

SWINBURNE UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Author:	Leong, Thomas; Juliano, Pablo; Johansson, Linda; Mawson, Raymond; McArthur, Sally L.; Manasseh, Richard
Title:	Temperature effects on the ultrasonic separation of fat from natural whole milk
Year:	2014
Journal:	Ultrasonics Sonochemistry
Volume:	21
lssue:	6
Pages:	2092-2098
URL:	http://www.journals.elsevier.com/ultrasonics- sonochemistry/
Copyright:	Copyright © 2014 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. The accepted manuscript is reproduced in accordance with the copyright policy of the publisher.

This is the author's version of the work, posted here with the permission of the publisher for your personal use. No further distribution is permitted. You may also be able to access the published version from your library.

The definitive version is available at:

http://www.journals.elsevier.com/ultrasonicssonochemistry/ **1 Temperature effects on the ultrasonic separation of fat from natural**

2 whole milk

- 3 Thomas Leong^a*, Pablo Juliano^b, Linda Johansson^a, Raymond Mawson^b, Sally McArthur^c, Richard
- 4 Manasseh^a
- 5 * Corresponding author: <u>tleong@swin.edu.au</u>
- 6 a Mechanical Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and Industrial Sciences, Swinburne University of
- 7 Technology, VIC 3122, Australia
- 8 b CSIRO Animal Food and Health Sciences, 671 Sneydes Rd, Werribee, VIC 3030, Australia
- 9 c Biotactical Engineering, IRIS, Faculty of Engineering and Industrial Sciences, Swinburne University
- 10 of Technology, VIC 3122, Australia
- 11 Keywords: Ultrasound, separation, milk, milk fat globules

12 Abstract

- This study showed that temperature influences the rate of separation of fat from natural whole milk 13 14 during application of ultrasonic standing waves. In this study, natural whole milk was sonicated at 600 kHz (583 W/L) or 1 MHz (311 W/L) with a starting bulk temperature of 5 °C, 25 °C, or 40 °C. 15 16 Comparisons on separation efficiency were performed with and without sonication. Sonication using 17 1 MHz for 5 min at 25 °C was shown to be more effective for fat separation than the other conditions tested with and without ultrasound, resulting in a relative change from $3.5 \pm 0.06 \%$ (w/v) 18 fat initially, of -52.3 \pm 2.3 % (reduction to 1.6 \pm 0.07 % (w/v) fat) in the skimmed milk layer and 184.8 19 20 \pm 33.2 % (increase to 9.9 \pm 1.0 %(w/v) fat) in the top layer, at an average skimming rate of ~5 g 21 fat/min. A shift in the volume weighted mean diameter (D[4,3]) of the milk samples obtained from 22 the top and bottom of between 8 and 10 % relative to an initial sample D[4,3] value of $4.5 \pm 0.06 \,\mu$ m was also achieved under these conditions. In general, faster fat separation was seen in natural milk 23 24 when natural creaming occurred at room temperature and this separation trend was enhanced after
- the application of high frequency ultrasound.

26 **1. Introduction**

27

Ultrasonic separation has been identified as a technology suitable for initiating separations for a
range of different applications and is an area of growing interest[1]. The technique using ultrasound
waves to initiate separation of fat globules from milk has been recently reported by Juliano et al.[2,
3] using a recombined emulsion and Leong et al.[4] using natural milk. Milk fat separation rates
many times faster than natural creaming have been reported using ultrasound.

In the absence of ultrasound, the natural creaming of fat from milk has been shown to be more effective at room temperatures (i.e., ~15 °C) at extended creaming times, compared with when it is maintained at cool temperatures (~4°C)[5]. The rising speed (terminal velocity) of an individual fat globule of diameter *d* can be calculated by[6]:

37
$$v = \frac{g(\rho_m - \rho_p)d^2}{18\eta_p}$$
 (1)

where *ρ* is the density, *η* is the viscosity of the milk medium and *g* is the gravitational acceleration.
The subscripts *p* and *m* refer to the fat globules and the surrounding medium respectively.

40 Natural separation at very high temperatures however(>77 °C) is impeded due to the denaturation 41 of immunoglobulins in the milk which promote flocculation of fat globules into larger entities[7]. In 42 regards to the temperature at which industrial milk fat separation normally occurs by centrifugation, 43 there is no set standard (personal communication), with dairy plants reportedly using a range of 44 temperatures ranging from cool (~15-20 °C) to hot temperatures (40-55°C) dependent on the 45 desired product to be manufactured.

