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Surface energy analysis (SEA) and rheology of powdered milk dairy products 1 2 Lubomir Lapčík<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Barbora Lapčíková<sup>1,2</sup>, Eva Otvepková<sup>1</sup>, Michal Otvepka<sup>1</sup>, Jakub Vlček<sup>1</sup>, 3 František Buňka<sup>2</sup>, Richardos Nikolaos Salek<sup>2</sup> 4 5 <sup>1</sup> 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 <sup>2</sup> 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 <sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author. 12 E-mail address: lapcikl@seznam.cz, phone: +420732506770 13 14 Key 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/m<sup>2</sup> to 60 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> and 24 140  $mJ/m^2$  to 45  $mJ/m^2$ , respectively, whereas whey powder exhibited a constant (non-25

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exponential) surface energy at approximately 45 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>\*\*. The dispersive surface energy of demineralised whey and skimmed milk powder showed a broad distribution ranging from 40 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 120 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> and 175 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively. In contrast, the dispersive surface energy distribution for whey was very narrow, ranging from only 42.8 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 45 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>. 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.

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- 34 **1. Introduction**
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**Powdered** milk is a major precursor for many food products. Its value has been enhanced 36 in recent years by the relatively large amount of research conducted to support the 37 development and commercialisation of dairy-based products with an increasing variety of 38 flavours, textures and shelf-lives (Osorio, Monjes, Pinto, Ramirez, Simpson & Vega, 2014, 39 Saffari & Langrish, 2014, Crowley, Gazi, Kelly, Huppertz & O'Mahony, 2014, Bolenz, 40 Romisch & Wenker, 2014, Romeih, Abdel-Hamid & Awad, 2014, Martinez-Padilla, Garcia-41 Mena, Casas-Alencaster & Sosa-Herrera, 2014, Zhou, Liu, Chen, Chen & Labuza, 2014, 42 Nilufer-Erdil, Serventi, Boyacioglu & Vodovotz, 2014). The colloidal nature of cow's milk is 43 a crucial structural feature that affects its final product quality as well as processing 44 45 behaviour (Fox & McSweeney, 1998, Gaucheron, Famelart, Mariette, Raulot, Michel & 46 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 47 total solids per 100 g  $^{1}$  in milk. Therefore, investigation of the structure and interactions of 48 these colloidal particles continues to be an important area of milk research. Dried milk 49 powders (e.g. whole, skimmed or retentate), dried buttermilk, and other dairy powders (e.g. 50

cheese whey powder (WP), whey protein concentrates (WPC), whey protein isolates (WPI), 51 52 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<sup>-1</sup> of water (Tamime, Robinson & Michel, 2007). These 53 dried products have a very long shelf-life, they can be stored at ambient temperature and can 54 be **readily** exported to countries that have a shortfall in milk production. After rehydrating 55 milk powders, the reconstituted products may be similar to fresh milk (whole or **skimmed**), 56 whereas the remaining dairy powders have different applications in the dairy, food and 57 pharmaceutical industries. 58

In this **study**, the term skimmed milk powder defines a dairy product obtained by 59 60 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. 61 Skimmed milk powder is by far the most important of **all milk powders** and the most widely 62 used form of milk protein in the food industry. Skimmed milk production firstly involves its 63 evaporation to a concentration of about 50% of total solids. Thereafter, the evaporated 64 skimmed milk can be dried in any of the various types of spray drier available. Two types of 65 powder can therefore be distinguished: roller-dried powder and spray-dried powder. 66 Moreover, skimmed milk powder represents a significant source of protein (35%) and 67 carbohydrate (lactose, 50%) and can be used as a food ingredient, for reconstitution and as an 68 animal feed. As a food ingredient, it performs three main functions: (i) contributes to a 69 desirable dairy flavour, (ii) affects food texture, and (iii) enhances the development of 70 71 desirable colour and flavour compounds (Tamime, Robinson & Michel, 2007, Ranken, Kill 72 & 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 76 77 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 78 79 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 80 whey protein than in most other dietary proteins (Helaine, Valdemiro, Dias, Borges, & 81 Tanikawa, 2001). Whey and whey products are commonly used in animal feed, dietetic foods 82 (infant food), bread, confectionery, candies and beverages. The composition of whey products 83 varies depending on several factors, including the source of the milk, production method, type 84 85 of cheese and manufacturer's specifications. Whey and whey components contain a number of valuable minerals such as calcium, magnesium, manganese, phosphorus, copper, iron, 86 zinc, sodium and potassium. 87

