Surface energy analysis (SEA) and rheology of powdered milk dairy products 1 2 Lubomir Lapčík^{1,2*}, Barbora Lapčíková^{1,2}, Eva Otyepková¹, Michal Otyepka¹, Jakub Vlček¹, 3 František Buňka², Richardos Nikolaos Salek² 4 5 ¹ Department of Physical Chemistry, Regional Centre of Advanced Technologies and 6 Materials, Faculty of Science, Palacky University, 17. listopadu 12, 77146 Olomouc, 7 Czech Republic 8 ² Tomas Bata University in Zlin, Faculty of Technology, Institute of Foodstuff Technology, 9 nám. T.G. Masaryka 5555, 760 05 Zlín, Czech Republic 10 11 12 *Corresponding author. E-mail address: lapcikl@seznam.cz, phone: +420732506770 13 14 **Kev words:** skimmed milk powder, whey powder, demineralised whey powder, wetting, 15 surface energy distribution, surface energy analysis, inverse gas chromatography, thermal 16 analysis, scanning electron microscopy, powder rheology, flow index 17 18 **Abstract** 19 Results of inverse gas chromatography adsorption/desorption experiments using selected 20 probes on skimmed milk, whey and demineralised whey powder materials are presented. The 21 dispersive component of surface energy was found to be dominant, indicating low polarity 22 character. Surface energy profiles of demineralised whey and skimmed milk showed a 23 characteristic steep exponential decrease from approximately 170 mJ/m² to 60 mJ/m² and 24 140 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m², respectively, whereas whey powder exhibited a constant (non-25

exponential) surface energy at approximately 45 mJ/m²**. The dispersive surface energy of demineralised whey and skimmed milk powder showed a broad distribution ranging from 40 mJ/m² to 120 mJ/m² and 175 mJ/m², respectively. In contrast, the dispersive surface energy distribution for whey was very narrow, ranging from only 42.8 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m². The determined yield locus and Mohr's circles indicated that demineralised whey exhibited free flowing powder characteristics, whereas skimmed milk and whey exhibited cohesive powder flow behaviour.

1. Introduction

Powdered milk is a major precursor for many food products. Its value has been enhanced in recent years by the relatively large amount of research conducted to support the development and commercialisation of dairy-based products with an increasing variety of flavours, textures and shelf-lives (Osorio, Monjes, Pinto, Ramirez, Simpson & Vega, 2014, Saffari & Langrish, 2014, Crowley, Gazi, Kelly, Huppertz & O'Mahony, 2014, Bolenz, Romisch & Wenker, 2014, Romeih, Abdel-Hamid & Awad, 2014, Martinez-Padilla, Garcia-Mena, Casas-Alencaster & Sosa-Herrera, 2014, Zhou, Liu, Chen, Chen & Labuza, 2014, Nilufer-Erdil, Serventi, Boyacioglu & Vodovotz, 2014). The colloidal nature of cow's milk is a crucial structural feature that affects its final product quality as well as processing behaviour (Fox & McSweeney, 1998, Gaucheron, Famelart, Mariette, Raulot, Michel & Legraet, 1997). It can be divided into two compositional **domains: the** casein micelle and the milk fat globule. These colloidal domains comprise nearly 80% of the approximate 12.7 g total solids per 100 g ¹ in milk. **Therefore, investigation of** the structure and interactions of these colloidal particles continues to be an important area of milk research. Dried milk powders (e.g. whole, skimmed or retentate), dried buttermilk, and other dairy powders (e.g.

cheese whey powder (WP), whey protein concentrates (WPC), whey protein isolates (WPI), caseinates and **lactose**) are products made from milk **or** whey where practically all the water is removed, i.e. to < 4 g per 100 g ¹ of water (Tamime, Robinson & Michel, 2007). These dried products have a very long shelf-life, they can be stored at ambient **temperature and** can be **readily** exported to countries that have a shortfall in milk production. After rehydrating milk powders, the reconstituted products may be similar to fresh milk (whole or **skimmed**), **whereas the remaining** dairy powders have different applications in the dairy, food and pharmaceutical industries.