46 The temperature influences the physical properties of milk fat globules in the milk medium. Milk fat exists largely as a liquid above 40 °C and generally as a solid below - 40 °C[8]. At intermediate 47 48 temperatures such as at room temperature, it exists as a mixture of crystals and liquid fat. This is 49 because the milk fat is composed of many component triglycerides that melt over a considerable temperature range[8]. With the application of ultrasound, the manipulation of the fat globules is 50 51 dependent on what is known as the primary acoustic radiation force, detailed for example in Yosioka and Kawasima[9] for a standing wave field. The primary acoustic radiation force is proportional to 52 the size of the fat globules, the frequency of the ultrasound applied, and also the material properties 53 54 of the milk and fat globules. The properties of importance are the density and compressibility of the fat globules and their surrounding medium, and their influence is defined by the acoustic contrast factor, ϕ , calculated using[9]:

57

$$\phi = \frac{5\rho_p - 2\rho_m}{2\rho_p - \rho_m} - \frac{\beta_p}{\beta_m} (2)$$

58

59 where β is the compressibility.

These properties are temperature dependent, and the influence of temperature on the 60 61 ultrasonically enhanced separation of milk fat, in particular 'natural' whole milk, has not yet been 62 examined. In the study by Leong et al.[4], carried at 1 MHz (67-300W/L), no temperature control was considered. It was observed that the input of ultrasound to the milk system resulted in heat 63 generation over time, causing the overall system to increase in temperature. Studies by Juliano et 64 al.[2, 3] demonstrated the enhanced ultrasonic-assisted fat separation using reconstituted milk fat 65 emulsions at 400 kHz, 1 MHz, and 2 MHz (~35 W/L per transducer used). These studies were 66 performed with an initial temperature of 35 °C, on the supposition that the higher proportion of 67 liquid milk fat at these temperatures would be more readily separable by ultrasound. 68

69 A possible advantage of ultrasonic separation, is that high frequency ultrasound has capability to 70 initiate 'gentle' separation of fat globules. During high frequency separation, the physical effects of 71 unstable cavitation are negligible[10] and therefore will not affect the integrity of milk fat globules. 72 Application of ultrasound using 1 MHz at similar power levels considered in this study has shown no 73 evidence of damage to the structural integrity of the fat globules previously by zeta potential and 74 visual inspection[4]. Even though the cavitational yield due to transient collapse peaks between 600 75 kHz and 1 MHz, decreasing at higher frequencies[11, 12], free radicals formed are unlikely to affect 76 the structural integrity of such globules, although modification of other components in the bulk 77 medium may occur[13-15].

The aim of the study is to establish the effect of temperature on ultrasonic-assisted fat separation atselected temperature and frequencies.

80 2. Materials and Methods

81 **2.1.** Ultrasonic separation trials

A similar protocol as reported by Leong et al.[4] using raw whole bovine milk sourced from the farm

83 (Department of Primary Industries Ellinbank, Australia) has been employed.

Fully-submersible plate transducers (Sonosys Ultraschallsysteme GmbH, Neuenburg, Germany) of nominal frequency 600 kHz and 1 MHz were available for the separation trials. The transducers were positioned inside a stainless steel box with dimensions 182 x 242 x 62 mm and wall thickness 1 mm. The transducers were positioned such that the non-active side of the transducer was firmly placed against one side of the stainless steel wall. A gap between the active side of the transducer and the wall of the stainless steel vessel of ~30 mm (alignment ± 3 mm) was used for all trials in this study (Figure 1).

91 The transducers were operated at 100% nominal power (700 W and 343 W for 600 kHz and 1 MHz, 92 respectively). The electrical power draw was determined using a power meter. The temperature of 93 the processed milk was monitored every minute using a thermocouple positioned near the side wall 94 of the separation vessel.

Sound pressure levels were determined using a needle hydrophone (model HNC-1000, Onda Corp.,
Sunnyvale, USA). The hydrophone was positioned at various locations across the container to
measure the maximal pressure in the vessel. A minimum of 10 values were recorded to determine
the maximum pressure.

99 Milk was transported from the farm at 5 °C and then stored at 5 °C in a cool room for trials to be 100 carried out the next day. The volume of milk processed was 1.2 L using the 600 kHz, and 1.1 L using the 1 MHz (a slightly larger volume was required to be processed for 600 kHz due to its higher 101 102 surface area). Milk was placed in the stainless steel ultrasound reactor vessel at three starting 103 temperatures for each selected frequency: (a) 5 °C (directly from the cool room); (b) 25 °C and (c) 40 104 °C. Trials at the lowest temperature consisted of placing the ultrasonic reactor vessel in an ice-water bath to maintain milk temperature below <20 °C during sonication; in this case more of the milk fat 105 106 was present in a solid state. Higher temperature trials were started by placing the ultrasound reactor vessel inside a thermo-regulated heating bath (Ratek TH2 Thermoregulator). Constant gentle stirring 107 108 of the milk was performed during the preheating step inside the reactor up to each target 109 temperature (several minutes required). The starting temperature of 25 °C was selected to represent 110 ambient room conditions (an intermediate temperature for semi-liquid milk fat), and the 40 °C was selected so that the milk fat was mostly liquid. 111

