

1                   **Effect of pasteurisation and foaming temperature on the**  
2                   **physicochemical and foaming properties of nano-filtered mineral**  
3                   **acid whey**

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39

40                    **Abstract**

41                    Foaming can pose a major challenge during processing of acid whey (AW). In this  
42                    study, nano-filtered mineral AW was collected from a commercial plant before (AW<sub>0</sub>)  
43                    and after pasteurisation (AW<sub>past</sub>, 75 °C – 15 s). Both AW samples were foamed at 21  
44                    °C and in addition, AW<sub>past</sub> was foamed at 61 °C, corresponding to the temperature of  
45                    in-plant foaming. Physicochemical, foaming, and surface properties of AW samples  
46                    were compared. Foaming at 21 °C resulted in less pronounced foam characteristics for  
47                    AW<sub>past</sub> compared to AW<sub>0</sub>. Pasteurisation was found not to significantly affect

48 physicochemical properties, however, interfacial kinetics during foaming were altered,  
49 which affected foaming behaviour. Foaming of AW<sub>past</sub> at 61 °C produced more stable,  
50 “dry” foams. FTIR spectra confirmed the influence of protein unfolding at elevated  
51 temperatures on foaming, which was reversible upon cooling. This is significant as it  
52 gives processors a mean of controlling foaming through temperature control, where  
53 possible.

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55 **Keywords:** Acid whey; Foaming; Temperature; Stability

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71 **1. Introduction**

72 Foam is a colloidal dispersion produced by dispersing gas or atmospheric air in  
73 an aqueous continuous phase by various methods such as supersaturation, injection,  
74 and agitation (Walstra, 2003). For foam to form, a surfactant is required to lower the  
75 surface tension between the air and the aqueous phase, and to stabilize the foam;  
76 energy input is also required and should be sufficient to disrupt the air/water interface.  
77 Amongst food grade surfactants, proteins have been widely studied in various systems  
78 and there is good understanding of their interfacial stabilization mechanisms (Kralova  
79 & Sjöblom, 2009). Bovine whey proteins have been widely investigated for their  
80 emulsifying and foaming properties (Bals & Kulozik, 2003; Lajnaf et al., 2018; Lazidis  
81 et al., 2016; Marinova et al., 2009; Martin, Grolle, Bos, Stuart, & Van Vliet, 2002).  
82 About 70% of whey protein is composed of  $\beta$ -lactoglobulin ( $\beta$ -lg) and  $\alpha$ -lactalbumin  
83 ( $\alpha$ -la) (~ 50 and 20%, respectively), and these components are largely responsible for  
84 the emulsifying and foaming properties of whey and its derivatives (Tosi, Canna,  
85 Lucero, & Ré, 2007); although the minor whey proteins also contribute to foaming.  
86 For example, presence of proteose-peptone (PP) was reported to have a significant  
87 effect on foaming properties of whey (Innocente, Corradini, Blecker, & Paquot, 1998;  
88 Zhu & Damodaran, 1994a).

89 Many publications detail the foaming behaviour of individual whey proteins,  
90 particularly  $\beta$ -lg. Foaming capacity of  $\beta$ -lg was directly affected by reversible  
91 structural rearrangement of the protein, whereas, its foam stability was best correlated  
92 with surface hydrophobicity (Phillips, Hawks, & German, 1995). A later study showed  
93 that pressure resistance of a foam film stabilised by  $\beta$ -lg aggregates was one-tenth to

94 one-fifth of a film stabilised by non-aggregated  $\beta$ -lg (Rullier, Axelos, Langevin, &  
95 Novales, 2009). However, foams made using a mixture of  $\beta$ -lg aggregates and non-  
96 aggregated  $\beta$ -lg were more stable than those made of non-aggregated  $\beta$ -lg alone  
97 (Rullier, Axelos, Langevin, & Novales, 2010). A recent research demonstrated that  $\beta$ -  
98 lg had better foam stability when in the form of fibrils as opposed to aggregates (Hu  
99 et al., 2019). Many factors can affect protein properties at the air/water interface and  
100 thus affect foaming; for example, adsorption of  $\beta$ -lg at air/water interface, its surface  
101 pressure isotherm, and elasticity of the interfacial layer have been shown to be strongly  
102 affected by presence of electrolytes (Ulaganathan, Retzlaff, Won, Gochev, Gehin-  
103 Delval, et al., 2017; Ulaganathan, Retzlaff, Won, Gochev, Gunes, et al., 2017). Similar  
104 factors play a key role in determining foam properties of whey protein isolate (WPI)  
105 (Bals & Kulozik, 2003; Davis, Foegeding, & Hansen, 2004; Kella, Yang, & Kinsella,  
106 1989; Mahmoudi, Gaillard, Boué, Axelos, & Riaublanc, 2010; Pernell, Luck,  
107 Foegeding, & Daubert, 2002). In general, these studies emphasized the importance of  
108 protein concentration, temperature treatment, pH and ionic strength on  
109 physicochemical properties of the proteins which, in turn, govern behaviour at  
110 air/water interface of WPI foams. A recent study also highlighted the importance of  
111 lactose content, pH and  $a_w$  for the manufacture of WPI powders with good foaming  
112 properties (Audebert et al., 2019). Whilst mechanisms governing foaming properties  
113 of purified protein systems, such as  $\beta$ -lg and WPI, have been elucidated extensively,  
114 foaming mechanisms for lower value, lower protein systems such as acid whey (AW)  
115 and sweet whey (SW) remain relatively unreported. In the context of this study AW  
116 refers to mineral acid whey, produced by addition of HCl to milk during production of

117 sodium caseinate, as opposed to acid whey obtained through acidification with lactic  
118 acid.

119 AW and SW represent a matrix where various components (proteins, lactose and  
120 minerals) and various interactions thereof, can affect foaming behaviour. Therefore, it  
121 is difficult to directly correlate well-established knowledge of foaming behaviour in  
122 purified protein systems to AW or SW. Even in their raw forms, AW and SW have  
123 different foaming properties. This may be attributed to their different compositions  
124 although further studies are required to confirm this. In general, AW has lower level  
125 of lactose but much higher mineral content, especially calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg),  
126 and phosphorus (P) than SW (Bhargava & Jelen, 1996; Nishanthi, Vasiljevic, &  
127 Chandrapala, 2017). Fresh untreated mineral AW had higher foam capacity than fresh  
128 untreated SW, whereas, heat treatment reduced foamability of SW significantly  
129 (Lajnaf et al., 2018). The same study also showed that heating allowed AW to maintain  
130 its ability in reducing air/water interfacial tension, which was not the case for SW.  
131 However, further knowledge on foaming behaviour and properties of AW is not  
132 available because its study is rare. AW is a co-product stream produced during acid-  
133 coagulation of dairy products, which can pose technological problems, such as  
134 separation efficiencies in membrane processing of AW due to the extent of Ca  
135 complexation in AW (Chandrapala et al., 2015). Lower pH, protein, and lactose  
136 content but higher Ca and P content, in comparison with SW, means AW can be harder  
137 to process, especially during evaporation and drying (Dec & Chojnowski, 2006). On  
138 an industrial scale, mineral AW is typically obtained after precipitation of casein at pH  
139 4.6 (e.g., by concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl)). Subsequently the stream may be

140 pre-concentrated using nanofiltration. In such cases, total solids (TS) increases from  
141 ~5% to ~20% and certain amount of monovalent and divalent salts permeate through  
142 the membrane. The removal of salts through this process is important to keep ash  
143 content in the final whey powder low. After pH neutralization to 6.8 and pasteurisation,  
144 the whey stream is further concentrated by vacuum evaporation, cooled slowly under  
145 agitation to induce lactose crystallization, and then spray dried (Drapala et al., 2018).

146 For food applications, AW foaming properties may be desirable; in contrast,  
147 foaming during AW production poses a manufacturing challenge for the industry.  
148 Foaming which takes place during processing may lead to tank overflow and can  
149 significantly affect processing especially when highly stable foams are produced.  
150 Anti-foaming agents are sometimes added but their presence can consequently affect  
151 foaming properties of AW powder. Therefore, this research was performed in order to  
152 a) better understand the mechanisms of foaming in nano-filtered mineral AW obtained  
153 from addition of HCl to skim milk and b) use this information to formulate improved  
154 control strategies. The effect of pasteurisation on foam stability was studied, along  
155 with increasing temperature (room temperature to 61 °C) which corresponded to the  
156 most significant occurrence of in-plant foaming. In addition, interfacial and  
157 physicochemical properties of the nano-filtered AW were analysed to determine the  
158 mechanisms by which foaming occurs during industrial AW processing.

## 159 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 160 *2.1 Materials*

161 Nano-filtered mineral AW samples were collected from the processing line at  
162 Arrabawn Co-Operative Society Ltd., Nenagh, Co. Tipperary, Ireland. During  
163 processing, AW was nano-filtered to ~20% total solids at < 8°C followed by  
164 adjustment to pH ~6.8 using potassium hydroxide (KOH). Samples of this stream were  
165 taken before ( $AW_0$ ) and after ( $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) pasteurisation by a direct contact heater at  
166  $75(\pm 2)$  °C for 15 s. Three batches of AW were sampled at three-day intervals from the  
167 2<sup>nd</sup> until the 9<sup>th</sup> of December 2019 (late lactation period). The following chemicals: 8-  
168 anilino-1-naphthalenesulfonic acid (ANS), sodium azide ( $\text{NaN}_3$ ), sodium phosphate  
169 dibasic dihydrate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), sodium phosphate monobasic monohydrate  
170 ( $\text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), acetonitrile HPLC grade, trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) HPLC grade,  $\alpha$ -  
171 la from bovine milk ( $\geq 85\%$ ),  $\beta$ -lg from bovine milk ( $\geq 90\%$ ), acetic acid glacial 100%  
172 were purchased from Merck (Wicklow, Ireland). Sodium acetate was purchased from  
173 VWR International (Dublin, Ireland).