In this **study**, **the** term skimmed milk powder defines a dairy product obtained by removing the water from skimmed milk, with a maximum fat content of 11%, a maximum moisture content of 5% and protein content not less than 31.4% of non-fatty dry extract. Skimmed milk powder is by far the most important of **all milk powders** and the most widely used form of milk protein in the food industry. Skimmed milk production firstly involves its evaporation to a concentration of about 50% of total solids. Thereafter, the evaporated skimmed milk can be dried in any of the various types of spray drier available. Two types of powder **can** therefore **be distinguished: roller-dried powder** and spray-dried powder. **Moreover**, **skimmed** milk powder **represents a** significant source of protein (35%) and carbohydrate (lactose, 50%) and can be used as a food ingredient, for reconstitution and as an animal feed. **As a** food **ingredient**, **it performs** three **main** functions: (i) contributes to a desirable dairy flavour, (ii) affects food **texture**, **and** (iii) enhances the development of desirable colour and flavour compounds (Tamime, Robinson & Michel, 2007, **Ranken**, **Kill & Baker**, 1997).

Whey is a general term describing the translucent liquid part of milk that remains following the process (isoelectric or rennet coagulation) of cheese manufacturing (Hoffman & Falvo, 2004, Manso & Lopez-Fandino, 2004). Whey prepared by isoelectric precipitation

or rennet coagulation is called acid whey (dry whey with 0.35% or higher titratable acidity on a reconstituted basis) or sweet (rennet) whey (dry whey not over 0.16% titratable acidity on a reconstituted basis), respectively. Whey contains nearly 50% of the total solids found in whole milk, including essentially all the lactose and whey proteins (Fundamentals of cheese, 15). The content of total essential amino acids and branched-chain amino acids is high in whey protein than in most other dietary proteins (Helaine, Valdemiro, Dias, Borges, & Tanikawa, 2001). Whey and whey products are commonly used in animal feed, dietetic foods (infant food), bread, confectionery, candies and beverages. The composition of whey products varies depending on several factors, including the source of the milk, production method, type of cheese and manufacturer's specifications. Whey and whey components contain a number of valuable minerals such as calcium, magnesium, manganese, phosphorus, copper, iron, zinc, sodium and potassium.

The main component of whey is lactose (70-75%), while the major component of whey solids are whey proteins (10-13%), mainly lactalbumin and globulins. Practically all the mineral elements found in whey are essential for nutrition. Condensed whey, dried whey, dried modified whey, whey protein concentrate and isolates, as well as lactose (crystallised and dried) are the most often reported whey products. Whey can also be processed into a number of valuable products, as well as some that are considered waste products. Examples of whey types include reduced lactose whey, demineralised whey, acid whey, sweet whey and whey protein concentrate. Whey protein is a complete, high quality protein with a rich amino acid profile. Whey proteins refer to a group of individual proteins or fractions that separate out from casein during cheese-making. These fractions are usually purified to different concentrations depending on the end composition desired and vary in their content of protein, lactose, carbohydrates, immunoglobulins, minerals and fat (Tamime et al., 2007).

Demineralised whey powder is produced from whey by selective removal of most of the minerals.

