscoelastic properties of
54 Mozzarella cheese were influenced by the thermomechanical treatment given in a stretcher-
55 cooker.

56 Stress relaxation and creep-recovery are common tests used for exploring transient
57 viscoelastic behavior of many materials (Mezger, 2011). Both tests are used to study time
58 dependent rheology in the linear viscoelastic region and both apply mechanical models e.g.
59 Kelvin-Voigt for creep behavior. Many studies have been conducted on Mozzarella type
60 cheeses and similar casein-based materials using creep-recovery and stress relaxation
61 methods (Subramanian, Muthukumarappan, & Gunasekaran, 2003; Muliawan &
62 Hatzikiriakos, 2007; Manski, van der Zalm, van der Goot & Boom, 2008; Olivares, Zorrilla,
63 & Rubiolo, 2009; Bähler, Nägele, Weiss, & Hinrichs, 2015). Creep tests are more common
64 for cheese rheology, as they are easier to perform, can describe material behavior more
65 practically and are the best way of obtaining zero-shear viscosity. Creep-recovery tests can
66 also be used to study the internal structure of Mozzarella cheese and physicochemical
67 changes with temperature and during ripening (Olivares et al., 2009).

68 The current study focuses on microstructural changes in model Mozzarella cheeses with
69 varying shear work input using confocal laser scanning microscopy, fat particle size analysis
70 and creep-recovery behavior as tools. Nonfat cheese was included in the study to observe
71 microstructural changes occurring in the absence of fat.

72 **2. Materials and methods**

73 *2.1. Materials*

74 Frozen blocks (-20 °C) of renneted and acidified protein gel manufactured from skim milk
75 with typically 50 g. 100 g⁻¹ moisture and 46 g. 100 g⁻¹ protein were obtained from Fonterra
76 Research and Development Centre (FRDC) pilot plant, Palmerston North, NZ. The blocks
77 were thawed for 1 day at 11 °C and ground in a Rietz grinder (Rietz Manufacturing, Santa
78 Rosa, CA, USA) with 6 mm grind size. Fresh cream was obtained from FRDC on each trial
79 day. Cheese salt (Dominion Salt, Mount Maunganui, New Zealand) and tri-sodium citrate
80 (TSC) (Jungbunzlauer, Basel, Switzerland) were also added.

81 *2.2. Manufacture of model mozzarella cheeses*

82 Protein gel, cream, water and salt were mixed, cooked and worked together at 70 °C in a
83 counter rotating twin-screw cooker (Blentech, model CC-0045, Blentech Corporation,
84 Rohnert Park, CA, USA) for the manufacture of model Mozzarella cheeses (Sharma, et al.,
85 2016a). Three versions of model cheeses were prepared – full fat, nonfat and full fat with 0.5
86 g. 100 g⁻¹ tri-sodium citrate (TSC) as a chelating agent. The target composition of full fat
87 cheese was 23 g. 100 g⁻¹ fat, 21 g. 100 g⁻¹ protein, 53 g. 100 g⁻¹ moisture and 1.4 g. 100 g⁻¹
88 salt. Nonfat cheese had the same protein to salt and protein to moisture ratios as full fat
89 cheese. Detailed manufacturing methods, sampling times, sample storage conditions and
90 product compositions are given by Sharma et al. (2016a). Each experiment was repeated with
91 at least one month between runs to ensure that the effect of shear work was independent of
92 variations in raw material. Shear work input was estimated by numerical integration of
93 power-time curves (Sharma et al., 2016a). Shear work inputs ranged from 2.8 to 185 kJ.kg⁻¹.

94 2.3. *Fat particle size distribution*

95 The fat particle size distribution of cheeses was obtained by disrupting the cheese matrix with
96 chelating solution A (Walstra, 1965) and measuring size distributions using light scattering
97 on the Mastersizer 2000 (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, UK). The experimental protocol
98 suggested by Lee, Anema, and Klostermeyer (2004) was used with some modifications. A
99 representative sample was collected from at least three different locations in the cheese.

100 Approximately 0.5 g cheese was added to 50 ml solution A and mixed by gentle swirling
101 action to minimize shear effects. Solution A contained 0.375 g. 100 g⁻¹ EDTA and 0.125 mL.
102 100 mL⁻¹ Tween 20 at pH 10. Cheese samples were held for 16 h after solution A addition.
103 Particle size measurements were performed at room temperature (21°C). Refractive indices
104 were taken as 1.33 for the deionised water dispersant and 1.46 for milk fat. Particle size data
105 were reported as average volume weighted diameter (D_{4,3}).

106 2.4. *Confocal scanning laser microscopy (CSLM)*

107 Confocal microscopy was used to determine the microstructure of cheese samples. Slabs of
108 ~12 x 4 mm were cut from the cheese samples in the longitudinal fibre direction using a
109 sharp razor blade and were then transferred to a stud holder with polyethylene glycol on the
110 surface. Samples were frozen at -20 °C and sectioned into 50 µm slices on a cryo-microtome.
111 Slices were immediately transferred to glass slides, stained with 0.4 g. 100 mL⁻¹ Nile red and
112 0.2 g. 100 mL⁻¹ fast green (made in citifluor to minimise photobleaching) and covered with a
113 coverslip. The sectioned samples were stored at 4 °C for at least 48 h before imaging to
114 ensure uniform dye uptake. Confocal images were taken using a Zeiss LSM 510 META
115 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany) with excitation wavelengths of
116 488 nm and 633 nm. Images were taken 15 µm below the cheese surface.

117 2.5. *Transient viscoelastic measurements (Creep)*

118 The transient viscoelastic behavior of model Mozzarella cheese was studied by conducting
119 creep and recovery tests at 20 °C or 70 °C. Creep tests were performed on an Anton Paar
120 MCR 301 rheometer (Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) with a 20 mm diameter serrated plate
121 geometry (PP20/P2) and a Peltier temperature hood (H-PTD 200). Disc-shaped cheese
122 samples of 20 mm diameter and ~2 mm thickness were prepared and equilibrated to test
123 temperature as previously described by Sharma, Dessev, Munro, Wiles, Gillies, Golding, ...,
124 Janssen (2015) except that a 1 N normal force was used to define the measurement gap and
125 also to ensure good contact with the upper rotating plate. A 25 Pa shear stress was applied for
126 1001 s and then removed. The cheese was allowed to recover its strain for 3000 s. The
127 resultant strain was measured as a function of time during the creep and recovery phases. The
128 applied shear stress (25 Pa) was confirmed to be well within the linear viscoelastic limit using
129 dynamic rheological tests.

130 2.5.1 Kelvin-Voigt model

131 Creep behavior can be represented by a series of mechanical spring and dashpot elements.
132 Four and six element Kelvin-Voigt models (also known as Burgers models) were fitted to the
133 experimental creep data. The six element model comprises a Maxwell element (spring and
134 dashpot in series) in series with two Kelvin elements (spring and dashpot in parallel) (Fig. 1).
135 The Maxwell element adds the instantaneous compliance (spring) and zero shear viscosity
136 controlling permanent deformation (dashpot). The creep phase was analysed to determine fit
137 parameters and both the creep and recovery phases were then predicted with these fit
138 parameters. Data is presented in the form of shear creep compliance (J) as outlined in Steffe
139 (1996):

140 During the creep phase

141 $J = f(t) = \frac{\gamma(t)}{\tau_0}$ (1)

142 $\gamma(t) = \frac{\tau_0}{G_0} + \frac{\tau_0}{G_1} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_1}}\right) + \frac{\tau_0}{G_2} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_2}}\right) + \frac{\tau_0}{\eta_0} \cdot t$ (2)

143 $J(t) = J_0 + J_1 \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_1}}\right) + J_2 \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_2}}\right) + \frac{1}{\eta_0} \cdot t$ (3)

144 During the recovery phase

145 $\gamma(t) = \gamma_{max} - \frac{\tau_0}{G_0} - \frac{\tau_0}{G_1} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_1}}\right) - \frac{\tau_0}{G_2} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\lambda_2}}\right)$ (4)

146 Where

147 $\gamma(t)$ = Shear strain at time t

148 γ_{max} = Maximum strain attained during creep phase

149 τ_0 = Applied shear stress, Pa

150 G_0 = Instantaneous shear modulus, Pa

151 J_0 = Instantaneous shear compliance, Pa⁻¹

152 G_1 & G_2 = Viscoelastic moduli of two retarded elements, Pa

153 J_1 & J_2 = Retarded compliances, Pa⁻¹

154 η_0 = Zero-shear or Newtonian viscosity, Pa.s

155 λ_1 & λ_2 = retardation times of two retarded elements = $\frac{\eta_1}{G_1}$ and $\frac{\eta_2}{G_2}$, s

156 η_1 & η_2 = Shear viscosity in viscoelastic region, Pa.s

157 The parameters were obtained from the experimental curves in a stepwise fashion. G_0 was

158 first calculated from 45 data points in the 0 - 0.85 s time range. η_0 was then calculated from

159 33 data points in the 420 – 975 s range. The final 4 parameters in equation 2 were obtained

160 using the successive residual method in Excel. An alternative calculation method used non-
161 linear regression in SigmaPlot (version 11.0) to obtain 5 of the parameters in equation 2 after
162 η_0 had been determined as above and subtracted. The ‘5-parameter exponential rise to
163 maximum model’ within the global curve fitting wizard was used. The alternative method
164 gave similar values of the 5 parameters with goodness of fit $r^2 > 0.99$ (level of significance
165 5%) indicating that the 6 element model fitted the experimental data well. Relative recovery
166 of strain at the end of the recovery step was also calculated (Patel, Dumlu, Vermeir, Lewille,
167 Lesaffer, & Dewettinck, 2015).

