

# Exploratory study of acid-forming potential of commercial cheeses: impact of cheese type

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#### 23 Abstract

24 Due to their composition, cheeses are suspected to induce an acid load to the body. To better understand this nutritional feature, the acid-forming potential of five cheeses from 25 26 different cheese-making technologies and two milks was evaluated on the basis of their 27 Potential Renal Acid Load (PRAL) index (considering protein, P. Cl. Na, K. Mg and Ca contents) and organic anions contents. PRAL index ranged from -0.8 mEq/100g edible 28 29 portion for fresh cheese to 25.3 mEq/100g hard cheese Cantal and 28 mEq/100g for blue-30 veined cheese Fourme d'Ambert. PRAL values were greatly subjected to inter-batch 31 fluctuations. This work emphasized a great imbalance between acidifying elements of PRAL 32 calculation (Cl, P and proteins elements) and alkalinizing ones (Na and Ca). Particularly, Cl 33 followed by P elements had a strong impact on the PRAL value. Hard cheeses were rich in 34 lactate, thus, might be less acidifying than suspected by their PRAL values only.

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# 36 Keywords: Potential Renal Acid Load (PRAL), Mineral composition, Organic anions, 37 PDO cheeses, Milk

#### 38 **1. Introduction**

Cheese is consumed in significant quantities in western countries, with annual 39 40 consumptions of 25.7 kg, 22.2 kg, 22.2 kg, 20.5 kg, 16 kg per capita for France, Germany, 41 Switzerland, Italy and USA, respectively (Fox and Guinee, 2013). Although its composition 42 varies, cheese is recognized as a substantial source of general nutrients (McGill et al., 2008). 43 Numerous works demonstrated the beneficial effect of dairy products for bone health, mainly 44 attributed to their content in Ca, vitamin D and proteins (Demmer et al., 2014; Josse et al., 45 2012; Rizzoli, 2014). Besides, cheese has been identified as one of the main food vectors of 46 salt (40 g of cheese account for 10% of the recommended daily salt intake) (Chekri et al., 47 2012; Saint-Eve et al., 2009) and it has been clearly demonstrated that a high-salt diet leads to 48 health issues such as hypertension (Blaustein et al., 2012), a risk factor of cardiovascular 49 diseases (He et al., 2011).

50 A nutritional aspect less-studied till now is the acid-forming potential of cheeses. Indeed, 51 cheeses are classified as the most acidifying food group (Remer and Manz, 1995). It means 52 that their consumption and metabolism lead to the production of fixed acids resulting from 53 sulfate (generated from sulfur-containing amino acids), phosphate (generated from 54 phosphoproteins) and chloride, generated from salt (Oh, 2000; Poupin et al., 2012). When the 55 acid load generated by the diet exceeds the neutralization capacity of the homeostatic systems 56 of the body, the solicitation of bone minerals or muscular amino acids would occur (Cordain 57 et al., 2005). In the long term, this low-grade metabolic acidosis might result in deleterious 58 health consequences like renal stones (Frassetto et al., 2008, 2007), osteoporosis (Lemann et 59 al., 2003; Mardon et al., 2008; Pedone et al., 2010) or loss of muscle mass (Frassetto et al., 60 2008).

61 The method proposed for estimating the acid-forming potential of food products is based 62 on the calculation of the PRAL (Potential Renal Acid Load) index (Remer and Manz, 1995). 63 The PRAL takes into account the protein and mineral composition of a foodstuff, the 64 intestinal absorption of these nutrients, the valence or ionic charge of the minerals, as well as 65 the amount of sulfate produced from metabolized proteins according to the equation:

66 PRAL (mEq/100g edible portion) = 0.49 x protein (g/100g) + 0.037 x P (mg/100g) + 67 0.027 x Cl (mg/100g) - 0.041 x Na (mg/100g) - 0.021 x K (mg/100g) - 0.026 x Mg (mg/100g) 68 - 0.013 x Ca (mg/100g) (1)

According to this calculation model, negative PRAL values indicate an excess of the base forming potential of foods, whereas positive PRAL values indicate an excess of the acid forming potential of foods.

72 Organic anions content of food products may also impact the acid-base balance of the 73 organism (Demigné et al., 2004; Oh, 2000). Certainly, the most important organic sources of 74 alkalis in the diet are organic anions associated with cations, coming mostly from fruits and 75 vegetables (citrate, malate...). In cheeses, organic anions are the result of biochemical 76 changes during processing and ripening (metabolism of residual lactose and of lactate and 77 citrate) by selected cultures of lactic acid bacteria (Fox, 2004; McSweeney, 2004). Citrate is 78 the most abundant organic acid present in raw milk (1233 mg/100g dry matter) and lactate is 79 the most abundant in yoghurt (14 509 mg/100g dry matter) and cheese (14 601 mg/100g dry 80 matter) (Tormo and Izco, 2004). Given the high level of consumption of dairy products in 81 western Europe (Fox and Guinee, 2013), their impact could be significant in the acid-base 82 balance of the diet. Indeed, ingested lactate and citrate salts lead to the production of 83 bicarbonate during their metabolism, a strong alkalinizing component in the body (Oh, 2000; 84 Poupin et al., 2012). Thus, despite organic anions are not taken into account in PRAL calculation it would be more accurate to consider these compounds when evaluating the acid-85 86 forming potential of dairy products.