## 174 2.2 *Compositional analysis of acid whey*

175 Fat and moisture contents were analysed using a CEM SMART Trac II (CEM  
176 Corp., North Carolina, USA). Moisture content was also measured by a thermo-  
177 gravimetric method; approximately 5 g of each AW sample was weighed accurately  
178 on an aluminium dish and then placed in the oven at 105 °C for 270 min (Pereira et  
179 al., 2020). pH was measured using a pH meter (Mettler Toledo, Greifensee,  
180 Switzerland). Crude protein content was analysed using the Dumas combustion  
181 method (LECO Instruments, Chesire, UK). Ash content was analysed gravimetrically  
182 (TGA 701 Thermogravimetric Analyzer, LECO Instruments, Chesire, UK). Lactose



183 was determined by difference, i.e., subtraction of the sums of the weight percentage of  
184 crude protein, fat, moisture and ash from the total weight percentage (BeMiller, 2010),  
185 assuming that lactose is the only carbohydrate in whey. Each batch of AW was  
186 analysed in triplicate. Prior to each analysis, samples were vortexed and stirred  
187 thoroughly to ensure homogeneity. Composition of  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  is shown in Table  
188 1.

189 **[TABLE 1]**

### 190 *2.3 Mineral analysis*

191 All three batches of AW samples were centrifuged at  $5,000\times g$  for 10 min at 4 °C  
192 to separate suspended materials from the supernatant. Analysis of mineral content in  
193 both precipitates and supernatants were performed by an external laboratory (F.B.A.  
194 Laboratories, Ltd., Co. Waterford, Ireland) using Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass  
195 Spectrometry (ICP – MS, Agilent 7700 Series, USA).

### 196 *2.4 Foaming experiments*

197 Foaming experiments were performed, at 21°C, immediately after collection of  
198 nano-filtered AW ( $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) from the plant. Additionally,  $AW_{\text{past}}$  were heated  
199 to 61 °C to simulate the temperature at which foaming sporadically occurs in the  
200 industrial plant.  $AW_{\text{past}}$  (100 mL) was heated for 10 min in a water bath at 70 °C to  
201 reach a sample temperature of 61 °C (coded as  $AW_{\text{past},+}$ ) and this sample was  
202 immediately placed in a measuring cylinder, with internal diameter of 6 cm and height  
203 of 21.45 cm, where the foams were generated at 61 °C. Foams were generated from

204 90 mL of sample using an air sparging method (Kamath, Huppertz, Houlihan, & Deeth,  
205 2008; Lazidis et al., 2016; Tosi et al., 2007). Air was pumped through a cylindrical air  
206 stone (diameter 1.4 cm, length 2.4 cm), fixed at the bottom of the measuring cylinder,  
207 at a rate of 4.5 L/min for 20 s (sparging time,  $t_s$ ). Foaming and its subsequent decay  
208 were recorded up to ~ 900 s, and images of the foams were captured using a dual 16  
209 Mega Pixel (MP) (with f-stop (the ratio of the focal length divided by the opening size)  
210 f/1.7) + 5 MP (f/1.9) digital camera (Samsung-J810Y/DS). The foaming experiments  
211 were repeated twice for each batch of AW, including AW<sub>past,+</sub>.

#### 212 2.4.1 Image analysis

213 The videos and images were analysed using GIMP – GNU Image Manipulation  
214 Program (developed by University of Berkley, USA). A measurement tool in the  
215 program converts pixel unit of the image to physical unit of dimension (e.g., mm).  
216 Desaturation was applied using the GIMP software to replace colours with luminosity  
217 shade of grey. The ImageJ program (developed by the National Institutes of Health  
218 (NIH), USA) was used to measure average air bubble diameter (the mean air bubble  
219 size was taken from ~ 300 bubbles).

#### 220 2.4.2 Determination of foaming properties

221 Foam capacity ( $FC$ ) or overrun at the end of sparging and the maximum foam  
222 density ( $MD$ ) were calculated according to Marinova et al. (2009) as follows:

$$223 \quad FC = V_{\text{foam0}}/V_{\text{gas}} \quad (1)$$

224  $MD = V_{liq0}/V_{foam0}$  (2)

225 where  $V_{foam0}$  (L) is the volume of foam at the end of sparging and  $V_{gas}$  (L) is the air  
226 volume used to produce the foam.  $V_{gas}$  in this experiment was defined as the air flow  
227 rate multiplied by sparging time, which was constant at 1.5 L.  $V_{liq0}$  (L) is the volume  
228 of liquid entrapped in the foam at the end of sparging. This was obtained by subtracting  
229 the volume of the remaining liquid at the bottom of the measuring cylinder after the  
230 air sparging from the initial volume of sample (90 mL).

231 Foam stability ( $S$ ) was defined as the time for half of the  $V_{liq0}$  to drain back down ( $t_{liq1/2}$ ,  
232 [s]) to the bottom of the cylinder and the total time required for foams to completely  
233 collapse ( $t_{ef}$ , [s]). Both time parameters were observed from the videos obtained.

## 234 2.5 Protein profiles

235 Protein profiles of AW samples were determined using a reverse-phase HPLC  
236 (1200 series, Agilent Technologies, USA). AW was diluted to 0.25% protein content  
237 using 0.1 M acetate buffer (pH 4.6) and subsequently centrifuged at 20,000×g for 20  
238 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was filtered using 0.2 µm PES membrane filter (Agilent  
239 Captiva, USA) and injected onto a Zorbax 300SB-C18 column, 5 µm, 4.6 × 150 mm  
240 (Agilent Technologies, USA). The aqueous running buffer was Milli-Q water  
241 containing 0.1% TFA and the organic running buffer was acetonitrile containing 0.1%  
242 TFA. The buffer was run in gradient mode with a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min. Sample  
243 injection volume was 15 µL and the injection was performed in duplicate. Two protein  
244 standards, i.e., β-Ig (0.125 mg/mL – 2 mg/mL) and α-la (0.125 mg/mL – 1 mg/mL)  
245 were also run through the column to build calibration curves. Peak areas at related

246 retention times were integrated and quantified with the calibration curves to obtain the  
247 remaining native protein content in  $AW_0$ ,  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_{\text{past},+}$ . The denaturation  
248 degree (DD, [%]) of acid whey represents remaining native protein content (mg/mL)  
249 relative to the initial protein content (mg/mL) (Bals & Kulozik, 2003), which is  
250 expressed in Eq. (3)

$$251 \quad DD = \left(1 - \frac{\text{remaining native protein content}}{\text{initial protein content}}\right) \times 100 \quad (3)$$

## 252 2.6 Surface hydrophobicity

253 A fluorometric assay was applied using ANS according to the method of Murphy  
254 et al. (2015), with slight modification. All AW samples were diluted to final protein  
255 concentrations of 0 to 1 g/L in 20 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.0 with 0.05% sodium  
256 azide. A stock solution of 0.945 mM ANS was prepared in the same phosphate buffer  
257 using an amber bottle wrapped by aluminium foil to prevent light exposure. The  
258 hydrophobicity measurement was carried out using a Cary Eclipse Fluorescence  
259 Photometer (Agilent Technologies, USA). Excitation wavelength was set at 370 nm  
260 and emission wavelength was run from 400-600 nm. The excitation and emission slits  
261 were set at 5 nm and 10 nm, respectively. Medium voltage and medium scan speed  
262 were applied. The temperature chamber was set at 21 °C prior to measurement. 100  
263  $\mu\text{L}$  of ANS solution was added to 2 mL of protein dispersion in a four-clear-sided  
264 cuvette, mixed, and then kept in the dark for 15 min. The fluorescence intensity was  
265 measured from buffer-ANS (as the blank,  $F_0$ ) and then the lowest to the highest protein  
266 concentration conjugated with ANS ( $F$ ). Each batch of AW was measured in duplicate.

267 The intensity for each dilution was obtained by calculating the area under the curve of  
268 intensity as a function of wavelength. The relative fluorescence intensity (RFI) of each  
269 protein dilution was defined as  $RFI = (F - F_0) / F_0$ . The surface hydrophobicity was  
270 expressed as the slope obtained by plotting the protein concentration against RFI.

## 271 2.7 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

272 The state of protein secondary structure in  $AW_0$ ,  $AW_{past}$ , and  $AW_{past,+}$  were probed  
273 using FTIR spectroscopy (Bruker Tensor 27, Bruker Optik GmbH, Germany)  
274 equipped with an attenuated total reflection BioATR cell II at 21 °C. Additionally,  
275  $AW_{past}$  were also analysed at 35 °C and 61 °C in the cell to determine changes that  
276 occurred during heating. The temperature was controlled using a Haake DC30-K20  
277 digital control water bath (Thermo Scientific, UK). Prior to analysis, all samples were  
278 kept in the fridge overnight to allow suspended materials to sediment and obtain a clear  
279 supernatant. Samples (20 µL) were scanned between 4,000  $cm^{-1}$  and 900  $cm^{-1}$  with an  
280 average of 120 scans at a resolution of 4  $cm^{-1}$ . Milli-Q water was used for background  
281 readings and subtracted automatically. All spectra were analysed using Opus 7.5  
282 software (Bruker Optik GmbH, Germany) with the following steps: atmospheric  
283 compensation for H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub>, vector normalization, and Fourier-self deconvolution.  
284 The later step applied Lorentzian shape with bandwidth and noise reduction factors of  
285 25.55 and 0.3, respectively, for the amide I band of proteins (1700-1600  $cm^{-1}$ ).