168 % Relative recovery, $\gamma_r = \frac{\gamma_{max} - \gamma_{end}}{\gamma_{max}} \cdot 100$ (5)

169 where γ_{end} is the strain at the end of the recovery phase.

170 3. Results

171 3.1. Microstructure of sheared model Mozzarella cheeses

172 Confocal images of the model Mozzarella cheeses manufactured with varied shear work
173 inputs are presented in Figs. 2, 3 & 4 for 50, 150 and 250 rpm screw speeds, respectively.
174 Shear work induced microstructural changes at 50 rpm screw speed appear to be minor or
175 subtle. However, major changes in both fat and protein phases were observed for 150 and 250
176 rpm screw speeds. In the initial stages of mixing (shear work typically $< 5 \text{kJ.kg}^{-1}$) milk fat
177 can be seen in relatively large pools in the protein network (Fig.2, 1.3 & 2.9 kJ.kg^{-1} and Fig.
178 4, 3.5 kJ.kg^{-1}). At a macroscopic level at such low shear work values the cheese was runny,
179 often with some buttery liquid present indicating that the cream was not yet well mixed into
180 the structure (Sharma et al., 2016a). Such large milk fat pools would lead to excessive fat
181 leakage upon cheese melting. With further mixing (shear work 6-15 kJ.kg^{-1}), a more typical
182 mozzarella structure was observed (Fig. 2, 5.9 & 12.0 kJ.kg^{-1} and Fig. 3, 8.8 kJ.kg^{-1}). No

183 unmixed creamy liquid was observed at a macroscopic level. For all microstructures at shear
184 work $<40 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$ striated or anisotropic protein network structures were observed with fat
185 dispersed in the protein mainly in the form of channels or elongated fat droplets. Hot water
186 stretching and kneading action in the traditional manufacture of Mozzarella type cheeses also
187 converts the casein mass into smooth, elongated and aligned microfibers in the direction of
188 stretch with elongated fat channels between the fibers (McMahon et al., 1999; Oberg,
189 McManus, & McMahon, 1993).

190 Cheeses with shear work in the range $50\text{-}60 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$ showed microstructures where elongated
191 fat structures had virtually disappeared. The structures were isotropic and the fat globule size
192 was now much smaller (Fig. 3, 58.2 kJ.kg^{-1} and Fig. 4, 53.9 kJ.kg^{-1}). At the highest shear
193 work inputs microstructures showed a very fine dispersion of fat particles and an isotropic
194 structure. Fine micro-cracks were also observed indicating a brittle material (Fig. 3, 73.7
195 kJ.kg^{-1} and Fig. 4, 166 kJ.kg^{-1}). These overworked cheeses no longer showed a fibrous
196 macrostructure, were mechanically brittle and lacked stretch (Sharma et al., 2016a).

197 *3.2. Fat particle size distributions*

198 Fat particle size distributions for all samples were either bimodal or trimodal distributions
199 (Fig. 5a). The largest volumetric frequency peak near $35 \mu\text{m}$ and a smaller peak near $0.5 \mu\text{m}$
200 occurred for all 6 samples. The dominance of particles around $35 \mu\text{m}$ agrees with the
201 confocal images. For the three samples at the highest shear work inputs a third peak in the
202 range $2 - 4 \mu\text{m}$ is observed. At lower shear work values ($<30 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$) the proportion of
203 smaller particles was lower and the overall span of the distribution was larger. Cheese with
204 the lowest shear work input (3.3 kJ.kg^{-1}) showed a wide distribution with some very large
205 particles ($500 \mu\text{m}$) that disappeared with further shear work input. Further increases in shear
206 work input resulted in an increase in the proportion of smaller fat particle sizes and a

207 narrowing in the width of the biggest peak (~35 μm). El-Bakry, Duggan, O’Riordan, and
208 O’Sullivan (2011) also reported narrowing of the fat globule size distribution upon mixing of
209 imitation cheese in a twin screw cheese cooker. The presence of large particles (500 μm) and
210 tiny particles (< 1 μm) was not evident on the confocal images indicating the practical limits
211 of confocal imaging - limited sample selection and particle resolution > 1 μm .

212 Mean fat particle size ($d_{4,3}$) decreased with shear work input (Fig. 5b). The mean fat particle
213 size decreased from 45 μm to 20 μm as shear work input increased from 3.3 to 74 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$.

214 3.3. *Transient viscoelastic properties*

215 Creep and recovery was used to study the transient viscoelastic nature of the model cheeses.
216 Three distinct regions are visible in the creep phase of all the cheeses (Fig.6). These regions
217 are instantaneous elastic deformation, viscoelastic or delayed elastic deformation and pure
218 viscous creep. The strain during the first two regions (elastic and viscoelastic) is expected to
219 be fully recovered whereas the strain from the last region (viscous flow) will result in
220 permanent deformation. The relative contribution of the regions changed as shear work input
221 increased. For all cheeses, a significant contribution of viscous flow to overall creep is
222 observed as there was always residual permanent deformation even 3000 s after shear stress
223 was removed.

224 Table 1 shows maximum shear strain (γ_{max}), relative recovery of shear strain and fitted creep
225 parameters using a 6-element Burger’s model. γ_{max} decreased with shear work input. For
226 shear work < 30 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$, γ_{max} was in the range of 0.0076-0.01. At the highest shear work input
227 γ_{max} was 0.0051. Lower levels of γ_{max} indicate hardening of the material. γ_{max} was higher for
228 nonfat cheese (0.011) and higher again for full fat cheese with TSC added (0.016). This
229 indicates that nonfat cheese and TSC full fat cheese were softer than their full fat counterpart.

230 The extent of shear strain recovery should indicate the relative proportion of elastic
231 components (instantaneous strain and delayed elasticity) in the cheeses. A high proportion of
232 viscous creep will give a low relative recovery of shear strain. For shear work inputs in the
233 range 3-58 kJ.kg⁻¹, strain recovery was in the range of 57-65% (Fig. 6a and Table 1).
234 However, for the excessively worked sample (74 kJ.kg⁻¹) the recovery was much higher
235 (85%). This indicates a significant decrease in the viscous flow component for excessively
236 worked full fat cheese. This is expected given its much higher steady shear viscosity (Sharma
237 et al, 2016a). At similar shear work inputs (3-9 kJ.kg⁻¹), nonfat cheese exhibited a higher
238 shear strain recovery than full fat cheese (Table 1). Fat at 20 °C is known to undergo plastic
239 deformation contributing to permanent deformation. Nonfat cheese is therefore more elastic.
240 Cheese with TSC added showed the lowest strain recovery of any of the cheeses. Chelation of
241 salts such as calcium by TSC gives this cheese a lower steady shear viscosity (Sharma et al,
242 2016a) so there is a higher viscous creep.

243 From the six elements of the Burger's model three represent elastic behavior, i.e. time-
244 independent instantaneous compliance (J_0) and time dependent retarded compliances (J_1 and
245 J_2). J_0 represents the Hookean spring element which is related to the undisturbed cheese
246 structure consisting of a protein network and partially solidified fat (Olivares et al., 2009;
247 Subramanian et al, 2003). The protein network in cheese is regarded as the major contributing
248 factor to the elastic behavior. Higher values of J_0 indicate less rigidity meaning that the
249 protein network is relatively free to rearrange between crosslinks (Olivares et al., 2009) and
250 the material shows higher deformations. J_0 for the full fat model cheeses ($2.67-4.18 \times 10^{-5} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$)
251 showed no definite trend with increase in shear work input (Table 1). J_0 for nonfat cheese
252 was higher than that for full fat cheese indicating less rigidity.

253 J_1 and J_2 are the major components of the viscoelastic behavior of model Mozzarella
254 cheese (Subramanian et al., 2003). J_2 indicates the size of the fast viscoelastic deformations
255 whereas J_1 indicates the size of the slower viscoelastic deformations. J_2 does not vary
256 systematically with shear work. The decrease in J_1 with increasing shear work input indicates
257 an increase of rigidity (Table 1). Values of both J_1 and J_2 were higher for nonfat cheese and
258 cheese with TSC added than for full fat cheese suggesting a higher viscoelastic component to
259 the response and a lower rigidity.