87 Milk was reported to have a PRAL around zero (Remer and Manz, 1995), thus inducing a

88 negligible impact on the acid-base balance of the body. On the other hand, Camembert and Parmesan are two cheese types showing positive but very different PRAL values, namely 14.6 89 90 and 34.2 mEq/100g, respectively (Remer and Manz, 1995). As suggested by Demigné et al. 91 (2004), it seems that cheese-making technologies would be responsible in the generation of 92 the acid-forming potential of cheeses. The production of all types of cheese involves a 93 generally similar process, including coagulation, stirring, salting and ripening, however, these 94 various steps are modified to give products with the desired characteristics and different 95 compositions (Lucas et al., 2006b). It is thus hypothesized that different cheese types would 96 have varying acidifying potentials.

97 To our knowledge, no work addressing the evaluation of the acidifying potential of 98 different cheese types is reported in the literature. Yet it could be potentially clinically useful 99 data for assessing the diet-dependent net acid load to the metabolic system or when studying 100 the nutritional impact of dairy products. Existing studies, focusing on the mineral content of 101 different dairy products (Gursoy et al., 2014; Lante et al., 2006; Moreno-Rojas et al., 1994) 102 rarely allow to get enough information to calculate a PRAL index. Insufficient data were 103 found from nutrition facts tables (ANSES and Santé Canada, 2007) as well to estimate 104 valuable acid-forming potential (due to incomplete data and heterogeneities in sources, 105 methods and confidence indexes) and often do not provide organic anions concentrations. We 106 propose to contribute to the improvement of this aspect.

As an exploratory step to study the impact of processing on acid-forming potential of cheeses, the aim of this work was to characterize the acid-forming potential of different cheese types chosen from various cheese-making technologies. Various Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) cheeses, answering for rigorous specifications were selected to conduct the study.

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#### 113 **2. Materials and methods**

#### 114 **2.1** *Sampling*

The study was carried out on commercial French cheeses selected for their different type: fresh cheese Faisselle (FC), soft mould ripened cheese Camembert de Normandie (CN), blue veined cheese Fourme d'Ambert (FA), two hard cheeses Cantal (CA) and Comte (CO). The main characteristics of these cheeses are described in Table 1. Raw milk (RM) and pasteurized milk (PM) were studied as well. All products were purchased in a same local supermarket in Lempdes (Auvergne area, Center of France).

121 For each product three batches, obtained at one-week interval, were selected in order to 122 overcome the inter-batch compositional variations of the commercial products. Three samples 123 per batch (the same trademark) were chosen randomly to make a pool: 1 L of milk per 124 sample, 1 kg of FC per sample, 250 g of CN per sample, 1 kg of FA per sample, 1 kg of CA 125 per sample. For CO, only 2 batches and 2 samples (800 g) per batch were available. The 126 analysis were done only on the edible part of the cheeses: the rind of CN was kept and the one 127 of FA, CA, CO cheeses was removed. The products were then packed in plastic vials or 128 vacuum bags and frozen in the cooling cell (Tecnox, France) till -20 °C and kept in the freezer 129 (-20 °C). One day before analysis the samples were transferred in a fridge (4 °C).

#### 130 **2.2** Basic chemical analysis

Ground cheese samples were analyzed in triplicate for pH, dry matter, fat, ash, total nitrogen and protein according to the ISO standards (AFNOR, 2013). The pH was measured at 20 °C by using a pH meter (Schott, CG840, Paris, France) according to FD V04-035:2009. The dry matter content was obtained by drying 3 g of product at 105 °C in oven for 24 h (NF EN ISO 5534:2004). The fat content was assayed using a Gerber method (NF V04-210:2000) and the ash content using a dry ash method (NF V04-208:1989). The total N was determined by Kjeldahl nitrogen analysis, reference method for protein determination in dairy products (ISO 8968-1:2013). The analysis was made using a Kjeldahl Unit (Büchi, Switzerland). The
amount of total N obtained was multiplied by a 6.38 factor to express the results in total
protein.

#### 141 **2.3** *Minerals determination (Calcium, Phosphorus, Potassium, Magnesium, Sodium)*

142 The mineralization phase of 1 g of product was realized in triplicate in a programmable 143 oven (Fours Nagat 44550, France), at 550 °C for 6 hours. The ashes obtained were dissolved 144 in 1 mL nitric acid (25%) and then added to 250 mL with demineralized water. After 145 appropriate dilution, the solution was injected in a Fast Sequential Atomic Absorption 146 Spectrometer (Varian, AA240FS) according to ISO 8070:2007 to assay Ca, K, Mg and Na 147 contents. The total P was assessed with the colorimetric nitro-vanado-molybdate method from 148 the same ash solution on a Spectrophotometer (Secomam, Domont, France), at 430 nm 149 wavelength.