286 The underlying spectral changes as result of pasteurisation performed in the AW  
287 plant or additional heating were presented as percentage of area spectral differences.  
288 These areas were integrated along the average band positions associated with the

289 secondary structures of proteins (Barth & Zscherp, 2002; Boye, Ismail, & Alli, 1996;  
290 Boye, Alli, & Ismail, 1997; Qi et al., 1997; Yang, Yang, Kong, Dong, & Yu, 2015).  
291 The area of spectral differences between  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_0$ , both at 21 °C, were used to  
292 quantify effects of pasteurisation in the processing plant; the difference in area between  
293  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 21 °C and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 35 °C or  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 61 °C were also used to quantify  
294 effects of additional heating on  $AW_{\text{past}}$ . The area of a sample heated to 61 °C and  
295 cooled to 21 °C prior to analysis ( $AW_{\text{past+}}$ ) was compared to  $AW_{\text{past}}$  (measured at 21  
296 °C) in order to determine reversibility of changes. The area values were obtained using  
297 integrate function in OriginPro® 2021 software (demo version, OriginLab Corp.,  
298 Massachusetts, USA), using y-axis of zero as the base of integration. The percentage  
299 of area spectral difference was calculated using Eq. (4). All FTIR analysis were done  
300 in duplicate for each batch of AWs.

$$301 \quad \% \text{ change in spectral area} = \left( \frac{\text{Area of sample}}{|\text{Area of reference}|} - 1 \right) \times 100 \quad (4)$$

### 302 2.8 Surface properties of acid whey

303 A pendant drop method was applied to measure dynamic surface tension  $\gamma(t)$  and  
304 surface dilatational properties of AW using an optical tensiometer (Attension Theta  
305 Flex, Biolin Scientific, Sweden) connected to OneAttention software v3.1. An air drop  
306 with a surface area of 12 mm<sup>2</sup> (equal to 4 µL of air) was formed through an inverted  
307 needle (needle gauge of 22G, 0.718 mm in diameter) plunged in an optical glass  
308 cuvette filled with AW diluted to 0.1% w/w ( $AW_0$  or  $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) in sodium phosphate  
309 buffer (20 mM, pH 6.8 ±0.05). Formation of the air drop was controlled by an

310 automatic dispenser unit (C201, Biolin Scientific, Sweden); meanwhile, temperature  
311 of the diluted AW in the cuvette was controlled using a temperature-controlled water  
312 bath. The following measurements were performed at least in duplicate for each batch  
313 of AW.

#### 314 2.8.1 Dynamic surface tension and interfacial adsorption

315 The dynamic surface tension  $\gamma(t)$  was recorded for 900 s at  $21\pm 1$  °C to mimic the  
316 temperature during the lower temperature foaming experiments. The  $\gamma(t)$  of  $AW_{\text{past}}$   
317 was also recorded at temperature of  $35\pm 1$ °C to observe the effect of elevated  
318 temperature. The 35 °C was the maximum temperature that allowed formation of a  
319 stable air bubble in whey solution during 900 s of recording. Above this temperature,  
320 the air bubble immediately detached from the needle tip. Based on  $\gamma(t)$ , adsorption  
321 kinetic constants of AW at the air/water interface were calculated. An overall  
322 adsorption process of proteins at the air/water interface takes place through three steps,  
323 i.e., (1) proteins migrate from the bulk phase to the region immediately below the  
324 air/water interface by diffusion or convection, (2) proteins adsorb and unfold at the  
325 interface and (3) conformational changes of proteins takes place in the adsorbed layer  
326 (Guzey, McClements, & Weiss, 2003; Graham & Phillips, 1979). The adsorption  
327 kinetics controlled by diffusion can be derived from the modified Ward and Tordai  
328 equation (Graham & Phillips, 1979; Ward & Tordai, 1946) (Eq. 5). This equation  
329 assumes that the protein migration is diffusion-controlled, there is no energy barriers  
330 for the proteins move to the interface, and there are no conformational changes of the  
331 proteins after adsorption (Guzey et al., 2003).

$$332 \quad \pi = 2C_0RT \left( \frac{Dt}{3.14} \right)^{1/2} \quad (5)$$

333 where  $\pi$  is surface pressure (mN/m), defined as  $\pi = \gamma_0 - \gamma$  with  $\gamma_0$  is the surface tension  
 334 in the absence of proteins (Guzey et al., 2003);  $C_0$  is the initial protein concentration  
 335 (mol/m<sup>3</sup>) in the bulk phase,  $R$  is the gas constant (in J/mol·K),  $T$  is the absolute  
 336 temperature (K), and  $D$  is the diffusion coefficient (m<sup>2</sup>/s) that can be calculated by  
 337 Stokes-Einstein formula. A linear fit obtained by plotting  $\pi$  against  $t^{1/2}$  indicates that  
 338 diffusion-controlled migration of the proteins to the interface and the slope represents  
 339 the kinetics of diffusion ( $k_{diff}$ ) (Baeza, Sanchez, Pilosof, & Patino, 2005; Niño,  
 340 Sánchez, Ruíz-Henestrosa, & Patino, 2005).

341 Changes in  $\pi$  after the diffusion step were used to monitor adsorption of the AW  
 342 into the surface and configurational re-arrangements of the adsorbed proteins, in which  
 343 the rates of these processes can be analysed by the first-order equation (Graham &  
 344 Phillips, 1979; Niño et al., 2005; Patino et al., 1999) (Eq. 6).

$$345 \quad \ln \left( \frac{\pi_{ss} - \pi_t}{\pi_{ss} - \pi_0} \right) = -kt \quad (6)$$

346 where  $\pi_{ss}$ ,  $\pi_0$  and  $\pi_t$  are the surface pressure (mN/m) value at steady-state condition ( $\pi$   
 347 at 900 s was used in this research), at  $t = 0$ , and at any time,  $t$  (s), respectively. Two  
 348 linear regions were usually obtained by plotting  $\ln[(\pi_{900} - \pi_t)/(\pi_{900} - \pi_0)]$  against  $t$ , in  
 349 which the first slope represents the rate of adsorption and unfolding ( $k_{a/u}$ ) and the  
 350 second slope represents the rate configurational re-arrangement of proteins at the  
 351 adsorbed layer ( $k_{arr}$ ) (Patino et al., 1999; Patino et al., 2007).



352 2.8.2 Surface dilatational properties

353 Surface viscoelastic property of the adsorbed AW layer at air/water interface was  
354 measured by inducing a controlled oscillation to an air drop and simultaneously  
355 recording the change in the surface tension and the drop area. The bubble was  
356 oscillated at a constant amplitude of 0.2, giving a maximum ratio between area of the  
357 deformed interface ( $A$ ) and area of the nondeformed interface ( $A_0$ ) of about 2 %, and a  
358 constant frequency of 50 mHz. Surface dilatational modulus  $|E|$ , which represent  
359 viscoelasticity of foam lamellae, was calculated using OneAttention software v3.1.

360 2.9 *Statistical analysis*

361 The results of all analysis are presented as the mean value of all the three batches.  
362 Paired-samples t-tests were performed to compare effects of in-plant heat treatment  
363 (pasteurisation performed in the AW processing plant) and additional heating used to  
364 elevate temperature during foaming on AW physicochemical and foaming properties.  
365 The null hypothesis supposed no effects of in-plant heat treatment and additional  
366 heating on AW. Normality tests using Skewness and Kurtosis, Shapiro-Wilk test, and  
367 observing normal Q-Q plots were performed by SPSS, to check if each variable was  
368 normally distributed.

369 **3. Results**

370 3.1 *Mineral profiles*

371 AW samples collected from the plant contained suspended materials, which  
372 formed a sediment when stored under static conditions. Mineral contents in

373 precipitates and supernatants are shown in Table 2. The primary mineral constituents  
374 in  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$ , ordered from highest to the lowest, were calcium (Ca), potassium  
375 (K), phosphorus (P), magnesium (Mg), sulphur (S) and sodium (Na), which are in  
376 agreement with other reports for acid whey (Chandrapala et al., 2015; Nishanthi,  
377 Chandrapala, & Vasiljevic, 2017; Talebi et al., 2019). Table 2 shows that Ca, P, and  
378 Mg in  $AW_0$  were prone to precipitation. Meanwhile, K, S, and Na tended to be  
379 somewhat more soluble, with broadly similar proportions between supernatant and  
380 precipitate. Similar trends were observed in  $AW_{past}$  with slightly higher proportions of  
381 Ca and P in  $AW_{past}$  precipitate than in  $AW_0$  precipitate.  $AW_{past}$  contained more  
382 minerals ( $p < 0.05$ ) in precipitate (78.3%) than  $AW_0$  (76.7%).

383 [TABLE 2]

### 384 3.2. Foaming properties

385 The foaming properties of AW samples are shown in Table 3. The properties  
386 affected by a) sampling point within the plant ( $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$ ) and b) foaming  
387 temperature applied to  $AW_{past}$  (i.e., room temperature and temperature at which  
388 foaming occurs in the plant) are described in the following sub-sections.

#### 389 3.2.1 Effect of in-plant sampling point on foaming at 21 °C

390 Air bubbles in foams produced from  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$  (foamed at 21 °C) were  
391 visually similar (Fig. 1a). Visual differences were observed after half the volume of  
392 entrapped liquid in the foam drained ( $t_{liq1/2}$ ), i.e., at time 8.5 s and 8.17 s for  $AW_0$  and  
393  $AW_{past}$ , respectively (Fig. 1b). The shape and size of air bubbles in  $AW_0$  at  $t_{liq1/2}$  seemed

394 to be similar to those in the fresh foams, meanwhile those in  $AW_{\text{past}}$  were bigger  
395 compared to their fresh counterparts (Fig. 1b) due to coalescence. This may be as a  
396 result of the large variation in bubble size observed for  $AW_{\text{past}}$  (Table 3) which had  
397 bigger average size and larger variation compared to  $AW_0$  (Rio & Biance, 2014).  
398 Gravity-driven drainage and insufficient time for the AW protein to adsorb at the  
399 interface may also play a role, i.e., the rate of adsorption and unfolding ( $k_{a/u}$ ) in  $AW_{\text{past}}$   
400 was slower than in  $AW_0$  (Table 5). Whilst the  $t_{\text{liq}1/2}$  of  $AW_0$  was not significantly  
401 different to  $AW_{\text{past}}$  ( $p > 0.05$ ), the time taken for  $AW_0$  foams to collapse completely  
402 ( $72.0 \pm 25.2$  s) was longer ( $p < 0.05$ ) than that of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  foams ( $48.2 \pm 19.1$  s). Foam  
403 capacity ( $FC$ ) of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) lower than that of  $AW_0$  (see Table  
404 3). Higher  $FC$  of  $AW_0$  compared to  $AW_{\text{past}}$  was confirmed by overrun rates. On  
405 average,  $AW_0$  foams were formed at a rate of 19.1 mL/s compared to 16.4 mL/s for  
406  $AW_{\text{past}}$ . Furthermore,  $FC$  data was well correlated with  $MD$ , i.e.,  $AW_0$  had higher  $FC$   
407 and lower  $MD$ , indicating a more aerated foam. It is interesting to note that while  
408  $AW_{\text{past}}$  foams had higher density, the average diameter of constituent air bubbles did  
409 not vary significantly from  $AW_0$ .