260 Retardation time (λ) is another important parameter in viscoelastic behavior. It quantifies
261 the delayed response to applied stress and can be linked to delayed elasticity (Mezger, 2011).
262 λ_2 was in the range 3.3-5.1s and λ_1 in the range 129-193 s for all three types of model
263 cheeses. No trends were evident for either λ_1 or λ_2 as a function of either shear work input or
264 model cheese type. However, it was evident that J_1 decreased and η_1 increased with shear
265 work input suggesting an increase in both elastic and viscous behavior. Retardation time is
266 inversely related to network elasticity. Therefore, more elastic material should have smaller
267 retardation times, while softer materials tend to have longer retardation times. Maybe the
268 changes in J_1 and η_1 are such that no significant changes in retardation time occur.

269 η_0 measured by the creep method corresponds to the zero shear viscosity as the shear rates in
270 this region are very low (10^{-6} s^{-1}). η_0 increased exponentially with shear work input. Steady
271 shear viscosity at higher shear rates also increased exponentially with shear work input
272 (Sharma et al., 2016a). The exponential increase in viscosity during mixing and working of
273 model Mozzarella cheese is linked with the increased strength of the protein matrix either
274 because of more protein-protein bonds or an increase in their strength.

275 The 6-element Burger's model with parameters calculated from the creep phase data fits
276 experimental data in the creep phase very well (Fig. 7). These parameters also fit
277 experimental data for the first 500 s of the recovery phase, but do not fit adequately in the
278 later stages. The experimental data indicates a higher recovery of applied strain than the
279 model predicts. Fitting a 6 element model to the data for just the recovery phase also gives
280 good curve fits but with much longer time constants than those in Table 1, e.g. 50 s and 990 s
281 for full fat cheese with 4.3 kJ.kg^{-1} shear work input.

282 At 70°C the creep curve (Fig. 8) for full fat cheese indicated that overall deformation was
283 dominated by pure viscous flow causing a high amount of permanent deformation with only
284 48% strain recovery. A 4-element Burger's model was found to fit the experimental data
285 well. The following creep function was obtained at 70°C after applying 0.05 Pa shear stress.

$$286 \quad J(t) = 1.25 \times 10^{-4} + 3.71 \times 10^{-2} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{10.46}}\right) + \frac{1}{491} \cdot t \quad (6)$$

287 Compared to data for the same sample at 20°C J_0 is 3 times higher and J_1 is 366 times higher
288 indicating a much less rigid structure. η_1 is 0.00018 times and η_0 is 0.000088 times that at 20
289 $^\circ\text{C}$. At 70°C both fat and protein phases are molten and therefore contribute significantly to
290 viscous flow but the viscosity is much lower. Only one retardation time of 10.46 s is needed
291 to represent the behavior at 70°C .

292 **4. Discussion**

293 For any model cheese or imitation cheese where the fat and protein are added as separate
294 phases mixing is a crucial part of structure development at both the macroscopic and
295 microscopic levels. Because of the very high viscosity of the molten cheese and the low
296 Reynolds number ($\text{Re} < 0.1$) the mixing will be laminar rather than turbulent. In laminar
297 mixing of two phases of roughly similar volume the essential mechanism of structure

298 development is layering, stretching and folding which leads to striated structures (Szalai,
299 Alvarez, & Muzzio, 2004) such as those in Fig. 2 and also at low shear work in Figs. 3 & 4.
300 This striation mechanism combined with the fiber forming properties of renneted casein leads
301 to the formation of a typical Mozzarella structure with the right characteristics to have good
302 pizza functionality. In our experiments the layering, stretching and folding is generated by the
303 mixing action of the twin augers in the Blentech cooker.

304 The presence of pockets that combine fat and serum in traditional Mozzarella type cheeses is
305 well reported (Paulson, McMahon, & Oberg, 1998; McMahon et al., 1999; Mizuno & Lucey,
306 2005; McMahon, Paulson, & Oberg, 2005). The laminar mixing action of the augers creates
307 similar, desirable striated protein structures with optimum sized fat-serum channels to give
308 good melt functionality (Sharma et al., 2016a). These striated structures are the basis for the
309 mechanical and structural anisotropy observed in fat-protein networks (Cervantes, Lund, &
310 Olson, 1983; Ak and Gunasekaran, 1997; Manski et al., 2008; Bast et al., 2015; Sharma et al.,
311 2015).

312 Further mixing (shear work input $>58 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$) resulted in striation break up, a more uniform
313 distribution of fat within the protein network, the disappearance of anisotropic fiber structures
314 (Figs 3 & 4), much finer fat particles (Fig. 5) and poor melt (Sharma et al., 2016a). El-Bakry
315 et al. (2011) also reported the disappearance of the microscopic fibrous character of imitation
316 cheese with processing time and noted a honeycomb structure with prolonged working.
317 Excessive working ($>74 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$) eventually led to the breakdown of the protein matrix
318 showing an aggregated macroscopic structure accompanied by loss of serum fluid (Sharma et
319 al., 2016a). Confocal images indicated a brittle material with microcracks present (Figs. 3 &
320 4). Excessive protein-protein interactions mediated by calcium ions can be related to the

321 formation of these aggregated structures and the expulsion of serum (McMahon et al., 1999;
322 Sharma et al., 2016b).

323 The very large fat particles (500 μm) observed at low shear work input disappeared at higher
324 shear work values (Fig. 5a). This rapid reduction of fat particle size suggests effective
325 dispersive mixing in the initial working phases. Excessive working led to the occurrence of
326 many more submicron fat particles (Fig. 5a). The fat particle size distribution after working
327 molten cheese in twin screw cookers is expected to result from a dynamic equilibrium
328 between particle break up by shear and particle growth by coalescence. The results indicate
329 that particle break up by shear is dominant as $d_{4,3}$ continuously decreased with increasing
330 shear work input (Fig. 5b). Coalescence may be increasing at high shear work levels as the
331 curve flattens (Fig. 5b).

332 The changes in creep and recovery behavior at 20 °C of full fat model cheese with increasing
333 shear work input broadly agree with the changes reported in steady shear viscosity (Sharma et
334 al., 2016a) and oscillatory rheology (Sharma et al., 2016b). Steady shear viscosity increased
335 exponentially with shear work input (Sharma et al., 2016a) and η_0 also increased
336 exponentially with shear work input (Table 1). Frequency sweeps indicated a more elastic,
337 solid-like structure with increasing shear work input (Sharma et al., 2016b) and decreasing J_1
338 and increasing η_1 with increasing shear work input (Table 1) also indicate more elastic, solid-
339 like behavior. The comparison between full fat cheese, nonfat cheese and TSC added cheese
340 from the creep and recovery behavior also agrees with previous work. At a similar shear work
341 level full fat cheese is harder (lower γ_{max} , Table 1) and more rigid (lower J_0 , Table 1) than the
342 other two cheeses and had lower frequency dependence indicating a harder, more solid-like
343 structure (Sharma et al., 2016b). η_0 was lowest for TSC added cheese whereas full fat and

344 nonfat cheeses had similar η_0 . Full fat cheese and nonfat cheeses had similar steady shear
345 viscosities but that for TSC added cheese was lower (Sharma et al., 2016a).

346 The retardation times (λ_1 & λ_2) are time constants for the viscoelastic changes in the Kelvin
347 elements in the model (Fig. 1). Retardation times are useful in the design of cheese forming
348 devices such as block formers or extrusion processes. A useful rule of thumb is that the
349 timescale of deformation must be longer than the retardation time if changes in shape are to
350 be permanent. When processing at 70 °C holding of a new shape for at least 11 s is therefore
351 necessary for a permanent shape change. At 20 °C two retardation times were needed to
352 model the behavior (Table 1). For all cheeses J_1 was 2 to 3 times J_2 so the longer retardation
353 time λ_1 is more important to permanent shape change than λ_2 . A holding time of 150 – 200 s
354 is therefore needed for a permanent shape change at 20 °C .

355 The retardation times reported here are the same order of magnitude as those reported for a
356 cheese like material, shear structured and transglutaminase cross-linked 30 % calcium
357 caseinate in the presence of palm fat, at 20 °C (Manski et al., 2008). Their 6-element Burgers
358 model gave retardation times of 8-11 s and 200-260 s compared to our values of 3-5 s and
359 130-193 s.

360 Sharma et al. (2016b) proposed a schematic model to describe structural changes in model
361 Mozzarella cheeses as they were progressively sheared. The model showed the fat phase
362 changing from large, elongated particles at low shear work input ($< 30 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$), to smaller
363 elongated fat particles at 58 kJ.kg^{-1} , to small, spherical fat particles at $> 70 \text{ kJ.kg}^{-1}$. The
364 changes in fat particle size distribution and fat microstructure reported here add further
365 experimental support for the model.

366 **5. Conclusions**

367 Mozzarella cheese is a pasta-filata variety of cheese that undergoes through kneading and
368 stretching action during working giving rise to typical fibrous appearance. The energy
369 imparted to cheese during working in the form of shear work shall govern its structure,
370 rheology and functionality. Our work demonstrated that shear work input has huge impact on
371 the fat particle size, structure and rheology of a model Mozzarella cheese. It also elucidates
372 importance of the stretching-folding action in Blentech (twin screw cooker) for the formation
373 of striated anisotropic structure. Furthermore, prolonged shearing of cheese samples causes
374 significant changes in the microstructure from an anisotropic structure with aligned fat-serum
375 channels to an isotropic, more elastic structure with presence of small fat globules and some
376 micro-cracks. This study hypothesizes that shear work induced changes are led by changes in
377 protein phase; however, future systematic studies are required on quantification of structural
378 changes in protein phase.