#### 150 **2.4** Analysis of chloride, citrate and lactate

151 The Cl content in milk and cheese slurry was measured by potentiometric titration 152 (Titroline Easy Potentiometer) with silver nitrate 0.1 N (VWR International, France) 153 according to NF EN ISO 5943:2007.

154 The citrate and lactate contents were measured by enzymatic bio analysis (Enzytec Citric 155 acid, Enzytec Lactic acid, R-Biopharm AG, Darmstadt, Germany). Cheese samples (5 g) were 156 homogenized in 50 mL perchloric acid (1M) using an Ultra-Turax homogenizer. The 157 homogenate was then centrifuged at 18 000 x g for 10 min. The supernatant (20 mL) was 158 adjusted to pH 8-10 with approximatively 4 mL KOH (5M) and placed for 15 min in the 159 refrigerator for the quantitative precipitation of the formed potassium perchlorate, and then 160 filtered. The amount of NADH oxidized in the reactions of the filtrate with the different 161 enzymes was determined by means of its light absorbance at 340 nm and was stoichiometric 162 to the amount of citrate and lactate. For each product the assay was performed in triplicate.

#### 163 **2.5** *Statistical analysis*

164 Statistical analysis was performed using XL STAT software package (Addinsoft, Paris, 165 France). Results are reported as means  $\pm$  SD. The Shapiro-Wilk (P < 0.05) statistic was 166 performed to check the normality of our data. A large segment of variables lacked normality 167 and therefore non-parametric (Kruskal-Wallis) test and post-hoc multiple comparison 168 (Conover-Iman procedure) were adopted to compare the concentrations of the studied 169 elements. Differences between mean values were considered significant at P < 0.05.

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#### 171 **3. Results**

#### 172 **3.1** Gross composition

173 Average pH, dry matter, fat, ash, total N, protein composition of the products are 174 summarized in Table 2. Both milks (RM and PM) did not differ significantly in pH, dry 175 matter and protein content. Conversely, RM showed a higher fat content and a lower ash 176 content than PM. The lactic coagulated fresh cheese (FC) showed a slightly higher dry matter 177 content than RM. It was also characterized by the most acidic pH. Among ripened cheeses, 178 CA and CO had a lower pH than CN. FA showed the highest pH value. The dry matter was 179 significantly higher in hard cheeses CO and CA than in soft cheeses FA and CN. Cheeses fat 180 content ranged from 5.8 g/100g for FC to 37.7 g/100g for CO. The highest ash concentration 181 was observed in FA and CA compared to CO, CN and FC. Ripened cheeses (CN, FA, CA, 182 CO) had a higher protein content than milks and FC. Among them, the highest protein 183 concentration was observed in the hard cheese CO, followed by CA, CN and FA.

#### 184 **3.2** *Mineral content*

Table 3 shows the mineral content of the dairy products presently studied. The Ca content did not differ in milks (RM, PM) and FC. Conversely, FC showed a lower P content than RM and PM. The highest Ca and P concentrations were found in CO and CA cheeses, followed by

188 FA and CN. Both milks exhibited the lowest Mg contents among the products. The highest 189 Mg value was detected in CO cheese, followed by CA, then by soft cheeses (CN, FA) and 190 lactic coagulated FC. Regarding K content, the soft cheese CN and both milks (PM and RM) 191 contained the highest K levels compared to other products. Among milks and FC, the Na 192 levels ranged from 39.2 g/100g to 77.8 g/100g. The average Na concentrations measured in 193 blue veined cheese FA and hard cheese CA were significantly higher than those found in 194 bloomy-rind CN and hard cheese CO. It is noticeable that Na content widely varied among 195 different batches of FC, FA, CA and CO with, for example, ranging from 681.1 mg/100g to 196 791.9 mg/100g for FA. The unsalted products (milks and FC) showed quasi-similar Cl 197 contents (Table 3), while the salted cheeses ranged from 714.5 mg of Cl per 100 g of edible 198 portion to 1,665.1 mg of Cl per 100 g.

#### 199 **3.3** Organic anions composition

In cheeses, the highest concentration in lactate was found in CA followed by CO, FC, FA and CN, ranging from 1,204.2 mg/100g to 105.2 mg/100g (Table 3). Both milks did not differ in the lactate content, with about 3 mg/100g. Conversely, milks were found to be the richest in citrate, with 94.0 mg/100g for PM and 82.1 mg/100g for RM. Among the 5 cheeses studied CO cheese contained the highest amount of citrate (49.5 mg/100g), followed by CN (28.7 mg/100g) and FA (13.6 mg/100g). CA and FC was found to be the poorest in citrate, with about 1 mg/100g.