410

**[FIGURE 1]**

411

**[TABLE 3]**

412 3.2.1 Effect of foaming temperature

413 Foaming the  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 61 °C (here referred as  $AW_{\text{past},+}$ ) led to more stable foams  
414 than at 21 °C. The fresh foams (Fig. 1a) had similar appearance to the subsequent

415 half-drained foams (Fig. 1b). This was confirmed by foaming properties listed in Table  
416 3.  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  foams had significantly longer  $t_{\text{liq}1/2}$  than  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  foams;  
417 meanwhile, the foams did not completely collapse within a reasonable time frame.  
418 About 25 – 33% of the initial volume of  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  foams was observed to remain in the  
419 foaming cylinder after several hours while the entrapped liquid had completely drained  
420 much earlier. Foaming of  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  also resulted in significantly higher  $FC$  than  
421 foaming of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 21 °C (Table 3) with smaller size of air bubbles, but the deviation  
422 was high ( $p > 0.05$ ). Furthermore, the smaller size of air bubbles observed in  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$   
423 did not manifest as higher MD, i.e., the MD in  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  was lower than in  $AW_{\text{past}}$ .

### 424 3.3 Protein profiles of AW samples

425 Fig. 2 shows the native whey protein content in AW samples. Pasteurisation  
426 reduced the content of native  $\alpha$ -la,  $\beta$ -lg, and other proteins but only affected  $\alpha$ -la  
427 content significantly, however in numeric terms the loss of native  $\alpha$ -la was small.  
428 Pasteurisation resulted in denaturation of 7.6% of  $\alpha$ -la, 3.1% of  $\beta$ -lg, and 6.7% of other  
429 proteins originally present in unpasteurised whey ( $AW_0$ ). Additional heating of  $AW_{\text{past}}$   
430 to a final temperature of 61 °C during foaming ( $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ ) did not significantly affect  
431 the native protein content. Overall, pasteurisation only led to denaturation of 4.7% of  
432 total protein originally present in  $AW_0$ , which was in keeping with studies  
433 investigating the effect of heating of whey proteins at 72–77 °C for few seconds  
434 (Bogahawaththa et al., 2017; Muuronen, Partanen, Heidebrecht, & Kulozik, 2021;  
435 Rynne, Beresford, Kelly, & Guinee, 2004).

436 **[FIGURE 2]**

437 3.4 *Surface hydrophobicity*

438 Surface hydrophobicity of AW<sub>past</sub> was slightly (~2%) higher than AW<sub>0</sub> but the  
439 difference was not statistically significant (Fig. 3). Further exposure of AW<sub>past</sub> to  
440 additional heating prior to foaming (AW<sub>past,+</sub>) significantly increased the surface  
441 hydrophobicity ( $p < 0.05$ ) at protein concentrations above 0.2 g/L. However, the  
442 differences in surface hydrophobicity between AW<sub>past</sub> and AW<sub>past,+</sub> was small and not  
443 deemed important (~4%).

444 **[FIGURE 3]**

445 3.5. *FTIR*

446 Typical spectra of AW samples in the amide I region are depicted in Fig. 4. All  
447 AW samples had similar and overlapping spectra, which made evaluation of the effects  
448 of heat treatments challenging. For this reason, the area of spectral difference between  
449 samples was used to describe changes due to heat treatments.

450 **[FIGURE 4]**

451 Data in Table 4 indicate that pasteurisation of AW led to a small reduction of  
452 intramolecular  $\beta$ -sheets, which may have been expected to correspond to increased  
453 intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets. However, there were no positive area changes observed at  
454 1616-1620  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which usually indicates formation of intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheet. In fact,  
455 in the current study, intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets were shown to be drastically decreased (-  
456 1,790%) after pasteurisation. Pasteurisation resulted in greater peak intensities

457 associated with  $\alpha$ -helices (1625-1655  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ );  $\beta$ -turns (1659-1671  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and random  
458 coils (1646-1650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ). These changes reflect increases in the absorbance of functional  
459 groups associated with the structural elements in question. This may have been a result  
460 of partial unfolding of globular whey proteins that allows more extensive C=O and C-  
461 N stretching and vibrational motions. To gauge the effect of temperature,  $AW_{\text{past}}$  were  
462 analysed at 35 °C and 61 °C by FTIR, and then compared with the spectra of  $AW_{\text{past}}$   
463 measured at 21 °C. Table 4 shows that area of spectral differences of intramolecular  
464  $\beta$ -sheets, intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at 1616-1620  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\alpha$ -helix, and random coils in  
465  $AW_{\text{past}}$  decreased when spectra were collected at 35 °C. On the contrary, a slight  
466 increase in intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at 1684-1686  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was observed. When the spectra  
467 were collected at 61 °C, levels of  $\beta$ -turns, intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at 1684-1686  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ,  
468 and  $\alpha$ -helix were markedly higher, at the expense of intramolecular  $\beta$ -sheets,  
469 intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at 1616-1620  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and random coils. Such changes in  
470 structural elements are broadly in line with previous publication (O'Loughlin, Kelly,  
471 Murray, Fitzgerald, & Brodkorb, 2015). Enhancement of structural re-arrangement  
472 and intermolecular interactions at the expense of intramolecular  $\beta$ -sheets in  $AW_{\text{past}}$   
473 was clearly observed by increasing temperature from 35 °C to 61 °C.

474

#### [TABLE 4]

475 Analysis of a  $AW_{\text{past}}$  sample which had been heated to 61 °C and then returned to  
476 21 °C before FTIR analysis (i.e.  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ , Table 4) showed that its spectra was quite  
477 similar to that of unheated  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and markedly different from samples analysed at 35  
478 and 61 °C. This suggest structural changes brought about through heating were, to a

22

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479 large extent, reversible. Structural changes to whey proteins are generally reversible at  
480 low protein concentrations and if the denaturation temperature is not exceeded  
481 (Donovan & Mulvihill, 1987). Reversible changes to whey protein structure  
482 (predominantly  $\beta$ -lg) tend to occur at temperatures below that required to expose the  
483 free sulfhydryl (-SH) groups (normally buried in the hydrophobic core of the native  
484 protein), which would not be expected at the temperatures applied here, i.e.,  $\leq 61^\circ\text{C}$ .

### 485 3.6. Surface properties

#### 486 3.6.1 Dynamic surface tension and interfacial adsorption

487 The air drop produced during measurement of  $\gamma(t)$  is shown in Fig. 5a.  $\text{AW}_{\text{past}}$   
488 contained suspended materials even at 0.1% w/w of protein content, which were not  
489 apparent in  $\text{AW}_0$  at the same protein content. Fresh AW samples collected from the  
490 plant contained insoluble materials but those in  $\text{AW}_{\text{past}}$  were visually more obvious  
491 upon dilution to 0.1% w/w protein content. These materials were most visible when  
492  $\text{AW}_{\text{past}}$  was measured at  $35^\circ\text{C}$ . For operational reasons it was not possible to perform  
493 this analysis at  $> 35^\circ\text{C}$ .

#### 494 [FIGURE 5]

495 The initial  $\gamma(t)$  of air/water interfaces at  $21^\circ\text{C}$  was  $57.38\text{ mN/m}$  in  $\text{AW}_0$  (Fig. 5b).  
496 Pasteurisation of  $\text{AW}_0$  (yielding  $\text{AW}_{\text{past}}$ ) further reduced ( $p < 0.05$ ) the initial  $\gamma(t)$  to  
497  $55.74\text{ mN/m}$  when it was measured at  $21^\circ\text{C}$ . Although in-plant pasteurisation seemed  
498 to significantly affect the initial  $\gamma(t)$ , the average  $\gamma(t)$  during the last 60 s (quasi-  
499 equilibrium region) for  $\text{AW}_0$  and  $\text{AW}_{\text{past}}$  was the same statistically, i.e.,  $50.12 (\pm 0.97)$

500 mN/m and 50.00 ( $\pm 1.46$ ) mN/m. Much lower  $\gamma(t)$  in this region was obtained when  
501  $AW_{\text{past}}$  was measured at 35 °C, i.e., 46.03 mN/m. These data, however, cannot tell if  
502 there was a difference between adsorption kinetics of the AWs at the air/water  
503 interface and if the kinetics governed the observed foam properties. Therefore,  $\pi$   
504 against  $t^{1/2}$  and  $\ln[(\pi_{900}-\pi_t)/(\pi_{900}-\pi_0)]$  against  $t$  were plotted to calculate adsorption  
505 kinetics of AWs based on Eq. (5) and (6).

506 **[FIGURE 6]**

507 Fig. 6a shows the average values of  $\pi$  as function of  $t^{1/2}$  for  $AW_0$ ,  $AW_{\text{past}}$ , both  
508 measured at 21 °C, and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  measured at 35 °C; from the data, a linear fit  
509 representing the rate of diffusion-controlled migration of proteins to the interface can  
510 be derived. To enable this, the initial value of  $\pi$  should be lower than 10 mN/m (Guzey  
511 et al., 2003; Miller, Fainerman, Wüstneck, Krägel, & Trukhin, 1998; Patino & Niño,  
512 1999) , which was not the case for the plots depicted in Fig. 6a. Therefore,  $k_{\text{diff}}$  was  
513 estimated from the initial rate of change of  $\pi-t^{1/2}$  (Zhou, Tobin, Drusch, & Hogan,  
514 2021) and listed in Table 5. The estimated values of  $k_{\text{diff}}$  increased significantly from  
515  $AW_0$  to  $AW_{\text{past}}$  (21 °C). Increasing temperature of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  to 35 °C during measurement  
516 did not significantly increase the  $k_{\text{diff}}$ . After the migration period, the proteins would  
517 adsorb, unfold and conformationally rearrange at the interface. The kinetics of these  
518 phenomena ( $k_{a/u}$  and  $k_{\text{arr}}$ ) were derived from Fig. 6b. However, in the current study, a  
519 linear fit can only be derived for the first-order rate constant of adsorption and  
520 unfolding ( $k_{a/u}$ ). A longer period of  $\gamma(t)$  monitoring would be required to capture the  
521 kinetics of configurational rearrangement ( $k_{\text{arr}}$ ) at the interface but this was not possible



522 with the set up used in this research. The values of  $k_{a/u}$  decreased significantly from  
523  $AW_0$  to  $AW_{past}$  (21 °C). The  $k_{a/u}$  remained relatively constant when  $AW_{past}$  was  
524 measured at 35 °C. It should be noted that the slopes derived from  $AW_{past}$  measured at  
525 21 °C and 35 °C were only an estimation because the scattered data meant obtaining  
526 an  $R^2$  was difficult.

