FOOD INDUSTRIES MANUAL

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FOOD INDUSTRIES MANUAL

20th Edition

edited by

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Food Industries Manual, 20th Edition

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Preface to Twentieth Edition

Techniques of food manufacturing, handling and packaging have advanced significantly in the seven years since the last edition of FOOD INDUSTRIES MANUAL. These advances are reflected in this, the twentieth edition, which has been largely written from scratch.

The basic arrangement of previous editions, which has satisfactorily stood the test of time, has been retained. Some of the contents of previous editions have been rearranged into more logical sequence. Jams and jellies have been taken out of the section on Confectionery and incorporated in a new section on Preserves. The section on Fish Processing has been considerably enlarged. Storage, Refrigeration and Handling have been combined into one section. A new section on Nutrition makes its appearance, incorporating in more readable form the tables at the end of the previous edition devoted to Vitamins and Composition of Foods, and providing additional information on this important subject.

It is considered that these and other changes improve the overall balance. The result is an encyclopaedia of practical food technology compiled by specialists of international repute, each of whom is a practitioner in close touch with current developments in his field.

My thanks are due to the contributors who have given without stint their knowledge and time; and acknowledgment is made of the work of the late T. Crosbie-Walsh, F.R.l.C., originator of the MANUAL and Editor of earlier editions.

ANTHONY WOOLLEN
23 January 1969

List of Contents

		Page
	Preface	v
	List of Figures	viii
	List of Tables	ix
Chap	oter	
I	Baking: J. F. Herringshaw (A.R.C.S., Ph.D., F.R.I.C.)	1
II	Canning and Freezing: D. A. Herbert (F.R.I.C., F.I.F.S.T., M.I.Biol.) and J. D. Felmingham (B.Sc., F.R.S.H., F.I.F.S.T., M.I. Blog.)	13
TIT	M.Inst.Pkg.)	57
	Confectionery: R. Lees (M.R.S.H., A.I.F.S.T.)	31
IV	The Dairy Industry: J. G. Davis (D.Sc., Ph.D., F.R.I.C., F.I.F.S.T., F.R.S.H.)	75
V	Dehydration: C. G. Tucker (B.Sc., F.I.C.I., F.I.F.S.T.)	159
VI	Fats and Fatty Foods: P. Brown (M. Inst. Inf. Sci.) and I. D. Morton (Ph.D.)	185
VII	Fish Processing: C. L. Cutting (Ph.D., B.Sc.)	213
VIII	Fruit Juices and Fruit Juice Beverages: J. Shacklady (B.Sc., A.R.I.C., F.I.F.S.T.)	248
IX	Meat and Meat Products: Fergus Hill (Ph.D.)	280
X	Flour and Flour Milling: J. F. Herringshaw (A.R.C.S., Ph.D., F.R.I.C.)	303
ΧI	Nutrition: A. E. Bender (Ph.D., B.Sc., F.R.I.C.)	326
	Packaging: F. A. Paine (B.Sc., F.R.I.C., M.Inst.Pkg., A.M.I.O.P.)	348
	Preserves: J. R. Blanchfield (B.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.R.I.C., F.I.F.S.T., M.R.I.P.H.H.)	389
XIV	Pickles and Sauces: J. R. Blanchfield (B.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.R.I.C., F.I.F.S.T., M.R.I.P.H.H.)	422
XV	Storage, Refrigeration and Handling: Frank H. Slade (C.Eng., M.I.Mech.E.)	460
	Index	499

List of Figures

Figur	e	Page
4.1	Curves showing true acidity values for acid solutions that are being neutralized by an alkali	76
4.2	Titration curves of phosphoric and citric acid	76
4.3	Titration curves of various types of milk	76
4.4	Standardization of fat content of cream (or milk)	145
10.1	Typical Alveographe curve	304
10.2	Curve A shows dough of marked stability but poor distensibility; curve B is indicative of a soft runny dough	304
10.3	Curves from doughs made from various wheaten flours	304
10.4	Typical Amylograph curves	305
10.5	Farinograph curve	313
12.1	Types of paper bags	352
12.2	Difference between exposing paper side and polymer side of a polyethylene laminate to a high relative humidity	354
12.3	Types of tins	356
12.4	Some typical types of carton based on the tube	358
12.5	Some lock-style hinged lid trays	359
12.6	Constant motion cartoning machines—horizontal	360
12.7	Constant motion cartoning machines—vertical	360
12.8	Behaviour of some substrates of different surface characteristics	363
12.9	Thickness and weight of various materials	373
12.10	Vacuum-sealed bottle closures	377
12.11	Types of pressure-resistant bottle closures	378
12.12	Alternative methods of making pouches	384
12.13	Alternative methods of making sachets	384
12.14	Thermo-forming	384
	Open mouth and valve sacks	386
13.1	Jam manufacture, with atmospheric pressure batch-boiling	404
13.2	Jam manufacture, with batch vacuum-boiling	405
13.3	Bakery jam manufacture, with continuous vacuum evaporation	406
13.4	Jam manufacture, with continuous boiling at atmospheric pressure	408
13.5	Jam cooling tray	409
13.6	Handling of citrus fruits for marmalade manufacture	416
13.7	Part of a pectin molecule chain	419
14.1	Typical time/temperature curves for batch pasteurization of pickled beetroot	426
14.2	Brine strengths and salt concentrations	441
	Sequence of operations in the making of tomato purée	451

List of Tables

Table		Page
2.1	Typical processing times and temperatures for bottled fruit	30
2.2	Comparing Brix and specific gravity scales	53
2.3	Corrections to be applied to Brix readings	54
3.1	Boiling points of sucrose	71
3.2	Factors relating the concentration of confectioners' glucose and invert sugar solutions to that of sucrose solutions boiling at the same temperature	71
3.3	Variation in the boiling point of water with change in barometric pressure	7 1
3.4	The effect of the geographic situation on the boiling point of water	72
4.1	Accuracy of routine tests	75
4.2	Bacteria: predominant flora of milks	81
4.3	Typical composition of milk of five main breeds of cow	81
4.4	By-products of butter, cream and cheese	85
4.5	Methods of making—summary of fundamental cheese-types	88
4.6	Typical acidities in cheese manufacture	88
4.7	Physical properties of different varieties	89
4.8	Nutritive value of common foods	91
4.9	Analysis of common types of English cheese	96
4.10	Enzymes in cheese	97
4.11	Cheese in England and Wales	101
		106-7
	The composition of bovine colostrum	109
	Composition, average, of milk and fluid milk products	109
	Average composition	111
	Range of analysis	111
	Advantages and disadvantages of milk containers	112
	Effect of temperature on bacterial growth	112
	Relation between count and keeping quality	113
	Milk flow chart	113
4.21	Dairy industry data	114
	Dairy industry data	114
4.23	Classification of flavours in milk	121
4.24	Preponderance of feed flavours in milk	121
	Comparative incidence in each season and per cent of total observations each season	122
4.26	Creameries handling liquid milk only. Tests for producers' milk	125
	Other tests in creameries handling milk only	125
	Manufacturing creameries	125
	Analytical properties requiring rapid estimation in the dairy	
	industry	126
4.30	Composition of milk of various mammals	130
4 31	Role of constituents in various types of dairy product	130

LIST OF TABLES

4.32	Average relationship between colony counts and methylene blue reduction times	131
4 33	Special applications of the microscope in the dairy laboratory	131
	Approximate composition of one pint of milk	131
	Predominating micro-organisms in milk held at different tem-	134
7.55	peratures	141
4.36	One-hour reading at moderate atmospheric temperatures	143
	Inter-relationship of practical tests and the conditions controlling	
	plastics behaviour	144
4.38	Testing of milk supplies	150
5.1	Reduction in bulk and weight achieved by dehydration	160
5.2	Average of losses of nutritive constituents from cabbage during serial scalding and drying	177
5.3	Average nutritive values of dried vegetables	177
5.4	Peeling losses for spherical potatoes	179
6.1	Composition and constants of fatty acids	200-1
7.1	Temperature coefficient of growth of marine bacteria of the types	
	responsible for fish spoilage	216
7.2	Sensitivity of fish quality to temperature	216
7.3	Time taken by cod and haddock fillets to develop a certain trimethylamine value	216
7.4	Chilled storage of fish	218
7.5	Average yield of edible flesh and approximate composition of	
	raw fish flesh	219
7.6	Storage life of fish in cold store	228
7.7	Results of amine determinations during the storage of haddock	
7.8	Results of amine determinations during the storage of dogfish	229
7.9	Results of amine determinations during the storage of perch	229
	Mineral composition of fish flesh	233
	Mineral elements in shellfish and crustaceans	233
	Free amino acids of cod and herring	234
	Brine strengths	242
	Per cent relative humidities	242
	Description of the chief types of smoke-cured fish	243
	Typical vitamin A and D contents of fish liver oils	246
7.17	Typical values for some water-soluble vitamin contents of some	
a 10	common fishes	246
7.18	Vitamin content of edible flesh of fish	246
8.1	Indication of acids found in fruit	248
8.2	Chemical composition of fruit juices	258
9.1	Average weights of various essential oils equivalent to 1,000 oz	
	of dried herb or spice	290
9.2	Recommended quantities of M.S.G.	29 6
10.1	Percentage of total flour particles of specific diameters	315
10.2	Range of data for wheat	323
10.3	Range of protein content and quality of wheat	323

LIST OF TABLES

10.4	Analyses of commercial wheatfeed	324
11.1	Composition of food per 100 grams	344-5
12.1	Use of adhesives in food packaging	349
12.2	Examples of foil laminate use	350
12.3	Types of package for vending machines	351
12.4	Comparison of polythene barrels and wooden casks	353
12.5	Some typical packs for biscuits	355
12.6	Product requirements of typical baked goods	355
12.7	Size range and dimensional limits for built-up body tins and cans	357
12.8	Typical can sizes	358
12.9	Types of casks for different wines	362
12.10	Effect of humidity on various types of sugar confectionery	364
12.11	Moisture contents after dehydration of typical dried foods	367
12.12	Maximum permissible E.R.H. for various unpackaged foods	367
12.13	Data on the permeability of various materials	371
12.14	Yield, heat-seal temperatures and water vapour transmissionrates	371
12.15	Effect of creasing on water vapour transmission rate	372
12.16	Comparative costs of equal areas of various barrier materials	372
12.17	A comparison of some properties of the common flexible packaging materials	372
12.18	Adhesives for laminating	380
12.19	Costs of packaging milk in bottles and non-returnable cartons	381
13.1	Fruit contents of sulphited fruit pulps	393
13.2	Minimum fruit content of jam	400
15.1	Rate of production of carbon dioxide and heat by various fruits and vegetables	473
15.2	Materials-handling objectives	481
15.3	Cold storage data for perishable foodstuffs	494-5

Baking

Compiled by

J. F. HERRINGSHAW, A.R.C.S., Ph.D., F.R.I.C.

ACETIC ACID

A 12 per cent aqueous solution of acetic acid is used as a preventative of the bacteriological disease of bread known as 'rope'. It is used in a proportion of 1 pint per sack (280 lb) of flour.

Kirby, Atkin and Frey^{1,2} reported that acetic acid is very toxic to bread moulds at low pH values; at pH values 5.5 to 6.0 the initial growth is retarded but the effect upon the ultimate growth is slight.

ACIDITY

The relatively rapid increase which occurs in the acidity of a yeasted dough is due to carbon dioxide dissolving in the aqueous phase. Factors which have a slower effect upon the acidity are the production of acid phosphates by the action of phytase on phytin, and the production of organic acids by the yeast. Amos⁸ investigated the possibility of bacteria contributing to the march of acidity in fermenting doughs and concluded that the microflora of wheat flour plays no significant part in straight dough systems of panary fermentations but that one member of it, *S. lactis*, produces some acid in long sponge systems.

AERATION

The aeration of baked goods is achieved in three ways: by yeast fermentation; by chemical action; by the entrapment of air. (See ALBUMEN; BAKING POWDER; EGGS; FERMENTATION; AMMONIUM CARBONATE.)

ALBUMEN

Albumen is the clear jelly-like material surrounding the yolk of a fresh egg. It represents about 58 per cent of the weight of the whole egg. It is mainly water in which is dissolved a complex mixture of proteins and a small proportion of mineral salts.

When albumen is whisked, it entraps air to form a stable and stiff foam, and egg whites are, therefore, used as an aerating agent by the confectioner. They are used in the production of meringues, macaroons, and royal icing.

Dried albumen is available. It may be produced by a fermentation process or by straight drying. The latter does not usually form such a good foam as the fermentation product nor does it keep so well.

AMMONIUM CARBONATE

Commercial ammonium carbonate, which is a mixture of ammonium bicarbonate and ammonium carbamate, is known as 'Vol' in the confectionery trade. Under the action of heat it decomposes into carbon dioxide,

ammonia, and steam and thus acts as an aerating agent. A disadvantage of Vol is that freshly baked goods made with it have a smell of ammonia.

AMMONIUM CHLORIDE

Ammonium chloride is a yeast food, being a readily available source of nitrogen for the organism. It is an ingredient of some bread improvers.

BAKING POWDER

Baking powder is a mixture containing chemicals used for the aeration of various types of confectionery. The active ingredients are sodium bicarbonate and an acid substance, which in the presence of water will react with the bicarbonate to produce carbon dioxide. The relative proportions of bicarbonate and acid body must be such that the bicarbonate is fully neutralized but the residue of acid is not excessive. In addition to these two chemicals, a baking powder contains an inert filler, such as a starch. The acid bodies mainly used in baking powder are acid sodium pyrophosphate, acid calcium phosphate, and cream of tartar. The amount of acid calcium phosphate or acid sodium pyrophosphate needed in a baking powder is about 1.3 times the proportion of sodium bicarbonate that is present, and the amount of cream of tartar required is about 2.2 times the bicarbonate content of the mixture.