The properties of surfaces and interfaces characterised by surface or interfacial tension and surface energy have attracted increasing attention in recent years. Such properties affect many phenomena associated with adhesion, wetting, spreading and wicking, which play an important role in everyday life, natural processes and numerous industrial applications. These processes are important in various materials, for instance biopolymers (Lapčík, Lapčík, De Smedt, Demeester & Chabreček, 1998, Collins, 2014). synthetic polymers, wood (Lapčík, Lapčík, Kubíček, Lapčíková, Zbořil & Nevěčná, 2014), paper, stone, soils (Lapčík, Lapčíková, Krásný, Kupská, Greenwood & Waters, 2012), cereals and textiles, encompassing all possible types of surface from polar to non-polar (Gamble et al., 2012). However, the surfaces of such materials are usually rough rather than smooth and may even be porous, making their surface characterisation challenging. Despite the difficulties, several methods are applicable for characterising powder and librous materials (Gajdošíková, Lapčíková & Lapčík, 2011), such as the capillary rise method, thin-layer wicking and Wilhelmy plate method. In particular, a surface energy analysis technique based on inverse gas chromatography has been found to be very effective for characterising wetting phenomena on powders and fibres (Mohammadi-Jam & Waters, 2014, Lapčík, Otvepková, Lapčíková & Otvepka, 2013, Lazar, P. et al., 2014)

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2. Methods

2.1.Theoretical background

The surface free energy of a solid can be described by the sum of dispersive and specific contributions. Dispersive (apolar) interactions, also known as Lifshitz-van der Waals

interactions, consist of London interactions originating from electron density changes but may also include both Keesom and Debye interactions (Gajdošiková et al, 2011). Other forces influencing the magnitude of surface energy are Lewis acid-base interactions, which are generated between an electron acceptor (acid) and electron donor (base). They occur in compounds containing hydrogen bonds - strong secondary bonds between atoms of hydrogen and a highly electronegative element such as F, O, N and Cl or other compounds that can interact with Lewis acids and bases. Details of the most widely accepted theoretical treatment for estimation of solid surface free energies from selective wetting measurements are given in our recent review article (Gajdošíková et al., 2011).

The dispersive component of the surface energy γ_s^D can be calculated from the retention **times** obtained from inverse gas chromatography measurements of a series of nalkane probes injected at infinite dilution (concentration within the **Henry region** of the adsorption **isotherm**) (Belgacem, Gandini & Pefferkorn, 1999). For evaluation of these dependencies, two approaches have been used, as described by Equations (1) (Schultz, Lavielle & Martin, 1987) and (2) (Dorris & Gray, 1980):

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$$RT \ln V_N = a \left(r_{\rm L}^{\rm D} \right)^{1/2} 2N_{\rm A} \left(r_{\rm S}^{\rm D} \right)^{1/2} + C \tag{1}$$

where R is the universal gas constant, N_A is Avogadro's number, γ_L^D is the dispersive component of surface free energy of the liquid probe, γ_S^D is the dispersive component of the surface free energy of the solid, V_N is the retention volume and C is a constant, and

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$$f_{S}^{D} = \frac{\left[RT \ln \left(V_{N'C_{n}\Pi^{H_{2n-4}}}\right) / V_{N'C_{n}H_{2n-2}}\right]}{4 N_{A}^{2} a_{CH_{2}}^{2} f_{CH_{2}}}$$
 (2)

where a_{CH_2} is the surface area of a CH₂ unit (~0.6 nm²) and γ_{CH_2} is its free energy (approximately **35.6 mJ**/m²).

2.2.Experimental

Inverse gas chromatography was conducted using a **surface energy analyser** (SEA) (Surface Measurement Systems, UK). Samples were placed in 4 mm (internal diameter) **columns to** give a total surface area of approximately 0.5 m². The following eluent vapours were passed through the column: **nonane, octane, hexane and heptane.** All reagents were obtained from Sigma Aldrich (**USA**) and were of analytical grade. The injection of vapours was controlled **in order** to pass a set volume of eluent through the column to give pre-determined fractional coverage of the sample in the column. **Using this method, the** retention time of the vapours **through** the particles gives an indication of the surface properties of the material, including the surface energy. By gradually increasing the amount of vapour injected, it is possible to build up a surface heterogeneity plot.

Specific surface area measurements were made using a Micromeritics TriStar 3000 surface area and porosity analyser (USA) **combined with** the nitrogen BET technique.