379 **Acknowledgements**

380 The authors thank Fonterra Co-operative Group and the Ministry for Primary Industries, NZ
381 for funding this project under the Dairy Primary Growth Partnership programme in Food
382 Structure Design. Authors thank Robbie Buwalda, Bhavin Parmar, Ben Somerton, Grant
383 Bleakin, Dave Griffin and Ken Anderson for their help with the Blentech trials at FRDC.
384 Authors also thank Elizabeth Nickless, FRDC for helping with confocal laser scanning
385 microscopy analysis of cheese samples. Statistical help received from Maria Ferrua, Riddet
386 Institute, for helpful discussions on the best methods for fitting models to experimental data
387 is duly acknowledged.

388 **References**

389 Ak, M.M., & Gunasekaran, S. (1997). Anisotropy in tensile properties of mozzarella cheese.
390 *Journal of Food Science*, 62, 1031-1033.

391 Bähler, B., Nägele, M., Weiss, J., & Hinrichs, J. (2016). Temperature and time-dependent
392 relaxation of compressed cheese curd cubes: effect on structuring of pasta-filata cheese.
393 *Journal of Texture Studies*, 47, 58-67.

394 Bast, R., Sharma, P., Easton, H.K.B., Dessev, T.T., Lad, M., & Munro, P.A. (2015). Tensile
395 testing to quantitate the anisotropy and strain hardening of Mozzarella cheese. *International*
396 *Dairy Journal*, 44, 6-14.

397 Cervantes, M.A., Lund, D.B., & Olson, N.F. (1983). Effects of salt concentration and
398 freezing on Mozzarella cheese texture. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 66, 204-213.

399 El-Bakry, M., Duggan, E., O'Riordan, E. D., & O'Sullivan, M. (2010a). Effects of
400 emulsifying salts reduction on imitation cheese manufacture and functional properties.
401 *Journal of Food Engineering*, 100, 596-603.

402 El-Bakry, M., Duggan, E., O'Riordan, E. D., & O'Sullivan, M. (2010b). Small scale imitation
403 cheese manufacture using a Farinograph. *LWT-Food Science and Technology*, 43, 1079-1087.

404 El-Bakry, M., Duggan, E., O'Riordan, E. D., & O'Sullivan, M. (2011). Casein hydration and
405 fat emulsification during manufacture of imitation cheese, and effects of emulsifying salts
406 reduction. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 103, 179-187.

407 Glenn, T. A., Daubert, C. R., Farkas, B. E., & Stefanski, L. A. (2003). A statistical analysis of
408 creaming variables impacting process cheese melt quality. *Journal of Food Quality*, 26, 299-
409 321.

410 Kapoor, R., Lehtola, P., & Metzger, L. E. (2004). Comparison of pilot-scale and rapid visco
411 analyzer process cheese manufacture. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 87, 2813-2821.

412 Lee, S. K., Anema, S., & Klostermeyer, H. (2004). The influence of moisture content on the
413 rheological properties of processed cheese spreads. *International Journal of Food Science
414 and Technology*, 39, 763–771.

415 Manski, J.M., van der Zalm, E.E.J., van der Goot, A.J., & Boom, R.M. (2008). Influence of
416 process parameters on formation of fibrous materials from dense calcium caseinate
417 dispersions and fat. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 22, 587-600.

418 McMahon, D. J., Fife, R. L., & Oberg, C. J. (1999). Water partitioning in Mozzarella cheese
419 and its relationship to cheese meltability. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 82, 1361–1369.

420 McMahon, D. J., Paulson, B., & Oberg, C. J. (2005). Influence of calcium, pH, and moisture
421 on protein matrix structure and functionality in direct-acidified nonfat Mozzarella cheese.
422 *Journal of Dairy Science*, 88, 3754-3763.

423 Mezger, T.G. (2011). *The Rheology Handbook: for Users of Rotational and Oscillatory
424 Rheometers*. (3rd ed.). Hannover, Germany: Vincentz Network GmbH & Co.

425 Mizuno, R., & Lucey, J. A. (2005). Effects of emulsifying salts on the turbidity and calcium-
426 phosphate-protein interactions in casein micelles. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 88, 3070–3078.

427 Muliawan, E.B., & Hatzikiriakos, S.G. (2007). Rheology of Mozzarella Cheese. *International
428 Dairy Journal*, 17, 1063-1072.

429 Mulvaney, S., Rong, S., Barbano, D. M., & Yun, J. J. (1997). Systems analysis of the
430 plasticization and extrusion processing of Mozzarella cheese. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 80,
431 3030-3039.

432 Noronha, N., O'Riordan, E. D., & O'Sullivan, M. (2008). Influence of processing parameters
433 on the texture and microstructure of imitation cheese. *European Food Research and*
434 *Technology*, 226, 385-393.

435 Oberg, C. J., McManus, W. R., & McMahon, D. J. (1993). Microstructure of Mozzarella
436 cheese during manufacture. *Food Structure*, 12, 251-258.

437 Olivares, M.L., Zorrilla, S.E. & Rubiolo, A.C. (2009). Rheological properties of mozzarella
438 cheese determined by creep/recovery tests: effect of sampling direction, test temperature and
439 ripening time. *Journal of Texture Studies*, 40, 300-318.

440 Patel, A. R., Dumlu, P., Vermeir, L., Lewille, B., Lesaffer, A., & Dewettinck, K. (2015).
441 Rheological characterization of gel-in-oil-in-gel type structured emulsions. *Food*
442 *Hydrocolloids*, 46, 84-92.

443 Paulson, B. M., McMahon, D. J., & Oberg, C. J. (1998). Influence of sodium chloride on
444 appearance, functionality, and protein arrangements in nonfat Mozzarella cheese. *Journal of*
445 *Dairy Science*, 81, 2053–2064.

446 Sharma, P., Dessev, T.T., Munro, P.A., Wiles, P.G., Gillies, G., Golding, M., James, B. &
447 Janssen, P. (2015). Measurement techniques for steady shear viscosity of Mozzarella-type
448 cheeses at high shear rates and high temperature. *International Dairy Journal*, 47, 102-108.

449 Sharma, P., Munro, P.A., Dessev, T.T., Wiles, P.G., & Buwalda, R.J. (2016a). Effect of shear
450 work input on steady shear rheology and melt functionality of model Mozzarella cheeses.
451 *Food Hydrocolloids*, 54, 266-277.

452 Sharma, P., Munro, P.A., Dessev, T.T. & Wiles, P.G. (2016b). Shear work induced changes
453 in the viscoelastic properties of model Mozzarella cheese. *International Dairy Journal*, 56,
454 108-118.

- 455 Steffe, J. F. (1996). *Rheological methods in food process engineering* (2nd ed.). East Lansing,
456 MI, USA: Freeman Press.
- 457 Subramanian, R., Muthukumarappan, K., & Gunasekaran, S. (2003). Effect of methocel as a
458 water binder on the linear viscoelastic properties of mozzarella cheese during early stages of
459 maturation. *Journal of Texture Studies*, 34, 361-380.
- 460 Szalai, E.S., Alvarez, M.M., & Muzzio, F.J. (2004). Laminar mixing: a dynamical systems
461 approach. In E.L. Paul, V.A. Atiemo-Obeng, & S.M. Kresta (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial*
462 *mixing: Science and practice* (pp. 89-143). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- 463 Walstra, P. (1965). Light scattering by milk fat globules. *Netherlands Milk and Dairy*
464 *Journal*, 19, 93–109.
- 465 Yu, C., & Gunasekaran, S. (2005). A systems analysis of pasta filata process during
466 Mozzarella cheese making. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 69, 399-408.

Table 1. Fitted creep parameters obtained for model Mozzarella cheeses using a 6-element Burgers model*.

Cheese Type	Shear work (kJ.kg ⁻¹)	Maximum shear creep (γ_{max})	Relative recovery of shear strain (%)	J_0 (10 ⁻⁵ Pa ⁻¹)	J_1 (10 ⁻⁵ Pa ⁻¹)	η_1 (10 ⁶ Pa.s)	λ_1 (s)	J_2 (10 ⁻⁵ Pa ⁻¹)	η_2 (10 ⁵ Pa.s)	λ_2 (s)	η_0 (10 ⁶ Pa.s)
Full fat	3.3	0.0097	56.9	3.29	9.91	1.32	129.71	2.47	1.01	3.32	4.49
	4.3	0.0079	59.9	2.67	8.88	2.17	191.17	2.93	1.39	4.11	5.95
	8.8	0.0089	64.9	4.18	10.1	1.57	158.89	4.25	0.93	4.00	5.57
	26.3	0.0076	64.7	3.09	8.45	1.81	153.08	4.16	1.21	5.05	5.98
	58.2	0.0066	60.1	3.14	7.73	2.11	160.27	4.31	1.17	5.01	7.99
	73.7	0.0051	84.9	2.96	5.64	2.74	153.66	2.95	1.36	3.95	12.10
Nonfat	6.8	0.0113	70.3	5.32	12.0	1.61	193.03	6.46	0.69	4.52	4.74
TSC added full fat	4.4	0.0157	54.8	4.72	16.8	1.00	170.31	4.82	0.72	3.75	2.79

* 25 Pa of shear stress was applied at 20 °C for 1001 s. The recovery phase was 3000 s. The parameters are defined in section 2.5.1.