The ultrasound was switched on once the milk reached the desired preheating temperature, and applied continuously for 5 minutes. Controls where no ultrasound was applied were performed inside the vessel using the exact same set-up as that used during processing. All trials were performed in duplicate with milk obtained on the same day. Trials were repeated with milk from different days to mitigate the influence of natural variation. A minimum of four replicates was performed for all trials under identical processing conditions. The error bars calculated are from the standard error across replicated trials unless otherwise stated.

119 **2.2.** Sample characterization

Samples were collected from the fat-enriched top and fat-depleted bottoms after processing andcharacterized using the same procedure as reported by Leong et al.[4]

Fat content was analysed using the standard Rose-Gottlieb Method[16] to determine the fat concentration of the milk prior to ultrasound processing, and the top and bottom portions after ultrasound application.

125 The particle size distribution and the associated volume weighted mean diameter, D[4,3], was determined for all samples before and after processing by ultrasound using a Malvern Mastersizer 126 127 2000 (Malvern Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire) with deionised water as the dilutant. Further 128 details of the analysis can be found in Leong et al. [4]. The D[4,3] value represents the mean particle 129 size of the samples, weighted by the total volume of the fat droplets. The purpose of this measurement was to provide an indication of the selectivity of ultrasound under different conditions 130 131 (frequency and temperature) to manipulate different sized fat globules in a sample of natural whole 132 milk to the fat enriched top or fat depleted bottoms.

Zeta potential was determined using a Zetasizer Nano (Malvern Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire).
Phosphate buffer (0.1 M) at a pH of 6.8 was used as the dilutant. Further details can be found in
Leong et al.[4]

136 **2.3.** Statistical analysis

The statistical significance of the results was evaluated using a General Linear Model by ANOVA
(Matlab 2012c, MathsWorks Inc.) for a confidence threshold of p<0.05. The error bars reported,
unless otherwise stated, are the standard error across a minimum of 4 replicated trials.

140 **3. Results and discussion**

141 **3.1.** Ultrasonic reactor vessel characterization

142 The electrical power draw of the transducers during operation are measured to be 700 W (3.08 143 W/cm²) and 343 W (3.43 W/cm²) for the 600 kHz and 1 MHz transducer respectively. The maximum pressure level detected within the ultrasound field of the vessel is reported to be 84.7 \pm 21.1 kPa and 75.8 \pm 8.2 kPa for the 600 kHz and 1 MHz frequencies respectively. The calorimetric values have been determined previously using similar set-ups[4] and show that the energy evolved as heat is proportional to the electrical power draw for these transducers.

148 Inside a standing wave field, there are regions of intense pressure (antinodes) and regions of 149 minimal pressure (nodes). The milk fat globules move to the pressure antinodes by the primary 150 radiation force described, for example, in Yosioka and Kawasima[9]. At these pressure levels, no 151 structural damage to the surface of the fat globules was reported when using 1 MHz ultrasound 152 based on zeta-potential measurements[4]. No damage to the fat globules is detected by zetapotential measurements when using 600 kHz at the power settings investigated in this study (20 153 154 minutes sonication, 583 W/L). A zeta-potential value of -11.2 ± 0.6 mV was measured, which when 155 compared with values for natural milk, -11.2 ± 0.2 mV, and homogenized milk, -16.2 ± 0.5 mV, indicate no significant change in the surface properties[17]. 156

At frequencies between 400 kHz to 1 MHz, the yield of free-radicals is predicted to be in a peak range in aqueous systems[11, 12]. However, a recent study into the use of either 600 kHz and 1 MHz frequencies in milk based systems using similar levels of power input and with similar pressure levels, have shown that the oxidation of lipids in cheddar cheese whey was not significant owing to the application of ultrasound at these frequencies[18].

The temperature increase during sonication is shown in Figure 2. The maximum temperature rise over 5 minutes processing observed in all of the trials does not exceed 15 °C. The temperatures during sonication hence range from 5-18 °C, 25-40 °C and 40-52 °C. These ranges are within the typical conditions used for centrifugal separation in industrial dairy manufacture (personal communication).

