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The use of dissolved carbon dioxide to extend the shelf-life of dairy products

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18.1 Introduction: factors limiting the shelf-life of dairy products

The shelf-life of refrigerated dairy products is limited to 1 to 3 weeks (Muir, 1996). A number of factors contribute to this limited shelf-life: microbial quality of the raw milk (Muir, 1996), bacterial enzymes (Champagne *et al.*, 1994), thermal processing conditions (Lewis, 1999), and distribution/storage temperatures (Henyon, 1999). Carbon dioxide (CO₂) can be used to influence these factors and improve the quality of a variety of dairy products. Growth and metabolism of a wide range of bacteria (Dixon and Kell, 1989), particularly those found in the dairy processing environment (Roberts and Torrey, 1988; Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996), are inhibited in the presence of added CO₂. Combined inhibitory effects of CO₂ and other preservation techniques (refrigeration, pasteurisation or high barrier packaging) on bacterial growth and survival have been demonstrated.

18.2 The effects of CO₂ on bacterial growth

When CO₂ is dissolved in an aqueous medium it can retard the growth of Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms. The magnitude of the effect on the different phases of growth depends upon the organism (see Table 18.1). For example, the lag phase of growth for *Pseudomonas fluorescens* increases with increasing concentrations of CO₂ (Fig. 18.1) (Hendricks and Hotchkiss, 1997). Other organisms are similarly affected but to different degrees: *Listeria monocytogenes* (Hendricks and Hotchkiss, 1997; Fernandez *et al.*, 1997),

Table 18.1 Effects of CO₂ on bacterial growth (measured by conductance) described with the Gompertz model (adapted from Martin *et al.*, 2003)

Organism(s)	[CO ₂] (mM)	R ²	Growth rate (μS/h)	Time to max. growth rate (h)	Max. change in conductance (μS)	Doubling time (h)	Lag time (h)
Raw milk microflora	0.6	1.0	0.200 ^a	26.0 ^a	88.9 ^a	1.8	20.0
	15.4	1.0	0.132 ^b	33.0 ^b	92.2 ^b	2.3	25.4
	27.9	1.0	0.135 ^c	40.2 ^c	98.0 ^c	2.2	32.8
	38.6	0.99	0.133 ^d	44.3 ^d	80.5 ^d	2.3	37.7
	44.5	1.0	0.113 ^e	52.9 ^e	87.9 ^e	2.7	44.1
<i>P. fluorescens</i>	0.4	0.99	0.112 ^a	11.7 ^a	78.2 ^a	2.7	3.3
	11.2	0.99	0.128 ^b	21.1 ^b	69.2 ^b	2.4	13.3
	27.1	0.99	0.130 ^b	22.7 ^c	59.9 ^c	2.3	15.0
	33.6	0.99	0.088 ^c	27.3 ^d	61.9 ^d	3.4	16.0
	46.3	0.99	0.088 ^c	37.5 ^e	65.6 ^e	3.4	26.1
<i>E. coli</i>	0.5	0.99	0.064 ^a	47.6 ^a	56.0 ^a	4.7	29.4
	49.4	0.97	0.055 ^b	53.8 ^b	22.0 ^b	5.5	38.1
<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	0.5	0.98	0.136 ^a	22.6 ^a	118.0 ^a	2.2	15.2
	48.9	0.99	0.100 ^b	44.4 ^b	71.5 ^b	3.0	34.4
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	0.5	0.99	0.055 ^a	51.8 ^a	69.0 ^a	5.5	33.6
	51	0.98	0.076 ^b	50.7 ^b	40.7 ^b	4.0	37.6
<i>B. cereus</i>	0.5	1.00	0.128 ^a	33.9 ^a	79.3 ^a	2.4	26.1
	47.1	0.99	0.105 ^b	37.6 ^b	77.9 ^b	2.9	28.1
	61.4	0.99	0.057 ^c	44.4 ^c	74.8 ^c	5.3	26.7
<i>B. licheniformis</i>	0.5	0.99	0.057 ^a	48.4 ^a	51.4 ^a	5.3	30.9
	49.4	0.96	0.057 ^a	54.1 ^b	31.2 ^b	5.2	36.7

^{a-c} For each organism, different superscript letters denote that parameters are statistically different from each other ($\alpha = 0.05$).

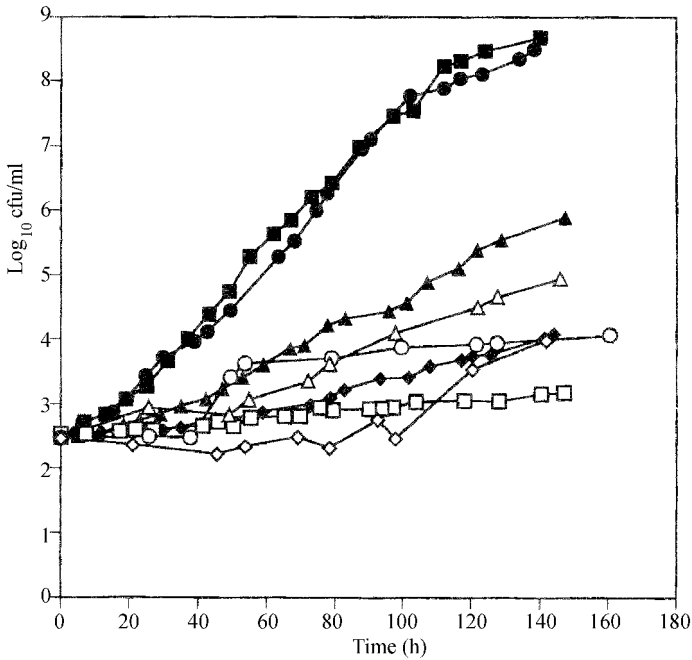


Fig. 18.1 Effects of CO₂ concentrations in modified atmospheres on growth of *Pseudomonas fluorescens* in media at 7.5°C. O₂/CO₂/N₂: 20/0/80 ■; 20/5/75 ●; 20/20/60 ▲; 20/40/40 ◆; 20/80/0 □; 10/30/60 ○; 20/30/50 △; 40/30/30 ◇ (Hendricks and Hotchkiss, 1997, with permission).

Escherichia coli (Martin *et al.*, 2003), *Bacillus licheniformis* (Martin *et al.*, 2003), SPC, and milk-borne psychrotrophs (Roberts and Torrey, 1988).

The log phase of growth is also altered by CO₂. An atmosphere containing 70% CO₂ doubled the generation time of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* when grown in defined media at 24°C compared to controls grown in the presence of air (King and Nagel, 1967). The maximum specific growth rate (per hour) of *Bacillus cereus*, in broth, decreased from 0.46 at 0.0 atm CO₂ pressure to 0.37, 0.13, and 0.0 (no growth) at 0.5, 2.0, and 3.0 atm CO₂ respectively (Enfors and Molin, 1980). A simultaneous increase in the lag phase and decrease in the growth rate due to CO₂ has been demonstrated in experimental growth medium for *P. fluorescens* (Devlieghere *et al.*, 1998a) and in UHT milk for *L. monocytogenes* (Martin *et al.*, 2003).