Data represents the average of two measurements on the same sample.

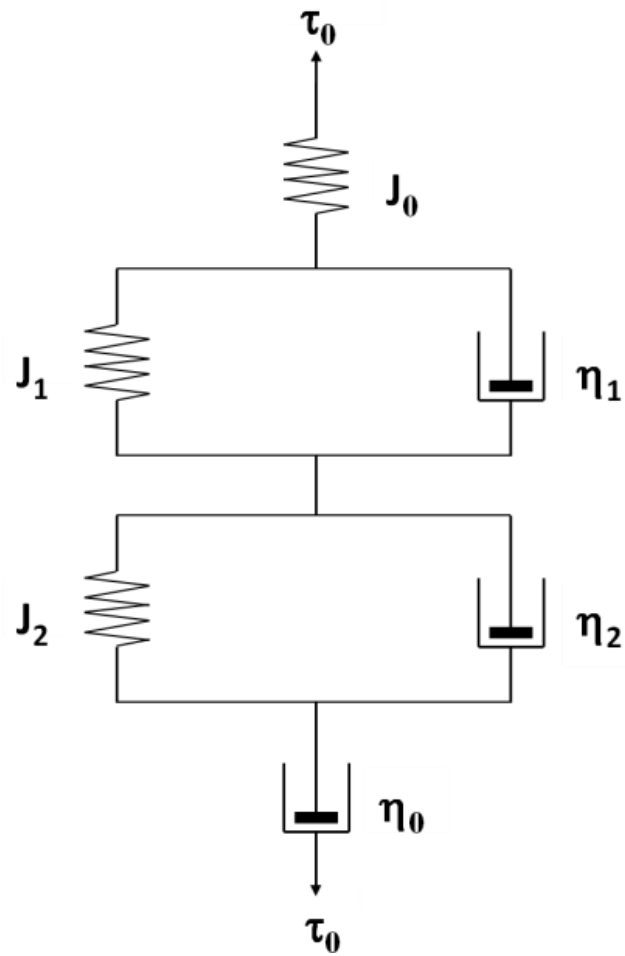
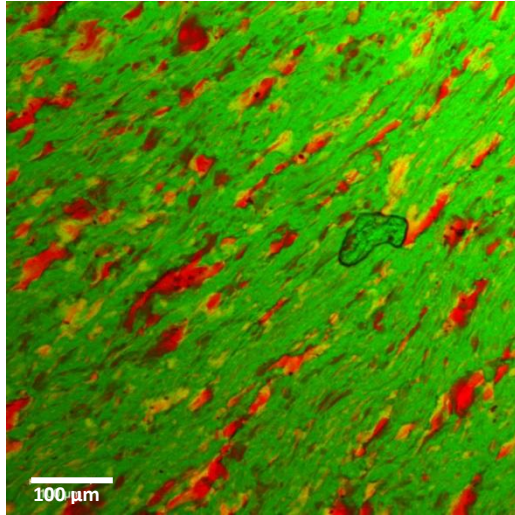
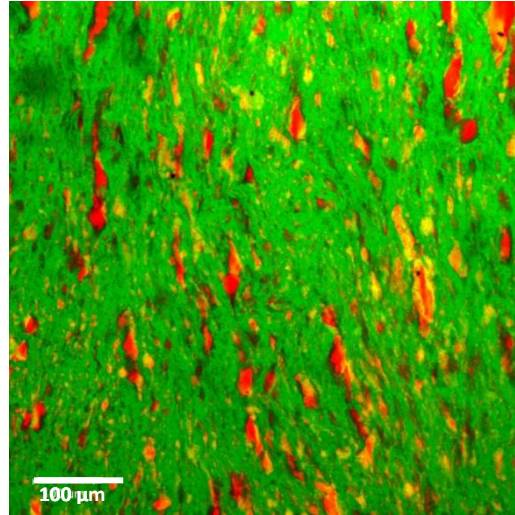


Fig. 1. Six-element linear viscoelastic mechanical model used for describing creep and recovery behaviour of model Mozzarella cheeses. The model parameters are defined in section 2.5.1

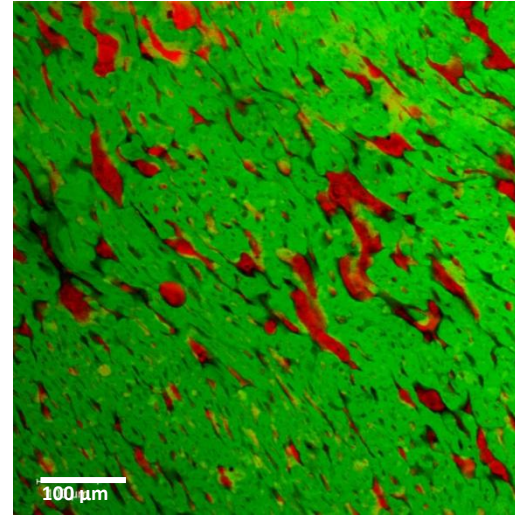
1.3 kJ.kg⁻¹



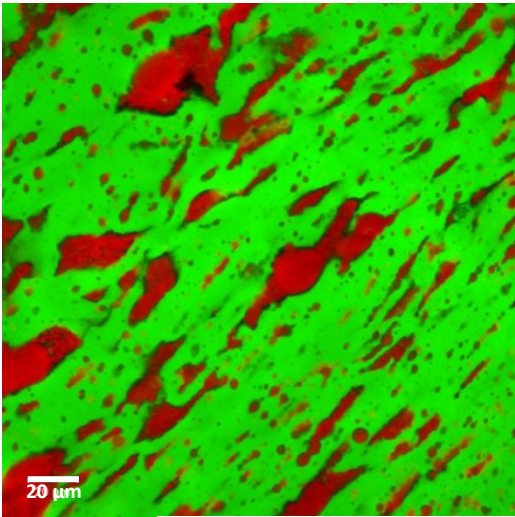
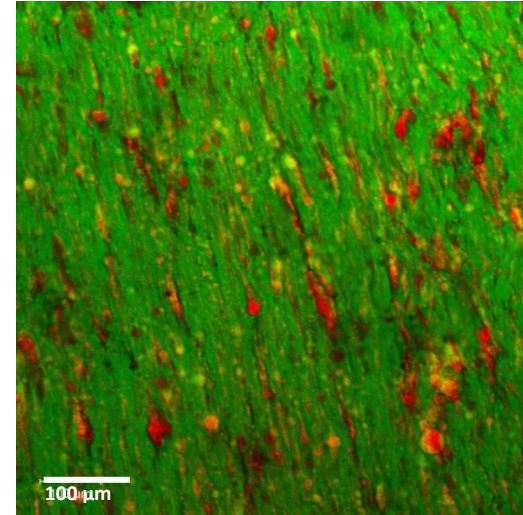
2.9 kJ.kg⁻¹