The main component of whey is lactose (70-75%), while the major component of 88 whey solids are whey proteins (10-13%), mainly lactalbumin and globulins. Practically all 89 the mineral elements found in whey are essential for nutrition. Condensed whey, dried whey, 90 dried modified whey, whey protein concentrate and isolates, as well as lactose (crystallised 91 92 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 93 of whey types include reduced lactose whey, demineralised whey, acid whey, sweet whey and 94 95 whey protein concentrate. Whey protein is a complete, high quality protein with a rich amino 96 acid profile. Whey proteins refer to a group of individual proteins or fractions that separate 97 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 98 protein, lactose, carbohydrates, immunoglobulins, minerals and fat (Tamime et al., 2007). 99

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

The properties of surfaces and interfaces characterised by surface or interfacial 102 tension and surface energy have attracted increasing attention in recent years. Such 103 104 properties affect many phenomena associated with adhesion, wetting, spreading and 105 wicking, which play an important role in everyday life, natural processes and numerous industrial applications. These processes are important in various materials, for instance 106 107 biopolymers (Lapčík, Lapčík, De Smedt, Demeester & Chabreček, 1998, Collins, 2014). 108 svuthetic polymers, wood (Lapčík, Lapčík, Kubíček, Lapčíková, Zbořil & Nevěčná, 2014), paper, stone, soils (Lapčík, Lapčíková, Krásný, Kupská, Greenwood & Waters, 2012), 109 cereals and textiles, encompassing all possible types of surface from polar to non-polar 110 111 (Gamble et al., 2012). However, the surfaces of such materials are usually rough rather 112 than smooth and may even be porous, making their surface characterisation challenging. Despite the difficulties, several methods are applicable for characterising powder and 113 fibrous materials (Gajdošíková, Lapčíková & Lapčík, 2011), such as the capillary rise 114 method, thin-layer wicking and Wilhelmy plate method. In particular, a surface energy 115 116 analysis technique based on inverse gas chromatography has been found to be very effective 117 for characterising wetting phenomena on powders and fibres (Mohammadi-Jam & Waters, 2014, Lapčík, Otvepková, Lapčíková & Otvepka, 2013, Lazar, P. et al., 2014) 118

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121 **2. Methods** 

# 122 **2.1.***Theoretical background*

123 The surface free energy of a solid can be described by the sum of dispersive and 124 specific contributions. Dispersive (apolar) interactions, also known as Lifshitz-van der Waals 125 interactions, consist of London interactions originating from electron density changes but 126 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 127 128 generated between an electron acceptor (acid) and electron donor (base). They occur in compounds containing hydrogen bonds - strong secondary bonds between atoms of hydrogen 129 and a highly electronegative element such as F, O, N and Cl or other compounds that can 130 interact with Lewis acids and bases. Details of the most widely accepted theoretical 131 treatment for estimation of solid surface free energies from selective wetting measurements 132 are given in our recent review article (Gajdošíková et al., 2011). 133

The dispersive component of the surface energy  $\gamma_s^{\rm D}$  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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141 
$$RT \ln V_N = a \left( r_L^D \right)^{1/2} 2N_A \left( r_S^D \right)^{1/2} + C$$
(1)

142

143 where *R* is the universal gas constant,  $N_A$  is Avogadro's number,  $\gamma_L^D$  is the dispersive 144 component of surface free energy of the liquid probe,  $\gamma_S^D$  is the dispersive component of the 145 surface free energy of the solid,  $V_N$  is the retention volume and *C* is a constant, and 146

147 
$$\gamma_{\rm S}^{\rm D} = \frac{\left[RT \ln\left(V_{N(C_{\rm n\,I}H_{2n-4})}\right)/V_{N(C_{\rm n}H_{2n-2})}\right]}{4 N_{\rm A}^2 a_{\rm CH_2}^2 \,\dot{\gamma}_{\rm CH_2}}$$
(2)

148

149 where  $a_{CH_2}$  is the surface area of a CH<sub>2</sub> unit (~0.6 nm<sup>2</sup>) and  $\gamma_{CH_2}$  is its free energy 150 (approximately **35.6 mJ**/m<sup>2</sup>).