The aerating powers of baking powders are fixed by a Statutory Instrument, S.R. & O. 1946 No. 157. According to these regulations, baking powder must yield not less than 8 per cent of available carbon dioxide and not more than 1.5 per cent of residual carbon dioxide, the available and residual carbon dioxide being determined as specified in the schedule to the Order. Golden raising powder must yield not less than 6 per cent of available carbon dioxide and not more than 1.5 per cent of residual carbon dioxide. The methods of determining the residual and available carbon dioxide prescribed by the Order are:

- (1) A sample of 2 g of baking powder or Golden raising powder, as the case may be, shall be treated with 25 ml of water and evaporated to dryness on a boiling-water bath and subsequently treated with a further 25 ml of water and evaporated in like manner. The residual carbon dioxide is the weight evolved thereby when the sample so treated is further treated with excess of dilute sulphuric acid at room temperature, the evolution being completed either by boiling or by means of reduced pressure.
- (2) The available carbon dioxide shall be determined by ascertaining the difference between the total carbon dioxide and the residual carbon dioxide; and the total carbon dioxide shall be determined by ascertaining the

weight evolved when the baking powder or golden raising powder, as the case may be, is treated with excess of dilute sulphuric acid at room temperature, the evolution being completed either by boiling for 5 min or by means of reduced pressure.

BISCUITS

Most types of biscuits call for the use of a weak flour of low protein content. The gluten should be rather distensible in nature. Good biscuit flours can be obtained from English wheat, if the weak varieties are chosen and they are milled in sound condition. If the gluten is elastic instead of being distensible, the biscuit doughs may 'creep'. The distensibility of the gluten in a biscuit flour can be increased by treatment with sulphur dioxide (the final amount present must not exceed 200 ppm) or with a proteolytic enzyme.

The main ingredients in most types of biscuit are flour, sugar, fat, and water or milk, but the relative proportions in which these ingredients are used differ according to the variety of biscuits being made. In most instances the aeration is accomplished by means of baking powder.

The dough ingredients and the doughing liquor are mixed together mechanically to give a uniform but stiff dough. This dough is passed between rolls until it has acquired a uniform texture and thickness. After passage through further rolls for a final control of the thickness, the dough sheet passes under a cutter which stamps out the biscuit shapes. These are then baked in a travelling oven. The moisture content of the finished biscuit is in the region of 3 per cent.

The wide spread between the compositions of different types of biscuit dough is reflected in the range of analytical data for the various kinds of biscuit. Macaroons and ginger nuts may contain from 45 to 50 per cent of sugar, whereas water biscuits and cream crackers will contain less than 1 per cent. Golden puff and short cake biscuits may contain from 25 to 30 per cent of fat compared with less than 10 per cent in Abernethies and water biscuits.

BREAD

Bread is a baked aerated dough, the primary ingredients of which are flour, yeast, salt, and water. Often fat is also included in the dough mix. The yeast ferments the sugars natural to the flour and those produced by diastatic activity and thereby evolves carbon dioxide, which aerates the dough.

The majority of the bread produced in Britain is made from white flour but wholemeal and wheatmeals are also used for bread production. Speciality breads, such as malt, germ and protein-enriched breads are also available, usually under proprietary names. The composition of breads of all types is controlled by the Bread and Flour Regulations, 1963.

BREADMAKING

Bread is produced by making a dough from wheat flour and aerating this with carbon dioxide produced by yeast fermentation. Salt is included in the dough because it regulates the rate of fermentation, toughens the gluten, and prevents the bread from being insipid in taste.

The proportion of water needed to make the dough

varies with the nature of the flour but usually it is in the region of 15 gal per 280 lb of flour.

The proportion of salt used also varies but it is common practice to use about 5 lb per 280 lb of flour.

The proportion of yeast needed depends upon the proposed duration of the fermentation and can be calculated approximately by dividing 12 by the number of hours that will elapse between the mixing of the dough and the placing of the dough in the oven.

The water used to make the dough is brought to a temperature that will give the finished dough a temperature of 24 to 27° C (75 to 80° F), the exact temperature required depending upon the proposed length of the fermentation. The necessary water temperature can be arrived at by subtracting the temperature of the flour from twice the desired dough temperature.

When bread is to be made by what is known as the straight dough system, the required proportions of flour, yeast, salt, water, and any other dough ingredients, such as fat, sugar, bread improvers, are mixed together until a homogeneous dough is obtained and this is then covered over and allowed to ferment in bulk. When about three-quarters of the proposed bulk fermentation time has passed, the dough is very thoroughly kneaded or 'knocked-back', so as to expel much of the gas and to tighten up the dough. It is then covered once more and allowed to complete its bulk fermentation.

At the completion of the bulk fermentation, the dough is divided into pieces of the required weight, an operation known as 'scaling', and each of these pieces is moulded into a ball. After a short period in which they can recover from the action of the scaling and rounding up, the dough pieces are moulded into the shape required for the type of bread that is to be made.

These finally moulded dough pieces are placed in baking tins and allowed a fermentation period, which is known as the 'final proof', so that they can become once more inflated with gas, since much of the old gas will have been expelled during the moulding operation. The proving period normally occupies from 25 to 40 min, according to the type of bread being made.

At the end of this final proof the tins containing the dough pieces are placed in the oven and baked. The baking temperature is 232 to 260° C (450 to 500° F), and the baking time from 40 to 55 min.

Bread is also made on what is known as the sponge system. In this type of method some of the flour, part of the water, and the yeast are mixed together and allowed to ferment for perhaps 12 to 16 hr. The dough is then broken down with the remainder of the water, the salt is added and the remainder of the flour used to re-form a dough. This is allowed to ferment for $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 hr and is then scaled, moulded, proved, and baked. A long sponge process calls for the use of less yeast than is required for a straight dough system.

A method known as the flying sponge system involves making a slack batter with almost all the water and an equal weight of flour and including in this all the yeast but very little salt. After a fermentation period of 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hr the remainder of the flour and the salt are incorporated and fermentation continued for 2 to $2\frac{1}{7}$ hr.

On the 'delayed salt' method, the salt is omitted from the initial dough mix and, on a three hour system, is added and thoroughly mixed in about one hour before the end of the bulk fermentation. BAKING 3

Modern developments in the technology of breadmaking are particularly concerned with the elimination of bulk fermentation. In the most important of these, ripening of the dough, which can only be reached slowly by fermentation, is attained very rapidly by the expenditure of intense mechanical work during mixing.

Continuous breadmaking is exemplified by the 'Do-Maker' process.³ The ingredients of the dough are automatically fed in correct proportions into a continuous dough mixer, the yeast being metered in the form of a suspension in a nutrient medium. The yeast suspension is prepared several hours in advance of its delivery to the mixer and is accordingly in a very active state when incorporated in the dough. The dough being continuously extruded from the mixer passes to a 'dough developer', which it is subjected to intense mechanical treatment, which fully ripens it. The continuous cylinder of dough emerging from the developer is automatically cut into lengths, each of which drops into a baking pan en route to the oven.

The Chorleywood Bread Process⁴ is a batch method and requires less specialized plant. A dough is prepared that differs from traditional formulations in that (i) more yeast is employed, (ii) fat must be present, (iii) 75 ppm of ascorbic acid or a combination of ascorbic acid and potassium bromate is used as oxidizing improver and, (iv) an extra gallon of water per sack (280 lb) of flour is added. The dough is then subjected to intense mechanical mixing, the work expended being 5 Wh per lb of dough over a period of 5 min. The dough is then divided, allowed an intermediate proof of 10 min, and the baking process completed in the normal way.

More recently, processes are being developed in which rapid ripening of the dough is achieved by chemical means alone.⁵ For example, the use of suitable combinations of ascorbic acid, potassium bromate, and fat will produce good quality bread on a very short system and such processes have been used on a large scale in Australia for some time. Probably the best combination is one of *I*-cysteine and potassium bromate, but at the time of writing, cysteine is not permitted as an additive in bread.

BREADMAKING PLANT

In most bakeries the flour is not run directly into the mixer but first passes through a sifter as a safeguard against foreign bodies, such as pieces of string or labels, being found in the bread. A widely used flour sifter consists of a spiral brush operating inside a semi-circular sieve.

Tempering tank

The tempering tank is fed with cold water and hot water and is fitted with a thermometer and a stirrer; it is used to prepare the doughing liquor at the required temperature. It is fitted with a gauge, which enables a known volume to be discharged from the machine.

Dough mixer

An older type of machine is the rotary drum mixer. It consists of a slowly revolving horizontal cylinder which tumbles the dough through a grid of horizontal steel bars. A disadvantage of this machine is that the progress of the mixing cannot be assessed visually without

stopping the machine and removing the watertight cover.

The machine most widely used at the present time is the open pan mixer. It consists of a steel bowl in which one or more metal arms perform a kneading action, and usually the pan revolves while the mixing operation is in progress. Open pan mixers with removable bowls avoid the necessity for taking the mixed dough out of the bowl, since the latter can be wheeled away from the mixing arms and used as a fermenting vessel. The bowl is wheeled back under the mixing arms when the knocking-back operation has to be performed.

High-speed mixers resemble the old rotary drum mixers, but the container remains stationary while the internal grid revolves at high speed. Because of the heat produced during the mixing operation these mixers are often fitted with a cooling jacket.

Dough divider

Dough dividers are machines that perform automatically the operation of 'Scaling', that is, dividing the dough mass into pieces of equal weight. The ideal arrangement would be a machine that divides by weight but all existing machines divide by volume. The machines carry a number of boxes or pockets and these are filled with dough by means of a plunger and their contents are then discharged. Such machines furnish dough pieces of constant weight only as long as the density of the dough remains unchanged. It is necessary, therefore, for the weights of the discharged pieces to be periodically checked while the machine is in operation.

Handing-up machine

This is a machine for moulding dough pieces into round shapes as they leave the divider. The best known type consists of a hemispherical shaped tunnel that spirals around a finely corrugated cone. This cone revolves and in so doing carries the dough pieces through the tunnel and discharges them at the top in a nicely rounded condition.

Final moulder

The handing-up machine can be employed as a final moulder for those types of bread where a rounded shape is required. Another type of final moulder, of which there are numerous modifications, consists of two moving bands, one of which travels faster than the other. A piece of dough fed into one of these machines leaves it in the form of a cylinder.

The type of final moulder used in the plant bakery where tin bread is being produced is the spindle moulder. The machine contains two or more rapidly revolving spindles each of which rotates a piece of dough against a band or a roller until it forms a tight roll. The roll is then discharged between two moving canvas bands, which give it a final shaping.

Prover

A prover is an enclosed space in which the temperature and relative humidity of the air are controlled and in which the finally moulded dough pieces are allowed to re-inflate themselves with gas before being baked. In some bakeries the proving space is essentially a cupboard fitted with shelves or boxes carried by endless belts, while in others it takes the form of a room into which the dough pieces are brought on wheeled racks.

In plant bakeries automatic provers are used. The doughs in canvas slings or in tins move slowly in a series of horizontal or vertical paths through an enclosure, the air in which is controlled for temperature and humidity.

Oven

Ovens used in bakeries are shallow, rectangular chambers capable of being heated to and maintained at an appropriate temperature. The smaller ovens are usually peel ovens, i.e. ovens in which the bread is set and removed by long-handled spades known as peels. A larger type of oven is the drawplate, the sole of which is mounted on runners and can be withdrawn from the oven when loading and unloading is to be performed. In plant bakeries the ovens are automatic. They may be fitted with swinging tins, which traverse the ovens slowly in a series of vertical paths or with a travelling sole, which consists of an endless flexible metal band.

Ovens may be fired with coal or coke, with oil, or with electricity. An older type of coke- or coal-fired oven is the side flue oven in which flames and hot gases of combustion pass through the baking chamber. These ovens must be brought to a solid heat before baking commences because flames cannot be drawn through the oven while it contains bread.

One form of externally heated oven is constructed so that the hot products of combustion are led into flues that surround the oven but do not enter the baking chamber. In another form the heat is applied externally to the ends of steam tubes, the major portions of which are inside the oven. Automatic travelling ovens are usually oil- or gas-fired and the heating may be by hot air or by steam tubes.

BUNS

Buns are usually made by preparing a ferment preparatory to dough making. A breadmaking flour is more suitable for the production of buns than is a cake flour. A suitable method would be to make a ferment with the following ingredients:

water	1 quart
milk powder	2 oz
sugar	2 oz
yeast	3 oz
flour	8 07

This ferment should have a temperature of 32° C (90° F) and should be left for half an hour. It should then be doughed up by adding to it:

flour	4 lb
salt	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz
fat	12 oz
sugar	10 oz
currants	1 lb

The resulting dough should be allowed to ferment for 90 min at a temperature of from 27 to 29° C (80 to 82° F). A lower temperature with a higher proportion of yeast is preferable to the use of a higher temperature. In the early stages of fermentation the dough should be knocked-back in order to prevent chilling and it is advisable to perform this operation once every 20 min.

The final proving is performed in steam at about 31° C (88° F). The buns are baked at a temperature of from 211 to 220° C (420 to 460° F).

CAKE

The basic ingredients of cakes are flour, shortening, eggs, sugar and milk. Eggs will aerate approximately their own weight of flour and consequently if more flour than eggs is used in a cake recipe, baking powder must be added to aerate the surplus flour.

Twenty-five years ago a typical recipe for good quality cake was:

flour	100 parts
shortening	35 ,,
eggs	40 ,,
sugar	95 ,,
baking powder	2.5 ,,
milk	60 ,,

but modern formulae call for the use of more shortening and eggs and less milk and baking powder. An example is:

flour	100 parts
shortening	65 ,,
eggs	90 ,,
sugar	95 ,,
baking powder	0.6 ,,
milk	30 ,,

Cake batters are prepared usually by either the sugar batter or the flour batter method. The former procedure, which is known also as the creaming method, is preferable when high-class cakes are being made but the flour batter method is more suitable for the production of cheap cakes with a low egg content.