167 The temperature of the medium may influence the ultrasound propagation and other system conditions in several ways. The speed of sound, which influences the wavelength of a standing wave 168 system, increases with temperature [19], peaking at approximately 1550 m/s at 74 °C. This means 169 170 that the number of anti-nodes (and hence sites at which fat globules may collect at) becomes less with increasing temperature. However, given that there are many wavelengths and hence antinodal 171 172 sites (~24 using 600 kHz, ~40 using 1 MHz) within the system and the temperature rise is <15 °C, the change in sound speed will at most increase/decrease the number of antinodes by 1 to 2 sites for 173 174 the given geometry, and is not expected to play a significant role in the separation.

Furthermore, an increase in the bulk temperature may modify the sonochemical yield of radicals 175 176 since the temperature can alter the gas solubility and vapour pressure that affects the ease of 177 cavitational events as well as the final collapse intensities[10]. Higher temperatures for example, can 178 reduce the solubility of gas and lower the potential yield of sonochemical entities[20]. For ultrasonic 179 separation applications, a decline in sonochemical yield is likely to be beneficial since the interest is 180 not usually to cause any change to the separated products. Nevertheless, in milk systems as mentioned above, recent results suggest that the sonochemical oxidation of lipid components at 181 182 similar operating conditions is insignificant[18], likely due to the presence of antioxidant compounds 183 in milk such as casein[14], vitamins, enzymes and lactoferrin that can act as radical scavengers[21].

184 **3.2.** Fat concentrations

185

3.2.1. Natural creaming

186 The change in fat content of the collected samples relative to the initial samples from the trials 187 performed at various preheating temperatures with no ultrasound application (control) are shown in 188 Figure 3. At the temperatures considered, the change in fat content is small relative to the initial 189 without ultrasound application. The creaming capacity in the absence of ultrasound appears to be 190 highest when the milk is preheated to 25 °C for the time frames investigated in this study (5 191 minutes). At 25 °C, the milk fat changes from 3.4 \pm 0.07 % (w/v) fat initially to 3.3 \pm 0.06 % (w/v) in 192 the bottom (-3.4 \pm 0.3 % relative change) and 3.9 \pm 0.09 % (w/v) fat in the top (13.6 \pm 0.4 % relative 193 change).

In the absence of ultrasound, Stokes' law (Eq. 1) can be used to predict the rising speed of individual fat globules. An important factor, independent of temperature, is the particle size distribution. Larger particles rise faster, and hence result in faster observed creaming rates if they are present in greater numbers in the milk. Milk fat globules can flocculate into larger entities when they come into contact, further enhancing their rise speed and hence creaming rate. The flocculation behaviour when milk creams naturally is facilitated by mechanisms that are dependent on the temperature[8].

Natural creaming of fat by gravity separation is influenced by the agglutination process, which at the same time is influenced by the bulk temperature in the milk. Agglutination is the process whereby immunoglobulins present in the milk will promote the flocculation of globules as they come into contact with one another, enhancing their effective size. At low temperature, the agglutinin will be attached to fat globules, whereas at high temperature, it will be in the medium[8]. Hence, separation may become less effective with higher temperatures as the agglutinin detaches from the surface of globules and possibly even denatures if high enough in temperature[7]. It has been shown
by Caplan et al.[7] that temperatures in excess of 77 °C impair the ability of fat to separate naturally
by gravity separation.

209 The data for density and viscosity parameters across a range of temperatures from Mulder and 210 Walstra [8] is shown in Table 1. As can be gauged from the values in Table 1, it is expected that fat 211 separation will occur faster with increasing temperature. Higher temperatures will increase the terminal velocity (fat globule rise speed) and hence rate of separation of milk fat, largely because the 212 213 density difference between the fat and the surrounding medium increases with temperature. This 214 behaviour is well known and has recently been reported by Ma and Barbano[5], although at 215 different temperatures (4 °C and 15 °C) to our study and much longer separation times (>2 hours). The separation at 40 °C in the absence of ultrasound is not as effective compared with 25 °C for the 216 217 time frames considered in this present study, likely due to the agglutinin being moved from the surface of the fat globules to the bulk phase at higher temperature. 218