The growth of fungi is also inhibited by CO₂ (McIntyre and McNeil, 1998). Inhibitory effects of CO₂ on the growth of yeast and moulds in dairy products have been demonstrated (Alves *et al.*, 1996; Choi and Kosikowski, 1985; Eliot *et al.*, 1998). The growth of anaerobes in media (Reilly, 1980) and milk (Roberts and Torrey, 1988) are inhibited in the presence of CO₂.

18.2.1 Effects of CO₂ on spores

Carbon dioxide affects spore germination in laboratory media (Hambleton and Rigby, 1970). *Clostridia* species germinate at a faster rate in the presence of CO₂ (Foegeding and Busta, 1983) in peptone yeast extract broth, but germination of *B. cereus* spores in phosphate buffer is inhibited (Enfors and Molin, 1978b). Even different strains respond differently to CO₂. In milk treated with CO₂ to a pH of 5.86 activation of *B. cereus* spores was increased by 26% while *B. cereus* var. *mycoides* was not activated by the CO₂ (Guirguis *et al.*, 1984).

Carbon dioxide (11.9 mM) dissolved in sterile milk packaged in glass jars and stored at 6°C for 35 days had no effect on the germination and outgrowth of *B. cereus* spores (Werner and Hotchkiss, 2002). It is suggested that moderate concentrations of CO₂ will not increase the risk of *B. cereus* spores growing in milk stored for extended periods of time.

Concerns with the possibility of *Clostridium botulinum* germination, outgrowth and toxin production in CO₂-treated milk prompted researchers to measure toxin production in milk inoculated with *C. botulinum* spores (Glass *et al.*, 1999). After a heat shock treatment, a cocktail of proteolytic and nonproteolytic strains of *C. botulinum* spores was inoculated into pasteurised milk containing 9.1 and 18.2 mM CO₂ or no added CO₂ (control) and stored for 6 days at abusive temperatures (21°C) and for 60 days at 6°C. Controls and CO₂-treated milks stored at 21°C were grossly spoiled (SPC reaching 10⁷ cfu/ml) at day 2 before *botulinum* toxin was detectable. Milk stored at 6°C, regardless of treatment, did not contain toxin over the 60-day storage period, leading to the conclusion that dissolved CO₂ as high as 18.2 mM in milk does not increase the risk of botulism.

18.2.2 Effects of CO₂ on enzyme production and activity in milk

The effects of CO₂ on extracellular enzyme production by *P. fluorescens* in a simulated milk medium have been reported (Rowe, 1988). Carbon dioxide dissolved at 30 mM resulted in a 50% reduction in protease production at 7°C. After 5 days, lipase production was 85% greater in controls than in CO₂-treated milk. This may have something to do with the increased solubility of CO₂ in lipids. More recently Habulin and Knez demonstrated that supercritical CO₂ (100 bar) can also significantly decrease the activity of a *P. fluorescens* lipase by 50% (Habulin and Knez, 2001).

18.2.3 Inhibitory mechanisms of CO₂

The direct and indirect mechanisms by which CO₂ affects microbial growth and metabolism are not entirely clear even though the topic has been studied in detail (Daniels *et al.*, 1985; Dixon and Kell, 1989; McIntyre and McNeil, 1998; Stretton and Goodman, 1998). Four major theories on the inhibitory mechanism of CO₂ have been proposed:

1. Solubility of CO₂ in lipids may adversely affect membrane stability (Nilsson *et al.*, 2000; Ballestra *et al.*, 1996).

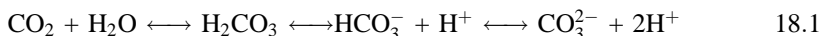
2. Hydration reactions of CO₂ result in reduced pH creating intracellular and environmental stress (Wolfe, 1980).
3. As a metabolite in many biochemical pathways, CO₂ can cause futile expenditure of cell energy (Dixon *et al.*, 1987).
4. CO₂ can cause physiochemical alteration and regulation of enzymes (King and Nagel, 1975; Pichard *et al.*, 1984).

Depending upon the growth medium, the organism, and its physiological state, a combination of these mechanisms is probably responsible for the observed effects.

It has been demonstrated that O₂ displacement is not the only inhibitory mechanism affecting growth (Enfors and Molin, 1980; King and Nagel, 1967). For example, when O₂ concentrations are kept constant the lag phase for *P. fluorescens* increases as CO₂ concentration increases (Hendricks and Hotchkiss, 1997) (Fig. 18.1). The inhibitory effect of CO₂ on anaerobes (Reilly, 1980) supports these conclusions.

The significance of solubility

Carbon dioxide must first dissolve to have an inhibitory effect on microorganisms. When the gas dissolves into an aqueous environment a series of hydration reactions occur (equation 18.1):



Upon solvating, CO₂ forms carbonic acid, which dissociates to form the bicarbonate anion and H⁺. Carbon dioxide and the H⁺ ions are largely responsible for the inhibitory mechanisms mentioned above; however, bicarbonate and carbonate ions have also been shown to have an inhibitory effect (Diez-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2000; Corral *et al.*, 1988).

The equilibrium of the reaction (equation 18.1) will be determined by the pH of the aqueous phase. At lower pH, the reaction will be pushed to the left. Therefore the pH of the medium in which the CO₂ is dissolved or its buffering capacity may affect the mechanism that is at work.

Carbon dioxide molecules are nonpolar and therefore more soluble in lipids than in water. When CO₂ comes into contact with a bacterial membrane it will prefer to dissolve into the lipid bilayer. In doing this, CO₂ increases the fluidity of the membrane (Sears and Eisenberg, 1961; Nilsson *et al.*, 2000) and exposes the cytoplasm of the cell to its toxic environment. Depending upon concentration and pressures, some CO₂ will eventually solubilise in the cytoplasm, which is an aqueous environment with a neutral pH. These conditions will permit the reduction in the pH of the cytoplasm and a change in the pH gradient that will stress the cell.

The mechanism by which CO₂ affects spores is not clear. Spores have a thin membrane embedded beneath a series of protein coats. These coats are porous (Setlow and Johnson, 1997) and it may be that CO₂ solubilises within the spore membrane, rendering the spore more sensitive to environmental stress such as

heat either by triggering germination or by increasing the fluidity of the membrane (Enfors and Molin, 1978a).

The effects of CO₂ on phenotypic characteristics of microorganisms suggest that there are changes in gene expression due to CO₂ levels in the environment. Stretton and Goodman (1998) have reviewed the literature describing the effects of CO₂ on gene expression in a wide range of microorganisms. It is proposed that CO₂ as a ubiquitous environmental signal is part of a global regulatory system.

The inhibitory effect of CO₂ is also dependent upon temperature, as it is more soluble at lower temperatures (Tomasula and Boswell, 1999). The effect of temperature on CO₂ solubility and its inhibitory effect on the growth rate of *Lactobacillus sake* demonstrated that growth rates in laboratory media are inversely correlated with CO₂ solubility (Devlieghere *et al.*, 1998b). Carbon dioxide is soluble in milk even at temperatures of 38°C (Ma *et al.*, 2001) and therefore can be added and retained in refrigerated products during storage and distribution.

18.3 The effects of CO₂ on raw milk quality

The inhibitory effect of dissolved CO₂ and storage temperature on total plate counts (TPC), psychrotrophic plate counts (PPC), coliforms, anaerobic plate counts, lactobacilli and *Bacillus* spp. have been demonstrated. The effects of CO₂ on spores and their outgrowth have been studied to a lesser extent. Different species and strains have varying resistance to CO₂. Physiochemical changes in the raw milk resulting from dissolved CO₂ have been observed to be minimal or reversible depending upon the concentrations added.