The sugar batter method is performed by creaming together the fat and the sugar at medium speed for about 10 min, adding the egg in stages while the mixing is continued, and finally making several alternate additions of flour and milk. The egg should be brought to a temperature of about 21° C (70° F) before being added to the mix or the batter may curdle.

In the flour batter method the shortening and the flour are creamed together until a fluffy mass is obtained. The eggs and sugar are whipped together and the resulting foam is then carefully blended into the creamed fat and flour. The milk is then added in small portions.

Cake batters are baked at temperatures between 149 and 208° C (300 and 425° F) depending upon their richness, their weight and their moisture content. Richer batters of high sugar content require less heat than those made on leaner formulae.

CAKE FLOUR

Cake flours are usually medium to weak in strength; the use of strong flours would result in a tough product. Medium strength flours are used for the heavier cakes such as most fruit cakes; the weaker flours are better for layer cakes and the like. For many purposes, so-called 'high-ratio' cake flour is demanded. This is specifically intended for cakes with a high ratio of sugar plus liquid to flour, the extreme example being 'angel food'. Such a flour is obtained by taking the finest fraction of a

BAKING 5

patent flour milled from a weak grist and treating it with gaseous chlorine, a process which modifies both the gluten and the starch. Alternatively, a suitable cut from an air-classification plant may be chlorinated.

CAKE PREMIXES

The retail sale of cake premixes has not made much headway in the U.K., but bulk sales for catering purposes have been reasonably successful. Most types require the addition of water only, and therefore contain flour, fat, sugar, milk powder, dried egg, baking powder, flavourings, and colour. Provided that the baking qualities of the dried egg are satisfactory, the critical ingredients are the fat and the flour. The fat must have the correct plasticity and must not be susceptible to rancidity. Socalled '100-hour' fat (fat which is free from rancidity after aeration for 100 hr at 100° C (212° F)) is usually specified, and this stability is usually achieved by the addition of permitted antioxidants. As the premixes are normally used for the lighter type of cakes, high-ratio flour is commonly used. To ensure freedom from infestation, the flour or the complete mix is entoleted.

CARAMEL

Caramel is produced by the controlled heating of canesugar (or glucose) to about 190° C (352° F). It may be added principally as a flavouring agent or as a colouring agent and is used for both purposes in flour confectionery. It is the only colouring matter that is permitted in bread

CORNFLOUR

This is maize starch and it is used for the manufacture of custard powders (which are coloured and flavoured cornflours) and also as an ingredient of some proprietary sponge mixtures and cake flours.

CREAM OF TARTAR

Cream of tartar, i.e. acid potassium tartrate, is used as the acid ingredient in some baking powders. The salt is only slightly soluble in cold water but dissolves readily in hot water and, therefore, when it is used in conjunction with sodium bicarbonate as an aerating agent, the bulk of the gas evolution is delayed until the goods reach the oven.

One hundred parts of cream of tartar will neutralize 45 parts of sodium bicarbonate.

CREAM POWDER

A cream powder is a preparation containing an acid phosphate intended for use as an acid ingredient of aerating mixtures. The neutralizing values of such preparations are often adjusted to be equal to that of cream of tartar.

CRUMB SOFTENERS

A number of substances have been recommended as dough ingredients for the purpose of enhancing the softness of the crumb of bread. The best known of these

are of the emulsifier type and as such are included in the Emulsifiers and Stabilizers in Food Regulations, 1962. Those permitted in bread are stearyl tartrate and partial glycerol esters, e.g. glyceryl monostearate (G.M.S.).

CRUMPETS

A suitable recipe for crumpets is:

flour of medium strength	4½ lb
water	2 quarts
milk powder	3 oz
salt	$1\frac{1}{2}$ oz
yeast	2 oz

The water is used at about 38° C (100° F) and the batter sponge is allowed to ferment for $1\frac{3}{4}$ hr. One pint of warm water containing $\frac{1}{8}$ oz of sodium bicarbonate is then well mixed throughout the sponge, after which it is allowed to recover for 10 min. The batter is then poured into hoops that have just been placed onto a well-polished hot plate. When the shiny wetness disappears from the top of the crumpets, the hoops are turned over so that the surfaces of the crumpets initially at the top become cooked. The baking time required is about 4 min.

CRUST COLOUR

The colour of the crust of bread is due in part to a reaction between sugar and protein or protein degradation products. It is, therefore, related to the amount of sugar remaining in the dough at the completion of the fermentation. If the maltose figure of a flour is high, the residual sugar will be high and the colour of the crust of the bread made from the flour will accordingly be pronounced. If, however, the maltose figure is low, the crust will be pale.

Any factor which affects the amount of sugar remaining in a dough when the dough goes to the oven will affect the crust colour of the bread; under-fermentation leaves an excess of sugar and thus gives rise to a high crust colour, while over-fermentation will use up more than the normal amount of sugar and will produce a pale crust.

DIASTATIC ACTIVITY

The diastatic activity of a flour is its ability to convert some of its starch into sugar. It is a factor of considerable importance in breadmaking, where aeration depends upon the fermentation of sugar by yeast, but sugarforming power is of no importance in processes depending upon chemical action or the incorporation of air for aeration. Dextrin-forming power, which is related to the activity of alpha-amylase is, however, significant even when the aeration is chemical, if the goods are boiled and not baked. A high dextrin-forming power can in these circumstances cause doughy streaks and stickiness in the goods.

See DIASTATIC ACTIVITY in section on FLOUR AND FLOUR MILLING.

DOUGHS

The two main proteins of wheat flour, gliadin and glutenin, have the power of uniting in the presence of

water to form a complex which has elastic properties. This complex is termed gluten. This property of gluten formation is not possessed by any other cereal flour and hence wheat flour is the only one which gives an elastic dough capable of holding gas and expanding under its pressure.

When wheat flour is mixed with water the gluten that is formed takes the shape of a network of interwoven strands, and these serve as the girderwork of the dough. The strength and elasticity of the dough will depend upon the number of gluten strands that are present and upon their physical properties. Hence, the dough properties are to a large extent determined by the proportion of protein in the original flour and the nature of that protein.

A wheat-flour dough can be inflated if gas is produced within it. Such gas can be produced either by incorporating yeast in the dough, which will ferment the sugars naturally present and evolve carbon dioxide, or by including in the dough chemical substances that will react together to liberate carbon dioxide.

If a dough that has been suitably aerated in either of these ways is baked, it will become 'set' and the outcome will be a light, well-aerated product. If the dough contains little more than yeast, flour, salt, and water, the resulting product will be bread, whereas if the dough contains fat, sugar, eggs, and spices, it will be confectionery.

DOUGHNUTS

Doughnuts fall within the category of buns, but they are cooked by being roasted in fat instead of being baked in an oven. A plain bun dough is prepared (see page 4) and the scaled pieces flattened. Jam is placed in the middle of each flattened piece and the dough folded over so that the jam is enclosed. The pieces are then proved in the absence of steam, after which they are fried to a light golden colour in hot fat.

The doughnuts are drained and then rolled in caster sugar. Ring doughnuts are made by flattening out each scaled piece and cutting a ring from the centre with a cutter.

The fat must be hot enough to form a crust on the doughnut almost immediately; if it is not hot enough the doughnut will be greasy.

EGGS

Eggs are used as aerating agents in confectionery work because they have the power of entrapping air when they are whisked, thereby forming a stiff and stable foam.

A fresh egg consists of about 12 per cent shell, about 58 per cent egg white or albumen, and about 30 per cent yolk. The average compositions of the whites and yolks are:

	Whites	Yolks
	per cent	per cent
moisture	87.0	50.0
protein	12.5	16.0
fat	0.3	32.0
mineral salts	0.6	0.8

The foaming property of eggs is due mainly to the albumen, or white; yolks alone cannot be beaten into

a stiff foam because of their high fat content. The value of the egg yolks lies in their ability to colour, flavour, and shorten the goods in which they are used. Whole eggs are able to aerate their own weight of flour and if a smaller proportion of egg than this is used, the additional aerating power required can be provided by baking powder.

Shell eggs are seldom used except on the small scale; the labour and loss of material involved makes their use generally uneconomic. Frozen whole eggs, i.e. shelled eggs preserved by freezing, have been used for many years. With the advent of compulsory pasteurization, doubts were expressed as to the baking qualities of pasteurized egg; but it has been shown that pasteurization has little if any deleterious effect. Provided that the egg is not stored for long periods in the frozen state, and thawing is carried out carefully, frozen egg will behave satisfactorily in a wide range of baked goods. Only in products where the performance of the egg is very critical, e.g. in baked custards and eclair cases, are difficulties likely to be encountered. In many of the larger plants, *liquid* whole egg is delivered in bulk from refrigerated tankers.

Dried egg has the advantage of requiring very little storage space, but it varies considerably in its aerating power. A.F.D. (accelerated freeze-dried) egg is of very good quality and as it is usually gas-packed it stores well without refrigeration.

ENZYMES

An enzyme is a substance which has been derived from living matter and which, when present in only a minute proportion, can initiate or accelerate a given chemical action without undergoing chemical change itself. Enzymes have been called organic catalysts

zymes have been called organic catalysts.

Enzymes are markedly specific in their action. Thus, an enzyme which can effect the breakdown of protein will have no effect upon starch, and conversely a starch-degrading enzyme does not act upon protein.

Wheat flour contains a starch-splitting enzyme which is known as beta-amylase. This enzyme splits off units of the sugar maltose from the outer chains of the starch molecule, leaving behind a compound known as erythrodextrin, which has many starch-like properties. The reaction does not proceed in dry flour, but as soon as flour is made into a dough the beta-amylase initiates the production of maltose from starch. Hence, when the yeast has utilized the sugars pre-existing in the flour, it has a reserve supply to which it can turn and is thus enabled to go on producing gas.

Beta-amylase is unable to act upon normal sound starch and the extent to which it can produce maltose from a flour is dependent, therefore, upon the proportion of damaged starch granules in that flour. All commercial flours contain damaged starch granules because some degree of damage is unavoidable during the milling process, but the extent of the starch damage varies with the mill making the flour.

Flour that is made from sprouted wheat contains in addition to *beta*-amylase a significant proportion of another diastatic enzyme known as *alpha*-amylase. *Alpha*-amylase is present to only a small extent in the flour from sound wheat. *Alpha*-amylase can cause the degradation of the residual erythrodextrin left behind

BAKING 7

when *beta*-amylase has chopped maltose units off the outer surfaces of the starch molecule. The degradation products that result from this action can be acted upon by *beta*-amylase. Hence, the joint action of *alpha*- and *beta*-amylase will lead to a greater production of sugar than the action of *beta*-amylase alone.

If sufficient sprouted wheat is used in a blend to give flour of a high alpha-amylase activity, the results may be disastrous. The low molecular weight dextrins produced by the action of the alpha-amylase on the starch can give rise to a marked stickiness in the crumb of the final loaf and in severe cases may lead to the loaf collapsing on leaving the oven. Alpha-amylase is very active at a temperature as high as 60° C (140° F) and hence the detrimental effect of this enzyme is mainly exercised after the dough reaches the oven. For this reason a flour high in alpha-amylase will suffer more severcly when baked in a slack oven for a long time than when baked quickly in a hot oven. This influence of baking conditions upon the severity of damage from alpha-amylase activity explains why trouble from an excess of this enzyme has been encountered to a much greater degree in Irish soda bread than in yeast bread. Soda bread is baked at a lower temperature than yeast bread, from 200 to 220° C (390° to 430° F) instead of from 230 to 260° C (450° to 500° F), and for a considerably longer time (from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hr instead of from 45 to 55 min), thereby offering much more scope for the alpha-amylase to produce the gummy dextrins which give rise to stickiness in the crumb.

Wheat also contains proteolytic enzymes. A protein-degrading enzyme isolated by Bales and Hale⁶ and Hale⁷ proved to be of the papain type. Opinions have differed on the question of whether proteolytic action plays any part in dough ripening. It has been shown by Amos⁸ and Samuels⁶ that there is a slow but progressive liberation of amino acid in a dough and Amos has emphasized that although the quantity of amino nitrogen set free is small, it does not follow that the physical changes which accompany this rupture of the protein molecule are also small

Oxidizing enzymes also exist in flour and these enzymes are responsible for the darkening of the colour that occurs when wetted flour is exposed to the air. They cause atmospheric oxygen to unite with complex constituents of the flour to produce dark-coloured oxidation products. These oxidases are concentrated in the bran and the germ, and hence the lower the grade of a flour the greater the rate at which darkening proceeds after it has been wetted.

FLAVOURINGS

Probably the most widely used flavour of the confectioner is vanilla; this may be added as vanilla essence (an alcoholic extract of the vanilla bean) or as a solution of synthetic vanillin. Cocoa and chocolate are also used frequently and primarily for the flavour they impart, but they differ from most other flavouring in that they also contribute substance, food value and colour to the finished product.

Most of the other flavourings added are spices and seasonings, essences and oils, or synthetics. The most common of the spices used are; allspice, angelica, caraway seed, cinnamon, cloves, ginger, mace and nutmeg, and poppy seed; others like anise are used only occasionally or like saffron are used only in certain parts of the country. Many of the spices are also available as oils and essences; other important flavourings in this group include the oils of almond, orange, lemon, lime, and peppermint.

Advances in the technology of synthetic flavourings suggest that they will gradually supplant almost all 'natural' flavourings, including those of substances added in larger quantities for other reasons, e.g. butter and honey.

FONDANT

Fondant is a mixture of invert sugars prepared by heating sugar and water to a temperature of from 115 to 120° C (240 to 245° F) and adding glucose or a weak acid to accelerate the inversion. A suitable procedure would be to boil 12 lb of sugar and 3 pints of water and to add to this 2 lb of glucose or ½ oz of cream of tartar.

GLUCOSE

Confectioners' 'glucose' is manufactured by the acid or enzymic hydrolysis of starch; the resulting product is not pure glucose but this sugar mixed with maltose and dextrins.