527

## [TABLE 5]

528 3.6.2 Surface dilatational properties

529 The changes in complex modulus  $|E|$  are depicted in Fig. 5c. The  $|E|$  values for all  
530 samples are scattered between 20-40 mN/m with no statistical differences. It should  
531 be highlighted that the oscillation of the air drop was started immediately after the drop  
532 was formed. In this case, compression and expansion was applied on the air/water  
533 interface even when the interface was not fully stabilized by the proteins. After 1000  
534 s,  $|E|$  of  $AW_{past}$  measured at 35 °C started to clearly deviate from  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$   
535 measured at 21 °C and increased with time. Meanwhile, no difference of  $|E|$  was  
536 observed between  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$  measured at 21 °C until the end of the  
537 measurement. This was most likely attributed by low protein concentration adsorbed  
538 at the interface, which rendered variations in  $|E|$  undetectable (Benjamin, 2000).

## 539 4. Discussion

### 540 4.1 Effects of in-plant heat treatment

541        Pasteurisation of nano-filtered mineral AW significantly affected foaming  
542 properties in terms of  $t_{ef}$ ,  $FC$  and  $MD$  as can be seen through comparison of  $AW_0$  and  
543  $AW_{past}$  values in Table 3. However, the underlying mechanism causing the difference  
544 in behaviour is not immediately obvious. It could be expected that protein denaturation  
545 and aggregation during heat treatment may have played a role; such heat induced  
546 changes to structure of whey proteins can improve foam stability to an extent, with  
547 excessive amounts contributing to reduced stability (Bals & Kulozik, 2003;  
548 Croguennec et al., 2006; Ibanoglu & Karatas, 2001; Kella, Yang, & Kinsella, 1989;  
549 Lajnaf et al., 2018; Rullier, Axelos, Langevin, & Novales, 2010; Tosi et al., 2007;  
550 Zhu & Damodaran, 1994b). However, as could be expected for such a low intensity  
551 heat treatment (75 °C x 15 s), the level of heat induced denaturation observed here is  
552 small (< 5%, Fig. 1) compared to the studies cited above, for example, the degree of  
553 denaturation reported by Bals & Kulozik (2003) was > 70%. Therefore, it is unlikely  
554 that such small differences were the underlying mechanism for difference in fouling  
555 behaviour of  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$ . In addition, the difference in foaming behaviour after  
556 heating observed in this study contrasted with the publications cited, i.e., heat  
557 treatment of AW decreased  $FC$  and foam stability ( $t_{liq1/2}$  and  $t_{ef}$ ) rather than increased  
558 them. This also suggests degree of denaturation and aggregation was not the  
559 underlying mechanism.

560        The effect of in-plant pasteurisation on surface hydrophobicity was similar to the  
561 effect on degree of denaturation i.e., there was a small increase which was not  
562 significantly different (Fig. 3). The data on structural rearrangement (Table 4,  $AW_0$   
563 vs.  $AW_{past}$ , measured at 21°C) showed that there was some effect of pasteurisation

564 temperature. Looking at the data in more detail, an increase in intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets,  
565 as generally reported for heated dairy systems, was not observed; in contrast, there was  
566 a marked decrease in intramolecular  $\beta$ -sheet in  $AW_{\text{past}}$ . A decrease in intermolecular  
567  $\beta$ -sheets at  $1618\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was previously reported during concentration of skim milk from  
568 9% to 25% TS (Markoska, Huppertz, Grewal, & Vasiljevic, 2019). This may be  
569 associated with a heat-induced shift in the monomer-dimer equilibrium of  $\beta$ -lg towards  
570 the monomeric form.  $\beta$ -lg can exist as monomer, dimer or octamer depending on  
571 protein variant, temperature, and pH. Several authors have also reported a shift towards  
572 monomeric form upon heating (Aymard, Durand, & Nicolai, 1996; Cairoli, Iametti, &  
573 Bonomi, 1994; Lefèvre & Subirade, 2000). A decreased in intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at  
574  $1619\text{-}1620\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was also reported for heat-treated ( $143\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 3s) deaminated milk;  
575 whereas, a constant level of intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets was observed in heat-treated milk  
576 only (Grewal, Huppertz, & Vasiljevic, 2018). However, the significance of this  
577 decrease in the context of this study remains unclear and should be further investigated.  
578 The observed shift from  $\beta$ -sheet to  $\alpha$ -helix indicated an intermediate structural state  
579 between the ordered and fully unfolded states (Yang, Dunker, Powers, Clark, &  
580 Swanson, 2001) was present after pasteurising the AW, but this apparently was not  
581 sufficient to increase *FC* and foam stability.

582 Significant differences were observed between their interfacial properties of  $AW_0$   
583 and  $AW_{\text{past}}$ . Pasteurisation significantly reduced the initial  $\gamma(t)$  (Fig. 5b). This may be  
584 attributed by faster diffusion-controlled migration rate of the proteins from the bulk  
585 phase to the interface, as indicated by significantly higher  $k_{\text{diff}}$  value of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  than  
586  $AW_0$  (Table 5). After aging the air/water interface for 900s, the  $\gamma(t)$  of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_0$

587 were similar, which indicated roughly similar amount of materials adsorbed at the  
588 interface (Martin et al., 2002). However, stabilization of the interface by  $AW_{\text{past}}$  was  
589 different compared to  $AW_0$ . The proteins in  $AW_{\text{past}}$  were significantly slower to adsorb  
590 and unfold at the interface, as indicated by the  $k_{a/u}$  value, which is in line with other  
591 studies. The  $k_{a/u}$  values of heat-treated WPI at any protein concentrations and pH were  
592 lower than those of unheated WPI because hydrophobic moieties might be limited for  
593 surface interactions due to their involvement in protein-protein interactions during  
594 heating (Zhou et al., 2021). Considering that denaturation level and surface  
595 hydrophobicity of  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_0$  were not significantly different to affect their  
596 interfacial behaviour, slow adsorption and unfolding of the  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at the interface  
597 might be contributed by insoluble materials which were more obvious than in  $AW_0$ , as  
598 shown in Fig. 5a. The insoluble materials observed in AW samples were most likely  
599 calcium phosphate (CaP) as indicated by Drapala et al., (2018). These insoluble  
600 materials may limit the penetration and anchoring process of the proteins at the  
601 interface (Damodaran & Song, 1988). As a consequence, it is likely that stabilization  
602 of the air/water interface could slow down, which subsequently resulted in lower  $FC$ ,  
603 less stable foams, and bigger bubbles than in  $AW_0$ .

#### 604 4.2 Effects of foaming temperature

605 Foaming  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 61 °C ( $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ ) resulted in the most stable foams. This is  
606 significant because the rationale for performing this research is foaming observed in  
607 the plant at this temperature. Foaming at elevated temperature has been previously  
608 reported in milk. A previous research has demonstrated that the time required for the

609 foams to collapse to half of its original volume at 5 – 85 °C ranged from a few minutes  
610 to several hours, depending on the types of milk (Kamath et al., 2008). Another study  
611 reported a range from a few seconds to an hour for ultra-high temperature (UHT)  
612 processed milk and pasteurised milk foamed at 5 – 60 °C (Oetjen, Bilke-Krause,  
613 Madani, & Willers, 2014). However, such studies have not been reported in whey  
614 system.

615 The stable foams produced by  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  were most likely a result of structural  
616 rearrangement of the proteins at 61 °C. Phillips et al. (1995) reported an increase in  
617 random coil,  $\alpha$ -helix, and  $\beta$ -turn structures in  $\beta$ -lg solutions after whipping at 3 – 45  
618 °C, which were associated with higher *FC* of  $\beta$ -lg solution. These unfolded structures  
619 were reversible after the foam collapsed.  $AW_{\text{past}}$  measured at 61 °C (Table 4) showed  
620 significant increases in intermolecular  $\beta$ -sheets at 1684-1686  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ,  $\alpha$ -helix and  $\beta$ -turns,  
621 which were not observed when  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  was cooled and measured at 21 °C. This  
622 confirms that structural reversibility took place when  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  was cooled down. When  
623 the proteins unfolded at 61 °C, exposed hydrophobic moieties were likely responsible  
624 for the highest *FC* in  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ . Based on Fig. 3, the differences in surface  
625 hydrophobicity between  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$  was ~4%. Although it was numerically  
626 small, it should be noted that structural reversibility may also be a factor here, as  
627 surface hydrophobicity was measured at 21 °C.

628 CaP becomes more insoluble with increasing temperature, therefore is likely to  
629 have been present in larger quantities when  $AW_{\text{past}}$  was foamed at 61 °C. It is possible  
630 that their presence at air/water interface would act as a Pickering-like effect mediator  
631 working synergistically or antagonistically at the interface with the unfolded state of

632 proteins at 61 °C. This is an interesting observation and further investigation of the  
633 effect of precipitated salts on whey protein stabilised foams is planned.