Thermogravimetry (TG) and differential thermal analysis (DTA) experiments were performed on a Netzsch STA 449 C Jupiter simultaneous thermal analyser (Netzsch, Germany). Samples were weighted to aluminium pans and measured. Each measurement was repeated 3 ×. Conditions of measurement: Heat flow 10 °C/min and dynamic atmosphere of nitrogen (N₂ 50 ml/min), range of temperature measurement was from 35 °C to 300 °C. Throughout the experiment, the sample temperature and weight-heat flow changes were continuously monitored.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were captured on a Hitachi 6600 FEG microscope (Japan) operating in the secondary electron mode and using an accelerating voltage of 1 kV.

Powder rheology measurements were **acquired** on **a** FT4 Powder rheometer (Freeman Technology, UK). All experiments were performed **under the** laboratory ambient temperature **of 23** °C and air relative humidity **or 43%**.

The moisture content of the powdered samples was as follows: skimmed milk 3.7 wt.%, whey 2.0 wt.% and demineralised whey 2.4 wt.% (Moravia Lacto, Czech Republic). The powdered milk samples were stored under dry conditions in desiccators (at an ambient temperature of 23 °C) for 2 weeks prior to the experiments.

3. Results and discussion

A typical SEM image for the powdered milk materials under study is presented in Figure 1, showing that the particles had a spherical shape. The individual particle diameter of the powdered skimmed milk sample was found to be 15.1 µm, compared to 80.0 µm and 88.0 µm for the powdered whey and demineralised whey samples, respectively. All samples were characterised by thermogravimetric and DSC measurements over a temperature range of +35 to +300 °C to evaluate moisture content and thermal stability. The observed TG and DSC temperature dependencies are shown in Figures 2 and 3. It can be seen from these scans (Figure 2) that the powdered skimmed milk and whey samples exhibited three step weight loss patterns. The first TG weight loss step occurred from 35 to 150 °C and corresponded to a weight loss of 4.6 wt.% for the skimmed milk and 3.1 wt.% for the whey sample, representing moisture release of physically retained water molecules by casein or whey proteins. As all samples were conditioned at the same

humidity prior to the experiments, the linear zero moisture behaviour in the case of demineralised whey is likely due to its low mineral content in comparison to the other two materials (skimmed milk and whey). The second TG degradation step occurring over the temperature range 150 to 248 °C was attributed to the thermo-destruction of casein and whey proteins (Mocanu, Moldoveanu, Odochian, Paius, Apostolescu & Neculau, 2012). The thermal stability of the studied milk dairy products can be described by the initial temperature of thermal degradation (2. region), which was 150 °C. At this temperature, the weight loss for all samples was approximately 25 to 32 wt.%. The third degradation step was initiated at 248 °C for skimmed milk and whey and at 236 °C for demineralised whey. The residual masses were 62.9 wt.% for powdered skimmed milk, 56.9 wt.% for powdered whey and 60.9 wt.% for demineralised powdered whey. As evident from Figure 2, the weight lost pattern of skimmed milk during the third degradation step was inverted (became the lowest) in comparison to the first and second degradation regions. We ascribed this behaviour to the higher residual mass of lactose in comparison to the milk fats. The thermal characteristics of milk powder are significantly affected by fat and lactose content (Rahman, Al-Hakmani, Al-Alawi & Al-Marhubi, 2012). However, the tangent of the sample weight at 200 °C was higher for the whey products in comparison to the skimmed milk, indicating that milk fats have a lower degradation resistivity in comparison to lactose in skimmed milk. As milk is a multi-component mixture, it would be difficult to attribute its thermal behaviour to particular components as complex individual as well as synergistic effects need to be taken into account.