219

3.2.2. Ultrasonic assisted creaming

220 The application of ultrasound (Figure 3) results in significantly improved fat separation (p<0.05) compared with the controls at the preheated temperatures of 25 °C and 40 °C, for both 600 kHz and 221 1 MHz frequency, after 5 minutes sonication. Interestingly, at 5 °C (without preheating) only the 600 222 223 kHz frequency ultrasound resulted in significantly more effective separation compared with the 224 control for the sample obtained from the top. A change from initially 3.4 ± 0.02 % (w/v) fat to 3.3 % 225 (w/v) fat) in the skim layer (-5.1 ± 1.2 % relative change) and increase to 6.0 ± 1.4 % (w/v) fat in the 226 top layer ($122 \pm 46\%$ relative change) is observed when applying 600 kHz ultrasound, compared with 227 a change from $3.58 \pm 0.07 \%$ (w/v) fat to $3.56 \pm 0.02 \%$ (w/v) fat in the bottom (-0.6 ±1.0% relative 228 change) and increase to $3.61 \pm 0.04 \%$ (w/v) fat in the top ($1.0 \pm 0.6\%$ relative change) when using 1 229 MHz ultrasound at 5 °C. A likely reason for this is due to the higher energy input rate of the 600 kHz 230 (700 W) compared to the 1 MHz (343 W) which, from Figure 2, causes a higher temperature 231 increase.

As reported by Leong et al.[4], when raw milk with a starting temperature of ~4-8 °C was treated with ultrasound, a threshold specific energy input of 100 kJ/kg of energy was required when using 1 MHz ultrasound, before observation of rapid fat separation was observed. By comparison, the specific energy input to the system in the low temperature experiments is 93 kJ/kg and 175 kJ/kg after 5 minutes for the 1 MHz and 600 kHz frequencies respectively. Hence, a possible reason to explain this observation is because the threshold specific energy is reached sooner with applicationof 600 kHz due to the higher energy input of the transducer.

239 With preheating to 25 °C, the 1 MHz frequency ultrasound appears to offer more rapid fat depletion 240 of the bottoms at a rate of ~5.0 g/min from 3.5 ± 0.06 % (w/v) fat to a concentration of 1.6 % (w/v) 241 and enrichment of fat to a cream layer with a concentration of 9.9 % (w/v) fat, after 5 minutes 242 processing. This corresponds to a relative change of -52.8 ± 2.3 % and 184.9 ± 33.2 % in the bottom and top respectively. The bottom fraction separated by 600 kHz ultrasound was also significantly 243 244 improved (P<0.05) compared to the control by preheating to 25 °C, although less so compared to the 1 MHz ultrasound. In this case, a change from 3.4 ± 0.004 % (w/v) fat initially to 2.9 ± 0.16 % (w/v) 245 246 fat (-15.1 ± 4.7 % relative change) in the bottom was observed. The top fraction observed an 247 increase in fat to 4.3 \pm 0.42 % (w/v) fat (26.4 \pm 12.6 % relative change) which is not significant 248 (p<0.05) relative to the control).

Preheating the milk to 40 °C also improved the separation rate of fat from milk compared with the sonication at low temperature for both the ultrasound frequencies considered. However, the rate at which the separation occurred was (significantly, P<0.05) less compared with preheating to 25 °C when using the 1 MHz frequency ultrasound.

253

Values of the acoustic contrast factor calculated for milk using Eq. 2 at various temperatures from 254 available density data reported by Mulder and Walstra[8] are shown in Table 1. At temperatures 255 256 above 40 °C, the milk fat also becomes mostly liquid meaning that the fat globules become slightly 257 more compressible relative to its surroundings. The increase in density difference and 258 compressibility also increase the magnitude of the acoustic contrast factor as per Eq. 2. If we 259 compare the values for 5 °C (2.72, -0.289) and 40 °C (12.41, -0.406), we can observe that there is an increase in the magnitude by 4.5 and 1.4 times for the density and acoustic contrast factor, 260 respectively. This means that the primary radiation force will, according to theory, increase at higher 261 temperature, therefore promoting faster separation. The results obtained are interesting because, 262 263 despite this, the fat separation is not significantly more effective at the elevated preheating 264 temperature of 40 °C compared with preheating to 25 °C.

3.3. Particle size distributions

The volume weighted mean diameter (D[4,3]) of controls (non-insonated) samples collected before the 5 min period was $4.4 \pm 0.03 \mu$ m, $4.5 \pm 0.06 \mu$ m and $4.3 \pm 0.07 \mu$ m for 5 °C, 25 °C and 40 °C respectively, and did not change significantly (P>0.05) when held for 5 minutes at 5 °C and 40 °C (Fig. 4). However, particle size significantly changed (P<0.05) in milk held at 25 °C after 5 min (Fig. 4) to 4.62 \pm 0.05 μ m for sample collected at the top. This again confirms that the natural separation rate for the time frames considered (5 minutes) in this study is fastest when the milk was preheated to 25 °C.

273 Ultrasonic treatment at 5 °C with either 600 kHz or 1 MHz transducers, showed small change 274 (significant relative to control, p<0.05) after 5 min sonication (Fig. 4). For 600 kHz ultrasound, mean 275 D[4,3] values changed from $4.5 \pm 0.15 \mu$ m initially to $4.4 \pm 0.19 \mu$ m in the bottom and $4.7 \pm 0.09 \mu$ m 276 in the top, whilst for 1 MHz ultrasound values changed from $4.36 \pm 0.03 \mu$ m initially to 4.39 ± 0.04 in 277 the bottom and $4.44 \pm 0.11 \mu$ m in the top.