A high grade 'glucose' should give a clear bright solution when mixed with water and should yield no sediment. It should contain no unaltered starch.

GLYCERINE

Glycerine is used in confectionery as a sweetening agent and also as a means of keeping cheap cakes moist. It would be used in the proportion of about 1 oz per 1b of fat in the formula.

GLYCERYL MONOSTEARATE (G.M.S.)

Glycerol is a tri-hydric alcohol and when each molecule of glycerol is combined with three molecules of fatty acid, whether the same or different acids, the result is a fat. Glyceryl monostearate in which one molecule of glycerol is combined with only one molecule of the fatty acid, stearic acid, has, therefore, been described as a 'super glycerinated fat'. It is used as an ingredient of bread doughs, because it has a softening effect upon the crumb and tends to delay staling. (See CRUMB SOFTENERS.)

HUMIDITY

The humidity of the atmosphere is the weight of water vapour contained in unit weight of the air. If this weight is expressed as a percentage of the maximum weight of water vapour that the unit weight of the air can retain at the temperature in question, the resulting figure is known as the relative humidity. Whether any material tends to dry out or to absorb moisture depends upon the relative humidity of the atmosphere to which it is exposed, and for each substance there is a relative humidity with which it is in equilibrium. Packeted flour will tend to lose moisture, and hence lose weight, when stored in very dry air, but will pick up moisture, and

therefore gain weight, if exposed to air of high relative humidity.

The water content of a dough is relatively high and hence a dough will tend to lose moisture from the surface and to form a skin, unless the air to which it is exposed has a high relative humidity. This is a matter that requires attention when a dough is being proved.

ICING

Water icing is used for covering cheap cakes. It can be made by mixing into boiling water sufficient icing sugar to give a consistency similar to that of fondant, such as is used for piping. Water icing can be coloured with liquid colouring matter as desired.

Royal icing is prepared with icing sugar and egg albumen. About 7 lb of icing sugar are required for each pint of egg albumen. Sometimes a little acetic acid is added to toughen the albumen but this must be used with care or the icing may be hard and bitter.

INVERT SUGAR

Invert sugar is a mixture of dextrose and laevulose. It occurs naturally in ripe sweet fruit but the commercial article is prepared from sucrose by the action of the enzyme invertase or by acid treatment. It is used, often mixed with glucose, as a sweetening agent in cheap confectionery.

KNOCK-BACK

When a bread dough has completed about threequarters of its bulk fermentation, it should be given a very thorough mixing in order to expel the old gas and to stretch the dough and make it more elastic. This operation is known as 'knocking-back' the dough. It is an essential operation if good bread is to be produced.

LECITHIN

Lecithin belongs to the class of substances known as lipoids, which are combinations of fat with nitrogen-containing substances and phosphorus. Commercial 'lecithin' is extracted from soya bean and is available in an emulsified form for use as a bread improver. Added to a dough at the rate of 1 lb per sack, it causes the dough to feel silkier and produces also a silkier and softer crumb, which has enhanced keeping properties.

MACAROONS

Confectionery goods made from almonds, sugar, and whites of eggs are called macaroons. Macaroon goods require to be baked in a steady oven at a temperature of from 170 to 175° C (350 to 370° F). Too much heat will cause the goods to flow out.

MALT BREAD

There are many types of malt bread, which range from lightly malted white bread to heavily malted brown bread with a sticky crumb. Many of these breads contain ingredients additional to the malt or malt flour, such as fat, milk powder, and golden syrup.

Kent-Jones and Mitchell¹⁰ give the following as a typical formula for malted brown bread:

wheatmeal	28 lb
brown malt flour	2 lb
salt	8 oz
golden syrup	8 oz to 1 lb
fat	8 oz to 1 lb
yeast	8 oz
water	7 quarts (approximately)

The dough, which should have a temperature of from 24 to 26° C (76 to 78° F), is given a bulk fermentation of 1\frac{3}{4} hr with a knock-back at the end of 1 hr. The dough is baked for about 50 min in an oven at from 204 to 215° C (400 to 420° F). Some malt breads contain fruit.

MARZIPAN

See section on CONFECTIONERY.

MERINGUES

Meringues are confections made from a mixture of sugar and white of eggs, which are beaten together to give a very light product. The method used to prepare meringues depends upon the kind of article that is to be made, and there are three main methods. In the cold meringue method the white of egg is beaten and the sugar added cold. Very hot meringue is made by making the sugar very hot and beating it along with the white at the beginning. Italian meringue is made by beating the egg white very stiff and then boiling the sugar before adding it.

MILK AND MILK BREAD

Milk is used in breadmaking as liquid whole milk, skimmed milk, or as dried products derived from these. Milk is a bread improver and for this purpose liquid milks are added at the rate of 4 to 8 gal and powders at the rate of 5 lb per sack of flour. Apart from some increase in the nutritive value of the bread, the main effects of such additions are the production of a softer dough, improvement in crumb texture, and the production of a thin crust.

Larger additions are required to produce the various milk breads. Milk bread must now contain not less than 6 per cent of whole milk solids (dry basis); bread containing not less than 6 per cent (dry basis) of skimmed milk solids should be described as skimmed milk bread, separated milk bread, or lactein bread.

MUFFINS

Muffins are often associated with crumpets but they are very different from the latter goods, although they are baked, like crumpets, on a hot plate. Muffins are thick but well aerated dough cakes which do not have the toughness of crumpets.

Formula	
medium strength flour	5 lb
salt	1 oz
sugar	$\frac{1}{2}$ oz
yeast	2 oz
water	2 pints
milk	$1\frac{1}{4}$ pints

BAKING 9

The dough is well mixed and should be moderately warm, e.g. water at 38° C (100° F) should be used. It is allowed to lie for an hour and then it is thoroughly kneaded and allowed to ferment for a further half-hour. At the end of this second period of fermentation, the dough is divided into pieces weighing about $2\frac{1}{2}$ oz each. The scaled pieces are proved for about 30 min and are then baked on a hot plate kept at only a moderate temperature. When the goods have been baked sufficiently on one side they are turned over. If the hot plate is at too high a temperature, the middle of the muffin is liable to be underbaked.

OAT CAKES

Oat cakes can best be made from a meal of medium particle size. Often about 15 per cent of wheat flour is mixed with the oatmeal to make the dough easier to handle. Sometimes a pinch of bicarbonate is included in the mix.

Formula	
oatmeal (or $3\frac{1}{2}$ lb oatmeal plus	
$\frac{1}{2}$ lb flour of good strength)	4 lb
lard	2 oz
salt	1 07

The fat is rubbed into the meal which is then made into a bay. Into this is placed the salt, and warm water is then used to make the meal into a dough. The dough should be made fairly soft as it will tighten. It is scaled into pieces weighing about 6 oz, each of which is moulded up round. These are then rolled until they are about $\frac{1}{8}$ in thick and about 8 inches in diameter. The use of some dry meal may be required to prevent sticking. The rolled pieces are baked on one side until they are nearly done and are then turned over. They are removed from the plate when they begin to curl during the baking of the second side and are placed on a rack over the plate where they undergo drying and toasting. Alternatively they can be placed on a clean baking sheet and dried for a few minutes in the oven.

PIKELETS

These are made from a crumpet batter which has been thinned down. It is poured on to a hot plate without hoops and allowed to run out into a thin cake of 5 to 6 inches in diameter. The plate must be really hot. When the shiny wetness from the top of the cake disappears, the pikelets are turned in the same way as crumpets.

PRESERVATIVES

In bread, the following substances may be added as preservatives: acetic acid, monocalcium phosphate (A.C.P.), and sodium diacetate to prevent the onset of 'rope' (q.v.) propionic acid and certain of its salts to inhibit mould growth. Rope is only likely to be troublesome in the summer months, as is mould formation unless the bread is sliced and wrapped.

The Preservatives in Food Regulations, 1962, permit the presence of up to 1,000 ppm of propionic acid or sorbic acid and certain of their salts in flour confectionery other than biscuits. All these materials inhibit mould growth, but in cakes sorbic acid is the most effective. Wrapped cakes are particularly vulnerable to mould growth, and the judicious use of sorbic acid can extend the time required for the onset of visible mould growth by about 50 per cent.

PROTEIN-ENRICHED BREADS

The addition of say 14 lb of dry gluten per sack of flour in a normal breadmaking process produces a loaf containing about 16 per cent of protein (dry basis). The physical effects of the addition are an increased specific volume and improved crumb characteristics. Such breads, provided they contain not less than 16 per cent of protein (dry basis) are termed gluten breads. By making greater additions of gluten and by modifying the breadmaking formula, high-protein breads, which must contain not less than 22 per cent of protein (dry basis), can be produced; these have a still higher specific volume.

Breads of these types are manufactured particularly for the slimming market. Their calorific value per unit weight is virtually the same as for ordinary bread, but their calorific value per unit volume is much less and bread is normally eaten by volume.

In a somewhat different class are the starch-reduced breads, rolls etc. To qualify for this description, the carbohydrate content to dry basis must be less than 50 per cent. This is normally achieved by fairly massive additions of dry gluten, and above average additions of skimmed milk powder and of fat. The specific volume of the products varies, but on a weight basis the calorific value is generally higher than that of ordinary bread because of the increased fat content.

PUFF PASTE

If properly made, puff paste will consist of alternate layers of flour and butter. Some margarines are particularly suitable for use in the preparation of puff paste, but a mixture of margarine and butter is often preferred. A flour of only moderate strength is needed but it should give a dough possessing good distensibility.

The amount of butter used should lie between 12 and 16 oz for each 1 lb of flour, while the amount of water employed should be such that the consistency of the dough is approximately the same as that of butter after it has been handled. The paste should be made with cold water and should be handled on a cold slab and kept covered with a damp cloth between manipulations.

One method of preparing the paste is to make a dough from the flour using about one-quarter of the total butter in its preparation. After the dough has lain for about 10 min, it is rolled out and the remaining butter, in the form of small lumps, is distributed over about two-thirds of it. The unbuttered third is folded over half the buttered portion and the folded portion then turned over on top of the remaining buttered third. The folded dough is rolled out again and refolded as before. The dough can be left to lie for 20 to 30 min, being covered with a damp cloth during this period, and it is then given two more foldings. In some instances a total of six folds, or turns, are given to the dough, but a good recovery period should always be allowed between each pair of foldings.

ROPE

Bacteria of the B. mesentericus group are common to soil and thus found on wheat. Despite the rigorous cleaning processes performed in a mill, some of these bacteria are transmitted to flour during the milling operation. These bacteria form spores, which are a resting stage, and these spores are to be found in all flour, although usually the contamination is not high. Unfortunately, the spores of the mesentericus organism are very resistant to heat and survive the temperature of the baking process with the result that some, if only a few, rope spores are to be found in any loaf of bread. If bread is kept warm and under conditions which preclude marked loss of moisture, the spores of the mesentericus organism will turn into vegetative bacteria and these will multiply. As the organisms increase in number, the crumb of the bread will assume a yellowish-brown tint, become very sticky, and acquire a smell of decaying fruit. These are the signs of the bread disease 'rope'.

In Britain rope occurs only during the summer months and only then in bread that has been kept for several days in an atmosphere of fairly high humidity.

The tendency for bread to become ropy when submitted to conditions favourable to the development of the organism is influenced by the conditions under which the bread has been fermented, baked, and cooled. Bread made on a short fermentation system is less liable to become ropy than bread made on a long, slow fermentation process.

Bread that has been thoroughly baked out is less liable to become ropy than bread that has received only a moderate baking in a slacker oven. Rapid cooling of the bread will diminish the likelihood of its becoming ropy. Protracted cooling is tantamount to giving the organisms in the bread a preliminary incubation.

The rope bacteria cannot thrive if the medium in which they are present is sufficiently acid to have a pH of 5.0. An inimical pH can be obtained in bread by incorporating in the dough 1 pint of 12 per cent acetic acid or $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb of 80 per cent acid calcium phosphate per sack.

RUSKS

If an attractive rusk is to be made the dough should be richer than an ordinary bread dough. A suitable formula is:

flour	7 lb
fat	1 lb
sugar	6 oz
malt	2 oz
whole-milk powder	8 oz
salt	1 oz
yeast	$3\frac{1}{2}$ oz
water	4 lh

The dough should be allowed to ferment for $1\frac{1}{4}$ hr, given a good knock-back, and allowed to lie for a further $\frac{1}{4}$ hr. It should be baked in sandwich tins but less dough should be put in the tins than is used with ordinary bread doughs and a longer proof should be given. After being baked, the loaves should be kept for 2 days, cut into slices of about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in thickness, and baked to a light-brown colour in a cool oven.

SCONES

Formula for fruit scones:

4 lb
4 oz
12 oz
12 oz
$\frac{3}{4}$ OZ
4
10 oz
About 13 pints

If plain scones are required they may be made on a rather richer (A) or a cheaper (B) formula:

	\boldsymbol{A}	B
flour	4 lb	4 lb
baking powder	3 oz	$4\frac{1}{2}$ oz
fat	16 oz	8 oz
salt	$\frac{3}{4}$ oz	3 oz
sugar	14 oz	8 oz
eggs	4	nil
milk	about $1\frac{1}{2}$ pints	about 2 pints

The fat is creamed up with the sugar and the eggs then worked in. The remaining ingredients are added and the whole worked up into a dough of medium consistency. The dough is scaled and the pieces moulded up round. They are then flattened into pieces about 6 inches in diameter and 1 in thick and placed on a greased baking tin. Each round is divided into four pieces by making two cuts through the dough at right-angles. The pieces are washed with egg wash and baked at a temperature of 230° C (450° F).

SHORT PASTE

For the best type of short paste work good butter was always used but good short paste can be made with a good margarine. Various formulae for short paste are available. The richest formulae contain a good proportion of egg, while a cheap short paste contains none.