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Based on the DSC data (Figure 3), the first exothermic peak at approximately 170 °C can be assigned to lactose crystallisation and the second huge peak to the non-enzymatic browning advanced Maillard reaction between proteins and lactose, which is initiated at a temperature of 220 °C (Vuataz, Meunier & Andrieux, 2010, Rahman et al., 2012)). The last

third degradation region **is likely to correspond to oxidation** of milk fats **and lactose** degradation (Raemy, Hurrell & Löliger, 1983).

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The specific surface areas of the studied samples were identical for all materials under study. Although the obtained value of $0.6 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ was relatively low, it was in excellent agreement with data available in previous literature (Berlin, Howard & Pallansch, 1964).

Surface energy profiles and their components of the studied milk products powders based on the inverse gas chromatography measurements are shown in Figure 4. The surface energy profiles of skimmed milk and demineralised whey clearly differed from that of whey. The first two materials (skimmed milk and demineralised whey) showed a characteristic steep exponential decrease in surface energy from approximately 170 mJ/m² to 60 mJ/m² and 140 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m², respectively, between a coverage of 0% to approximately 2% (skimmed milk) and 5% (demineralised whey), reflecting the relatively low number of high energy sites on the surface of these materials. In contrast, for a surface coverage of 5% up to 20%, the surface energy profiles plateaued at 45 mJ/m² (skimmed milk) and 60 mJ/m² (demineralised whey). As clearly visible from Figure 4, the dispersive component dominated the surface energy, thus reflecting the non-polar nature of the surface active sites in **both skimmed** milk and demineralised **whey powders**. The same hydrophobic character was **also found for** the third material under **study, i.e.** whey. However, in contrary to the above mentioned skim milk and demineralised whey materials, a surface energy coverage dependence exhibited stable non-exponential (linear) pattern with the magnitude of the observed surface energy approximately 45 mJ/m², thus reflecting high homogeneity of acting energetic surface sites**. For all three tested materials, the polar component of the surface energy was negligible in comparison to the dispersive component. For both the whey and demineralised whey powders, its value was independent of coverage at approximately 5 mJ/m², thus suggesting a high uniformity of surface structural

components responsible for this kind of behaviour. However, the polar component of skimmed milk showed an exponential decay, ranging from 30 mJ/m² for a coverage of 0% coverage up to 5 mJ/m² for coverages of 3% up to 20%, which indicates a broader distribution of energetic sites responsible for such behaviour due to the increased complexity of the main milk constituents. It was also evident that the polar surface active sites were of relatively low energy in all the studied powders, providing further evidence of their low polarity character. Such behaviour can be attributed to the presence of milk fat components at the surface interface (Jensen, Ferris & Lammi-Keefe, 1991).

The measured dispersive surface energy (Figure 5), showed a characteristically broad distribution for both skimmed milk (40 mJ/m² to 175 mJ/m²) and demineralised whey (40 mJ/m² to 120 mJ/m²), thus reflecting the large number of structural elements responsible for this behaviour. However, the dispersive surface energy distribution of whey was very narrow (see Figure 5 - inset), ranging from only 42.8 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m², with relatively the same area increment occupancy of 2% as for demineralised whey. In contrast, the area increment occupancy for skimmed milk was 3 times higher, reaching 6%. This SEA pattern behaviour may be due to the greater concentration of inorganic salts in whey in comparison to milk and demineralised whey, which might successfully screen the most energetic surface sites (at the lowest surface coverage) by binding surrounding water molecules remaining as residual moisture content.