278 Ultrasound separation with preheating to either 25 °C or 40 °C however, lead to a larger shift to the D[4,3] values of the top and bottom products compared with the initial product after 5 minutes 279 280 sonication (Fig. 4). This is again most prominent for the 1 MHz frequency after preheating to 25 °C; under these conditions, a statistically significant shift of the D[4,3] from 4.5 \pm 0.06 μ m to 4.0 \pm 0.05 281 282 μ m in the samples taken from the bottom (10.8 \pm 0.7 % relative change) and 4.9 \pm 0.08 μ m in the 283 top product (8.3 \pm 1.0 % relative change) is observed. With preheating to 40 °C, the 1 MHz frequency 284 application results in a change from 4.5 \pm 0.07 μ m to 4.1 \pm 0.07 μ m in the bottom (-8.4 \pm 1.6 % 285 relative change) and 4.8 \pm 0.12 μ m in the top (6.0 \pm 1.5 % relative change).

Application of 600 kHz ultrasound after preheating milk to 25 °C resulted in a D[4,3] change from 4.6 $\pm 0.02 \ \mu$ m initially to 4.4 $\pm 0.04 \ \mu$ m in the bottom (-5.0 $\pm 0.9 \ \%$ relative change) and 4.7 $\pm 0.09 \ \mu$ m in the top (3.0 $\pm 1.6 \ \%$ relative change), which are significantly less (p<0.05) compared with separation using 1 MHz ultrasound at the same preheating temperature. With milk preheated to 40 °C, D[4,3] values changed from 4.4 $\pm 0.08 \ \mu$ m initially to 4.2 $\pm 0.13 \ \mu$ m in the bottom (-6.0 $\pm 1.2 \ \%$ relative change) to 4.5 $\pm 0.02 \ \mu$ m in the top (2.4 $\pm 1.4 \ \%$ relative change).

292 A comparison of the particle size distributions measured for the control and processed samples after 293 25 °C preheating is shown in Figure 5. As can be seen, the 1 MHz ultrasound is able to achieve high 294 differentiation in the particle size distributions to the top and bottom samples after processing for 5 295 minutes. By comparison, the lower frequency 600 kHz is not as effective even though the power 296 draw (and specific energy input) over the 5 minute duration is approximately double the 1 MHz frequency. The likely reason for this is because the lower frequency ultrasound generates a smaller 297 298 acoustic force, and hence is not as efficient or as selective in moving the fat globules to the pressure 299 anti-nodes under these conditions. These results indicate that the 1 MHz ultrasound (with preheating to 25 °C) studied resulted in the most rapid and hence selective removal of the fat globules after ultrasound application that leads to skimmed samples with proportionally higher amounts of small fat globules, and fat enriched samples with proportionally higher amounts of large fat globules. The control where no ultrasound is applied sees no observable change.

304 3.4. Role of agglutination

305 The observation that ultrasonic treatment of the milk at temperatures >40 °C is less effective for 306 separation compared with preheating to 25 °C is interesting. A possible reason for this is the role of 307 the agglutinin in the milk fat separation process. The immunoglobulins present in the milk, are 308 known to aid the flocculation process by providing a means for globules which have collided to stick 309 together more strongly[7]. The ultrasound increases the probability of fat globules colliding since 310 they concentrate and accumulate in the anti-nodal planes of the standing wave field. At higher 311 temperature, the influence of the agglutinin in the flocculation process decreases. As noted by 312 Mulder and Walstra[8], the agglutinin is moved to the medium when temperatures are increased.

The role of agglutinin should be most prominent under cold conditions, where it remains attached to the surface of the fat globules. However, this study has shown that the ultrasound-assisted separation proceeds slowest when milk is initially at 5°C, except for when 600 kHz frequency ultrasound is applied.

317

318 4. Conclusion

The preheating of milk to 25 °C or 40 °C prior to ultrasound separation is beneficial to improving the 319 320 efficiency of the separation process. The ability to reduce the time for which milk is exposed to 321 ultrasound separation by operation at an 'optimal' temperature is important for industrial 322 application as it reduces the required residence time of milk inside the ultrasound separation 323 reactor, enabling potentially higher throughput. In this study, it was found that preheating the milk 324 to 25 °C and applying 1 MHz frequency ultrasound resulted in the most rapid and synergistic fat 325 separation than the separation without ultrasound. The 1 MHz ultrasound was also found to be 326 significantly more effective at causing fat separation from the milk compared with the 600 kHz 327 except for when no preheating was employed. It is speculated that effects of temperature may include alterations to globule ductility as the transition from solid to liquid progresses with 328 329 temperature, in turn affecting agglutination. It is also possible that sonochemical modifications to

the immunoglobulins may occur. Further investigation to test hypotheses based on thesespeculations would be warranted in future studies.