	Rich formula	Cheap formula
flour	⁴ lb	3 lb
butter	2 lb	
fat		$\frac{1}{2}$ lb
caster sugar		$\frac{1}{2}$ lb
egg yolks	10	_
baking powder	_	1 oz
water	About 4 gills	About $3\frac{1}{2}$ gills

The fat is rubbed into the flour and the mixture made into a bay. The eggs and the water are added and the ingredients mixed together. The paste is stored in a cool place for an hour or two or preferably overnight.

SHORTBREAD

A formula for good shortbread is:

flour _	4 lb
butte r	2 lb
sugar	1 lb
salt	1 <u>₹</u> oz
eggs	3

BAKING 11

The eggs should be mixed with the sugar, then the butter rubbed in and the flour by degrees. The baking temperature should depend upon the size of the pieces which are being baked, the temperature lying between 195 and 225° C (380 and 440° F).

SHORTENING

'Shortenings' are hydrogenated fats. They can be 'tailor made' for specific purposes in confectionery work.

SODA BREAD

In Eire a large proportion of the flour is used for the production of soda bread which is a chemically aerated bread. The aeration is accomplished by adding sodium bicarbonate to the flour and making the mixture into a dough with butter milk. The acid of the butter milk and the bicarbonate react to release carbon dioxide. The dough is baked in an iron pot, often in a peat fire when the bread is made domestically.

A weak flour sufficiently highly treated to reduce the elasticity of the gluten gives the best results.

SODIUM BICARBONATE

Sodium bicarbonate is widely used in the confectionery trade. It is the ingredient with which an acid body is mixed in baking powders and in self-raising flour. It reacts with acid to liberate carbon dioxide and this gas produces the desired aeration in the goods. Sodium bicarbonate will release carbon dioxide if heated on its own but it then leaves an alkaline residue of sodium carbonate in the goods, which gives them an objectionable taste and causes the flour to assume a deep yellow colour.

SOYA FLOUR

Soya flour is milled from the soya bean, a legume which is widely grown in the Far East. It has a protein content in the region of 45 per cent, an oil content of about 25 per cent, and contains about 2 per cent of lipoids. Two disadvantages attaching to unprocessed soya flour as an ingredient of food preparations are the rapidity with which rancidity may develop because of the high oil content, and the beany and rather bitter taste. These two defects can be dealt with by suitable steam treatment, which removes the taste and diminishes the tendency for rancidity to develop. Trouble from rancidity can also be avoided by removal of the oil.

Soya flour has been advocated as an ingredient of bread doughs on the grounds that it helps to maintain moistness and freshness in the bread. It has a deadening effect on the dough, however, and this restricts the proportion in which it can be employed in ordinary white bread to about 2 lb per sack. Special breads are, however, made which contain much higher quantities of soya flour, but they are characterized by a loaf of small volume that shows a close texture in the crumb.

SPONGE GOODS

Well-made sponge goods are a profitable line for the confectioner. The ingredients required are: a hard

grained sugar, a soft weak flour, and eggs. Plain sponges can be made by beating together 3 lb of eggs and 2 lb 10 oz of sugar until the mixture is firm and then mixing lightly into 2 lb 6 oz of flour. The mixture is filled into moulds and baked in a solid oven at 204° C (400° F). If sponge fingers are to be made the sugar should be reduced to 2 lb and the flour increased to $2\frac{1}{7}$ lb.

STALING

As bread ages it loses flavour and aroma and becomes harsh and crumbly. At one time it was thought that this staling was due to loss of moisture from the loaf but it has been shown that bread will stale even when stored under conditions that prevent loss of moisture.

The basic cause of bread staling is a change in the nature of the starch. In fresh bread the starch exists in what is known as the *alpha* form. At temperatures below 55° C (131° F) *alpha* starch is unstable and some of it changes into a *beta* form until an equilibrium mixture is attained. The composition of the equilibrium mixture is determined by the temperature, the lower the temperature the greater the proportion of *beta* starch in the equilibrium mixture.

Alpha starch has a greater water-holding capacity than beta starch, and hence the change from alpha to beta starch is accompanied by an extrusion of water from the starch. This water may be taken up by the gluten.

Above 55° C (131° F), alpha starch is stable and does not change to beta starch, and hence bread stored at this temperature will not stale. This is not a practical solution to the problem, since bread kept at this temperature will be very prone to develop rope.

Staling can be delayed also by storing bread at -20° C (-4° F). The reason is not that the equilibrium is distubed but that the rate of transformation at this temperature is so extremely slow that it is of no practical significance.

SUGAR

Different types of sucrose are used for different purposes. Sugar nibs—a very coarse sugar—are used to sprinkle on the top of bath buns.

Granulated sugar, which has a hard grain, is employed in the making of macaroon goods but it should not be used in other goods where eggs are the only moistening agents.

For most purposes fine caster sugar is used, and particularly for working with eggs or creaming with butter. Icing sugar is used for making water icing or royal

ing.

Dark sugars, such as demerara, are useful in dark-coloured cakes because they aid the colour while they also add to the flavour.

VIENNA BREAD

Whether or not a loaf is a Vienna loaf is not determined by its ingredients or by the technique by which it has been produced, but by its characteristics. The most distinctive characteristic of a Vienna loaf is its very crisp, thin, and highly glazed crust, of a light golden brown colour. Another feature of a Vienna loaf or roll is that it does not have an unbroken surface; the loaf or roll is either cut on the upper surface or is moulded into such a shape that the upper surface is not continuous. The vesiculation of the crumb of Vienna bread is coarser than that of ordinary bread, and gas holes are present. In order that the crust characteristics may be obtained, the dough must be baked in an ample supply of steam and it is usual to effect the baking on the sole of the oven.

VIENNA OVEN

A Vienna oven has less depth than an ordinary bread oven and it has a sole which slopes up from the front to the back of the oven. The reason for this is that it ensures that steam is retained in the oven even when the door is opened, as an ample supply of steam is essential for the production of good Vienna bread.

VOL

See AMMONIUM CARBONATE.

WHEATMEAL

Meals (wheatmeals and wholemeals) need to be treated differently from white flours in the bakery. They usually require two or more gallons of water per sack over the proportion needed for white flour and are best suited by a bulk fermentation of $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hr. Ample salt is required and the inclusion of fat may enhance crumb consistency. The dough temperature must be well below that employed for white flour doughs and a temperature of 22 to 23° C (72 to 74° F) is recommended. A suitable formula would be:

> 70 lb meal salt $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb yeast $1\frac{1}{4}$ lb water $4\frac{1}{4} - 4\frac{1}{2}$ gal

The dough should be finished at a temperature of 23° C (74° F) and should be allowed to ferment for 1 hr. It should then be given a thorough knock-back and allowed to ferment for a further 15 min. The dough should then be scaled, moulded, and proved. It is important that full proof should not be given; meal doughs should always go to the oven on a rising proof. The dough should be well baked.

Speciality meals, that is meals that contain additional ingredients such as germ or diastatic malt, may require special treatment, but the recommended procedure will be supplied by the proprietors of the meal.

YEAST

Yeasts are unicellular plants, the cells of baker's yeast (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) being about $\frac{1}{3.600}$ inch in diameter. They normally reproduce by 'budding', in which process a daughter cell grows from the parent cell and eventually assumes an independent existence, although it may remain attached to the parent cell. Yeasts are able to utilize sugar for their energy requirements

and in so doing they produce carbon dioxide and alcohol as waste products. It is upon this property of yeast that its use as an aerating agent depends.

Yeast is most active at a temperature of 22 to 29° C (72 to 85° F). Its activity is impaired at a temperature of about 40° C (110° F), and at a temperature of 50 to 60° C (125 to 130° F) yeast is killed. If yeast is to be maintained in good condition it should be wrapped in a damp cloth and kept in a cool place or preferably stored in a refrigerator at 4° C (40° F).

A rough check upon the relative activities of samples of yeast can be made by incorporating them in a series of doughs made under identical conditions, i.e. same flour, same amount of water, etc., placing these doughs in graduated cylinders, and noting the height to which they rise in a given time. For more accurate work the Zymotachygraphe can be used.

YIELD

The yield of bread obtained from a flour is determined by the amount of water used in the dough and the losses which occur during fermentation and baking. If the latter two factors are reasonably constant in a bakery, then yield is determined by the water absorption of the flour being used. This is naturally influenced by the moisture content of the flour but, in the absence of wide fluctuations in moisture content between different consignments of flour, water absorption is governed by the wheat blend, the amount of damaged starch, and the chemical treatment that a flour has received.

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Index

A	in cake flour, 5	in tomato sauce, 17
Acerola, 248	synergism of, 209	runner, 16
Acetic acid, 1, 9, 18, 423	Anti-spattering agents, 168	Beet
preservation by, 422	Anti-tailing devices, 57 Apoferritin, 327	composition of, 344 dark cutting, 287
Acetoglycerides, 185, 191	Appeal to the cow test, 79	extract, 281
Acetyl value, 185 Acid calcium phosphate, 1, 9, 303	Apple juice, 253	Beer, canning of, 19
Acidity	Apples	Beetroot, 17
expressed as hydrogen ion concentration,	canning of, 14 cider, classification of, 259	for pickling, 456 pickled, 425–426
34	for jam manufacture, 393	pickled, adverse effects of sulphur
importance of, in canning, 33 in cheesemaking, 87	for manufacture of fillings, 396	dioxide in, 438
of cream, 77	freezing of, 45 prepared, refrigerated storage of, 15	Benzoic acid, 18
of dough, 1	Arachidonic acid, 327	in fruit juices, 275 in fruit juices, determination of, 250
of fruit juices, 248 of fruits and vegetables, 13, 35	Arginine, 327	Benzoyl peroxide, 306
of milk, 77	Ariboflavinosis, 327	Beriberi, 328
reagents for determining, 78	Ascorbic acid as flour improver, 305	Beta-amylase, 6 Beverages (see also Fruit juices and Soft
Acid phosphates, production in dough, 1	effect of, in meat products, 281	Drinks)
Acid potassium tartrate (see Cream of	in breadmaking, 3	bottling of, 254–256
Tartar) Acid sodium pyrophosphate, 1, 303,	in fruit juices, determination of, 249	canning of, 18
321	loss of, from vegetables, 177–178 oxidase, 327	carbonated, 257 flavouring compounds for, 271
Acids, for jelly manufacture, 411	Aseptic filling, 79	non-Excisable, 273
Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 326 Adhesives, 348–349	Ash in fruit juices, determination of,	Bilberries, canning of, 19
Adhesives for laminating, 380	250	Biocytin, 328
Adipose tissue, 326	Aspartic acid, 327 Atomizers, 165	Bioflavonoids, 328 Biological oxygen demand, 81
Adsorbents for moisture removal, 462	Atwater factors, 327	Biological value, 328
Aeration of baked goods, 1	Autocap closure, 30	Bios, 328
of dough, 2	Autolysis of fish, 213	Biotin, 328
Aerosols, 349	Automatic control, 463 Automation in dairying, 79	Birs dryer, 266 Biscuits, 2
AFD (see Freeze drying)	Avidin, 327	Abernethie, 2
Agar-agar, 57 Agar sausage method, 298	Avitaminosis, 327	flour for, 2
Agene, 303		ingredients of, 2
Air conditioning, 461–463	R	packs for, 355
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326	Bahasay ail 202	Bitot's spots, 328
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1	Babassu oil, 202	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78
Air conditioning, 461-463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating,	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286-287 smoking of, 299-300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294-295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermodulic, 54, 135	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology)	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermophilic, 54, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annantto, 78, 218	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermophilic, 54, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Bake-in-trays, 353 Baking, 1 et seq.	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annatto, 78, 218 Anorexia nervosa, 327	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Bake-in-trays, 353 Baking, 1 et seq. Baking powder, 1, 303	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377 scanning of, 255
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annatto, 78, 218 Anorexia nervosa, 327 Antibiotics	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Baking, 1 et seq. Baking, 1 et seq. Baking powder, 1, 303 Barley, 306	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annatto, 78, 218 Anorexia nervosa, 327 Antibiotics in fish preservation, 213	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Bake-in-trays, 353 Baking, 1 et seq. Baking powder, 1, 303	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377 scanning of, 255 washing of, 255 Bottling of beverages, 254–256
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annimal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annimato, 78, 218 Anorexia nervosa, 327 Antibiotics in fish preservation, 213 in meat processing, 280 in milk, 79	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermoduric, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Bakein, 1 et seq. Baking powder, 1, 303 Barley, 306 Barrels, 353 Batters, for cake, 4 Beans	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377 scanning of, 255 washing of, 255 Bottling of beverages, 254–256 of cider, 260
Air conditioning, 461–463 Alanine, 326 Albumen, 1 Alcohol in fruit juices, determination of, 249 Alginates, 57 Alkyl p-hydroxybenzoates, 438 Allergy, 326 Almonds, 68 Alpha-amylase, 5, 6 Aluminium, 13 foil, 349–351 foil, as insulating material, 476 Alveographe, 303 Amino acids, 326 Aminopterin, 327 Ammonium carbonate in baking, 1 Ammonium chloride in baking, 1 Ammonium persulphate, 304, 316 Amylases, 304 Amylograph, 305 Anaemia, 327 Analysis, thermal, 209 Anchovies, 213 'Angel food', 4 Angular stomatitis, 327 Animal foods, 13 Animal foods, 13 Animal protein factor, 327 Annatto, 78, 218 Anorexia nervosa, 327 Antibiotics in fish preservation, 213 in meat processing, 280	Babassu oil, 202 Bacon composition of, 344 curing of, 286–287 smoking of, 299–300 Bacteria butyric acid, 85 count tests for, 138, 144 in meat products, tests for, 298 in milk, plate count for estimating, 138 lactic acid, 294–295 of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214, 216 of milk, 81, 104, 141 of wheat, 10, 305 simple, classification of, 106–107 taints in milk caused by, 123 thermoduric, 135 thermophilic, 54, 135 Bacteriological control, in canning, 16 Bacteriophage, 80 Bacteriology (see Microbiology) Bags, 352–353 filling and closing equipment for, 353 Bake-in-trays, 353 Baking, 1 et seq. Baking powder, 1, 303 Barley, 306 Barrels, 353 Batters, for cake, 4	Bitot's spots, 328 Bitterness in dairy products, 81 Bitty cream, 81, 148 Bixen, 78 Blackberries, canning of, 19 Blackcurrant juice, 253 Blackcurrants canning of, 19 for jam manufacture, 392 Blanching, 20, 46, 159–160 Bleaching of fats, 186 of flour, 306 Bloater, 214 Bloom, of chocolate, 73 Board, packaging, 361 Boil-in-bag packs, 49, 354 Boiled sweets, 57 Bone meal, 295 Bones, fat extraction from, 295 Borneo tallow, 203 Bottles, 254, 376–378 brown, 82 caps for, foil, 351 filling of, 256 milk, 111, 112 milk, cleaning of, 81, 104 one-trip, 377 scanning of, 255 washing of, 255 Bottling of beverages, 254–256