#### 207 3.4 Potential Renal Acid Load

208 PRAL values of the studied products ranged from a minimum of -0.8 mEq/100g for FC to 209 a maximum of 28 mEq/100g for blue-veined cheese FA (Figure 1). There was no significant 210 difference in the PRAL values of RM (0.6 mEq/100g) and PM (0.7 mEq/100g). The PRAL 211 soft cheese CN presented medium PRAL values of 16.5 mEq/100g. By contrast, soft cheese FA and hard cheeses CA and CO showed the highest PRAL values (28 mEq/100g, 25.3
mEq/100g and 22.3 mEq/100g, respectively).

214 The values of the different elements (nutrient contents weighted with their conversion 215 factors as defined by Remer and Manz (1995)) of the PRAL calculation are shown in Figure 216 2. For salted and ripened cheeses, Cl was the acidifying element having the strongest impact 217 on the PRAL index, except for CO in which P element had a similar acidifying impact. For 218 CA, the P element also showed a high value but had a lower impact in soft cheeses PRAL 219 indexes. In hard cheeses, protein element had the lowest impact among the acidifying 220 elements, and an equivalent one to the P element in soft cheeses. Na element showed high 221 absolute values in salted and ripened cheeses was by far the strongest alkalinizing element. 222 The alkalinizing Ca element had a highest impact on PRAL indexes in hard cheeses than in 223 soft cheeses. Mg and K elements had little impact on PRAL indexes in ripened cheeses given 224 their low concentrations in these products.

All PRAL elements of milks and fresh cheese were globally low and exhibited a neutralization between acidic and alkalinizing elements.

227

#### 228 **4. Discussion**

229 Cheeses were previously reported as the food group with the highest PRAL values (Remer 230 and Manz, 1995), meaning that their intake potentially induces an acid load to the body. This 231 characteristic was suggested to be due to their composition, closely related to the cheese-232 making technology applied (Demigné et al., 2004). To better characterize the link between 233 cheese type and their acid-forming potential, the present study investigated physicochemical and compositional properties of two milks and five cheeses. The research provides a detailed 234 235 nutritional characterization of different dairy products. This work clearly demonstrates the 236 strong impact of cheese type on the acid-forming potential of end products. It particularly

highlights the major impact of Cl followed by P on the high PRAL value of ripened cheeses.
This acid load cannot be totally compensated by the main alkalinizing elements of the PRAL
in these products: Na and to a lesser extent Ca. Otherwise, the high lactate contents of hard
cheeses, not taken into account in the PRAL index, might contribute to moderate their
acidifying potential.

#### 242 **4.1** *Composition of milks and cheeses*

243 In the whole, basic biochemical characteristics reported in this work were in agreement 244 with different data collected in the literature (Table 2) (Abbas, 2012; ANSES, 2013; Berdague 245 et al., 1987; Chatelard-Chauvin et al., 2015; Heck et al., 2009; Le Graet and Brulé, 1988). Regarding mineral compositions, the hard cheese CO was the richest in Ca, P and Mg 246 247 whereas the lactic coagulated FC exhibited the poorest concentrations in these elements 248 (Table 3). These differences are in agreement with the finding of Lucas et al. (2006b) who 249 reported similar differences between hard cheese Abondance and lactic coagulated 250 Rocamadour. Assayed Ca, P and Mg contents for all products were close to those reported in 251 the nutritional facts database of ANSES (2013) except for RM, not listed in the database and 252 for CO cheese which was characterized by lower contents in these elements. The same 253 nutritional database declares a P content of FA cheese three times greater than ours. This 254 discrepancy had already been highlighted by Abbas (2012) and Jacquot et al. (2015). Overall, 255 Ca, P and Mg contents in cheeses were positively correlated to the dry matter content. Indeed, 256 these minerals are largely captured in the curd and moisture content decreases as whey is 257 drained out.

It is noteworthy that important inter-batch variations were reported in Na and Cl contents of several ripened cheeses, and particularly CO cheese (Table 3). In fact, Na and Cl contents are dramatically linked to salting process which can widely vary among cheese types. Similar inter-batch fluctuations were observed in Prato, CO, Cheddar and Beaufort cheeses and were attributed to the lack of standardization in salt application (Chamba et al., 1994; Cichoscki etal., 2002; Morris et al., 1985).

264 Globally, cheeses composition clearly differed among cheese types. These variations 265 might be attributed to two major determinants: conditions of milk production and cheese-266 making technology. The first one was reported to impact cheese composition in fatty acids, 267 carotenoids,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (Lucas et al., 2006a). The second one was rather found to strongly 268 impact mineral and folate contents in cheeses (Lucas et al., 2006b). Indeed, differences in 269 milk processing (acidification, curdling and dehydration), mainly influence the aqueous phase 270 composition of curd, and thus impact the final mineral concentrations in cheese (Le Graet and 271 Brulé, 1993). Afterwards, we assume that, in the present work, the differences reported in the 272 studied compounds are mainly influenced by the cheese-making technology. Moreover, in the 273 PDO products studied, milks used for manufacturing result in a mix of milks coming from 274 different producers, thus smoothing differences due to conditions of milk production.