332

333 Acknowledgements

- 334 The authors would like to acknowledge the Australian Research Council (LP110200499) and the
- 335 Geoffrey Gardiner Dairy Foundation for providing the funding for this research.

336 **Table captions**

- 337 Table 1: Density and viscosity parameters as a function of temperature obtained from Mulder and
- 338 Walstra[8]. The data for ρ_p are estimates assuming super cooling in fat crystallization.

339

340 Figure captions

- Figure 1: a) Photograph of experimental set-up used for experiments b) Schematic diagram ofexperimental set-up.
- 343 Figure 2: Temperature change of the processed milk with time for a) 600 kHz and b) 1 MHz
- 344 frequency ultrasound processing. Error bars are the standard deviation from a minimum of 4
- 345 experimental trials.
- 346 Figure 3: Percentage change in fat concentration relative to initial sample after 5 minutes without
- 347 ultrasound processing (control) and with ultrasound processing using 600 kHz and 1 MHz frequency
- for a) top and b) bottom samples. Error bars are the standard error of a minimum of 4 replicated
- 349 trials.
- 350 Figure 4: Percentage change in volume weighted mean diameters (D[4,3]) relative to initial sample of
- 351 milk for collected samples of initial and 5 minutes ultrasound processed samples from the a) top and
- b) bottom fractions of the milk for no preheating (5 °C sample), preheating to 25 °C and preheating
- to 40 °C. The error bars are the standard error of a minimum of 4 trials replicated under identical
- 354 conditions.
- Figure 5: Particle size distributions with 25 °C preheating prior to 5 minutes of ultrasonic processing for a) control (no ultrasound) b) 1 MHz ultrasound and c) 600 kHz ultrasound.

357

358

359 **5. References**

360

361 [1] T. Leong, L. Johansson, P. Juliano, S.L. McArthur, R. Manasseh, Ultrasonic Separation of

- Particulate Fluids in Small and Large Scale Systems: A Review, Industrial & Engineering ChemistryResearch, (2013).
- 364 [2] P. Juliano, A. Kutter, L.J. Cheng, P. Swiergon, R. Mawson, M.A. Augustin, Enhanced creaming of
- 365 milk fat globules in milk emulsions by the application of ultrasound and detection by means of 366 optical methods, Ultrason Sonochem, 18 (2011) 963-973.
- 367 [3] P. Juliano, S. Temmel, M. Rout, P. Swiergon, R. Mawson, K. Knoerzer, Creaming enhancement in a
 368 liter scale ultrasonic reactor at selected transducer configurations and frequencies, Ultrason
 369 Sonochem, 20 (2013) 52-62.
- 370 [4] T. Leong, L. Johansson, P. Juliano, R. Mawson, S. McArthur, R. Manasseh, Design parameters for
- the separation of fat from natural whole milk in an ultrasonic litre-scale vessel, Ultrason Sonochem,
 (2014).
- 373 [5] Y. Ma, D. Barbano, Gravity separation of raw bovine milk: fat globule size distribution and fat
- content of milk fractions, Journal of dairy science, 83 (2000) 1719-1727.
- 375 [6] H. Lamb, R. Caflisch, Hydrodynamics, Cambridge University Press, 1993.
- [7] Z. Caplan, C. Melilli, D. Barbano, Gravity separation of fat, somatic cells, and bacteria in raw and
 pasteurized milks, J. Dairy Sci., (2013).
- [8] H. Mulder, P. Walstra, The milk fat globule: Emulsion science as applied to milk products and
 comparable foods, Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux, Belfast, 1974.
- [9] K. Yosioka, Y. Kawasima, Acoustic radiation pressure on a compressible sphere, Acustica, 5 (1955)167.
- 382 [10] P.R. Gogate, V.S. Sutkar, A.B. Pandit, Sonochemical reactors: important design and scale up
- considerations with a special emphasis on heterogeneous systems, Chem Eng J, 166 (2011) 1066-1082.
- 385 [11] M. Ashokkumar, D. Sunartio, S. Kentish, R. Mawson, L. Simons, K. Vilkhu, C. Versteeg,
- 386 Modification of food ingredients by ultrasound to improve functionality: A preliminary study on a 387 model system, Innov Food Sci Emerg, 9 (2008) 155-160.
- 388 [12] S. Koda, T. Kimura, T. Kondo, H. Mitome, A standard method to calibrate sonochemical
- efficiency of an individual reaction system, Ultrason Sonochem, 10 (2003) 149-156.
- 390 [13] M. Villamiel, P. de Jong, Influence of high-intensity ultrasound and heat treatment in continuous
- flow on fat, proteins, and native enzymes of milk, J Agr Food Chem, 48 (2000) 472-478.
- [14] M. Taylor, T. Richardson, Antioxidant activity of skim milk: effect of sonication, J. Dairy Sci., 63
 (1980) 1938-1942.
- 394 [15] J. Chandrapala, B. Zisu, M. Palmer, S. Kentish, M. Ashokkumar, Effects of ultrasound on the
- thermal and structural characteristics of proteins in reconstituted whey protein concentrate,Ultrason Sonochem, 18 (2011) 951-957.
- 397 [16] 996.06 AOAC Official Method Fat (total, saturated and unsaturated) in foods, in, 2001.
- 398 [17] M.-C. Michalski, F. Michel, D. Sainmont, V. Briard, Apparent ζ-potential as a tool to assess
- mechanical damages to the milk fat globule membrane, Colloid Surface B, 23 (2002) 23-30.
- 400 [18] A.E. Torkamani, P. Juliano, S. Ajlouni, T.K. Singh, Impact of ultrasound treatment on lipid
- 401 oxidation of Cheddar cheese whey, Ultrason Sonochem, (2013).
- 402 [19] T.G. Leighton, The Acoustic Bubble, Academic Press, San Diego, 1994.
- 403 [20] T. Mason, J. Lorimer, D. Bates, Y. Zhao, Dosimetry in sonochemistry: the use of aqueous
- 404 terephthalate ion as a fluorescence monitor, Ultrason Sonochem, 1 (1994) S91-S95.
- 405 [21] H. Lindmark-Månsson, B. Åkesson, Antioxidative factors in milk, Brit J Nutr, 84 (2000) 103-110.