634 Foaming at 61 °C resulted in the formation of dry foams. Dry foam is formed  
635 when most of the entrapped liquid drains and the volume fraction of liquid in the  
636 bubbles is less than 10% (Langevin, 2017). Dry foams produced by whey proteins was  
637 previously described as formation of stiff and rigid foams obtained after excessive and  
638 prolonged whipping (Kuehler & Stine, 1974). Dry foam was also defined as physically  
639 containing little liquid and consisting of thin films (Weaire & Hutzler, 1999), stabilized  
640 by disjoining pressures such as electrostatic repulsion, van der Waals attraction, and  
641 steric/hydration forces (Aronson, Bergeron, Fagan, & Radke, 1994; Stubenrauch &  
642 Miller, 2004). Unlike  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$  foams (both foamed at 21 °C),  $AW_{past,+}$  foams  
643 (foamed at 61 °C) appeared to meet the definitions of dry foam, i.e., the foams were  
644 stiff and rigid, and most of the initial volume of the liquid had been recovered at the  
645 bottom of the cylinder during the time of observation, which indicated that most of the  
646 entrapped liquid had drained. This was confirmed by much shorter  $t_{liq1/2}$  than  $t_{ef}$  in  
647  $AW_{past,+}$  foams. This is a particularly interesting observation from a processing  
648 perspective. On one hand, the drainage of a large degree of liquid from foams can be  
649 seen as desirable as it allows most of the liquid to go forward to subsequent processing.  
650 On the other hand, strong and persistent dry foams may be challenging to remove from  
651 processing lines and it may not be possible to adequately separate the drained liquid  
652 for further use.

## 653 **5. Conclusion**

654 Heat treatment and foaming temperature of the AW were key determinants of  
655 foaming behaviour in industrial acid whey samples. Pasteurisation, as may have been  
656 expected, had minimal effect on levels of denaturation and surface hydrophobicity yet  
657 significantly affected foaming, i.e., production of less stable foams. It is also pertinent  
658 to note that the differences between pasteurised and unpasteurised data (i.e.,  
659 denaturation and hydrophobicity) are small and not in line with the magnitude of the  
660 difference observed in foaming data. This seemed, to some extent, to be supported by  
661 air/water surface tension data. However, the underlying mechanisms for difference in  
662 foaming behaviour requires further elucidation. This is perhaps indicative of the  
663 complex nature of the acid whey system. In particular, the effects of insoluble  
664 materials, such as calcium phosphate and lactose on foaming properties should be  
665 further studied.

666 Reversible changes in secondary structure of whey proteins in AW were found to  
667 be the key determinant in foaming behaviour at higher temperatures. At temperatures  
668 below denaturation temperature, these changes were responsible for highly stable  
669 foams, which remain in place even after most of the liquid has drained. These “dry  
670 foams” represent a major challenge during processing; however, the work presented  
671 here suggests that lowering the temperature at the point where foaming takes place in  
672 the processing plant (if possible) can help to alleviate such issues. Overall, this work  
673 illustrates the foaming-related challenges associated with processing of nano-filtered  
674 AW, highlights the effects of heating and provides increased understanding of aeration  
675 behaviour in this complex, under-studied dairy stream.

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928

929 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

930 **Figure 1.** 2D-images of air bubbles in the fresh foam (a) and after half the volume of  
931 the entrapped liquid in the foam drained (b). The scale bar is 2 mm.

932 **Figure 2.** The remaining native  $\alpha$ -la,  $\beta$ -lg, and other proteins in AW samples before  
933 pasteurisation ( $AW_0$ ), after pasteurisation ( $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) and after heat treatment at 61 °C  
934 ( $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ ). \* indicates a significant difference between the two AW samples ( $p < 0.05$ ).

935 **Figure 3.** Relative fluorescence intensity (RFI) of AW as function of protein  
936 concentration. The degree of hydrophobicity is represented by the slope and \* indicates  
937 a significant difference between AW samples.

938 **Figure 4.** FTIR spectra (Amide I region) following normalization and deconvolution.

939 **Figure 5.** Tensiometer images of the air drop in  $AW_0$ ,  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  (35 °C) at  
940 0.1% w/w protein content during measurement of dynamic surface tension at 21 °C  
941 ( $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) and 35 °C ( $AW_{\text{past}}$ ) (a), surface tension as a function of time (b) and  
942 dilatational modulus as a function of time (c).

943 **Figure 6.** The average of the square root of time ( $t^{1/2}$ ) dependence of surface pressure  
944 ( $\pi$ ) (a) and representative of fit of first-order rate constant of adsorption and unfolding  
945 (b).

**Table 1.** Proximate composition of acid whey before (AW<sub>0</sub>) and after pasteurisation (AW<sub>past</sub>). Mean values ( $\bar{x}$ ) and standard deviations ( $s$ ) are expressed on a dry basis, except for the total solids. The statistical significance values ( $p$ ) are also listed.

Sample	Total solids (%)			Proteins (%)			Fat (%)			Ash (%)			Lactose (%)		
	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$
AW <sub>0</sub>	19.09	0.92		11.27	0.21		0.38	0.09		8.35	0.23		80.00	0.28	
AW <sub>past</sub>	18.78	0.94	<b>0.11</b>	11.20	0.34	<b>0.51</b>	0.42	0.06	<b>0.15</b>	8.35	0.24	<b>0.93</b>	80.03	0.38	<b>0.74</b>

**Table 2.** Average mineral composition in supernatant and precipitate of AW<sub>0</sub> and AW<sub>past</sub>. The mineral content that was significantly affected by pasteurisation ( $p < 0.05$ ) is marked \*.

Mineral (mg/kg)	AW <sub>0</sub>		AW <sub>past</sub>	
	Supernatant	Precipitate	Supernatant	Precipitate
Calcium (Ca)	476.33*	10,308.00	529.33*	11,371.33
Potassium (K)	4,096.67	3,548.00	4,013.00	3,547.67
Phosphorus (P)	572.33	4,975.67	553.00	5,510.67
Magnesium (Mg)	187.00	588.00	187.67	652.00
Sulphur (S)	389.67	310.33	385.67	357.00
Sodium (Na)	365.67	272.00	354.33	286.67

**Table 3.** Foaming properties of AW samples expressed as the mean value ( $\bar{x}$ ) and standard deviation ( $s$ ). The significance value ( $p$ ) between  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$ , both at 21 °C, or between  $AW_{\text{past}}$  at 21 °C and 61 °C (referred here as  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ ) for each variable is also listed.

Sample	$t_{\text{liq}1/2}$ (s)			$t_{\text{ef}}$ (s)			$FC$			$MD$			$d$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )		
	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$	$\bar{x}$	$s$	$p$
$AW_0$	8.50	5.61	<b>0.72</b>	72.00	25.18	<b>0.02</b>	0.25	0.04	<b>0.00</b>	0.15	0.01	<b>0.00</b>	1105.37	90.11	<b>0.96</b>
$AW_{\text{past}}$	8.17	5.53		48.17	19.14		0.22	0.05		0.18	0.02		1112.45	256.12	
$AW_{\text{past,+}}$	135.67	65.48	<b>0.00</b>	> 900	-	-	0.32	0.06	<b>0.00</b>	0.15	0.02	<b>0.01</b>	956.76	266.40	<b>0.47</b>

Italic numbers under  $p$  indicate a significant difference either between  $AW_0$  and  $AW_{\text{past}}$  or between  $AW_{\text{past}}$  and  $AW_{\text{past,+}}$ .

$t_{\text{liq}1/2}$ : the time for half volume of the entrapped liquid in the foams to drain back down.

$t_{\text{ef}}$ : the total time required for foams to completely collapse.

$FC$ : foam capacity

$MD$ : the maximum foam density

$d$ : diameter of air bubbles.

**Table 4.** Summary of secondary structural changes in amide I proteins stated as area of the spectral difference (%).

Structure	Wavenumber (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Reference	Sample	Reference	Sample	Reference	Sample	Reference	Sample
		(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)	(temperature)
		AW <sub>0</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past</sub>	AW <sub>past,+</sub>
		(21 °C)	(21 °C)	(21 °C)	(35 °C)*	(21 °C)	(61 °C)*	(21 °C)	(21 °C)**
Intramolecular β-sheets	1627-1630	-6.2%		-3.9%		-15.1		-4.3%	
Intermolecular β-sheets	1616-1620	-1,792.0%		-57.4%		-388.8%		12.7%	
Intermolecular β-sheets	1684-1686	-0.8%		0.5%		22.6%		-3.0%	
α-helix	1652-1655	14.2%		-0.8%		6.5%		-5.4%	
Random coils	1646-1650	10.7%		-2.4%		-1.8%		-5.3%	
β-turns	1659-1671	23.0%		4.1%		74.1%		4.3%	

\* These samples were AW<sub>past</sub> that was analysed by FTIR at elevated temperatures (35 °C and 61 °C).

\*\* This sample was AW<sub>past</sub> that was subjected to additional heating to 61 °C as part of foaming experiments and then analysed by FTIR at 21 °C.