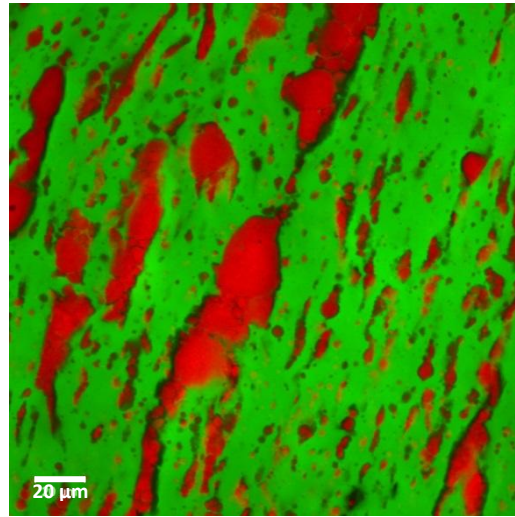
5.9 kJ.kg⁻¹



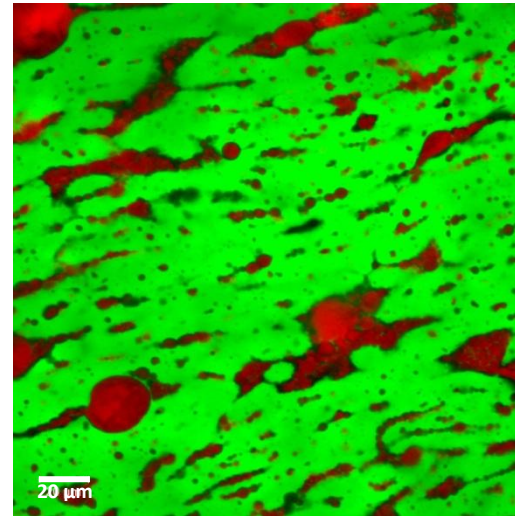
12.0 kJ.kg⁻¹



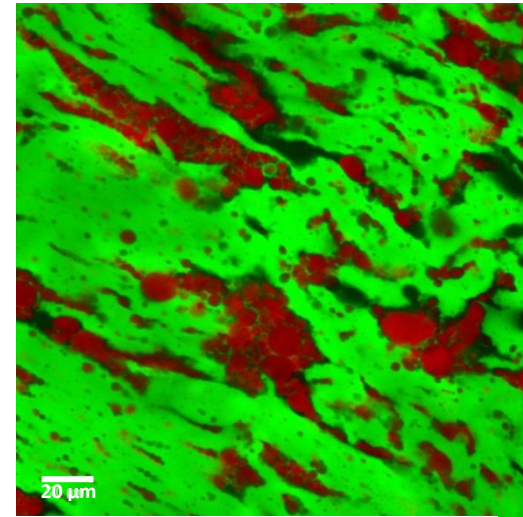
1.3 kJ.kg⁻¹



2.9 kJ.kg⁻¹



5.9 kJ.kg⁻¹



12.0 kJ.kg⁻¹

Fig. 2. Confocal laser scanning microscopic images of model Mozzarella cheeses subjected to different amounts of shear work. Shear work inputs are noted on the micrographs. Model Mozzarella cheeses were manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 50 rpm screw speed (Day 2) and 70°C. Red – fat, green – protein, black - air or water.

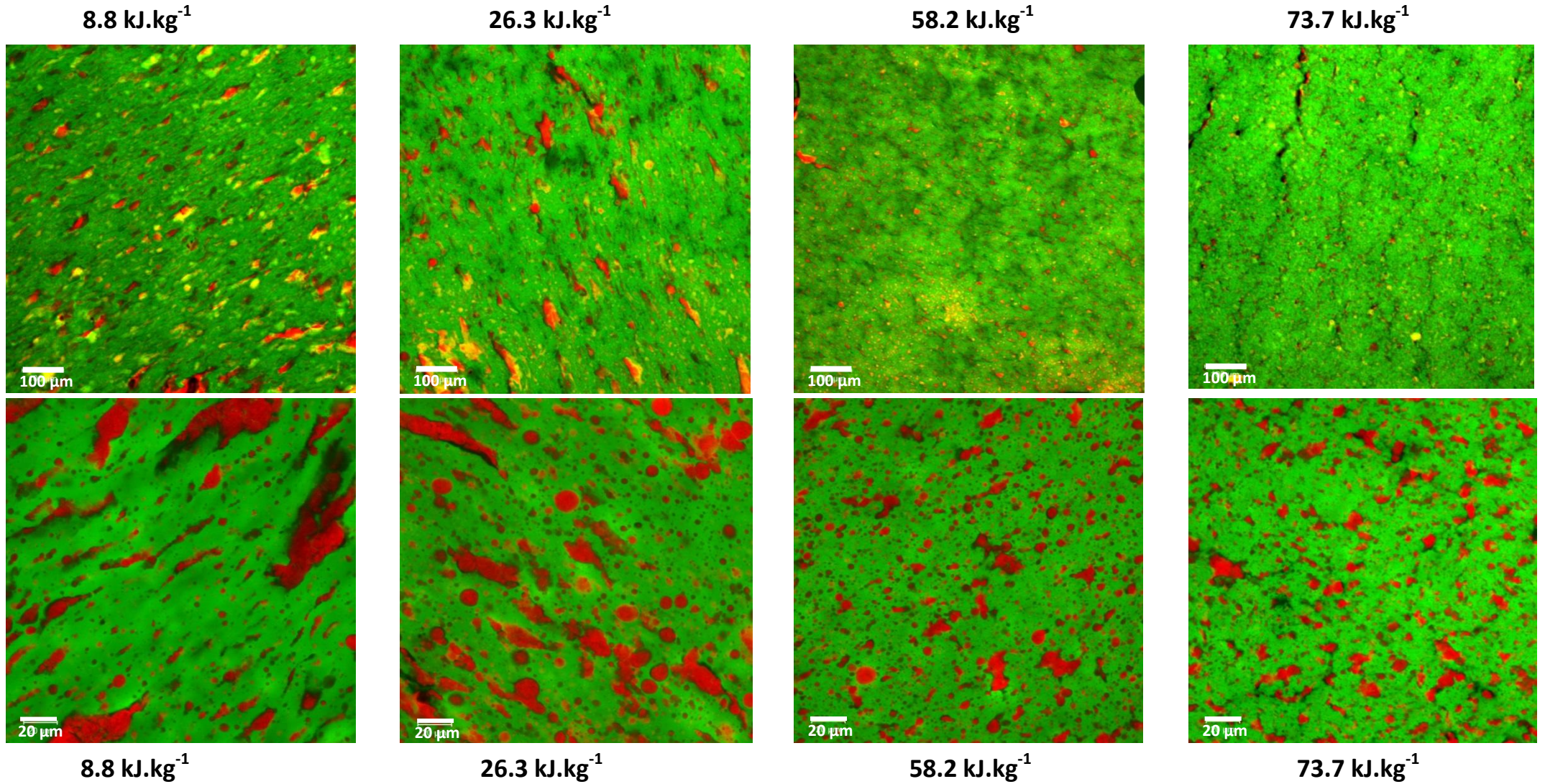


Fig. 3. Confocal laser scanning microscopic images of model Mozzarella cheeses subjected to different amounts of shear work. Shear work inputs are noted on the micrographs. Model Mozzarella cheeses were manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 150 rpm screw speed (Day 1) and 70°C. Red – fat, green – protein, black - air or water.

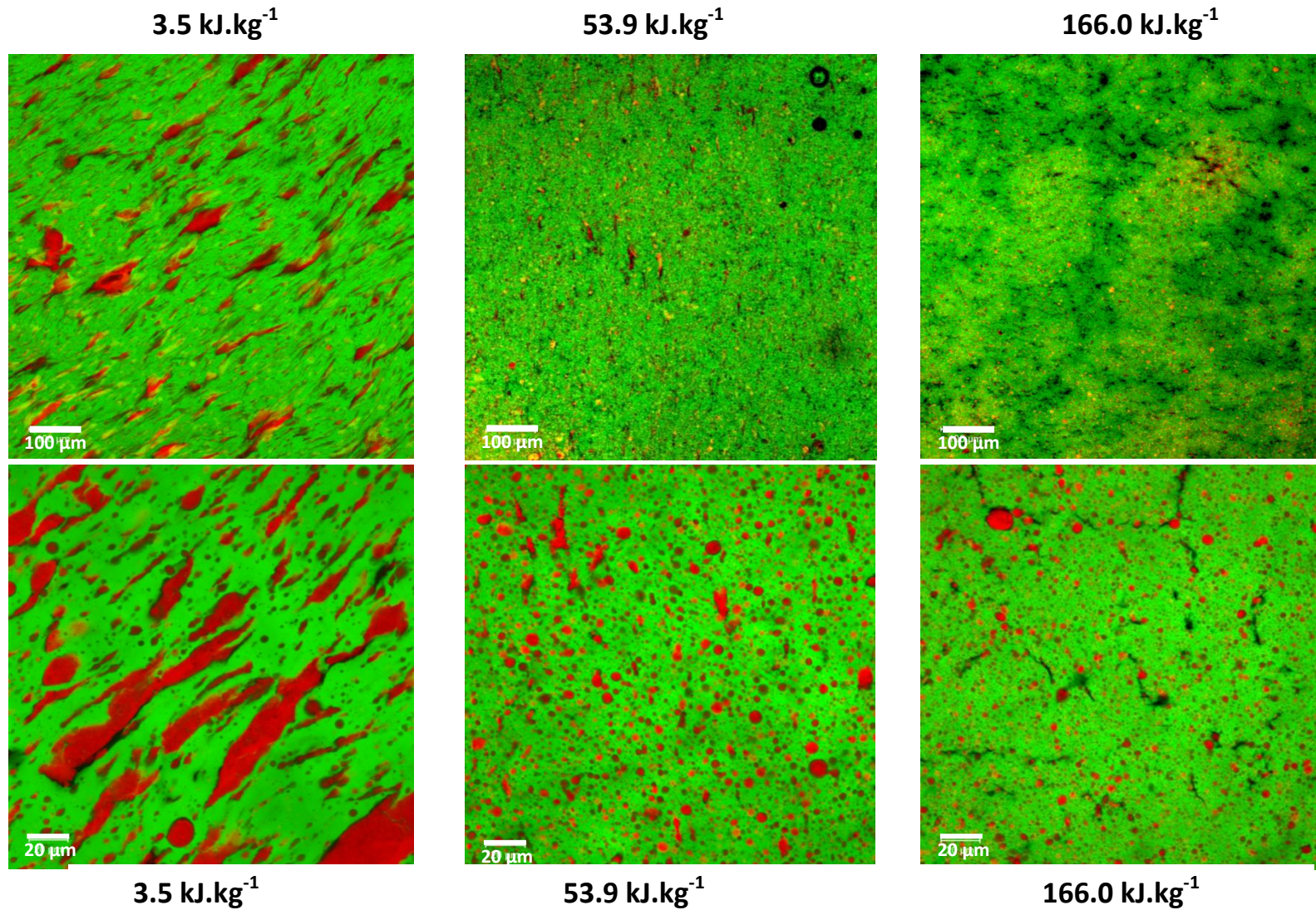


Fig. 4. Confocal laser scanning microscopic images of model Mozzarella cheeses subjected to different amounts of shear work. Shear work inputs are noted on the micrographs. Model Mozzarella cheeses were manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 250 rpm screw speed (Day 1) and 70°C. Red – fat, green – protein, black - air or water.