Botulism, 33, 214, 236	red, pickled, 438	solid, 491
Boxes	requirements for dehydration, 181	storage of fish, 215, 217
rigid paperboard, 386	Cabinets, retailers', for frozen foods, 49	Carcases, cooling and preparation of,
tin, 356, 358	Cacao beans	297 Corniting 220
Brandies, 256	fermentation of, 62	Carnitine, 329 Carob juice, 257
Brazil nuts, 68	winnowing of, 74 Cacao butter (see also Cocoa butter), 58	Carotenal, 330
Bread, 2	crystallizing of, 73	Carotene, 86, 307, 330
as sausage filler, 288 colour of, 5	Cacao moth, 58	Carotenoids, 330
emulsifier applications in, 191	Caerphilly cheese, 90	in fish, 215
ingredients of, 2	Cake, 4	Carrots
malt, 8	canning of, 20	canning of, 21
manufacture of, 2	emulsifier applications in, 191	peeling of, 180
milk, 8	moisture content of, 186	requirements for dehydration, 181
milk solids in, 81	packs for, 355	Cartons and cartoning systems, 359–361
moulds, and acetic acid, 1	Calcium chloride in cheesemaking, 92	Cartons
packs for, 355	Calcium phosphate, 321 Calcium requirements in diet, 328	for frozen foods, 48 for milk, 86
protein-enriched, 9 protein, quality of, 326	Calorie, 329	Casein, 86, 138
soda, 11	Calorimeter, 329	Cases, fibreboard, 361–362
staling of, 11	Candied fruits, 59	Casings, sausage, 282-284
starch reduced, 9	Canned foods	Casks, 257, 362
vienna, 11	gases in, 31	Catalysts for fat hydrogenation, 186
yield, 12	nutritive value of, 40	Cat foods, 14
Breadmaking, 2	spoilage of, 51	Catalase, 86
Breakfast cereals, 307	tin in, 55	Cattle, dairy, 81
Break middlings, 307	Canning, 13 et seq.	Cauliflower
Break rolls, 307, 318	acidity, importance of, in, 33	canning of, 21
Breeds of dairy cattle, 81	agitation, effect of, in, 34	brined, 454 Caviar, 216
Brine preservation of vegetables by, 453–454	aseptic, 15 of carbonated beverages, 257	Celery, 21
refrigerating, 464	of fruit fillings, 397–398	Cellulose ethers, 445
strength, 242	of fruit juices, 256	Centrifugal, 308
strength, determination of, 440-441	temperature control in, 54	Centrifugation of fruit juices, 261
tanks, 282	Cans, 20, 356-358	Cereals
systems, 469	aluminium, 13	breakfast, 307
Brining of fish, 28	beverage, 19	composition of, 344
Brisling, 29, 215	clinching of, 22	starch in, 322
Brix, 256	coding of, 22	Chalk (creta praeparata), 308, 331
Brog tool, 178	cooling of, 23, 34	Chayen process for fat extraction, 295 Cheese, 86–102
Browning of dehyrated vegetables, 181	corrosion of, 13, 19, 22, 24, 27, 36, 38, 39, 43, 44, 50, 55	blue-veined, 81
Browning reaction, 82 Brussels sprouts	deformation of, 23, 34	colouring of, 78
canning of, 20	drying of, 26	composition of, 344
freezing of, 46	easy-open, 13	continuous production of, 99
Buckling, 215	exhausting of, 27	definition of, 128
Buffer value, 82	for fish packs, 30	dressing of, 97
Buns, 4	filling of, 27	effect of low temperatures on, 141
Burners, gas, 64	for condensed and evaporated milk, 39	English, composition of, 96
Bushel weight, 307	for dehydrated vegetables, 178 headspace in, 32	enzymes in, 97 film wrapping of, 99, 100
Butter, 82–84	headspace gases in, 31	grading, 99, 143–144
additives for, 78 body, 84	heat penetration into, determining, 33	industry, corrosion in, 119
churning, 83	incubation of, 35	legislation, 127
colour, 78, 82, 86	lacquers for, 35	manufacture, 87
composition of, 82, 344	peaking of, 23, 34	nutritive value of, 90, 91
contectionery, 58	reforming of, 50	packaging of, 99–102, 350, 362
cultures, 82	seaming of, 26	pasteurizing of milk for, 136
definition of, 128	sizes of, 21	renneting of, 88, 141–143
dehydrated, 160	sulphur staining of, 25	rheological definitions of, 89 rheological properties of, 144
faults in, 83	testing of, 54 vacuum in, 55	rindless curing of, 99
flavour of, 82, 83, 193 grading, 83	Canthaxanthin, 329	ripening of, 87, 98, 141, 143
legislation, 127	Capillary fragility, 329	soft, 95
low temperature storage of, 140	Caps (see Closures)	starters, 87, 93, 146–148
manufacture, 83	Capsules, gelatin, 357	storage of, 98
packaging of, in foil, 350	Caramel, 5, 59, 427	treatment of, 96
ratio, 85	Carbohydrates, 329	varieties, 88-96
setting of, 84	Carbohydrates	Cherries, canning of, 21
spreadability, 84	in fish, 215	Cheshire cheese, 91
taints arising in, 120	Carbonation of beverages, 257	Chewing gum, 59 Chicken, composition of, 344
yield, 84	Carbon dioxide as factor in can corrosion, 24	Chilling of fish, 216–217
Buttermilk, 85 Butyric acid, 85	cooling vehicles by, 49	Chloride in fruit juices, determination of,
By-products from dairying, 85	determination of, 1	251
~1 broamen nom munitue, on	from baking powder, 1	Chlorination, 22, 24
ď	in dough, 1	Chlorine
C	in beverages, determination of, 250	as flour improver, 308
Cabbage	in headspace gases, 32	determination of, in cooling water, 24
nutrient losses of, during scalding, 177	production by stored fruit and vegetables,	Chlorine dioxide, 308, 316 Chlorotex, 24
red, for pickling, 456	473	Chiolotea, 27

Chocolate	Condensers, 173	D
conching of, 61	refrigeration, 482	Dairies design of 70
crumb, 67 emulsifier applications in, 191	Conditioner for wheat, 308 Confectionery, 57 et seq.	Dairies, design of, 79 Dairy industry data, 114
enrobing with, 62	boiled, 57	Dairy products, definitions of, 128
grinding of, 67 manufacture of, 60	equilibrium r.h. of, 62 moulding of, 68	Dairying, 75 et seq. by-products from, 85
refining of, 69	packaging of, 364	legislation, 126–129
tailing, prevention of, 57 tempering of, 73	rollers, batch, 57 sugar, effect of humidity on, 364	Defrosting, 468 Dehydrated foods, compression of,
Choline, 330	Connective tissue, 285	160
Chorleywood bread process, 3 Chromatography, 187–188	Containers (see Packaging) Control of equipment, 471	Dehydration, 159 et seq. control apparatus for, 161
Churns, 86, 116	Conveying, bulk, 464, 465	freeze, 167–168, 169–173, 174
cleaning of, 103, 116 sterility test on, 104	Conveyors (see also Elevators) belt, 463	of fish, 220 of fruit, 173
Cider, 258–260	chain, 465, 466	of fruit juices, 265-266
Citric acid, 18, 60, 330 Citrin, 330	flight, 487 maintenance of, 479	of meat, 163–174 of milk, 131
Citrovorum factor, 330	overhead chain, 483	roller, 132
Citrus juices, 260 Clarification of milk, 104	pneumatic, 465, 484 portable, 485	spray, 132 Dehydrofreezing, 161
Cleaning	powered, 485	Density of sugar solutions, 53
in dairying, 103–104, 117 in-place, 104, 117	roller, 489 screw, 465, 491	Derbyshire cheese, 95 Desiccants for containers, 367
Cleaning procedures in factories, 430	spiral, 491	Detacher, 310
Clinching, 22	steel band, 465–492 wheat, 309	Deterioration (see Spoilage) Detergents, 266
Closing temperature, 22 Clostridium botulinum, in canning, 33	wheel, 496	for dairying, 103, 114, 147
Closures	wire belt, 496	Dextrose, 61, 65
autocap, 30 foil, 351	Cookers, continuous, 33 Cooking fat, 189	Diastatic activity, 5, 310 Diet
for cans, types of, 357	Cooling	bland, 328
for fruit juices, 262 for glass containers, 377–378	of cans, 23, 24 of vegetables, 161	calcium in, 328 Hay, 334
phoenix, 52	Cooling water, 24	Karell, 336
Clot-on-boiling test, 108 Cocarboxylase, 331	Copper, 331 vessels in jam manufacture, treatment of,	Kempner, 336 ketogenic, 336
Cocoa beans, 60	407	Lenhartz, 336
roasting of, 70 Cocoa butter, 188	Cordials, 265 Cork, 476	Meulengracht, 337 Sippy, 341
substitutes for, 188	Corn oil, 203	sodium-free, 341
Coconut, 68 Coconut oil, 62, 202	Corned beef, canning of, 38 Cornflour, 5	Diethyl pyrocarbonate, 267 Digestibility, 332
Cod in white sauce, 29	in saucemaking, 444, 446	Diphenyl, 267
Cod-liver oil, 331 Code of Practice, 22	Corrosion (see also Cans), 24, 115–119 Cottage cheese, 91–94	Dirt in milk, test for, 151 Disc separator, 311
fish freezing, 218	Cottonseed oil, 194, 202	Disinfectant for dairies, 105
for apple purée, 15 for beans in tomato sauce, 17	Cranes, 468 Cream, 113, 114	Disinfection of cooling water, 24 Disintegrator, 311
for canned butter beans, 16	acidity of, 77	Distensibility of gluten, 2
for canned fruit and vegetables, 14, 35 for canned fruit salad, 31	bitty, 81, 148 canning of, 25	Dividers, dough, 3 Dog foods, 14
for canned soups, 50	composition of, 344	'Do-Maker' bread process, 3 Dorset Blue cheese, 95
for cheese film wrapping, 100 for horseradish sauce, 440	confectionery, 61 definition of, 128	Double seams, 26
for spreads, 52	neutralization of lactic acid in, 133	Dough
Coding of cans, 22 Coeliac disease, 331	powder, 5 synthetic, 149	biscuit, 2 elasticity of, 312
Coenzymes, 331	Cream cheese, 94	machines for, 3, 4
Cold storage (see Storage) Coliform test, 108	Cream crackers, 2 Cream of Tartar, 5	mechanical working of, 3 moisture content of, 8
Collapsible tubes, 364	in baking powder, 1	pH of, 316
Colostrum, 108, 109 Colour, measurement of, 188	Crumb, milk, 67 Crumb softeners, 5	physical properties of, 6 production of acid phosphates in, 1
Colours	Crumpets, 5	ripening of, 3
in beverages, determination of, 251 bread, 5	Crust colour, 5 Cryptoxanthin, 331	testing, 303, 312 yeasted, acidity of, 1
confectionery, 61	Crystallizing, wet, 73	Doughnuts, 6
for canned products, 23 for fruit juice beverages, 262	Cucumbers, pickled, 455 Curd	DPD, 24 Dragees, 68
for margarine, 188	cutting of, 89	Dresser, flour, 311
for pickles, 426–427 for preserves, 390	fruit, 394–396 milling of, 90	Drinks, 276 Drives for conveyors, 463
for sausages, 284	piling of, 90	Drugs, appetite depressant, 327
for smoked fish, 218 for table jellies, 411	Curing of bacon and ham, 286-287 Curing salts, 37	Drums, 366 Dryers, 162–168
Comminution of fruit, 262	Cut-out, 25	Drying
Compressed air for dairies, 80 Compressors, refrigeration, 466, 482	Cyanide, fumigation with, 58 Cysteine in breadmaking, 3	of air, 462 of cans, 26
Conching, 61	Cystine, 331	of foods (see Dehydration)