151

- 152 **2.2.Experimental**
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154 Inverse gas chromatography was conducted using a surface energy analyser (SEA) (Surface 155 Measurement Systems, UK). Samples were placed in 4 mm (internal diameter) columns to give a total surface area of approximately 0.5 m<sup>2</sup>. The following eluent vapours were passed 156 through the column: nonane, octane, hexane and heptane. All reagents were obtained from 157 Sigma Aldrich (USA) and were of analytical grade. The injection of vapours was controlled 158 in order to pass a set volume of eluent through the column to give pre-determined fractional 159 coverage of the sample in the column. Using this method, the retention time of the vapours 160 through the particles gives an indication of the surface properties of the material, including 161 the surface energy. By gradually increasing the amount of vapour injected, it is possible to 162 build up a surface heterogeneity plot. 163

164 Specific surface area measurements were made using a Micromeritics TriStar 3000 165 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 (N<sub>2</sub> 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.

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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.

183

# 184 **3. Results and discussion**

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A typical SEM image for the powdered milk materials under study is presented in 186 Figure 1, showing that the particles had a spherical shape. The individual particle 187 diameter of the powdered skimmed milk sample was found to be 15.1 µm, compared to 188 80.0 um and 88.0 um for the powdered whey and demineralised whey samples, 189 190 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 191 192 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 193 samples exhibited three step weight loss patterns. The first TG weight loss step occurred 194 from 35 to 150 °C and corresponded to a weight loss of 4.6 wt.% for the skimmed milk 195 196 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 197

198 humidity prior to the experiments, the linear zero moisture behaviour in the case of 199 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 200 temperature range 150 to 248 °C was attributed to the thermo-destruction of casein and 201 whey proteins (Mocanu, Moldoveanu, Odochian, Paius, Apostolescu & Neculau, 2012). The 202 thermal stability of the studied milk dairy products can be described by the initial 203 temperature of thermal degradation (2. region), which was 150 °C. At this temperature, the 204 weight loss for all samples was approximately 25 to 32 wt.%. The third degradation step was 205 initiated at 248 °C for skimmed milk and whey and at 236 °C for demineralised whey. The 206 residual masses were 62.9 wt.% for powdered skimmed milk, 56.9 wt.% for powdered 207 whey and 60.9 wt.% for demineralised powdered whey. As evident from Figure 2, the 208 209 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 210 211 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 212 (Rahman, Al-Hakmani, Al-Alawi & Al-Marhubi, 2012). However, the tangent of the 213 sample weight at 200 °C was higher for the whey products in comparison to the skimmed 214 milk, indicating that milk fats have a lower degradation resistivity in comparison to lactose 215 in skimmed milk. As milk is a multi-component mixture, it would be difficult to attribute 216 its thermal behaviour to particular components as complex individual as well as synergistic 217 effects need to be taken into account. 218

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).

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 228 on the inverse gas chromatography measurements are shown in Figure 4. The surface 229 230 energy profiles of skimmed milk and demineralised whey clearly differed from that of 231 whey. The first two materials (skimmed milk and demineralised whey) showed a characteristic steep exponential decrease in surface energy from approximately  $170 \text{ mJ/m}^2$ 232 to 60 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> and 140 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 45 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively, between a coverage of 0% to 233 234 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 235 a surface coverage of 5% up to 20%, the surface energy profiles plateaued at 45  $mJ/m^2$ 236 (skimmed milk) and 60 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> (demineralised whey). As clearly visible from Figure 4, the 237 dispersive component dominated the surface energy, thus reflecting the non-polar nature of 238 239 the surface active sites in **both skimmed** milk and demineralised **whey powders**. The same 240 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 241 energy coverage dependence exhibited stable non-exponential (linear) pattern with the 242 magnitude of the observed surface energy approximately 45  $mJ/m^2$ , thus reflecting high 243 homogeneity of acting energetic surface sites\*\*. For all three tested materials, the polar 244 component of the surface energy was negligible in comparison to the dispersive component. 245 For both the whey and demineralised whey powders, its value was independent of 246 coverage at approximately 5 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>, thus suggesting a high uniformity of surface structural 247

components responsible for this kind of behaviour. However, the polar component of 248 skimmed milk showed an exponential decay, ranging from 30 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> for a coverage of 249 0% coverage up to 5 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> for coverages of 3% up to 20%, which indicates a broader 250 distribution of energetic sites responsible for such behaviour due to the increased complexity 251 of the main milk constituents. It was also evident that the polar surface active sites were of 252 relatively low energy in all the studied powders, providing further evidence of their low 253 polarity character. Such behaviour can be attributed to the presence of milk fat components at 254 the surface interface (Jensen, Ferris & Lammi-Keefe, 1991). 255