**Table 5.** Dynamic parameters for diffusion, adsorption and unfolding of the AW<sub>0</sub> and AW<sub>past.</sub>

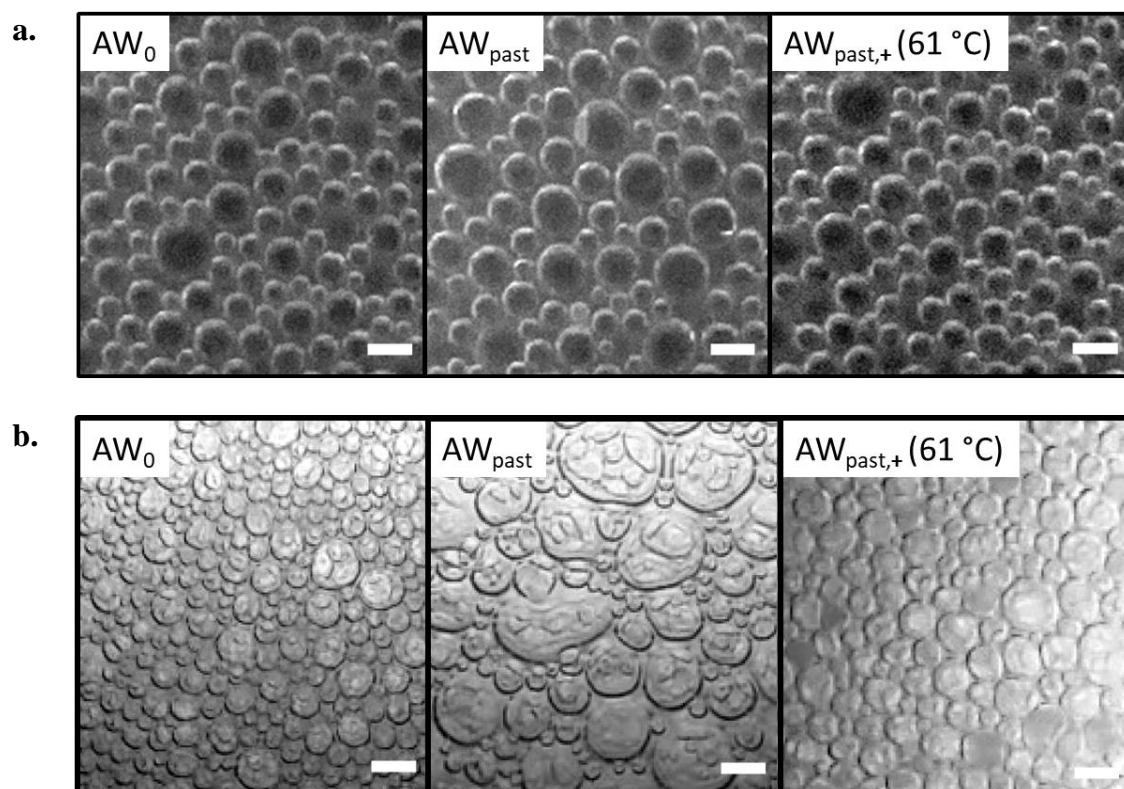
Sample	Temperature (°C)	$k_{\text{diff}} \times 10^3$ (mNm <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-0.5</sup> )	$k_{\text{a/u}} \times 10^3$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$R^2$
AW <sub>0</sub>	21	20.56 (±2.07)*	3.63 (±0.77)*	0.825 (±0.10)
AW <sub>past</sub>	21	22.62 (±2.03)	1.60 (±0.44)	–
AW <sub>past</sub>	35	22.97 (±3.38)	1.53 (±0.54)	–

AW<sub>0</sub> is the AW before pasteurisation; droplet surface properties were measured at 21 °C

AW<sub>past</sub> is the AW after pasteurisation, droplet surface properties were measured at 21 °C and 35 °C

$k_{\text{diff}}$  is the kinetics of diffusion;  $k_{\text{a/u}}$  is the rate of adsorption and unfolding;  $R^2$  is the coefficient of determination.

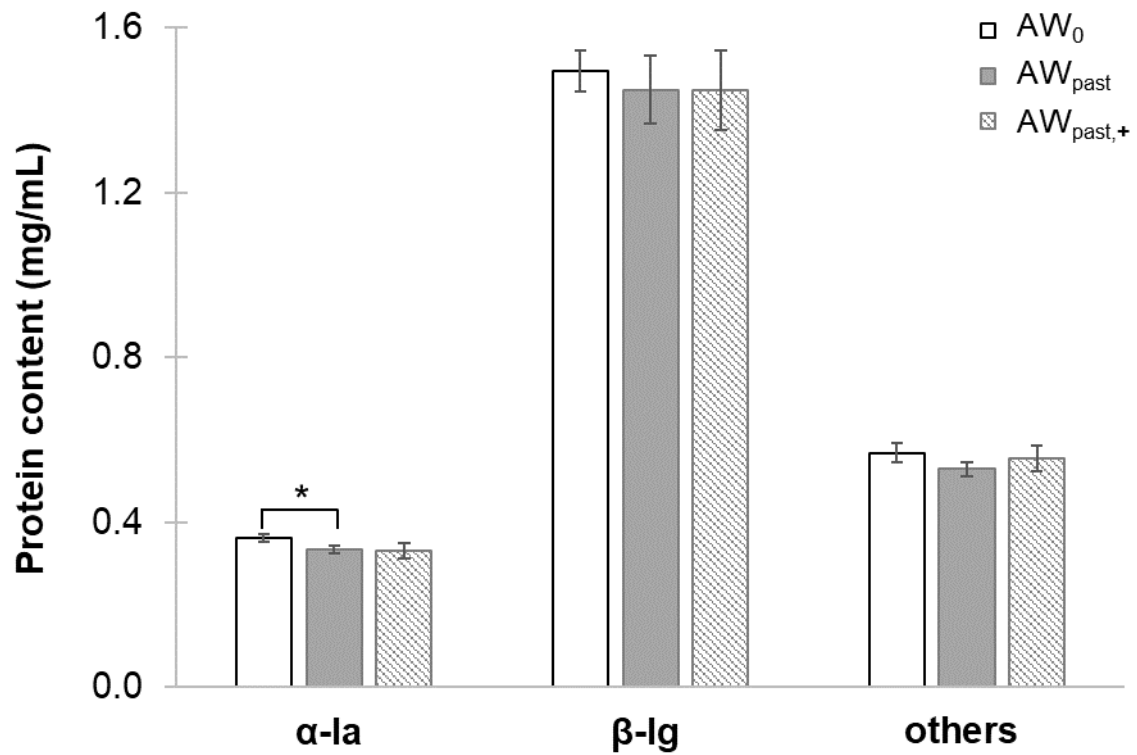




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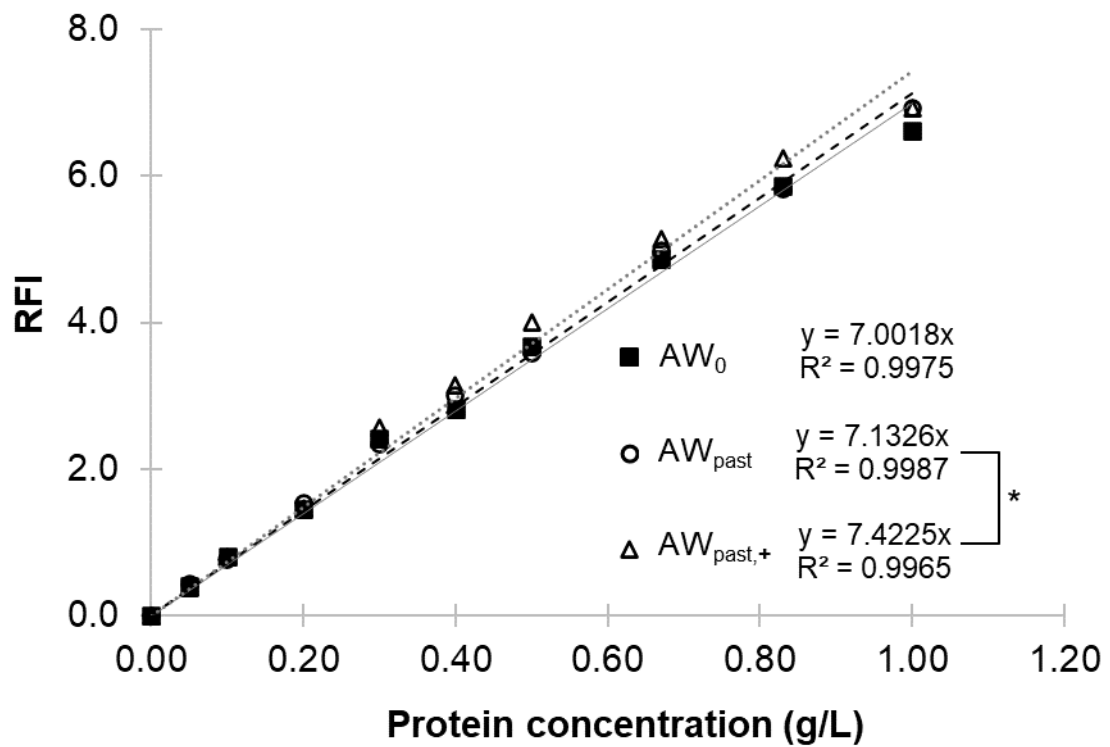
**Figure 1.** 2D-images of air bubbles in the fresh foam (a) and after half the volume of the entrapped liquid in the foam drained (b). The scale bar is 2 mm. By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure 1



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**Figure 2.** The remaining native  $\alpha$ -la,  $\beta$ -lg, and other proteins in AW samples before pasteurisation (AW<sub>0</sub>), after pasteurisation (AW<sub>past</sub>) and after heat treatment at 61 °C (AW<sub>past,+</sub>). \* indicates a significant difference between the two AW samples ( $p < 0.05$ ). By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure 2