Duele commentities of 244	T / 105 ·	
Duck, composition of, 344	Fats, 185 et seq.	canning of, 28
Dummy pulp, 416 Dunlop cheese, 95	bleaching of, 186	carbohydrates in, 215
Dunst, 311	composition of, 200–201 confectionery, 62	carbon dioxide storage of, 215, 217
Dust collectors, 311	cooking, 189	carotenoids in, 215 chilling of, 216–217
Dust separation, 465	de-acidification of, 189	classification of, 217
Dye absorption methods for protein, 138	degumming of, 189	cold storage of, 218, 227–228
Dyspepsia, 332	density of, 189	composition of, 218–219, 345
	deodorizing of, 189	dehydration of, 168
${f E}$	differential thermal analysis of, 209	demersal, 220
	digestibility of, 190	density of, 220
Effluent from canneries, 26	dilatometry of, 190	dielectric thawing of, 228
Effluent recovery plant for wheat, 311	emulsification of, 190	dried, discoloration and toughening of,
Egg	flavour of, 193 hardness of, measuring, 194	221 drifting for 220
albumen, 1	hydrogenation of, 186–187, 194	drifting for, 220 drying of, 220
bulk, handling requirements of, 430	identification agents for, 195	elasmobranch, 221
composition of, 344	interesterification of, 195	ensilage of, 221
composition and properties of, 6 dehydrated, nutritive value of, 175	iodine value of, 196	fat content of, 222-223
dehydrated, palatability of, 175	liquid/solid ratio in, 197	fingers, 223
dried, 6	measuring spreadability of, 84	freezing, 47, 227–228, 239
frozen, 6	melting point of, 199	freshness tests for, 228-229
in baking, 6	of fish, 222–223	heat transfer in, 230
packaging of, 368	peroxide value of, 206	hygiene in handling of, 226, 230
Elasticity, 144	plasticity of, 207	industry, 224
Elevators, 469-471	preservatives in, 207 refining of, 207	industry, Government departments in-
Embryo of wheat grain, 312	refractive index of, 207	volved in, 229 industry, weights and measures in, 246
Emulsification, 190	Reichert-Meissl, Polenske and Kirschner	irradiation of, 231
Emulsifiers, 190–192 for ice-cream, 195	values of, 207	livers, 232
in crumb softeners, 5	saponification value of, 208	marinating of, 232
Endosperm of wheat grain, 312	slip point of, 209	meal, 224–225
Enrobing, 62	smoke, fire and flash points of, 209	meal, spontaneous combustion of, 225
Enrichment, 332	thiobarbituric acid value of, 210	minerals in, 232–233
Entoleter, 312	thiocyanogen value of, 210	muscle structure, 233
Enzymes, 6, 25, 267	unsaponifiable matter in, 210	nitrite dipping of, 225
action of, in can corrosion, 24	vegetable, in dairy products, 120, 152 Fatty acids, 192–193	nitrogen factor of, 233
action of, in wheat flour, 6	essential, 192, 332	nitrogenous extractives of, 233 nomenclature of, 234
activity of in fruit juices, determining	in fish fats, 222–223	nucleic acids of, 234
251 clarification of fruit juices by, 261	metabolism of, 328	nucleotides of, 235
clotting of milk by, 88, 141–143	non-esterified, 338	oils, 203
fat digesting, 196	_ titre of, 199	oils, test for rancidity of, 239
for tenderizing meat, 300	Feeders, constant weight, 467	packaging of, 370
in cheese, 97, 141	Fermentation	parasites and diseases of, 235
in oats, stabilization of, 319	aeration by, 1	pelagic, 235
in pickle manufacture, 427	brining of vegetables, 453-454 in dough, 1, 2	pH of, 235
proteolytic, in flour, 2, 7	of apple juice, 259	phosphatides of, 235 physical properties of, 235
starch degrading, 304	of fruit juices, 270	poisoning from, 236
Ergosterol, 332 Erythorbic acid, 332	of milk, 78	polyphosphate dipping of, 228
Erythrosine, 23, 31	Fermentograph, 313	potted, 236
Essences, 63, 267	Ferritin, 333	pre-packaging of, 236
Essential oils, 63, 267, 287, 290	Fibreboard, 361	processing machinery, 224
Essential fatty acids, 192, 332	Figs, 27	protein concentrate (FPC), 225
Ester recovery, 268	Filling	proteins in, 236
Ethylene oxide, fumigation with, 59	of cans, 27 of jam, 409	public health inspectors and, 219
Evaporation of fruit juices, 263	of pickled vegetables, 458	purines in, 237 quality grading of, 237–239
Evaporators, 263	Filling machines, 368–370	roes, 239
Exhaust boxes, 27 Exhausting of cans, 27	Fillings	salting of, 240–241
Expansion valves, 483	fruit, 396-398	sausage, 226
Explosion hazard of starch, 67	whipped, emulsifier applications in,	scales, 241
Extensograph, 312	191	seine-netting for, 241
Extensometer, 312	Films	smoked, colours for, 218
	for shrink wrapping, 387 packaging, heat sealing of, 378–379	smoked, types of, 243
F	packaging, near scaring of, 376–379 packaging, permeability of, 371	smoking of, 241–242 spoilage of, 213, 216
P	Filth test, 313	steroids and sterols in, 242
Factor 3, 333	Filtration of fruit juices, 262, 270	'stinker', 243
Factory environment for pickle manufac-	Final proof, 2	storage life of, 228
ture, 429	Finnan haddock, 223	swim bladder of, 244
Factory ships, 222	FIRA extruder, 84	tester, 226
F.A.O., 221 Fans, 168	FIRA gauge, 56	thawed, drip in, 228
Farina as sausage filler, 288	Fish, 213 et seq. amino acids in, 234	transport of, 244
Farinograph, 312	amino acids in, 234 angle of repose of, 213	trawling for, 244
Fat	antibiotic preservation of, 213	trimethylamine (TMA) in, 244–245 vitamins in, 246
extraction from bones, 295	autolysis of, 213	water content of, 246
in dairy products, standardization of, 145	bacteria of, 214, 216	Flame peeling, 42, 180
in milk, 119, 145	biology of, 214	Flash 18 process, 16
		- •

771-4 51 55	E	Porton 104
Flat sours, 51, 55	Freeze concentration, 264	Frying, 194
Flavoproteins, 333 Flavouring compounds, 271	Freeze-drying, 167–174, 266 of milk, 133	Frying oils, 193 Fumigation, 314
Flavours	Freezer burn, 48	of cacao, 58
confectionery, 63	Freezers, 48	Fungal amylases, 314
for ice-cream, 195	air blast, 461	
for yoghourt, 155-156	Freezing, 13	G
in baking, 7	contact plate, 468	
in milk, 120–123	cryogenic, 48, 468	Gadoid, 229
for meat products, 289-291	fluidized bed, 472	Galactosaemia, 333
Flexible packaging materials, 370–373	of fruit for jam manufacture, 394	Gases in canned foods, 31
Flues and fly control, 226	mechanism of, 45	Gelatin, 64, 410 Gelatin, clarification of fruit juices by, 261
Flour, 313 addition of chalk to, 308	methods of, 47 of fish, 47, 227–228, 239	Gelling agents, 68
ageing of, 303	of fruit, 45	Gelling in sauces, 446
alpha-amylase activity, measurement of,	of meat, 47, 289–291	Germinal brush, 314
305	of poultry, 47	Gervita, 289
analysis of, 305	of vegetables, 46	Ghee, Vansapati, 211
ascorbic acid improvement of, 305	quick, 44	Gherkins, pickled, 428
ash content of, 305	Freezing point test for milk, 123-124	Ginger, preserved, 69
bleaching of, 306	Frozen foods	Ginger nuts, 2
cake, 4	history of, 44	Glandular products, 293
chlorine treatment of, 5 colour of, 308	nutritive value of, 40	Glass as dairy material, 118
composition of, 344	packaging of, 48 storage and transport of, 49	in packaging, 376–378
damaged starch content of, 310	Fructose, 65	presence of, in factories, necessary pre-
darkening of, 7	Fruit	cautions, 429
diastatic activity of, 5, 310	acidity of, 35	Glass wool, 476
enrichment, 312	bottling of, 30	Glassine, 375
extraction of, 312	browning of, 20, 25	Gliadin, 5, 315, 320
fluorine in, 314	candied, 59	Gloucester cheese, 95
grade of, 315	canning of, 31	Glucose, 7
granularity of, 315	citrus, for marmalade, 415–417	confectioners', 61 liquid, 66 ·
Hagberg test for, 315 heat treatment of, 316	cocktail, 31 composition of, 345	metabolism of, 332, 335
improvers, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320	comminuted, 262	syrup, 64, 399
iron in, 316	curds, 394–396	Glues, 348
malt, 317	dehydrated, nutritive value of, 175	Glutamic acid (see also MSG), 334
maltose figure of, 318	dehydration of, 173	Gluten, 6, 315
moisture in, 319	discoloration of, during canning, 25	in biscuit doughs, 2
pests of, 320	dried, moisture contents of, 367	Gluten breads, 9
pH of, 316	fillings, 396–398	Glutenin, 5, 315, 320
phytase in, 320	for jam manufacture, 391–394	Glycerol, 7 Glycerol esters, 191
protein content, determining, 320 purification of, 319	for thick sauces, 448 for yoghourt manufacture, 156	Glyceryl monostearate, 7, 64
reduction of, 319	freezing of, 45	Glyceryl monostearate, in bread, 5
self-raising, 321	in pickle manufacture, 428	Glycine, 334
strength, 322	juice, for jelly manufacture, 411	Glycogen, 334
sulphur dioxide and, 323	maturity of, 272	Glycolysis, 334
wheat, enzymes in, 6	milling of, 273	GMS (see Glyceryl monostearate)
wheat, for confectionery, 73	packing of, 274	Golden puff bisquits 2
Fluids, transfer of, 493	peeling of, 42 pulps, sulphited, 393	Golden puff biscuits, 2 Golden raising powder, 1
Fluidized bed freezing, 472 Fluidized handling, 471–472	salad, canning of, 31	Golden syrup, 72
Fluidizing, 163	storage of, 472–473	Gooseberries
F _a value, 34	sulphiting of, 173	canning of, 32
Foam drying of milk, 133	sulphiting of, 173 Fruit juices, 248 et seq.	for jam manufacture, 393
Foaming, 63	acids in, 248	Grape juice, 271
Foaming agents, 63, 66	analysis of, 249-253	Gravitational movement, 473
Foam-mat drying, 266	blending of, 254	Greengages; canning of, 32 Groundnut oil, 203
Foil, aluminium, 349–351	canning of, 18 chemical composition of, 258	Guar gum, 64
Folic acid, 333 Fondant, 7, 63	citrus, 260	Gum arabic, 65
Foods	classification of, 261	Gum tragacanth, 445, 447
acid. 326	closures for, 262	Gums. 64
canned (see Canned foods)	concentration of, 263-264	in sauce manufacture, 445
composition of, 344–345	construction materials for, 264	
dehydrated (see Dehydrated foods)	de-aeration of, 265	Н
fatty, 185 et seq.	dehydration of, 265–266 extraction of, 268–270	Haemosiderin, 334
freeze-dried, 167–174 freeze-dried, packaging of, 374	fermentation of, 270	Haff disease, 334
freeze-dried, packaging of, 574 freeze-dried, packaging of, in foil, 350	filtration of, 270	Hagberg test, 315
frozen (see Frozen foods)	frozen, 271	Halphen test for cottonseed oil, 194
gluten-free, 334	legislation, 271	Ham
maximum permissible ERH of, 267	pasteurization of, 274	canning of, 38
multipurpose, 335	preservatives for, 275	composition of, 344
nutritive values of, 91	processing, enzymes for, 267	curing, 286-687
spoilage of, 366	storage of, 276 varietal factors of, 278	flavour of, 289 Handing-up machine, 3
vended, packaging for, 351 Formol titration method, 138	Fruit pie fillings, 31	Handling, 460 et seq.
Fortification of milk, 123	Fruit salad, canning of, 31	equipment, maintenance of, 478–480
	,,,	***