#### 275 **4.2** Impact of cheese type on PRAL values

276 The PRAL values were clearly different among cheese types (Figure 1). Milks (RM, PM) 277 showed PRAL values around zero, as described by Remer and Manz (1995) in whole 278 pasteurized milk. The FC showed the unique negative PRAL (-0.8 mEq/100g) among the 279 studied products. Mean PRAL values of ripened cheeses ranged from 16.5 mEq/100g for CN 280 to 28 mEq/100g for FA. It confirmed the high acid-forming potential of ripened cheeses but in 281 very different extent as a function of cheese type. It is noticeable that PRAL values of soft 282 cheeses (bloomy-rind CN and blue-veined cheese FA) showed wide inter-batch variations. 283 The CN PRAL index ranged from 14.7 to 20.0 mEq/100g among batches whereas PRAL 284 variations ranged from 21.7 to 37.5 mEq/100g for FA. In both cases, these variations were 285 mainly due to mineral content fluctuations, already reported in commercial soft cheeses, using similar analytical methods (Abbas et al., 2012; Bord et al., 2015; Jacquot et al., 2015; 286

et al., 2010; Moreno-Rojas et al., 2012). Such variations are common in cheeses involving mould-growth and are probably due to their matrix heterogeneity. This heterogeneity would be assigned to the development of microbial flora *Geotrichum candidum, Penicillium camembert and P. roqueforti* (Abbas, 2012; Prieto et al., 2000) and to the mineral migrations it may cause (Le Graet et al., 1983; McSweeney and Fox, 2004; McSweeney and Sousa, 2000). This result highlights the fact that PRAL values are strongly subjected to variations in inter-batch mineral compositions.

294 The great mean PRAL value found for FA was attributed to high Cl contents and more 295 precisely to much higher Cl concentrations than Na concentrations (Figure 2). Similar 296 observations were made in Parmesan from the work of Remer and Manz (1995), in blue-297 veined cheeses (Prieto et al., 2002, 2000), in Camembert (Boutrou et al., 1999) and in Cantal 298 cheese (De Freitas et al., 2007). This result emphasize that these two ions play a major role in the acid-forming potential of cheeses. It is noticeable that, from 2003, Na and Cl were omitted 299 300 from the PRAL formula when estimating a diet-dependent net acid load (Frassetto et al., 301 2007; Remer, 2003). Indeed, in several clinical studies, Na and Cl were found to fully 302 compensate when the urinary cation-anion difference was calculated (Remer and Manz, 303 1994). This changing allowed to overcome missing Cl data from food tables and assumed that 304 in the case of processed salted foods Na and Cl would always have a stoichiometric 305 relationship, with equal concentrations. However, in cheese-making technology, Cl ions in 306 milk, and later in cheese whey, are accompanied by either Na or other cations. Salt is added 307 during processing and a portion of Na and Cl ions are allowed to drain off into the whey. 308 Therefore, Na and Cl concentrations changes are unlikely to be stoichiometric. This work 309 demonstrates the interest of considering Na and Cl contents when calculating PRAL values of 310 dairy products. In the literature, very few works addressed the distribution of Cl and Na in cheese matrix to understand this feature. The diffusion of salt was studied, but NaCl content 311

312 was mainly considered from the Cl determination (Floury et al., 2009; Hardy, 1983; Morris et 313 al., 1985). This point would deserve further research. It is hypothesized that the applied 314 technology would explain this difference. A following of ions concentrations throughout 315 cheese processing would allow to address this issue. It is also possible that the addition of 316 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, widely used in cheese-making technology to improve yields, might be involved in this 317 phenomenon.

318 The hard cheeses CA and CO also showed high PRAL values, in agreement with Remer 319 and Manz (1995) who reported similar PRAL in Cheddar-type cheese. These characteristics 320 were the result of stronger acidifying elements than absolute values of alkalinizing ones: Cl, P and protein elements could not be compensated by Na and Ca elements, whereas K and Mg 321 322 had little impact given their low concentrations in the ripened cheeses. A higher protein 323 content in hard cheeses is a well-known consequence of the scalding/cooking and the pressing 324 processes used in the manufacture of cheese (Fox and Guinee, 2013). It was therefore an 325 awaited result. The acidogenic effect of proteins for the human body (Alexy et al., 2005; 326 Barzel and Massey, 1998; Frassetto et al., 1998) and especially animal protein (Sellmeyer et 327 al., 2001) has already been highlighted in several studies. Nevertheless, it is difficult to 328 evaluate the bearing of protein hydrolysis occurring during ripening on the acidifying 329 potential of cheeses. Proteolysis occurs in an extent heavily dependent on cheese 330 manufacturing technology (McSweeney and Sousa, 2000). The sulphur-containing amino 331 acids concentration, which are mainly responsible for the acidogenic impact of dietary 332 protein, is not supposed to be modified and justifies the assay of total nitrogen. However, it is 333 difficult to know whether the rate of these different fractions (intact/part hydrolysed proteins, 334 free amino acid) during digestion impact the acid-forming potential of cheese. Beyond the 335 well-known acidogenic impact of protein, an original result of this work deserves to be highlighted as it shows that the Cl and P elements have a stronger impact on the PRAL valueof ripened cheeses than proteins in hard cheeses. This point has never been reported before.