18.3.1 Standard plate counts

Carbon dioxide dissolved in refrigerated (4–7°C) raw milk can reduce the growth of TPC organisms by 1–1.5 log compared to untreated controls that do not contain added CO₂ (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996, 1998b). The growth of spoilage organisms in raw milk of both good and poor quality can be slowed with the addition of CO₂ (Espie and Madden, 1997; Roberts and Torrey, 1988). For example, raw milk stored at 4°C with high (1.6×10^5 cfu/ml) and low (7.8×10^3 cfu/ml) initial TPC prior to CO₂ addition (30 mM) remained below 10^6 cfu/ml for an additional 2.2 days and >3 days respectively compared to controls (King and Mabbitt, 1982). Aerobic plate count organisms in raw milk stored at 7°C had an increased lag phase (72 h) in the presence of 25–27 mM CO₂ compared to controls (24 h) (Roberts and Torrey, 1988).

18.3.2 Psychrotrophs

Psychrotrophs in raw milk are sensitive to CO₂ (King and Mabbitt, 1982; Sierra *et al.*, 1996). For example, after 6 days of storage at 7°C raw milk containing 25

mM CO₂ had 3.4 log cfu/ml fewer psychrotrophs compared to controls (Roberts and Torrey, 1988). The lag phase of psychrotrophs in raw milk stored at 4°C was 6 days in the presence of 30 mM CO₂ compared to 2 days in untreated milk (King and Mabbitt, 1982).

Some researchers have not measured CO₂ concentrations directly but instead have looked at the effects of pH reduction due to CO₂ addition on PPC. Reducing the pH from 6.8 to 6.0 held the PPC to 5.89 log cfu/ml after 4 days' storage at 7°C, compared to controls that had 7.30 log cfu/ml (Sierra *et al.*, 1996). The same pH reduction reduced lipolytic PPC by approx 1 log cfu/ml after 4 days at 4°C compared to controls that had reached 3.5 log cfu/ml (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996). This bactericidal effect of CO₂ on lipolytic psychrotrophs was not discussed. Nonpolar characteristics of CO₂ allow it to be more soluble in the lipid fraction. It is possible that higher concentrations in the milk fat rendered this particular carbon source inaccessible to the lipolytic psychrotrophs, putting them at a disadvantage compared to the other microbial populations.

18.3.3 Coliforms

Growth of coliforms in raw milk is inhibited by CO₂. After 4 days' storage at 4°C raw milk acidified to pH 6.0 with CO₂ had coliform counts of 2.5 log cfu/ml compared to untreated controls that had 3.5 log cfu/ml (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996). The greater the amount of CO₂ dissolved in raw milk the greater the magnitude of inhibition. For example, raw milk containing 45 mM CO₂ stored at 6°C for 6 days had 4.7 log cfu/ml coliforms compared to controls that had 7 log cfu/ml (Espie and Madden, 1997). Milk containing lower levels of CO₂ (25–28 mM) and stored at a slightly higher temperature (7°C) for 6 days inhibited coliform growth by 1–1.5 log cfu/ml compared to controls (Roberts and Torrey, 1988).

18.3.4 Anaerobes

Carbon dioxide has an inhibitory effect on anaerobically grown microorganisms (Enfors and Molin, 1980). Raw milk containing 26.5 mM CO₂ stored at 7°C for 6 days had 5.7 log cfu/ml anaerobic counts compared to 8.5 cfu/ml in controls (Roberts and Torrey, 1988).

18.3.5 *Pseudomonas* species

Pseudomonas species, in general, are significantly inhibited by CO₂ (Roberts and Torrey, 1988; King and Mabbitt, 1982). Counts of pseudomonads were 3 log cycles lower in raw milk containing 30 mM CO₂ stored at 4°C for 4 days compared to controls (Espie and Madden, 1997).

18.3.6 Biochemical and physical changes in raw milk due to CO₂ addition

The biochemical effects of CO₂ on raw milk have been studied. Carbon dioxide does not alter the stability of fat-soluble vitamins in raw milk stored at 7°C for seven days (Sierra *et al.*, 1996). Organic acid profiles and the casein and whey

protein ratios in refrigerated (4°C) raw milk were unaltered by CO₂ addition that reduced the pH to 6.0 (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996). High-temperature short-time (HTST) treatments of raw milk, post-CO₂ removal, did not alter the protein ratios or composition of volatile compounds (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1996) compared to untreated controls. Standard analytical tests such as alkaline phosphatase detection, freezing point, pH, antibiotic tests, and FTIR to measure fat, protein, and lactose, were performed in raw milk with and without CO₂ (Ma *et al.*, 2001). Alkaline phosphatase and antibiotic tests were unaltered due to CO₂ addition. Fat and protein content as measured by FTIR were also unaltered. An absorbance increase in the lactose wavelengths due to CO₂ was measured. The reduction of pH due to CO₂ (Fig. 18.2) was noted to be the likely cause of the concurrent reduction in freezing point of raw milk with added CO₂. Reductions in pH cause a dissociation of casein micelles, resulting in a release of calcium and phosphate salts into the aqueous portion (Gevaudan *et al.*, 1996). This increase in solutes likely causes the linear decrease in freezing point (FP) from 0.55°Hortvet (°H) in raw milk without added CO₂ to 0.59°H in milk containing 1000 ppm CO₂ (FP = -0.5434 - 0.0000510 × [CO₂] (ppm); R² = 0.98) (Ma *et al.*, 2001).

Destabilisation of the casein micelle due to CO₂ addition may be of concern with respect to increased fouling on plate heat exchangers during thermal processing. It is known that decreasing the pH of milk during thermal treatment can increase the amount of fouling (Patil and Reuter, 1988; Skudder *et al.*, 1986) and CO₂ acidification of milk could cause an increase in scaling on the heat

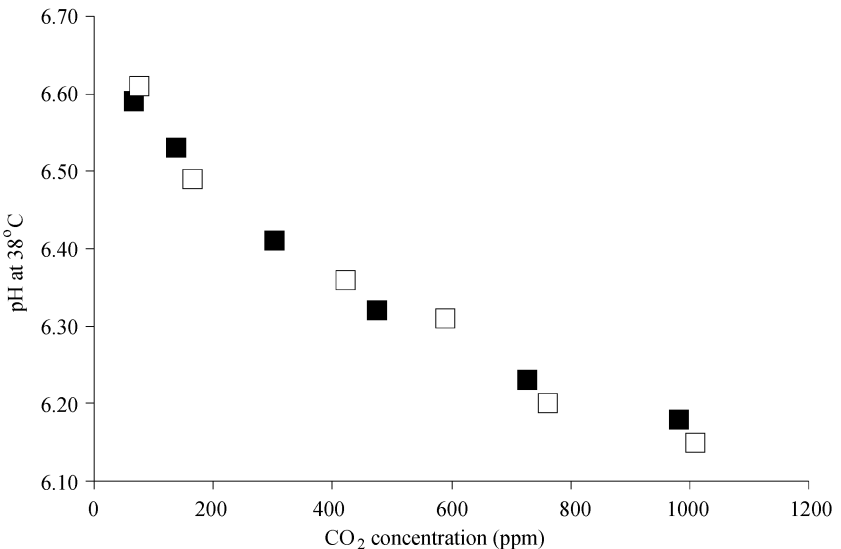


Fig. 18.2 Effect of dissolved CO₂ on pH of raw milk (38°C) from two different farms (distinguished by open and closed symbols) (Ma *et al.*, 2001, with permission).

exchangers (Calvo and de Rafael, 1995). Twenty litres of raw milk treated with CO₂ sufficient to reduce the pH to 6.0 and heated for 20 s at 80°C formed deposits of mostly protein and minerals on pasteuriser plates. The lipid content of the deposits on heat exchanger plates exposed to the CO₂-treated milk was dramatically lower (45 ± 0.72 g/kg dry matter) than in untreated controls (234 ± 0.79 g/kg dry matter). The concentration of CO₂ dissolved in the milk was not measured. Milk acidified to the same pH with hydrochloric acid completely clogged the pasteuriser (Calvo and de Rafael, 1995).