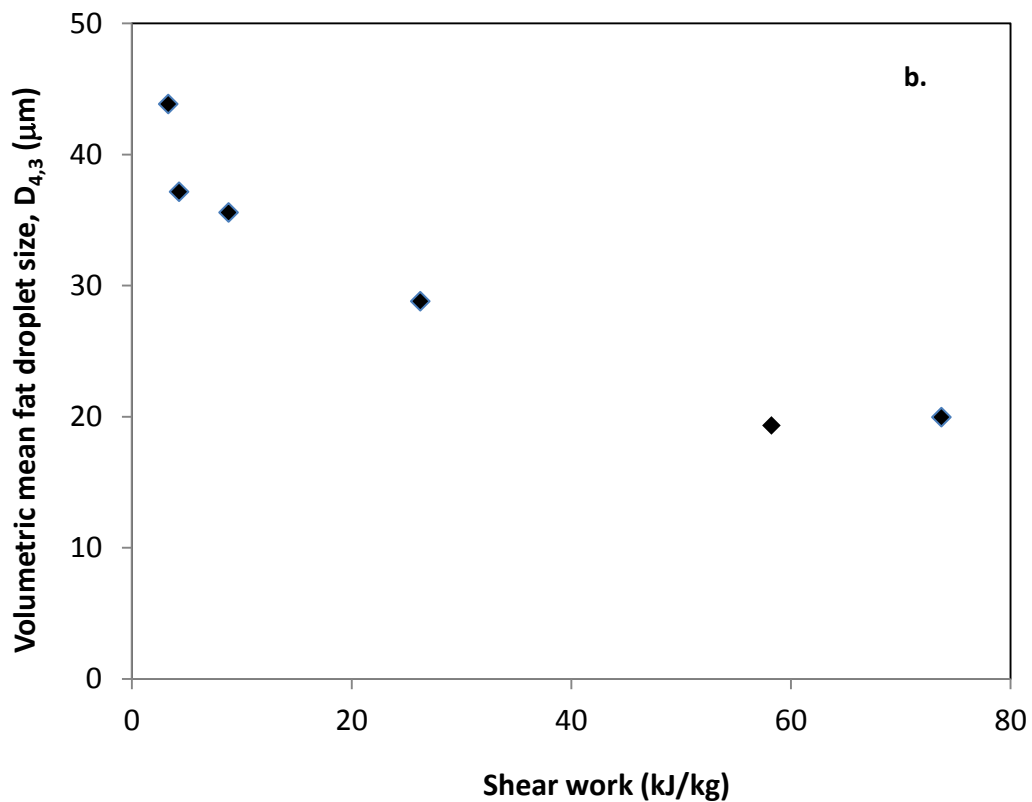
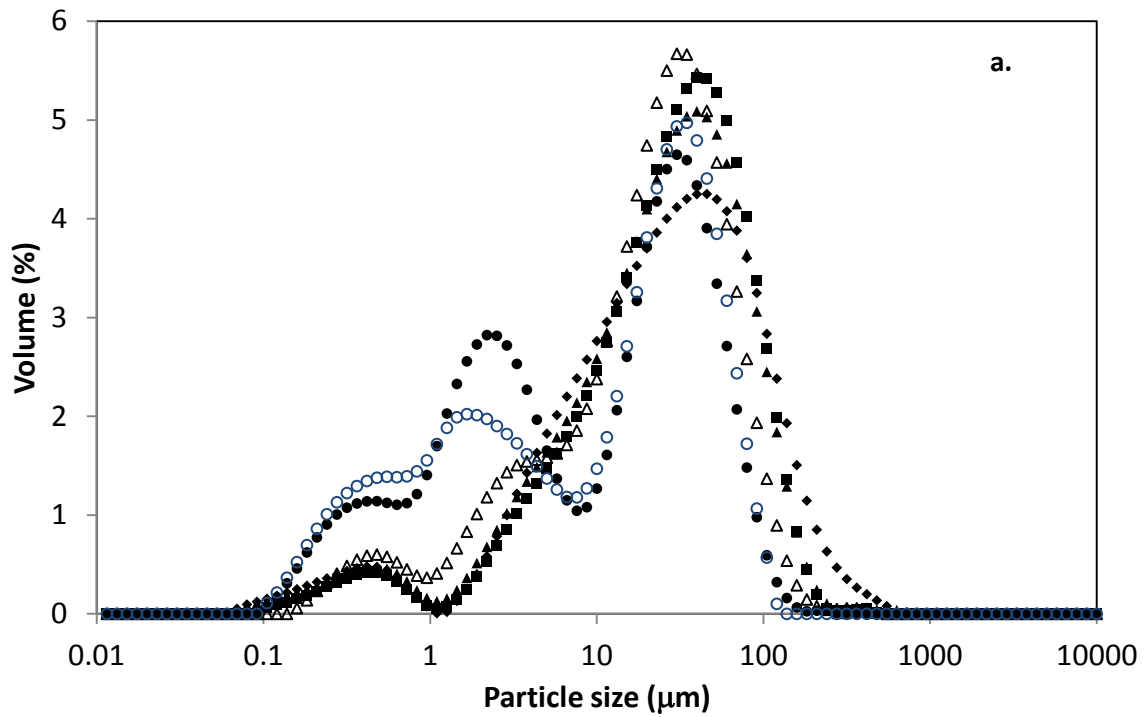


Fig.5. Effect of shear work on fat particle size of model Mozzarella cheese. a. Fat particle size distributions of model cheeses having varied shear work input, 3.3 kJ.kg^{-1} (\blacklozenge), 4.3 kJ.kg^{-1} (\blacksquare), 8.8 kJ.kg^{-1} (\blacktriangle), 26.3 kJ.kg^{-1} (Δ), 58.2 kJ.kg^{-1} (\bullet), 73.7 kJ.kg^{-1} (\circ); b. Volumetric mean fat particle size (\blacklozenge) versus shear work input. Model Mozzarella cheeses were manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 150 rpm screw speed (Day 1) and 70°C . Data represents the average of two measurements on the same sample.