#### 338 **4.3** Impact of cheese type on organic anion contents

339 The most important organic sources of alkalis in the diet are organic acids that are 340 ingested in the form of salts of organic anions (Demigné et al., 2004; Poupin et al., 2012). 341 Despite PRAL calculation takes into account the cations contents (K, Na, Ca and Mg) of 342 foodstuffs, organic anions associated with these cations might have a different impact on the 343 acid-base balance whether they are metabolisable (for instance citrate and lactate) or not (for 344 instance oxalate or tartrate) (Demigné et al., 2004; Oh, 2000; Poupin et al., 2012; Sabboh et 345 al., 2007). Those that are effectively absorbed in the small intestine and are metabolized, 346 mostly in the liver, lead to the synthesis of HCO<sub>3</sub>, a powerful buffer system in the organism 347 (Poupin et al., 2012). In this sense, valuable contents in metabolisable organic anions are assumed to concur to the acid/alkaline potential of a food product (Demigné et al., 2004; 348 349 Sabboh et al., 2007). The daily food supply of organic anions might range from 1 to 4 g/day 350 as a function of dietary patterns. In subjects consuming a high-meat and high dairy products 351 diet, organic anions ingested with animal foods was suggested to be greater than that from 352 plant foods (Demigné et al., 2004).

In agreement with the literature, among the dairy products studied, milks were found as the richest products in citrate, whereas cheeses were the richest in lactate (Table 3) (Tormo and Izco, 2004; Upreti et al., 2006). The citrate content of milk (82.1 - 94.0 mg/100g) was close to the average citrate content of vegetables (139 mg/100g) but much lower than that of fruits, with more than 550 mg/100g in average (Demigné, 2008). FC was the poorest product in citrate. This may be due to the fact that citrate would be metabolized by cheese starters and non-starter microflora (McSweeney, 2004). By contrast, FC showed a high content in lactate, which is produced from lactose by the starter cultures (McSweeney and Fox, 2004). Thus, FC
might be considered to show an alkalinizing potential because of its lactate content.

362 All ripened cheeses exhibited low citrate contents. This was presumably due to nonstarter 363 lactic acid bacteria action, as suggested by (McSweeney, 2004) who reported a decline of 364 citrate content to trace elements during ripening in Cheddar cheese. Even if citrate 365 theoretically has a three-fold higher alkalinizing effect than lactate in the body due to its three 366 carboxyl groups, the low citrate content in ripened cheeses makes its base-forming potential 367 negligible compared to the lactate's one. CN contained the lowest concentration in lactate. In 368 fact, Camembert cheeses are known to have an extensive surface catabolism, resulting in a 369 fast metabolization of lactate by Geotrichum candidum and Penicillium camemberti in CO<sub>2</sub> 370 and H<sub>2</sub>O (McSweeney and Fox, 2004). Hard cheeses presently studied showed great amounts 371 of lactate. The lactate content of CA (1204 mg/100g) was similar to those found in farmer's 372 cheese and Cheddar (Izco et al., 2002) but also in uncooked pressed (hard) cheese (Delbès-373 Paus et al., 2012). Given these lactate contents, we could hypothesize that hard cheeses CA 374 and CO acid-forming potential might be less important than suspected from their PRAL 375 values only.

The main limitation of this work is that the lack of knowledge regarding the respective weight of PRAL and organic anions contents in the effective acid-forming potential of cheeses unable to fully conclude. Despite we emphasize that lactate could impact the PRAL measurement for cheeses, the way to use anion contents in the formula cannot be suggested from this study only. This issue would deserve further research and certainly clinical investigations.