Recent work (Guillaume *et al.*, 2002) concluded that the effects of acidification of reconstituted milk to pH 5.8 were completely reversible after CO₂ was removed by vacuum treatment. Both the composition and structure of the micellar calcium phosphate were unaltered by CO₂ addition and removal.

18.4 The effects of CO₂ on dairy product quality

Carbon dioxide is 'Generally Recognized As Safe' (GRAS; FDA, 2000). It can be used to extend the shelf-life of a variety of dairy products including concentrated raw milk, pasteurised milk, yogurt, cottage cheese, ice cream mixes, and aged cheeses. For fluid products CO₂ can be directly sparged in-line (DAC) but for cheeses CO₂ is incorporated into a modified atmosphere surrounding the product. Important to both of these approaches is a low CO₂/O₂ permeability of the package barrier.

18.4.1 Concentrated raw milk

Growth of Gram-negative and TPC can be reduced in raw milk that has been concentrated by reverse osmosis (RO) or ultrafiltration (UF) techniques (Hotchkiss, unpublished data). UF whole milk containing 25.3 mM CO₂ had TPC of 10⁵ cfu/ml after 14 days of storage at 7°C, compared to untreated controls that had 10⁸ cfu/ml. RO concentrated whole milk containing 25 mM CO₂ had 10³ and 10⁵ cfu/ml of Gram-negatives and TPC respectively after 7 days compared to 10⁶ cfu/ml for both Gram-negative and TPC in controls.

18.4.2 Fluid milk

Carbon dioxide can improve the microbial quality of milk packaged in paper-board cartons (Duthie, 1985), glass containers (Glass *et al.*, 1999), and plastic pouches (Hotchkiss *et al.*, 1999). Depending upon packaging material and CO₂ concentration, the shelf-life can be increased by as much as 200% (Hotchkiss *et al.*, 1999). Table 18.2 describes the relationship between package barrier permeability, CO₂ concentration in the milk, and microbial growth. Shelf-life, defined as the days to reach 10⁶ cfu/ml, increases as CO₂ concentration increases and package barrier permeability to CO₂ decreases. Shelf-life of milk packaged in a low-barrier film increased by 65% from 9.6 days without added CO₂ to 15.9

Table 18.2 Combined effects of dissolved CO₂ and packaging permeability on shelf-life of milk (adapted from Hotchkiss *et al.*, 1999)

Film permeability ^a	Days at 6.1°C for SPC to reach 10 ⁶ cfu/ml ^b [CO ₂] (mM)			
	0	8.7	14.2	21.5
3801	9.6	11.8	12.5	15.9
2040	–	9.9	14.0	14.6
110	–	13.4	18.4	19.6
<0.5	–	13.3	19.1	19.1

^a (cm³/m²/24 h at 7°C).^b Initial counts = 1 cfu/ml.

days at 21.5 mM CO₂. Milk packaged in higher-barrier films had a shelf-life of 19 days (Hotchkiss *et al.*, 1999).

The growth of psychrotrophs (Duthie, 1985), pseudomonads (Hotchkiss *et al.*, 1999; King and Mabbitt, 1982; Shipe *et al.*, 1982), and SPC (Glass *et al.*, 1999) is inhibited in pasteurised milk that has been treated with CO₂. Safety issues associated with the effect of CO₂ on toxin-producing anaerobes, such as *Clostridium botulinum* (Glass *et al.*, 1999) and pathogenic spore formers such as *Bacillus cereus* (Werner and Hotchkiss, 2002) have been addressed. Carbon dioxide does not appear to increase the risk of toxin production by *C. botulinum* or the outgrowth of *B. cereus* in inoculated refrigerated milks.

The sensory threshold, as determined by a trained panel, for CO₂ in 2% pasteurised milk is approximately 9.0 mM. At levels just below the threshold (8.7 mM) a high-barrier package increased the shelf-life by nearly 40% (Table 18.2). The organoleptic properties of CO₂-treated milk are improved after 14 days (Duthie, 1985) and 21 days (Glass *et al.*, 1999) of refrigerated storage compared to controls not containing CO₂.

Recently, conductance, which correlates with plate counts, has been used to monitor the growth at 15°C of inoculated spoilage organisms (in mixed and pure cultures) and pathogens in milk containing dissolved CO₂ at levels ranging from 0.4 to 61.4 mM (Martin *et al.*, 2003). Conductance data accurately fit the Gompertz model with *R*² ranging from 0.96 to 1.00, permitting a quantifiable effect of CO₂ on the lag, exponential and stationary phases of growth (Table 18.1). The doubling time for native microflora in raw milk was 1.8 h in controls containing 0.6 mM CO₂ and increased to 2.3 and 2.7 h in milk containing 15.4 and 44.5 mM CO₂ respectively. Lag times (h) for raw milk microflora were 20, 25.4 and 44.1 respectively for the same CO₂ concentrations mentioned above. The doubling time for *B. cereus* increased from 2.4 to 2.9 and 5.3 h as the CO₂ concentration (mM) increased from 0.5 to 47.1 and 61.4 respectively. The doubling time for *Listeria monocytogenes* increased from 2.2 to 3.0 h and the lag time more than doubled from 15.2 to 34.4 h in milk containing 0.5 and 48.9 mM CO₂ respectively (Martin *et al.*, 2003).

18.4.3 Effects of CO₂ on the microbial quality of cottage cheese

Several commercial cottage cheese manufacturers in the United States use CO₂ to improve the quality of their product (DMI, 1998) as well as in other parts of the world. When CO₂ is flushed into the headspace (Kosikowski and Brown, 1972; Maniar *et al.*, 1994), bubbled into the cream dressing (Lee, 1996; Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991, 1993), or bubbled directly through the finished product (Moir *et al.*, 1993), the lag phase of spoilage organisms increases and product quality improves.

A simple and effective approach to incorporating CO₂ into cottage cheese is to add it to the cream dressing prior to mixing with the curds. An inline sparging apparatus and flow diagram for this process has been described (Hotchkiss and Lee, 1996). Cottage cheese prepared in this way can have a shelf-life as long as 80 days (Fig. 18.3). A mixture of three Gram-negative psychrotrophic spoilage organisms inoculated at a level of 10³ cfu/ml did not grow in CO₂-treated (40% in head space) cottage cheese over a 70-day period when stored at 4°C in glass jars (Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991). In controls not containing CO₂ bacterial levels reached 10⁶ cfu/ml within 15 days. A storage temperature of 7°C combined with CO₂ addition held counts below 10⁴ cfu/ml for 30 days, and in controls, SPC reached 10⁶ cfu/ml within 5 days.