The macroscopic powder flow behaviour was also investigated by determining the yield locus and flow function dependencies at different stress levels for the studied samples. Results of the powder rheological measurements are shown in Figure 6, which presents the yield locus and Mohr's circles of the tested powder milk dairy products. The results show that demineralised whey exhibited free flowing powder characteristics, as indicated by the observed friction coefficient of 11.7. In contrast, the friction coefficients of the skimmed

milk and whey powders ranged from 3.3 to 4.5, which are values characteristic for cohesive powders behaviour. The unconfined yield strengths ranged from 1.37 kPa (demineralised whey) to 4.48 kPa (**skimmed** milk) and 4.69 kPa (whey). The unconfined yield **strength.** σ_c can be obtained from the stress circle tangential to the yield locus and passing through the origin (minor principal stress $\sigma_2 = 0$). Because the largest Mohr stress circle **indicated** a state of steady-state flow, the internal friction angle can be regarded as a measure of the internal friction at steady-state flow (Lapčík et al., 2012). For the studied samples, the angle of internal friction ranged from 26.5° for whey up to 36.4 and 40.4° for demineralised whey and skimmed milk, respectively. The relatively low value of the angle of internal friction observed for whey is consistent with the observed friction factor of 3.3 characteristic for cohesive powders. The relevant consolidation stress, σ_{I} , can be obtained from the major principal stress of the Mohr stress circle tangential to the yield locus and intersecting the point of steady flow. The major principle stress for all the tested powders was about 16 to 18 kPa. The latter stress circle represents the stresses in the sample at the end of the consolidation procedure (stress at steady state flow). It corresponds to the stress circle at the end of consolidation in the uniaxial compression test.

In addition to the above shear **testing, powder** aeration tests were performed, allowing consideration of the fluidisation capability of the studied powders. **The** aeration ratio **was found to range** from 32.4 for whey to 12.7 (demineralised whey) and 8.98 for **skimmed milk, whereas the** aerated **energy varied** from 4.8 mJ (whey) to 10.1 mJ (demineralised whey) and 14.4 mJ (**skimmed** milk). **The aeration** data **indicated** that **whey showed the lowest cohesion of all the samples tested, i.e.** highest aeration **ratio** in combination with the lowest aerated energy. All **the** tested powders **exhibited** complete fluidisation **at 4** mm/s air **velocity, with** basic flowability energy ranging from 127 mJ (**skimmed** milk and demineralised whey) to 157 mJ for whey.

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Conclusions

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The results showed that the surface energy of the studied milk product powders was dominated by the dispersive component, indicating their low polarity character. Surface energy profiles of skimmed milk and demineralised whey showed a characteristic steep exponential decrease of the surface energy from approximately 170 mJ/m² to 60 mJ/m² (demineralised whey) and of 140 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m² (skimmed milk), reflecting the relatively small number of high energy sites located at the surface of the studied materials. From 5% up to 20% surface coverage, the surface energy profiles reached a plateau at 45 mJ/m² for **skimmed** milk and 60 mJ/m² for demineralised **whev. Whev** powder surface energy coverage dependence exhibited stable non-exponential (linear) pattern with the magnitude of the observed surface energy approximately 45 mJ/m², thus reflecting high homogeneity of acting energetic surface sites. For all three tested materials, the polar component of the surface energy was negligible in comparison to the dispersive component. It was found that the polar surface active sites were of relatively low energy in all the studied powders, confirming their low polarity character. The observed dispersive surface energy showed characteristically broad distributions for skimmed milk and demineralised whey ranging from 40 mJ/m² to 175 mJ/m² and 120 mJ/m², respectively, thus reflecting the large number of structural elements responsible for this behaviour. In contrast, the dispersive surface energy distribution of whey was very narrow, ranging from only 42.8 mJ/m² to 45 mJ/m². The macroscopic powder flow behaviour of the studied materials was analysed by examining the yield locus and flow function dependencies at different stress levels. The determined yield locus and Mohr's circles indicated that demineralised whey exhibited free flowing powder characteristics (observed friction coefficient 11.7). However, the friction

coefficients of **the skimmed** milk and whey powders were in the **range 3.3** to 4.5, **which are** values characteristic for cohesive **powders**. All tested powders **allowed** complete fluidisation **at 4 mm**/s air **velocity**, **with** basic flowability **energies** ranging from 127 mJ (**skimmed** milk and demineralised whey) to 157 mJ for whey.