382

383 **Conclusion** 

384 As demonstrated in this work, there is a strong link between the cheese type and the acid-385 forming potential of the cheese. Fresh cheese was characterized by a slightly negative PRAL 386 and ripened cheeses exhibited different acid-forming potentials. The soft bloomy-rind 387 Camembert cheese showed a moderate acid-forming potential, whereas hard cheeses and 388 blue-veined cheese exhibited the strongest acidogenic characters. The study of the respective 389 weight of PRAL elements emphasize a great imbalance between acidifying elements (Cl, P 390 and proteins elements) and alkalinizing ones (Na and Ca) to explain it. This work also 391 demonstrates that PRAL values were greatly subjected to inter-batch fluctuations encountered 392 in cheese industry. This exploratory work deserves to be continued to determine the evolution 393 of the acid-forming potential during cheese-manufacturing and to better understand its 394 generation. It is suggested that key steps of the process might influence the acidogenic 395 character of end-products, such as draining or salting.

Another noteworthy result is the high lactate content reported in hard cheeses which could suggest that these products could be less acidogenic than suspected from their PRAL value only.

At last, the present study focused on the acid-forming potential of cheeses as their level of consumption in western countries is suspected to impact the diet-dependent net acid load. However dairy products deserve to be considered with broader nutritional perspectives, since they play several roles on human health and remain the first contributors to Ca intake.

403

#### 404

### Declaration of conflicting interest

405 The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research,406 authorship, and/or publication of this article.

407

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#### **Figure captions**

**Figure 1.** Box plots of the Potential Renal Acid Load (PRAL) index of the products studied RM, raw milk; PM, pasteurized milk; FC, lactic coagulated fresh cheese; CN, soft mould-ripened Camembert de Normandie; FA, blue-veined cheese Fourme d'Ambert; CA, hard cheese Cantal; CO, hard cheese Comte. The data represents the average  $\pm$  SD, expressed in mEq/100g of edible portions; n=9.

Figure 2. PRAL indexes and PRAL elements of the products studied weighted with their derived factors

RM, raw milk; PM, pasteurized milk; FC, lactic coagulated fresh cheese; CN, soft mouldripened Camembert de Normandie; FA, blue-veined cheese Fourme d'Ambert; CA, hard cheese Cantal; CO, hard cheese Comte. The data represents the average  $\pm$  SD, expressed in mEq/100g of edible portions; n=9.







Figure 2:

	Cheese-type					
	Fresh cheese	Soft	cheeses	Hard cheeses		
Cheese name	Faisselle (FC)	Camembert de Normandie (CN)	Fourme d'Ambert (FA)	Cantal (CA)	Comte (CO)	
Official quality sign <sup>1</sup>	-	PDO	PDO	PDO	PDO	
Production area	-	Normandy	Auvergne	Auvergne	Franche-Comte	
Milk nature	pasteurized	raw	pasteurized	pasteurized	raw	
Species	cow	cow	cow	cow	cow	
Cheese-making	lactic coagulation	surface mould-	blue-veined	pressed	pressed	
technology		ripened		uncooked	cooked	
Weight (kg)	1	0.25	2.2	35-45	35-45	
Ripening time (d)	0	21	63	150	150	

Table 1. Characteristics of the five cheese varieties studied

<sup>1</sup>PDO – Protected Designation of Origin

Table 2. Basic chemical analysis (pH, dry matter content, fat, ash, protein and total nitrogen content) of milks and cheeses processed with different technologies (related to 100 g edible portion)

	Product type <sup>1,2</sup>							
	RM	PM	FC	CN	FA	СА	СО	p-value
рН	$6.72\pm0.00^{c}$	$6.72 \pm 0.01^{\circ}$	$4.28\pm0.03^a$	$6.77 \pm 0.10^{\circ}$	$7.09 \pm 0.03^{d}$	$5.70\pm0.09^{b}$	$5.82\pm0.02^{b}$	< 0.0001
Dry matter, g	$12.7\pm0.1^{ab}$	$12.6\pm0.1^{a}$	$13.3 \pm 1.5^{b}$	$47.2 \pm 1.3^{\circ}$	$52.8\pm2.6^d$	$59.9\pm0.6^{e}$	$65.8\pm0.3^{e}$	< 0.0001
Fat, g	$4.0 \pm 0.1^{b}$	$3.5\pm0.0^{\mathrm{a}}$	$5.8 \pm 0.2^{\circ}$	$23.6\pm0.8^{d}$	$28.7\pm0.6^{e}$	$32.6\pm2.1^{\rm f}$	$37.7\pm0.2^{\text{g}}$	< 0.0001
Ash, g	$0.66 \pm 0.03^{a}$	$0.81 \pm 0.02^{\circ}$	$0.71 \pm 0.02^{b}$	$2.42\pm0.09^d$	$4.04 \pm 0.24^{\rm f}$	$4.10 \pm 0.20^{\rm f}$	$3.42\pm0.39^{e}$	< 0.0001
Protein, g	$3.3 \pm 0.0^{a}$	$3.4 \pm 0.0^{a}$	$3.9 \pm 0.3^{b}$	$22.3\pm0.9^{d}$	$20.3 \pm 0.5^{\circ}$	$25.0\pm0.2^{e}$	$25.6\pm0.2^{\rm f}$	< 0.0001
Total nitrogen, g	$0.5\pm0.0^{\rm a}$	$0.5\pm0.0^{\rm a}$	$0.6\pm0.0^{\mathrm{b}}$	$3.5\pm0.2^{d}$	$3.2\pm0.1^{c}$	$3.9\pm0.0^{e}$	$4.0\pm0.0^{\rm f}$	< 0.0001