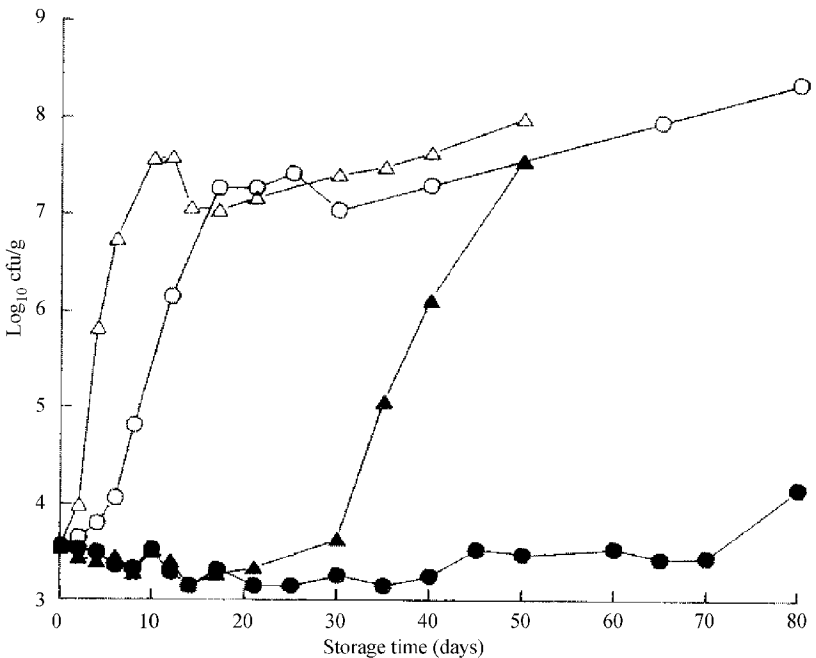


Fig. 18.3 Standard plate counts in cottage cheese packaged with (solid symbols) and without (open symbols) added dissolved CO₂ and stored at 4°C (●, ○) and 7°C (▲, △) (Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991, with permission).

Gram-negative organisms, particularly *Pseudomonas* spp. (Moir *et al.*, 1993), psychrotrophs (Maniar *et al.*, 1994), yeasts and moulds (Kosikowski and Brown, 1972; Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991) and lactic acid bacteria (Maniar *et al.*, 1994), are inhibited by CO₂ in cottage cheese. Microscopic examination of CO₂-treated cottage cheese showed that Gram-positive bacilli and cocci predominated compared to controls (Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991). Carbon dioxide seemed to have an inhibitory effect on the yeast and mould populations in cottage cheese, as they were undetectable in CO₂-treated samples but found in the controls at levels of 10 cfu/g (colony forming units per gram). These effects are not attributed to the pH-reducing effect of CO₂ as the controls and treated samples had similar pH (5.2–5.25) (Chen and Hotchkiss, 1991).

Improved flavour scores for cottage cheese parallel the improved microbial quality in CO₂-treated samples (Maniar *et al.*, 1994; Kosikowski and Brown, 1972; Lee, 1996). The amount of CO₂ added is below the taste threshold and cannot be detected by the consumer.

Concerns with outgrowth of facultative and obligate anaerobes, such as *L. monocytogenes* and *C. sporogenes* have been addressed (Chen and Hotchkiss, 1993). Over a 63-day storage period at 4°C and 7°C, *C. sporogenes* did not grow in either CO₂-treated (35% of the volume in the headspace) or control cottage cheeses. *Listeria monocytogenes* inoculated at 10⁴ cfu/ml in CO₂-treated cottage cheese did not increase during 63 days of storage at 4°C, but did increase by 1 log when stored at 7°C. In the control products without added CO₂, counts reached 10⁷ cfu/ml in 28 days and 7 days when stored at 4°C and 7°C respectively.

18.4.4 Carbonated milk-based beverages

Milk-based beverages with sufficient CO₂ to be detectable by taste have a refrigerated shelf-life of more than 6 weeks. Such carbonated flavoured dairy beverages have equal or better nutritional quality than that of milk. The amount of CO₂ added and the type of flavouring system used in these products are critical to their acceptance.

18.4.5 Yogurt

When using CO₂ to improve the quality of fermented dairy products, the growth of beneficial bacteria such as lactic acid producers or probiotics cannot be inhibited and at the same time spoilage organisms must be inhibited in order to extend shelf-life. Two approaches have been taken to improve the quality of yogurts and cheeses:

1. Incorporate CO₂ into the raw milk to provide starting ingredients with good microbial quality.
2. Incorporate CO₂ into the final product or atmosphere surrounding the product to inhibit spoilage.

To evaluate these strategies, researchers have monitored the growth and metabolism of fermentative bacteria in CO₂-treated products and evaluated their quality compared to controls made by conventional methods.

Yogurt made from CO₂-treated raw milk (to a pH of either 6.0, 6.2, or 6.4) had similar sensory properties and viscosity as control yogurt but lower pH values after 7 days of storage at 7°C (Calvo *et al.*, 1999). In a different study growth and metabolism of two combinations of yogurt starter cultures in carbonated milk were monitored over a 49-day storage period at 4°C (Vinderola *et al.*, 2000). Carbon dioxide was added to the milk after the heat treatment of the raw milk and prior to inoculation with either of two starter culture blends:

- *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and *Streptococcus thermophilus*
- *L. acidophilus*, *S. thermophilus* and *Bifidobacteria bifidum*.

The growth of the first culture mixture was unaltered by the addition of CO₂ which reduced the pH from 6.84 to 6.31. In the presence of *B. bifidum* and CO₂ the counts of *L. acidophilus* were lower towards the latter part of the storage period. Concentrations of organic acids (pyruvic, lactic, and acetic) were the same in both CO₂-treated and control milks for both culture combinations at the end of the storage period. However, acetic acid was lower in the CO₂-treated milk containing *B. bifidum* during the first 4 weeks of storage, which may have been related to the lower counts of *L. acidophilus* in these samples later on. After 24 days the sensory properties of the yogurts, including mouthfeel, odour, acidity, and overall acceptability, were slightly improved in the CO₂-treated yogurts, but statistically indistinguishable from controls. Carbon dioxide-treated milks reached the break point pH of 5.0 sooner than untreated milk (Vinderola *et al.*, 2000). Gueimonde *et al.* (2002) found that CO₂ dissolved in milk did not have a negative effect on the growth of probiotic bacteria.

When CO₂ was dissolved directly into finished Swiss-style yogurt, the growth and viability of inoculated pathogens (*L. monocytogenes*, *E. coli*) and typical starter cultures were unaltered (Karagul-Yuceer *et al.*, 2001). In this study the CO₂ content was not measured directly so the actual amount dissolved is unclear.