406

<i>Т</i> (°С)	$\boldsymbol{\rho}_m$	$ ho_p$	η _m	$(\rho_m - \rho_p)$	β_m	β_p	φ
	(kg/m ³)	(kg/m ³)	(poise)	η_m	(m²/N)	(m ² /N)	
5	1.0359	0.959	0.0283	2.72	4.40 x 10 ¹⁰	5.32 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.289
10	1.0352	0.951	0.0235	3.58	4.40 x 10 ¹⁰	5.36 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.306
15	1.0344	0.938	0.0199	4.84	4.40 x 10 ¹⁰	5.44 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.335
20	1.0333	0.916	0.0168	6.98	4.41 x 10 ¹⁰	5.57 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.387
25	1.0319	0.912	0.0144	8.33	4.41 x 10 ¹⁰	5.59 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.394
30	1.0300	0.909	0.0126	9.60	4.42 x 10 ¹⁰	5.61 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.397
40	1.0261	0.902	0.0100	12.41	4.44 x 10 ¹⁰	5.66 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.406
50	1.0198	0.895	0.0082	15.22	4.46 x 10 ¹⁰	5.70 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.410
60	1.0166	0.889	0.0069	18.49	4.48 x 10 ¹⁰	5.74 x 10 ¹⁰	-0.418

Table 1: Density and viscosity parameters as a function of temperature obtained from Mulder and Walstra[8]. The data for ρ_p are estimates assuming super cooling in fat crystallization.



Figure 1: a) Photograph of experimental set-up used for experiments b) Schematic diagram of experimental set-up.



Figure 2: Temperature change of the processed milk with time for a) 600 kHz and b) 1 MHz frequency ultrasound processing. Error bars are the standard deviation from a minimum of 4 experimental trials.



Figure 3: Percentage change in fat concentration relative to initial sample after 5 minutes without ultrasound processing (control) and with ultrasound processing using 600 kHz and 1 MHz frequency for a) top and b) bottom samples. Error bars are the standard error of a minimum of 4 replicated trials.



Figure 4: Percentage change in volume weighted mean diameters (D[4,3]) relative to initial sample of milk for collected samples of initial and 5 minutes ultrasound processed samples from the a) top and b) bottom fractions of the milk for no preheating (5 °C sample), preheating to 25 °C and preheating to 40 °C. The error bars are the standard error of a minimum of 4 trials replicated under identical conditions.



Figure 5: Particle size distributions with 25 °C preheating prior to 5 minutes of ultrasonic processing for a) control (no ultrasound) b) 1 MHz ultrasound and c) 600 kHz ultrasound.