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Figures captions 422 423 Figure 1. SEM images of studied powders: A) skimmed milk, B) whey, and C) demineralised 424 whey. 425 Figure 2. Thermogravimetric analysis of studied powder milk products: full line – powdered 426 427 skimmed milk, **dotted** line powdered whey, short dashed line – demineralised powdered whey. 428 Figure 3. DSC pattern of studied powder milk products: full line - powdered skimmed milk, 429 dot line **– powdered** whey, short dashed line **–** demineralised **powdered** whey. 430 Figure 4. Surface energy and its **component** profiles **of powdered** milk products: circle **–** 431 432 powdered whey, triangle – demineralised powdered whey, diamond – powdered skimmed milk, black- dispersive component of the surface energy (SFE), red polar component of 433 **SFE**, **green** colour – total SFE. 434 Figure 5. Dispersive surface energy distribution of demineralised powdered whey (circle), 435 powdered skimmed milk (triangle down) and powdered whey (triangle up). Inset: 436

Figure 6. Yield locus and Mohr's circles of studied **powdered** milk products: full square – **skimmed** milk, full triangle up whey, empty circle demineralised whey (measured at 24 °C).

expanded dispersive surface energy distribution **of** whey sample.

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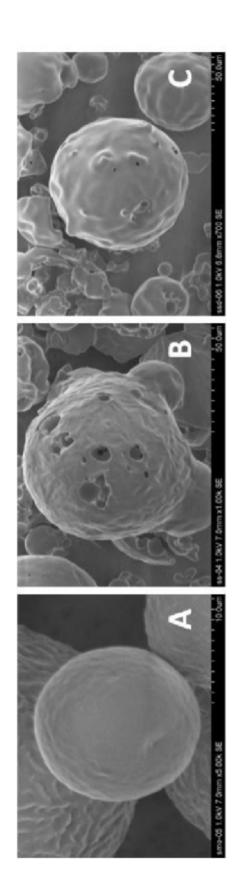


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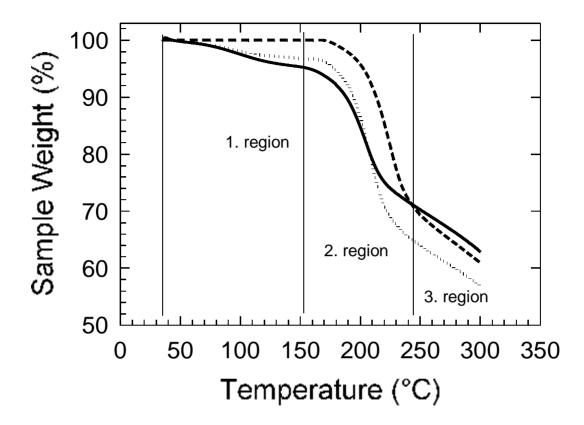


Figure 2. Thermogravimetric **analysis of** studied powder milk products: full line **– powdered** skimmed milk, **dotted** line **powdered** whey, short dashed line **–** demineralised **powdered** whey.

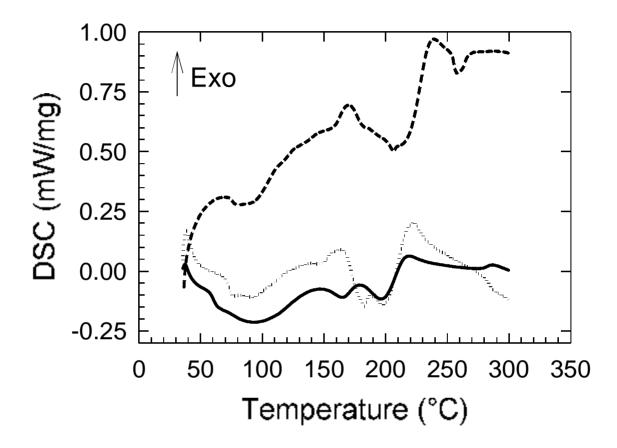


Figure 3. DSC pattern of studied powder milk products: full line **– powdered** skimmed milk, dot line **– powdered** whey, short dashed line – demineralised **powdered** whey.