A consumer acceptance test demonstrated that the shelf-life of a yogurt beverage could be extended to 4 months with the addition of CO₂ (5 kg/cm² at 4°C) compared to uncarbonated controls that were spoiled at 30 days (Kosikowski and Choi, 1985). The yogurt beverages (fermented with *L. bulgaricus* and *S. thermophilus*) were packaged in glass containers and stored at 4.4°C and 10°C. After 40 days yeast and mould counts increased from 10 cfu/g to 100 and 200 cfu/g in uncarbonated yogurt beverages stored at 4.4 and 10°C respectively, whereas in the carbonated product they remained below 10 cfu/g over an 80-day period at both storage temperatures. The soluble protein and volatile fatty acid content of the control yogurts increased at a faster rate than the carbonated samples, an indication that spoilage was occurring more rapidly, though unfortunately SPC were not measured. The noncarbonated yogurt pH dropped faster than the carbonated yogurt pH, indicating slowed metabolism of

the lactic acid bacteria (LAB), but their growth was not measured in the different treatments.

18.4.6 Ice cream and unfrozen mixes

Early attempts to incorporate CO₂ into ice-cream processing did not demonstrate a significant effect on microbial growth in the frozen product (Prucha *et al.*, 1922; Rettger *et al.*, 1922; Valley and Rettger, 1927). Extending the shelf-life of the unfrozen mix using dissolved CO₂ may be more useful and feasible. Total aerobic plate and Gram-negative counts were measured in chocolate ice-cream mix containing 0, 690, and 1080 ppm CO₂, packaged in high-barrier pouches and stored at 6.1°C for 43 days (Hotchkiss, unpublished data). Total aerobic plate counts reached 6.0 log cfu/ml at 20, 35 and 41 days in mixes containing 0, 690 and 1080 ppm CO₂ respectively. Gram-negative counts reached 6.0 log cfu/ml in control mix at 30 days, whereas the CO₂-treated samples took longer than 40 days to reach this level. Sensory tests on soft-serve ice cream made from treated mixes indicated that the threshold for CO₂ was 800 to 1400 ppm.

18.4.7 Aged cheeses

Carbon dioxide added to raw milk to be used for cheese production can decrease the processing time (Montilla *et al.*, 1995; McCarney *et al.*, 1995; Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 2002), reduce the amount of rennet necessary for coagulation (Montilla *et al.*, 1995; McCarney *et al.*, 1995; Calvo *et al.*, 1993), and increase yields (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1998a, 2002). Organoleptic properties of cheese made from CO₂-treated milk are as good as (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 2002) or better than (McCarney *et al.*, 1995) controls made from untreated milk.

The amount of rennet necessary to make Cheddar cheese can be decreased by 50% when added to milk that has been treated with CO₂ to a concentration of 30.6 mM (McCarney *et al.*, 1995). Lipolysis and proteolysis in cheese made from CO₂-treated milk was significantly lower compared to controls after 3 months of storage at 7°C. The cheese made from CO₂-treated milk received a higher sensory score than control cheese as determined by a commercial grader (McCarney *et al.*, 1995).

When raw milk with high TPC (5×10^5 cfu/ml) was sparged with CO₂ (to pH 6.2) and refrigerated (4°C) prior to being used for production of a short ripened cheese, the resulting cheese had a higher yield compared to cheese made from uncarbonated milk (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1998a). After 7 days of ripening at 17°C the CO₂-treated cheese had a yield of 10.4% compared to 5.9% in the control. After 3 and 7 days of ripening the non-casein nitrogen fraction of the cheese made from CO₂-treated milk was significantly lower than in the untreated controls, an indication of reduced proteolysis. Alpha, beta, and gamma casein fractions were not affected by the CO₂ treatment, and at 15 days of ripening the proteolytic activity in both cheeses was the same. Treating milk

with CO₂ did not alter the sensory properties of the cheeses compared to controls (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1998a).

Carbon dioxide dissolved in milk does not affect the growth and metabolism of cheese starter cultures (Van Hekken *et al.*, 2000; Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1998a; Calvo *et al.*, 1993). The growth of individual strains and mixed cultures of *Lactococcus* spp. and *Leuconostoc citreum* at 22°C over an 18 h period was the same in pasteurised milk treated with CO₂ (to a pH of 6.2) and untreated controls (pH 6.7). After 8 hours of incubation the concentrations of organic acids (citric, pyruvic, lactic, formic, acetic, and hippuric) were identical in both CO₂-treated and control milks (Ruas-Madiedo *et al.*, 1998a).

Once cheese has been manufactured, modified atmospheres containing CO₂ can be used to extend shelf-life (Alves *et al.*, 1996; Eliot *et al.*, 1998; Piergiovanni *et al.*, 1993; Pintado and Malcata, 2000; Gonzalez-Fandos *et al.*, 2000; Olarte *et al.*, 2001, 2002). Fluorescent light exposure may need to be considered in order to prevent defects in colour that are enhanced by high CO₂ concentrations (Colchin *et al.*, 2001).

Pintado and Malcata (2000) compared the growth of psychrotrophs, mesophiles, lactococci, lactobacilli, *Bacillus*, and spore-forming clostridia, amongst others, in Requeijão, a whey cheese, packaged under 100% CO₂ to that packaged under 100% N₂. After 15 days at 4°C storage under CO₂, none of the populations tested had reached 10⁶ log cfu/g, whereas under N₂ most had exceeded this level. For example, PPC reached 5.97 and 8.08 log cfu/g under CO₂ and N₂ atmospheres respectively. *Pseudomonas* spp. reached 4.32 log cfu/g under 100% CO₂ compared to 8.81 log cfu/g under N₂-packaged cheese. At 18°C the two packaging configurations had less effect on the outgrowth of the microbial populations tested, emphasising the need for refrigerated storage together with MAP to hinder microbial growth. Yeasts and moulds were not detected in cheeses stored in 100% CO₂ at day 15 (at 4°C) compared to 4 log cfu/g in 100% N₂. *Bacillus* spp. were not detected at days 2 and 4 in CO₂-packaged cheese but reached 5.6 log cfu/g by day 15, the same as that found in N₂-packaged cheese (Pintado and Malcata, 2000).

Atmospheres containing 20–100% CO₂ reduced proteolysis and lipolysis in Cameros, a fresh goat's milk cheese, and inhibited the growth of psychrotrophs, mesophiles, Enterobacteriaceae, and coliforms. After 28 days of storage at 4°C control cheeses, packaged in the presence of air, had psychrotrophic levels reaching eight log cfu/g whereas in an atmosphere containing 100% CO₂ counts had not exceeded 2.7 log cfu/g (Gonzalez-Fandos *et al.*, 2000). Yeasts were undetectable in the CO₂-stored cheese, but in controls counts reached 3.34 log cfu/g in 28 days. Packaging Taleggio cheese in an atmosphere containing 10% CO₂ resulted in a 1 log reduction in moulds compared to controls packaged in the presence of air (Piergiovanni *et al.*, 1993). Anaerobes decreased in Cameros cheese packaged in 100% CO₂ atmospheres from 3 log cfu/g to 1 log cfu/g after 28 days. In controls (air), 20 and 40% CO₂ atmospheres (balance N₂) there was a 4 log cfu/g increase over the same time period (Olarte *et al.*, 2002). Sensory analysis of Cameros cheeses suggests that 100% CO₂ atmospheres can be

deleterious to quality but that a 50/50 (CO₂/N₂) atmosphere is optimal for improving flavour and reducing microbial growth (Gonzalez-Fandos *et al.*, 2000; Olarte *et al.*, 2001).