The measured dispersive surface energy (Figure 5), showed a characteristically broad 256 distribution for both skimmed milk (40 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 175 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>) and demineralised whey (40 257  $mJ/m^2$  to 120  $mJ/m^2$ ), thus reflecting the large number of structural elements responsible for 258 this behaviour. However, the dispersive surface energy distribution of whey was very 259 **narrow** (see Figure 5 - inset), ranging from only 42.8 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 45 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>, with relatively 260 261 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 262 behaviour may be due to the greater concentration of inorganic salts in whey in comparison 263 to milk and demineralised whey, which might successfully screen the most energetic surface 264 sites (at the lowest surface coverage) by binding surrounding water molecules remaining as 265 residual moisture content. 266

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 273 milk and whey powders ranged from 3.3 to 4.5, which are values characteristic for cohesive 274 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.  $\sigma_{c}$ 275 276 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 277 of steady-state flow, the internal friction angle can be regarded as a measure of the internal 278 friction at steady-state flow (Lapčík et al., 2012). For the studied samples, the angle of 279 internal friction ranged from 26.5° for whey up to 36.4 and 40.4° for demineralised whey and 280 skimmed milk, respectively. The relatively low value of the angle of internal friction 281 observed for whey is consistent with the observed friction factor of 3.3 characteristic for 282 cohesive powders. The relevant consolidation stress,  $\sigma_I$ , can be obtained from the major 283 principal stress of the Mohr stress circle tangential to the yield locus and intersecting the 284 point of steady flow. The major principle stress for all the tested powders was about 16 to 285 18 kPa. The latter stress circle represents the stresses in the sample at the end of the 286 consolidation procedure (stress at steady state flow). It corresponds to the stress circle at the 287 end of consolidation in the uniaxial compression test. 288

In addition to the above shear **testing**, **powder** aeration tests were performed, allowing 289 290 consideration of the fluidisation capability of the studied powders. The aeration ratio was 291 found to range from 32.4 for whey to 12.7 (demineralised whey) and 8.98 for skimmed 292 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 293 lowest cohesion of all the samples tested, i.e. highest aeration ratio in combination with the 294 lowest aerated energy. All the tested powders exhibited complete fluidisation at 4 mm/s air 295 velocity, with basic flowability energy ranging from 127 mJ (skimmed milk and 296 demineralised whey) to 157 mJ for whey. 297

298

### 299 Conclusions

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The results showed that the surface energy of the studied milk product powders was 301 dominated by the dispersive component, indicating their low polarity character. Surface 302 energy profiles of skimmed milk and demineralised whey showed a characteristic steep 303 exponential decrease of the surface energy from approximately 170 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 60 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> 304 (demineralised whey) and of 140 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 45 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> (skimmed milk), reflecting the 305 relatively **small** number of high energy sites located at the surface of the studied materials. 306 From 5% up to 20% surface coverage, the surface energy profiles reached a plateau at 45 307  $mJ/m^2$  for skimmed milk and 60  $mJ/m^2$  for demineralised whev. Whey powder surface 308 energy coverage dependence exhibited stable non-exponential (linear) pattern with the 309 magnitude of the observed surface energy approximately 45  $mJ/m^2$ , thus reflecting high 310 homogeneity of acting energetic surface sites. For all three tested materials, the polar 311 component of the surface energy was negligible in comparison to the dispersive component. It 312 was found that the polar surface active sites were of relatively low energy in all the studied 313 powders, **confirming** their low polarity character. **The observed** dispersive surface energy 314 showed characteristically broad distributions for skimmed milk and demineralised whey 315 ranging from 40 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> to 175 mJ/m<sup>2</sup> and 120 mJ/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively, thus reflecting the large 316 number of structural elements responsible for this behaviour. In contrast, the dispersive 317 surface energy distribution of whey was very narrow, ranging from only 42.8  $mJ/m^2$  to 45 318  $mJ/m^2$ . The macroscopic powder flow behaviour of the studied materials was analysed by 319 examining the yield locus and flow function dependencies at different stress levels. The 320 determined yield locus and Mohr's circles indicated that demineralised whey exhibited free 321 flowing powder characteristics (observed friction coefficient 11.7). However, the friction 322

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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### 422 Figures captions

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Figure 1. SEM images of studied powders: A) skimmed milk, B) whey, and C) demineralisedwhey.

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

429 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).

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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.



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