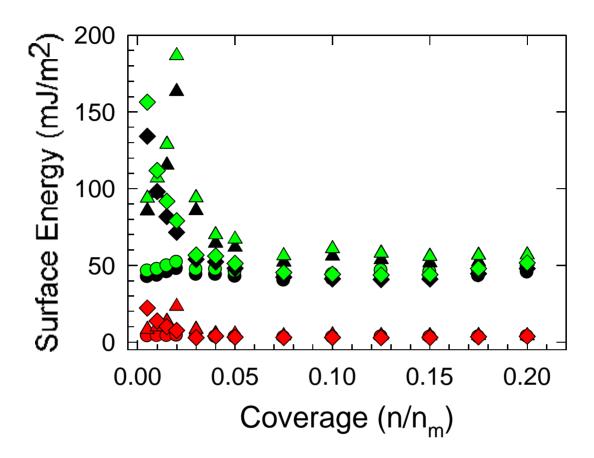


Figure 4. Surface energy and its **component** profiles **of powdered** milk products: circle – **powdered** whey, **triangle** – demineralised **powdered** whey, diamond – **powdered skimmed** milk, black – dispersive component of the surface energy (SFE), **red** polar component of SFE, green colour – total SFE.

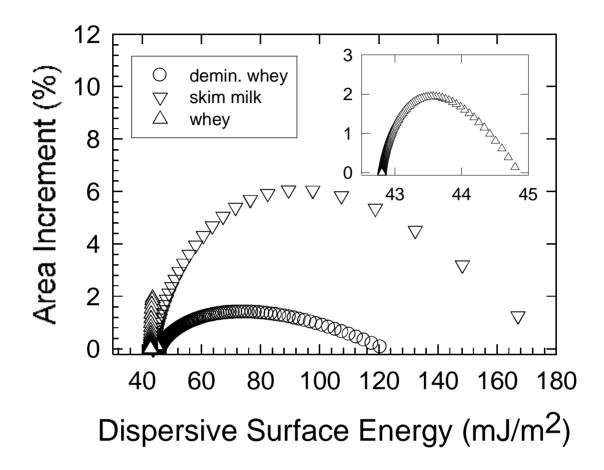


Figure 5. Dispersive surface energy distribution of demineralised powdered whey (circle), powdered skimmed milk (triangle down) and powdered whey (triangle up). Inset: expanded dispersive surface energy distribution of whey sample.

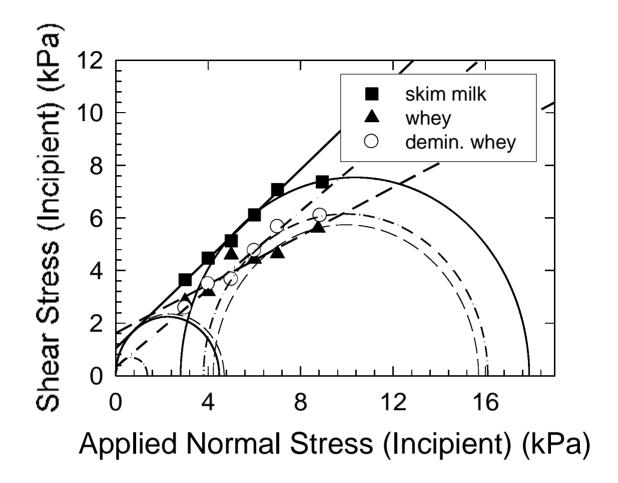


Figure 6. Yield locus and Mohr's circles of studied **powdered** milk products: full square **skimmed** milk, full triangle up – whey, empty circle – demineralised whey (measured at 24 °C).