The microbial quality of Mozzarella shreds (Eliot *et al.*, 1998) and slices (Alves *et al.*, 1996) stored under modified atmospheres containing CO₂ was improved over those packaged under air or N₂, and 100% CO₂ atmospheres inhibited the growth of yeast and moulds in both products. Over a 58-day storage period at 7°C no growth of yeast and moulds was detected on Mozzarella slices packaged in 100% CO₂ compared to greater than 10⁶ cfu/ml in controls after only 10 days.

Shredded Cheddar cheese stored at 4°C under 100% CO₂ (barrier permeability: O₂ transmission of 2 cm³/m²/day forming layer; 4 cm³/m²/day – non-forming layer) contained lower levels of volatiles associated with mould growth (Colchin *et al.*, 2001). *L**, *a** and *b** colour-values for N₂- and CO₂-packaged cheeses stored under fluorescent lighting were measured. *L** values were significantly higher, and *a** and *b** values were significantly lower, in cheeses stored under CO₂ compared to N₂. It is suggested that CO₂ generates free radicals in the presence of fluorescent light, oxidising bixin (the carotenoid compound in anatto responsible for the orange colour) and resulting in a bleached appearance. Perhaps opaque packaging material could hinder this defect.

18.5 Bactericidal and sporicidal effects of dissolved CO₂ during thermal processing

Bacteria and their spores are more sensitive to thermal treatments under acidic conditions (Jay, 1992). When CO₂ is dissolved in an aqueous solution, such as milk, the pH decreases (equation 18.1, Fig. 18.2). The effects of CO₂ on the thermal resistance of vegetative cells and spores have been studied. The majority of work has been conducted in media at high pressures or near-supercritical conditions and at moderate to ambient temperatures.

D-values (min) for *L. monocytogenes* in a solution of physiological saline and media (1%) under 15 atm CO₂ pressure were 35.8, 22.3 and 14.3 at 25°C, 35°C and 45°C respectively (Erkmen, 2000). At 60 atm CO₂ the *D*-values at these temperatures decreased to 13.4, 8.8 and 7.3 respectively, demonstrating that increased CO₂ pressures can increase the thermal sensitivity of a common facultative pathogen. A similar pattern was observed for the inactivation of *E. coli* in ringer solution (Ballestra *et al.*, 1996). The *D*_{35°C}-values (min) were 496, 30.3 and 1.9 at 1.2, 2.5 and 5 MPa CO₂ respectively.

At 45°C in the absence of CO₂ the viability of *E. coli* cells was unchanged over a 1 h period. As the CO₂ pressure was increased from 1.2 to 5 MPa the inactivation curves became biphasic. An initial shoulder portion during the first 30 min of exposure became shorter and the slope of the second phase became more negative as CO₂ pressure increased (Ballestra *et al.*, 1996). Similar patterns were observed for *L. monocytogenes* (Erkmen, 2000). It is hypothesised

that during the initial phase CO₂ penetrates the cell, and that the second phase represents the point at which a critical amount of CO₂ has collected in the cell, resulting in a more dramatic drop in viability. Scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of CO₂-treated cells revealed deformed cell walls of some cells but the percentage of damaged cells did not correlate with the loss in viability. The activity of seven of eight enzymes assayed was reduced in the CO₂-treated cells compared to untreated (Ballestra *et al.*, 1996). It is hypothesised that CO₂ passes through the cell membrane and acidifies the cell cytoplasm below the isoelectric point of the enzymes, rendering them inactive. It has also been proposed that the chemical composition of the bacterial cell wall and the surface-to-volume ratio of the cell may be important factors determining the sensitivity of a particular bacterial strain (Dillow *et al.*, 1999).

The amount of heat and the concentration of CO₂ influence the degree of increased thermal sensitivity of bacteria in milk. Microbial survivors (enumerated by SPC) in heat-treated raw milk were significantly lower in milk containing 44–58 mM CO₂ compared to controls that had natural levels of CO₂ ranging from 2 to 4 mM (Loss and Hotchkiss, 2002). For example, CO₂-treated milk heated for 5 min at 67°C, 72°C and 90°C had 257, 89 and 25 cfu/ml respectively compared to controls that had 338, 282 and 44 cfu/ml in untreated milk heated for the same time and temperatures (Loss and Hotchkiss, 2002). Aerobic plate counts and *L. monocytogenes* in whole milk heated to 45°C under 60 atm of CO₂ both decreased by 3 log cycles after 12 hours (Erkmen, 2000). Unfortunately, reductions in control milks without added CO₂ are not mentioned in this study.

Thermal inactivation rates of *P. fluorescens* in whole milk treated with CO₂ (0–35 mM) increase as concentration of CO₂ increases (Fig. 18.4). There is a negative linear correlation between $D_{50^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -value (min) and CO₂ concentration ($D_{50^{\circ}\text{C}} = -0.20x + 13.74$; $r^2 = 0.90$). $D_{50^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -values in the untreated control, 15 and 35 mM CO₂-treated milk were 13.4, 10.5 and 7.2 min respectively, representing reductions of 22% and 46% (Loss and Hotchkiss, 2002). Although this organism is sensitive to HTST treatments, its lipolytic and proteolytic enzymes are not (Champagne *et al.*, 1994). Perhaps on-farm thermisation combined with CO₂ treatments could reduce the numbers of psychrotrophs that can proliferate during bulk milk collection and transportation.

Carbon dioxide added to fluid foods in the form of carbonate can reduce the pH of the food and increase the thermal sensitivity of spores (Alderton, 1969). Unlike vegetative cells, spores are essentially metabolically inactive and support little enzyme activity. It has been proposed that the increased acidity results in a desorption of cations from the spore causing an increase in hydration of the core of the spore (Lynch, 1988). Dehydration of the spore is its main defence against thermal treatments as wet heat is more severe than dry heat (Setlow and Johnson, 1997).

Carbon dioxide at 5 MPa can increase the thermal sensitivity of bacterial and fungal spores in Ringer solution (Ballestra and Cuq, 1998). *Bacillus subtilis* spores heated at 80°C under 5 MPa CO₂ for 1 h were reduced by 3 logs, but in

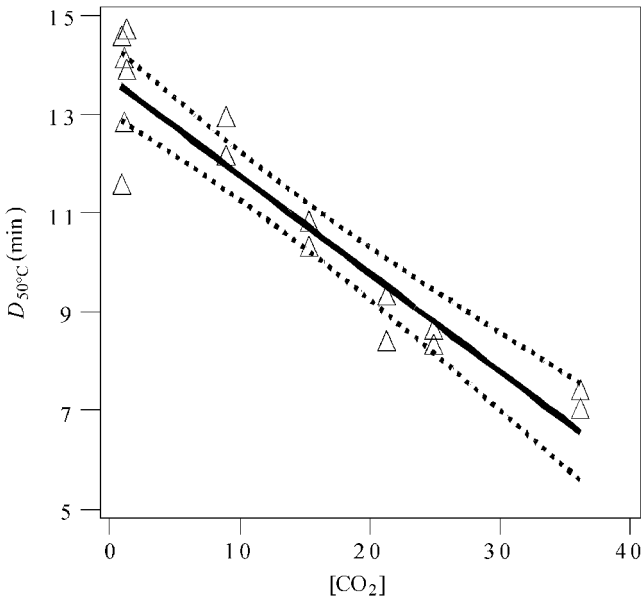


Fig. 18.4 Effect of dissolved CO₂ on $D_{50^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -values for *P. fluorescens* R1-232 in milk ($y = -0.20x + 13.74$, $R^2 = 0.90$). Dotted lines represent 95% confidence bands ($n = 1$).