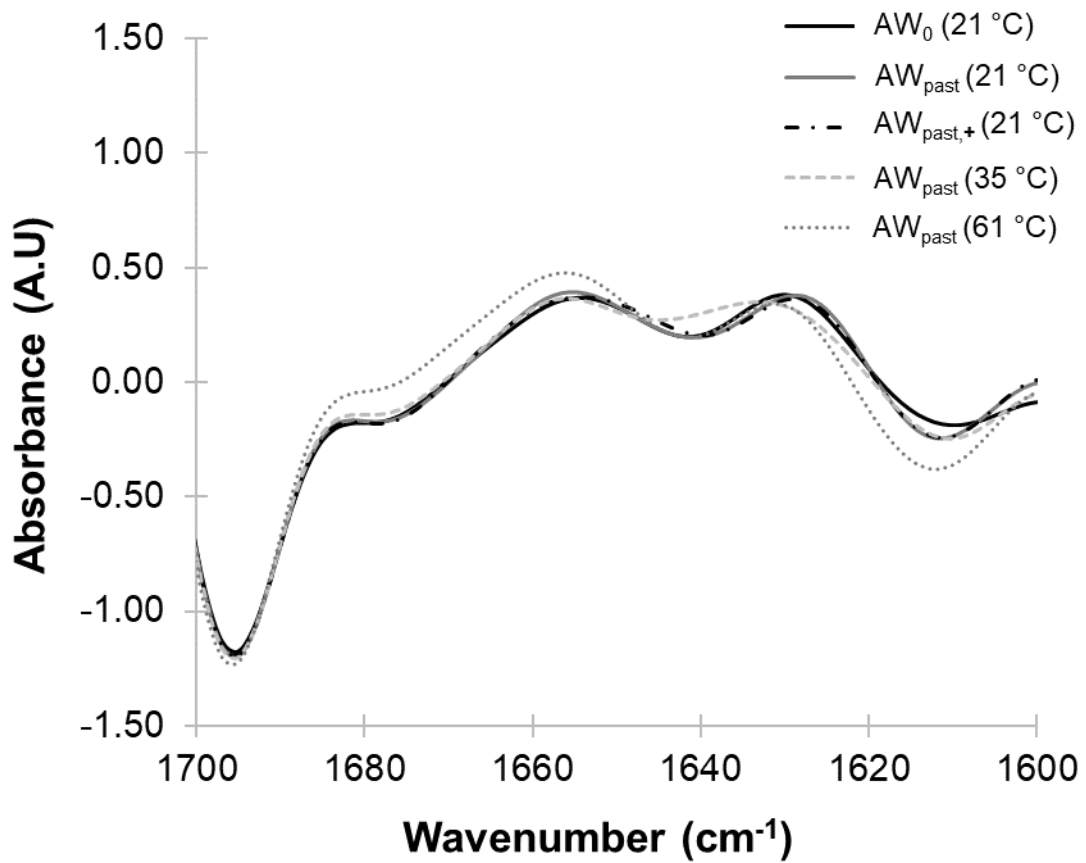


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**Figure 3.** Relative fluorescence intensity (RFI) of AW as function of protein concentration. The degree of hydrophobicity is represented by the slope and \* indicates a significant difference between AW samples. By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure

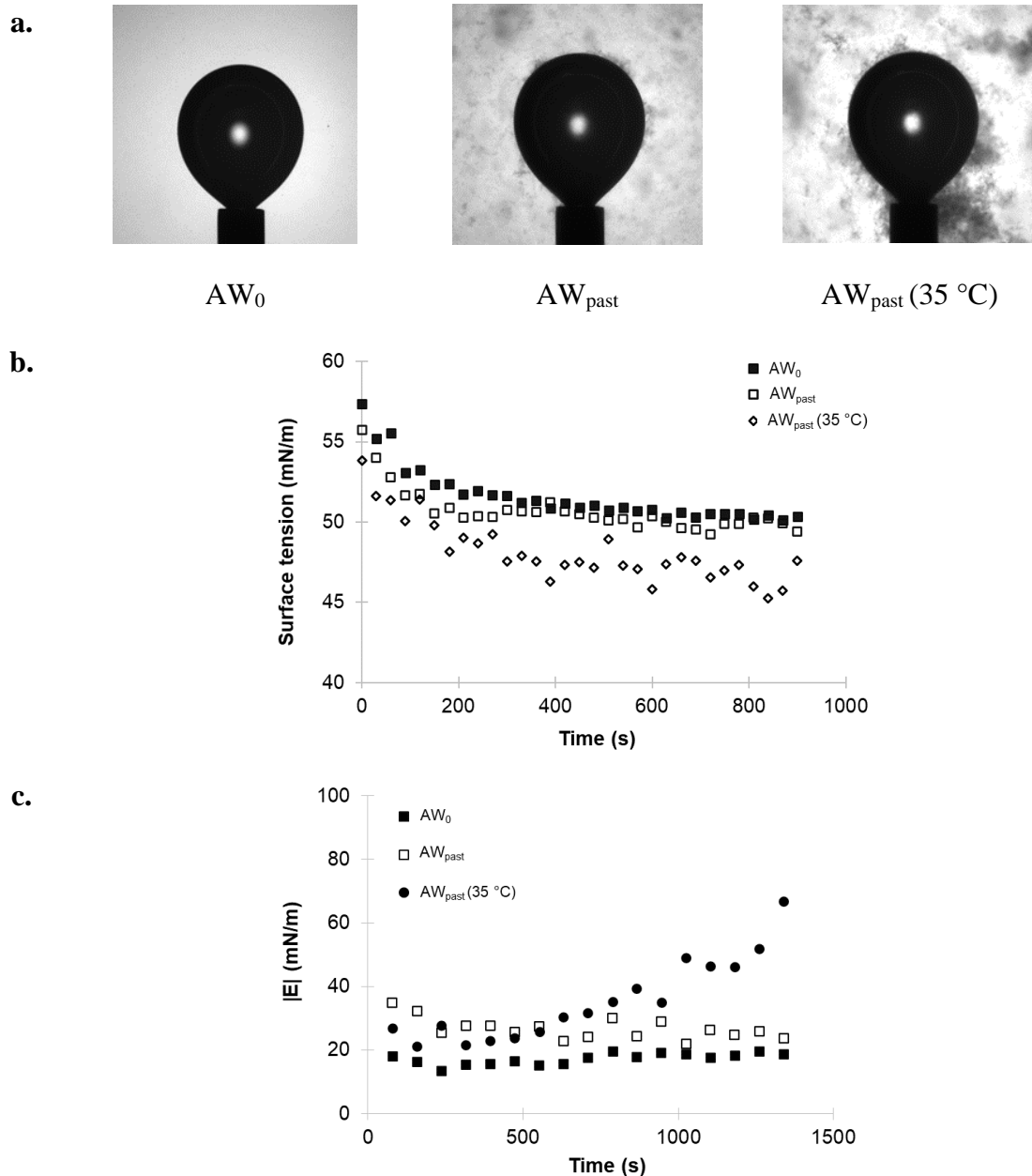
3



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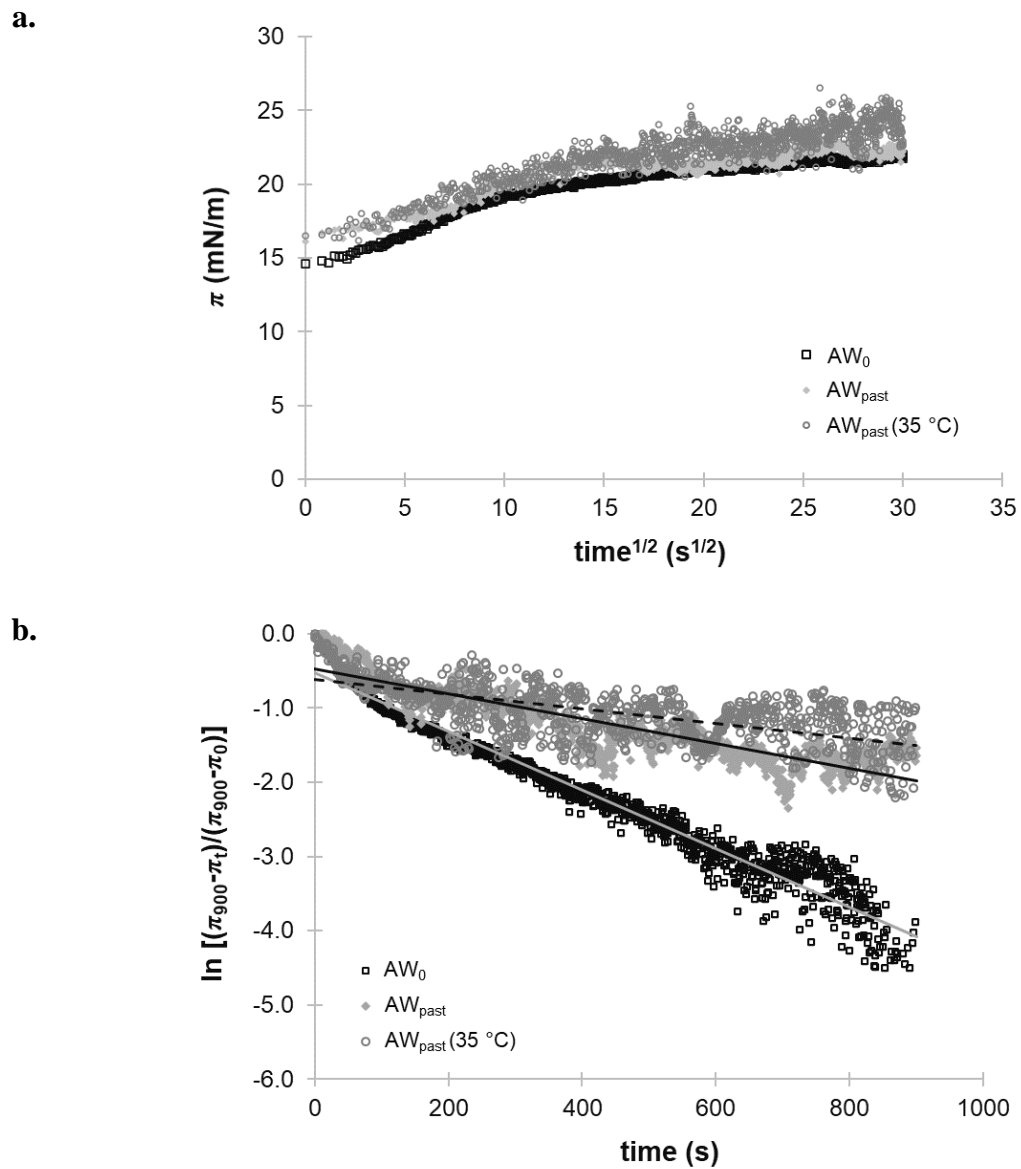
**Figure 4.** FTIR spectra (Amide I region) following normalization and deconvolution. By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure 4



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**Figure 5.** Tensiometer images of the air drop in  $AW_0$ ,  $AW_{past}$  and  $AW_{past} (35\text{ }^\circ\text{C})$  at 0.1% w/w protein content during measurement of dynamic surface tension at 21 °C ( $AW_0$  and  $AW_{past}$ ) and 35 °C ( $AW_{past}$ ) (a), surface tension as a function of time (b) and dilatational modulus as a function of time (c). By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure 5



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**Figure 6.** The average of the square root of time ( $t^{1/2}$ ) dependence of surface pressure ( $\pi$ ) (a) and representative of fit of first-order rate constant of adsorption and unfolding (b). By Purwanti *et al.*, 10.1016/j.idairyj/2022.105419 Figure 6