<sup>1</sup> RM, raw milk; PM, pasteurized milk; FC, lactic coagulated fresh cheese; CN, soft mould-ripened Camembert de Normandie; FA, blueveined cheese Fourme d'Ambert; CA, uncooked pressed cheese Cantal; CO, cooked pressed cheese Comte. <sup>2</sup>Results are presented by means of replicates  $\pm$  SD; n=9. <sup>a-g</sup> Means in a row sharing common superscripts are similar as tested by Conover-Iman test (P > 0.05).

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	Nutrient contents <sup>1,2</sup> (mg/100g)							
	RM	PM	FC	CN	FΔ	CA	CO	p-value
	IXIVI	1 141	I C	CIV	111	CIT	0	
Calcium	117.3 $\pm$	113.8 ±	$105.0 \pm$	$222.5~\pm$	396.4 ±	668.0 ±	761.8 ±	< 0.0001
	15.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.8 <sup>a</sup>	12.3 <sup>a</sup>	$14.0^{b}$	78.9 <sup>c</sup>	33.2 <sup>d</sup>	23.7 <sup>d</sup>	
Phosphorus	61.0 ±	65.0 ±	44.8 ±	$250.4 \pm$	304.8 ±	508.7 ±	571.4 ±	< 0.0001
	4.3 <sup>b</sup>	5.5 <sup>b</sup>	9.4 <sup>a</sup>	46.0 <sup>c</sup>	$78.0^{\circ}$	$28.6^{d}$	8.1 <sup>d</sup>	
Magnesium	7.8 ±	8.3 ±	11.5 ±	21.0 ±	20.6 ±	26.5 ±	31.1 ±	< 0.0001
	1.2 <sup>a</sup>	$0.7^{\mathrm{a}}$	1.4 <sup>b</sup>	5.3 <sup>c</sup>	$5.0^{\circ}$	1.9 <sup>d</sup>	0.9 <sup>e</sup>	
Potassium	$114.6 \pm$	126.2 $\pm$	94.1 ±	$129.3 \pm$	93.3 ±	93.2 ±	83.8 ±	< 0.0001
	11.1 <sup>b</sup>	9.3 <sup>c</sup>	14.3 <sup>a</sup>	12.3 <sup>c</sup>	14.3 <sup>a</sup>	$8.0^{\mathrm{a}}$	3.1 <sup>a</sup>	
Sodium	46.6 ±	39.2 ±	77.6 ±	$586.5 \pm$	743.9 ±	682.1 ±	443.3 ±	< 0.0001
	3.9 <sup>a</sup>	4.2 <sup>a</sup>	21.3 <sup>b</sup>	67.6 <sup>c</sup>	93.5 <sup>d</sup>	62.9 <sup>d</sup>	153.1 <sup>c</sup>	
Chloride	104.0 ±	95.3 ±	90.2 ±	$982.3\ \pm$	1,665.1 ±	1,240.8 ±	714.5 ±	< 0.0001
	1.4 <sup>c</sup>	3.0 <sup>b</sup>	$2.7^{a}$	43.3 <sup>e</sup>	240.2 <sup>g</sup>	113.7 <sup>f</sup>	242.8 <sup>d</sup>	
Lactate	3.3 ±	3.0 ±	$682.7 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm}$	$105.2 \pm$	399.9 ±	1,204.2 ±	873.6 ±	< 0.0001
	$0.7^{a}$	$0.6^{a}$	38.9 <sup>d</sup>	25.7 <sup>b</sup>	17.8 <sup>c</sup>	56.8 <sup>f</sup>	38.5 <sup>e</sup>	
Citrate	82.1 ±	94.0 ±	1.0 ±	28.7 ±	13.6 ±	$1.5\pm0.6^{\mathrm{a}}$	49.5 ±	< 0.0001
	2.4 <sup>d</sup>	3.3 <sup>e</sup>	0.3 <sup>a</sup>	$4.0^{\circ}$	1.6 <sup>b</sup>		19.5 <sup>°</sup>	

 Table 3. Mineral and organic anions content of milks and cheeses processed with

 different technologies (related to 100 g edible portion)

<sup>1</sup> RM, raw milk; PM, pasteurized milk; FC, lactic coagulated fresh cheese; CN, soft mould-ripened Camembert de Normandie; FA, blue-veined cheese Fourme d'Ambert; CA, hard cheese Cantal; CO, hard cheese Comte.

<sup>a-g</sup> Means in a row sharing common superscripts are similar as tested by Conover-Iman test (P > 0.05).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Means of replicates  $\pm$  SD; n=9.