the absence of CO₂ no reduction in viability was observed at this temperature. $D_{90^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -values for *B. subtilis* spores were 14 min at 5 MPa CO₂ and 66 min in the absence of CO₂. $D_{80^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -values for *Byssoschlamys fulva* ascospores decreased from 350 min in controls to 85.5 min in the presence of 5 MPa CO₂. $D_{50^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -values for *Aspergillus niger* conidia decreased from >200 min in controls to 11 min under 5 MPa CO₂. At 60°C and 85°C 5 MPa CO₂ had no effect on the thermal sensitivity of *A. niger* conidia and *B. fulva* ascospores, suggesting that the lethal effects of the heat treatment are masking the sporicidal effects of the CO₂ (Ballestra and Cuq, 1998).

The $D_{89^{\circ}\text{C}}$ -value for *Bacillus cereus* spores was significantly decreased from 5.56 min in control milks (no added CO₂) to 5.24 min in milk containing 33 mM CO₂ (Loss and Hotchkiss, 2002). A higher concentration of dissolved CO₂ (37 mM) in milk containing an initial inoculum of 8.7 log cfu/ml also resulted in fewer survivors (4.25 log cfu/ml) after a 15-minute treatment at 89°C compared to controls that had 4.73 log cfu/ml survivors (Loss, 2001). After a 40-second treatment at 105°C, CO₂-treated TSB (pH reduced to 6.3) had 1 log fewer survivors of *B. cereus* spores compared to untreated (pH 7.2) media heated for the same amount of time (Loss, unpublished data).

The effect of CO₂ on spore germination at higher heat treatments for shorter durations depends upon species and strain (Guirguis *et al.*, 1984). For example, 100% of spores of *B. subtilis* in reconstituted milk with pH adjusted to 5.86 with CO₂, heated at 120°C for 2 s, survived compared to 0.1% survival of spores

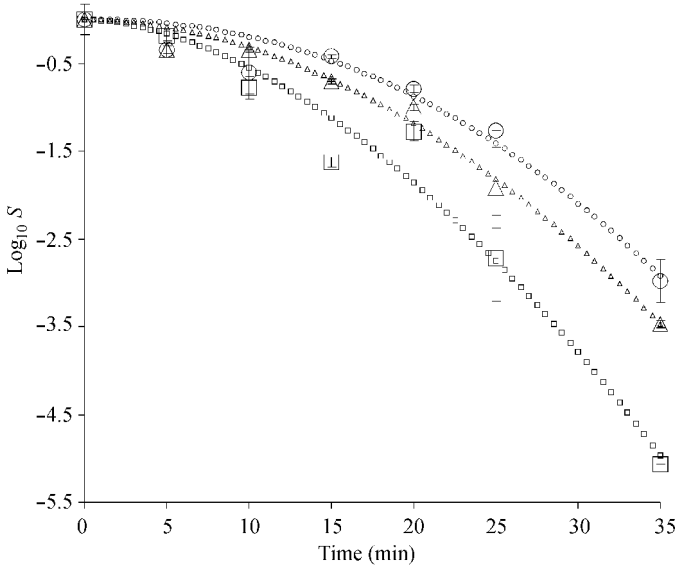


Fig. 18.5 Nonlinear modelling of thermal death rate of *P. fluorescens* R1-232 at 50°C in milk. Curves represent nonlinear regressions of the survival data in milk containing 1 (○ actual, ○ predicted), 15 (△ actual, △ predicted) and 36 mM (□ actual, □ predicted) dissolved CO₂, respectively. $R^2 = 0.96, 0.99$ and 0.97 respectively ($n = 2, \pm 1$ s.d.).

suspended in control milk that had no CO₂. On the other hand, 2% of *B. cereus* spores heated at 125°C for 2 s in the CO₂-treated milk survived compared to 100% survival in control milk.

The combined effects of dissolved CO₂ and thermal treatment on inactivation of spores and vegetative cells have been modelled using the Weibull function (Loss and Hotchkiss, 2002) (Fig. 18.5). Thermal inactivation curves for *P. fluorescens* at 50°C in the presence and absence of CO₂ are distinctly biphasic in nature, as is the case for *B. subtilis* spores (Ballestra and Cuq, 1998) and *E. coli* (Ballestra *et al.*, 1996). The Weibull model more accurately describes the combined effects of dissolved CO₂ and thermal treatments on survival of common milk spoilage organisms ($R^2 = 0.96, 0.99$ and 0.97 for 1, 15 and 36 mM CO₂ treatments respectively) than does the linear model ($R^2 = 0.83, 0.89$ and 0.90 respectively). Given a useful model like the Weibull, nonthermal treatments such as CO₂ combined with thermal processing can be used to optimise hurdle preservation approaches.

Two major obstacles to producing raw milk cheese on a large scale are the potential for survival of pathogens (such as *L. monocytogenes*) and the deleterious effects of psychrotrophic spoilage organisms. Current data suggest that CO₂ combined with heat treatments may decrease the number of pathogens in the cheese at the beginning of the ageing process and also improve sensory quality by reducing the number of surviving spoilage organisms.

18.6 Conclusions

Carbon dioxide is a unique natural antimicrobial and processing aid that has several potential uses in the dairy industry. It is unique because it can be added to and removed from dairy products with no deleterious effects. It is GRAS, and at the present time does not need to be declared on an ingredient label. The physiochemical properties of CO₂, i.e. ease of solubility in aqueous and lipid phases, its ability to reduce pH, and temperature-dependent solubility, make it ideal for use in dairy products. It can be dissolved into fluid dairy products as a preservative to inhibit growth of pathogens and spoilage organisms and/or to alter the functionality of the casein micelle, and then it can be removed with a simple vacuum or by agitation and mild heating.

The benefits of CO₂ to the cottage cheese industry are quite clear. There is also an abundance of data supporting the use of CO₂ to improve the microbial quality of raw milk, but the benefits of this technology have not transferred to the farm and milk collection sector of the industry. Safe raw milk cheeses are highly desirable in the US and Europe, and CO₂ has the potential to reduce the risk of pathogen survival in these products without altering their unique flavour characteristics.

Quantifying the effects of CO₂ on growth of spoilage organisms and pathogens through the use of statistical modelling will be critical for optimising its use and ensuring safe and wholesome products. Work in this area is just beginning but thus far has demonstrated that the effects of CO₂ can be accurately described using the Gompertz growth model (Martin *et al*, 2003). All preservation technologies from refrigeration to pasteurisation have altered the microbial ecology of dairy products. Refrigeration has selected for Gram-negative psychrotrophs, and pasteurisation has created a niche for psychrotrophic spore formers. Undoubtedly, CO₂ will also effect the microbial ecological balance in dairy foods. Modelling the effects of CO₂ on a wide spectrum of bacteria in pure and mixed cultures, in a variety of dairy products, will give us a better understanding of the changes due to CO₂ and allow us to protect and preserve our nutritious supply of dairy foods.

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