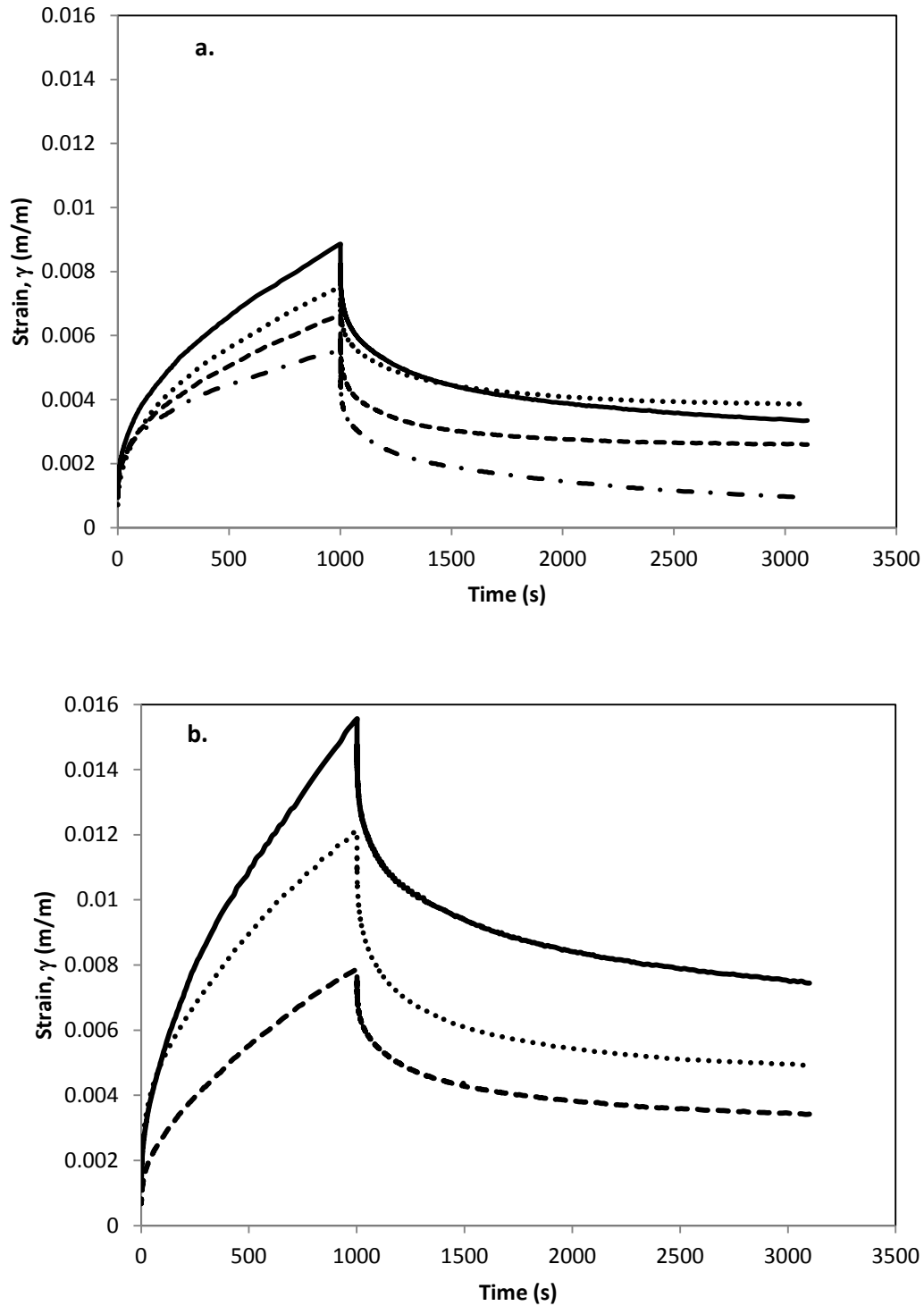


Fig. 6. Creep and creep recovery curves of model Mozzarella cheeses at 20°C. Applied shear stress was 25 Pa (within the linear viscoelastic limit). a. Full fat cheeses having different shear work input, 8.8 kJ.kg⁻¹ (—), 26.3 kJ.kg⁻¹ (●●●), 58.2 kJ.kg⁻¹ (---), 73.7 kJ.kg⁻¹ (-●-); b. Full fat cheese- 4.3 kJ/kg⁻¹ (---), TSC added cheese- 4.4 kJ.kg⁻¹ (—) and nonfat cheese- 6.8 kJ.kg⁻¹ (●●●) with similar shear work input. Model Mozzarella cheeses were manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 150 rpm screw speed and 70°C.

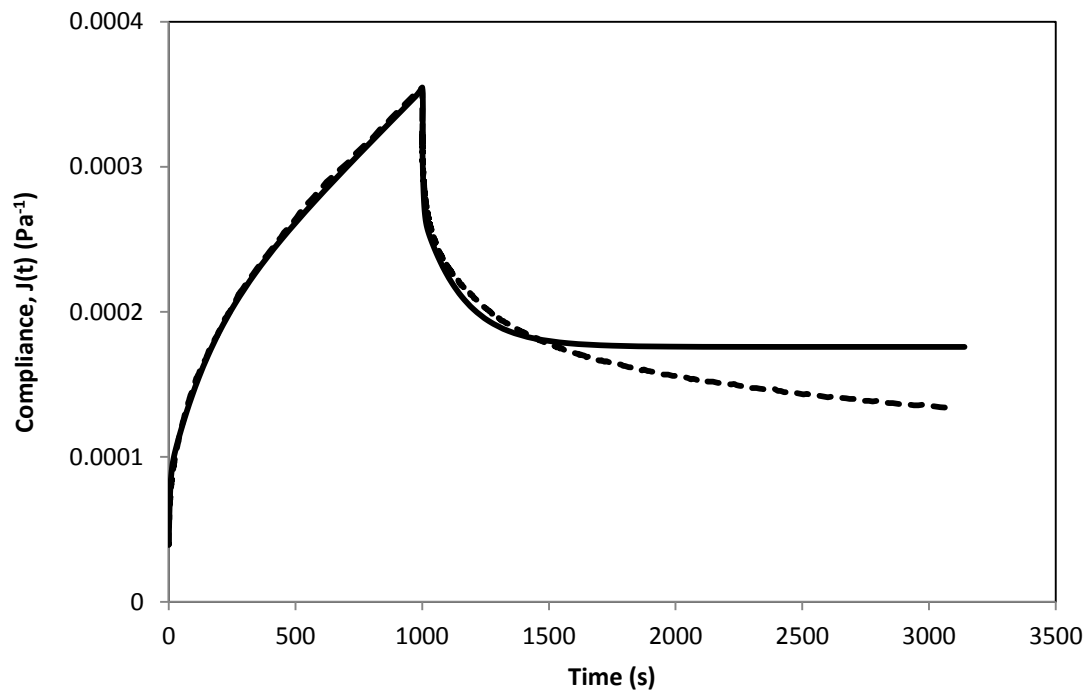


Fig. 7. Creep and recovery compliance data (Dashed line) and fitted curve (solid line) of model Mozzarella cheese at 20°C. Applied shear stress was 25 Pa (within the linear viscoelastic limit). The fitted curve was obtained from predicted values of compliance using a 6-element Burger's model with parameters calculated for the creep phase only. The model cheese had 8.8 $\text{kJ}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ of shear work input and was manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 150 rpm screw speed and 70°C.

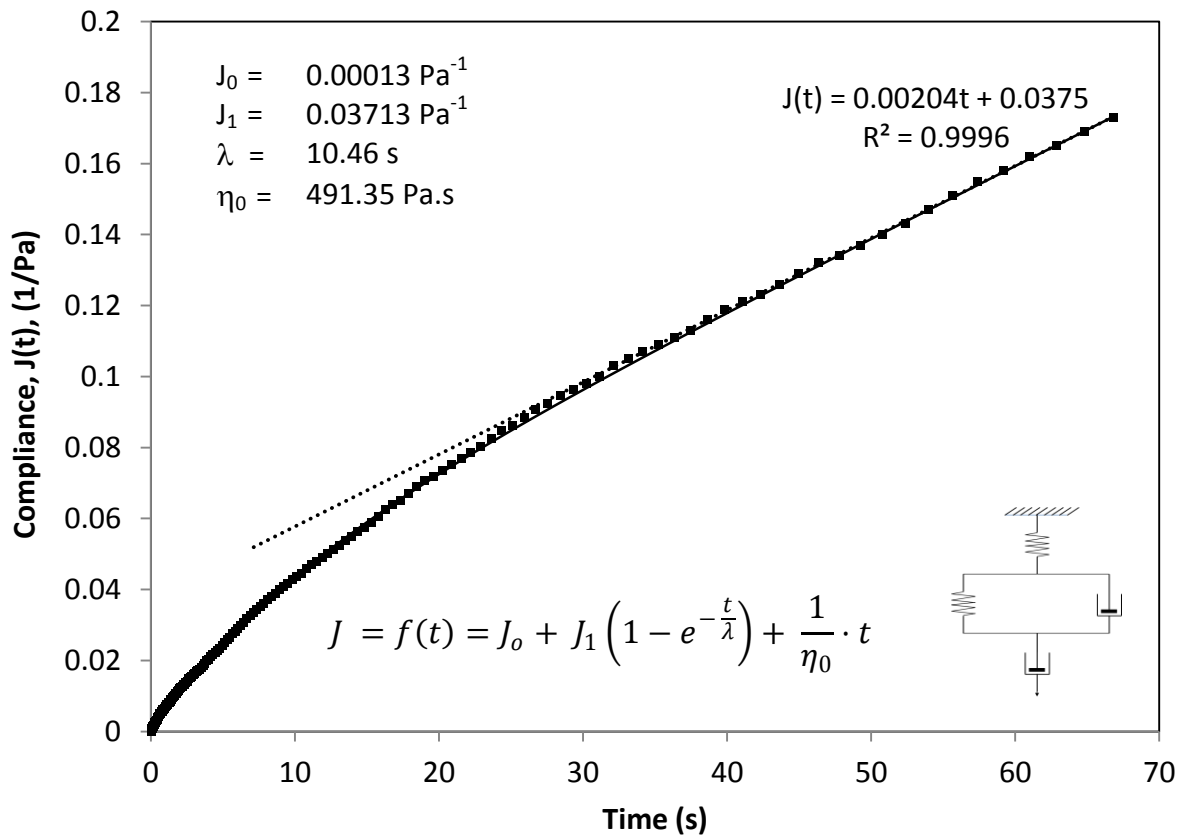


Fig. 8. Creep compliance data (■) and fitted curve (continuous line) of model Mozzarella cheese at 70°C. Applied shear stress was 0.05 Pa. (within the linear viscoelastic limit). The fitted curve used a 4-element Burger's model. Zero shear viscosity (η_0) was calculated from the linear regression line (dotted) in the later part of creep. The model cheese had 8.8 kJ.kg⁻¹ of shear work input and was manufactured in the Blentech cooker at 150 rpm screw speed and 70°C.