Handling—contd.	Iron, 335	margarine, 197
equipment, overhead, 483	in flour, 316	marmaladé, 415
integration of with factory levels 476	Irradiation	meat product composition, 284
integration of, with factory layout, 476-		meat treatment, 281
477	of fish, 231	milk, 111, 123, 126–129, 151
of materials, 480–481	of meat, 293–294	
Hardness measurement, 194	Isinglas, 244	mincemeat, 417
Headspace in cans, 32	Iso-acids, 196	preservatives, 9
Headspace gases, 31	Isoleucine, 336	preservatives in fats, 207
Heat exchangers, scraped surface, 490	Isoriboflavine, 336	preservatives in meat products, 297
Heat sealing equipment, 378–379		preservatives in pickles and sauces, 438
Heat sterilization, 32	т	preservatives in soft drinks, 272
Heat units, 474	J	preservatives in tomato puree, 28, 29
Herbs (see Spices)	Jam (see also Preserves), 399-410	release agent, 412
Herring, canning of, 28		salad cream, 439
Hesperidin, 334	bakery, 389, 406	soft drinks, 18
Histidine, 335	cooker, continuous, 407	sulphiting of fruit, 173
Hoists, 474–475	diabetic, 391	tomato ketchup, 450
	jelly, 412–413	vitamins in flour, 323
Homogenization of milk, 124	manufacture, fruit for, 391-394	vitamins in margarine, 211
Honey, 65	Jellies	wheatmeal, 324
Horseradish sauce, 440	confectionery, 57	
Hot iron test for cheese, 90	table, 72, 410–411	Leicester cheese, 95
HTST pasteurization, 135	Jelly formation by pectin, 69	Lemon curd, 394
Humectants, 65	Jelly stock, 294	Leucine, 336
Humidifiers and dehumidifiers, 462	Junket, 86	Linoleic acid, 336
Humidity, 7, 475		Lipases, 196
importance of, in cheesemaking, 98		Lipoic acid, 336
Husking separator, 316	K	Lipoids, 8
Hydrocooling, 475	T/ -4- 4 271	Liqueurs, 65
Hydrogen, in headspace gases, 32	Katadyn process, 271	Liquid sugars, 72
Hydrogenation	Kedgeree, canning of, 30	Liquids, filling of, 368
catalysts for, 186	Kefir, 78	Liquorice paste, 66, 73
	Ketone bodies, 336	Liver, composition of, 344
of fats, 186–187, 194	Kiln, Torry, 29, 242	Lloyd's Rules, 478
selectivity in, 208	Kipper, 231	Locust bean gum, 64
Hydrogen ion concentration (see pH)	Kippers, canning of, 29	
Hydrogen swells, 22, 24, 32	Klondyking of herrings, 231	Lozenges, 66
Hydrol, 65	Knock-back, 8	Luncheon meat, canning of, 37
Hydroseal sterilizer and cooler, 409	Kumys (koumiss), 78	'Luxus konsumption', 337
Hydroxymethylfurfurol in fruit juices,	Kwashiorkor, 336	Lycopene, 337
determining, 251	ikwasinoraoi, 550	Lye peeling, 42, 179
Hydroxyproline, 335		Lysine, 337
Uvojena	T	
nygiciic	${f L}$	
Hygiene in canneries, 35		M
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282	Labels, 379	M
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282		Macaroni, 317
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230	Labels, 379	
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294–295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379–381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Inositol, 335 Inositol, 335 Inositol, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Instant milk power, 133	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Incubation of cans, 35 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Incubation of cans, 35 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475-	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476 Intrinsic factor, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476 Intrinsic factor, 335 Invert sugar, 65	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271 fruit pulps for manufacturing, 393	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317 Maillard reaction, 82, 221, 337
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104-105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428-430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475- 476 Intrinsic factor, 335 Invertase, 65 Invertase, 65	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294-295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379-381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126-129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191-192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271 fruit pulps for manufacturing, 393 ice-cream, 195	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317 Maillard reaction, 82, 221, 337 Malic acid in jelly manufacture, 411
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476 Intrinsic factor, 335 Invert sugar, 65 Invert sugar, 65 Invertase, 65 Iodine, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294–295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379–381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126–129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191–192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271 fruit pulps for manufacturing, 393 ice-cream, 195 iron in flour, 316	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317 Maillard reaction, 82, 221, 337 Malic acid in jelly manufacture, 411 Maltose test for diastatic activity, 310
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instant milk power, 133 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476 Intrinsic factor, 335 Invert sugar, 65 Invertase, 65 Iodine, 335 Iodine value, 196	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294–295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379–381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126–129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191–192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271 fruit pulps for manufacturing, 393 ice-cream, 195 iron in flour, 316 jam manufacture, 399–400	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317 Maillard reaction, 82, 221, 337 Malic acid in jelly manufacture, 411 Maltose test for diastatic activity, 310 Manganese, 337
in canneries, 35 in curing houses, 282 in fish handling, 226, 230 in fruit processing factories, 276 in milk distribution, 104–105, 108 in pickle manufacture, 428–430 Hypercalcaemia, 335 Hypervitaminosis, 335 I Ice-cream, 195 emulsifier applications in, 191 overrun, 206 Ice for fish chilling, 231 flake, 471 production of, 460 Icing, 8, 71 royal, 1, 8 Illipe butter, 58, 62, 203 Impact grinder, 316 Improvers baked goods, 192 flour, 303, 304, 305, 308, 316, 320 Incaparina, 335 Incubation of cans, 35 Inositol, 335 Instrumentation for freeze-drying, 171 of retorts, 34 Insulation and insulating materials, 475– 476 Intrinsic factor, 335 Invert sugar, 65 Invert sugar, 65 Invertase, 65 Iodine, 335	Labels, 379 Laboratory control (see also Quality control), 124 Lacquers for cans, 35 Lactic acid, 65, 133, 423 bacteria, 294–295 Lactoglycerides, 191 Laminates, 379–381 barrier properties of, 353 foil, 350 Lancashire cheese, 95 Lard, 203 Lecithin, 8, 65, 120, 186, 196, 235 structure, sources and uses of, 196 Legislation animal foods, 14 antibiotics for fish preservation, 213 antioxidants, 185 baking powders, 1 bread and flour, 2, 322 canned meat products, 36 cheese, 96 colours, 23,390 comminuted fruit beverages, 262 creta praeparata in flour, 308 crumb softeners, 5 dairy industry, 126–129 edible gelatin, 410 emulsifiers, 191–192 fish products, 231 flour enrichment, 312 fluorine in food, 314 fruit curds, 394 fruit juice products, 271 fruit pulps for manufacturing, 393 ice-cream, 195 iron in flour, 316	Macaroni, 317 Macaroons, 8 albumen in, 1 composition of, 2 Macedoine of vegetables, canning of, 35 Machinery batch rolling, 57 blanching, 159 bottle washing, 255 butter churning, 84 can reforming, 50 centrifuges for fruit juices, 261 cheese packaging, 102 chocolate grinding, 67 chocolate refining, 69 conching, 61 drying, 162–168 enrobing, 62 evaporating, 263 filling, 256 fish processing, 224 freeze drying, 171 freezing, 47 fruit milling, 273 hand-seaming, 32 milk dehydration, 131 milk pasteurization, 135–136 strigging, 19 vegetable pre-treatment, 182 vegetable peeling, 179 winnowing, 74 Magnesium, 337 Magnetic separator, 317 Maillard reaction, 82, 221, 337 Malic acid in jelly manufacture, 411 Maltose test for diastatic activity, 310

Marasmus, nutritional, 337	bulk collection of, 82	test: resazurin, 143
Margarine, 197–198	bulgaricus, 82	test: sediment, 151
anti-spattering agents for, 186, 192	canning of, 38	test: solids-not-fat, 150
cake, 186	cartons for, 86	test: total solids, 150, 151
colours for, 188	chloride content of, 102	test: turbidity, 148
emulsification of, 190-192	clarification of, 104	tests, accuracy of, 75, 76, 125
emulsifier applications in, 191	colour of, 86	tests, analysis of results of, 126
pastry, 206	composition of, 108, 109, 134, 344	tests in creameries, 125
vitamin A addition to, 211	condensed and evaporated, 109-111	tests, standardization of, 126
Marinating of fish, 232	consumption and distribution of, 113, 115	UHT, 151
Markers for antibiotics, 79	containers for, 111, 112	Millerator, 318
Marmalade, 415–417	coolers, 116	Milling
Marshmallow, 66	cooling of, 112	of flour, 318–319
Marzipan, 66	copper in, 116	of fruit, 273
Mastitis milk, 75	crumb, 67	of oats, 319
Materials for dairy equipment, 115–117	definition of, 128	Milt, 232
Materials handling, 480–481	dehydration of, 174	Mincemeat, 417–419
Matzka process, 272	diseases borne by, 115	Mint products, 433
Mayonnaise (see also Salad cream), 198	dried, 131–133	Mixers, dough, 3
Meal	dried, definition of, 128	Mixograph, 319
fish, 224–225	dried, in confectionery, 67	Moisture
meat and bone, 295	dried, nutritional loss in, 82, 133, 176	adsorbents for removal of, 462
Meals (grain), 12	dried, solubility of, 145	in wheat and flour, determination of,
Meat, 280 et seq.	equipment and materials for, 115	319
ageing of, 280	evaporated, definition of, 128	resistance, measurement of, 381
colour of, 284	fat in, 119, 145	Molasses, 72
canning of, 36	fermentation of, 78	Molybdenum, 338
composition of, 285, 344	filled, 120	Monoglycerides, 199
cooking vessels for, 286	filling level variations of, 120	Monosodium glutamate (MSG), 295
dehydrated, 161	flavours in, 120–123	Moulders, dough, 3
dehydrated, fat stability in, 168	fortification of, 123	Moulding starch, 67
dehydrated, nutritive value of, 176	for yoghourt, requirements of, 153	Moulding units, 68
dehydration of, 173–174	freeze-drying of, 133	Moulds, 39
extract, production of, 281	fruit flavours for, 272	in cheese, prevention of, 100
flavour of, 289	heat stability of, 124	Muffins, 8
freeze-dried, 280	homogenization of, 124	Muscle contraction, 296
freezing of, 47, 291–293	humanizing of, 134	Mushrooms, 39
irradiation of, 293–294	in breadmaking, 8	Mutton, composition of, 344
meal, 295	legal aspects, 126–129	
packing tables for, 296	liberation of H₂S by, 118	N
pale exudative, 296	low fat, 129	
paic extuative, 290	1011 141, 122	NT:
prepacking of, 297	nutritive value of, 133–134	Niacytin, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130	Nicotinic acid, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134-137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134-137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131-133	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134-137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131-133 powder, compression of, 161	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134-137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131-133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67	nutritive value of, 133-134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134-137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131-133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq.
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweet condensed, canning of, 32	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery,	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderizes, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderizing of, 300 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77 acidophilus, 78	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidophilus, 78 alcohol test for, 78	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144 test: clot-on-boiling, 108 test: fat, 150	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338 O Oakes mixing system, 66
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77 acidophilus, 78 alcohol test for, 78 antibiotics in, 79 aseptic filling of, 79	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144 test: clot-on-boiling, 108 test: freezing point, 123–124	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338 O Oakes mixing system, 66 Oat cakes, 9
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77 acidophilus, 78 alcohol test for, 78 antibiotics in, 79 aseptic filling of, 79	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144 test: clot-on-boiling, 108 test: coliform, 108 test: freezing point, 123–124 test: inhibitory substances, 124	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338 O Oakes mixing system, 66 Oat cakes, 9 Oats, 319
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Methyl ketones, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77 acidophilus, 78 alcohol test for, 78 antibiotics in, 79	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144 test: clot-on-boiling, 108 test: freezing point, 123–124 test: inhibitory substances, 124 test: methylene blue, 130	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338 O Oakes mixing system, 66 Oat cakes, 9 Oats, 319 Oedema, 338
prepacking of, 297 products, preservatives for, 297 products, quality control of, 297 products, storage of, 300 storage, of, 467 vitamins in, 301 tenderizing of, 300 tenderness, measurement of, 301 water holding capacity of, 301 Melangeurs, 67 Membrane permeation, 264 Meringues, 8 albumen in, 1 Metabolic rate, basal, 328 Methionine, 337 Methylene blue test for milk, 130 Microbiology of dried milk, 133 of fish, 214 of milk, 106–107, 134–135 of tomato purée, 452 of vegetable brining, 453 Microscope, applications of in dairying, 131 Microwave blanching, 160 catering, 381 thawing of fish, 228 Middlings, 318 Milk abnormal, 75 acidity, determination of, 78 acidity of, 77 acidophilus, 78 alcohol test for, 78 antibiotics in, 79 aseptic filling of, 79 bacteria of, 81, 141	nutritive value of, 133–134 of mammals, composition of, 130 packaging, costs of, 381 pasteurization of, 134–137 pasteurized, improving keeping quality of, 137 powder, 82, 131–133 powder, compression of, 161 powder, instant, 133 products, rheology of, 143 protein in, determination of, 138, 150 protein precipitates, 112 quality payment for, 139 radioactively contaminated, 139 recombined, 139 ropy, 144 salts in, 144 skim, 129 solids-not-fat, 144 spoilage of, 140 standardization of, 145 staphylococci in, 145 sterilized, 148 supplies, quality of, 139, 148 supplies, testing of, 148 sweet curdling of, 148 sweetened condensed, canning of, 32 sweetened condensed, definition of, 128 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 taints in, 120–123 test: added water, 150 test: bacterial count, 138, 144 test: clot-on-boiling, 108 test: coliform, 108 test: freezing point, 123–124 test: inhibitory substances, 124	Nicotinic acid, 338 in meat products, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nisin, 44, 281 Nitrate, detinning of cans by, 55 Nitrite in curing pickles, 287 treatment of fish with, 225 Nitrogen balance, 338 in fruit juices, determination of, 251 in headspace gases, 32 liquid, for freezing, 45, 48 liquid, freezing fruit by, 394 liquid, freezing with, 468 packing dehydrated eggs in, 175 packing dehydrated vegetables in, 178 Nobbing of fish, 28 Nuoc Mam, 235 Nutrient losses in canning, 20, 40 Nutrition, 326 et seq. Nutritive value of canned foods, 40 of common foods, 91 of dehydrated foods, 174–178 of fish, 218, 219 of frozen foods, 40 of milk, 133–134 of whey, 152 Nuts, 68 composition of, 345 Nyctalopia, 338 O Oakes mixing system, 66 Oat cakes, 9 Oats, 319

of milk, 111, 121 of milk, 112, 120 of milk, 111, 121 of milk, 112, 123 of milk, 112, 123 of milk, 111, 121 of milk, 111			
fish, test for rancidity of, 239 noutralizing of, 199 collearosins, 381, 289-290 Oleoresins, 381, 289-290 Oleoresins, 381, 289-290 Olicoresins, 381, 289-290 Orange for marmialed, 415 Orange for marmialed, 415 Orange for marmialed, 415 Orange for marmialed, 415 Oven, vienna, 12 Ovens, baking, 4 Orange for marmialed, 415 Orange for			
neutralizing of, 199 winerzing of, 229-230 of the coll, 234 or collection of the col			
winterfaing of, 211 Obcrotenia, 234, 289-200 Obcrotenia, 234, 289-200 Obcrotenia, 234, 245 Oblicons peeling of, 434 pickled, 434-435, 455 Osmosis, reverse, 260 Osmosis, reverse, 260 Osmosis, reverse, 260 Oxyman, 206 Oxyman, 206 Oxyman, 206 Oxyman, 207 Oxyman, 207 Oxyman, 206 Oxyman, 207 Oxyman			
Oleoresing, 287, 289-290 Olive, oil, 204 poeling of, 434 pickled, 434-435, 455 Orange for marmalacl, 415 Orrange for marmalacl, 415 Orange for marmalacl, 415 Oronal poeling, 6134 pickled, 434-435, 455 Orange for marmalacl, 415 Oronal poeling, 6136 promother of the poeling of the degree of th			
Olive oil, 204 Onion of 434 pickled, 434-435, 455 Orolic acid, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Orolic acid, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Ovens, baking, 4 Ovens, baking, 4 Orolic acid, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Package forming, 41 Passion fruit, 274 Passion, 131 Package, 348 Package forming, 41 Passion fruit, 274 Passion, 131 Passion fruit, 274 Passion frui			
Onions pelling 4.14 and 4.15 corrected and substitutions of the pelling of the pe			
peeling of, 434 pickled, 434-435, 455 Oranges for marmalade, 415 Oranges for manufacture of, 431- Market for begs, 175 Paltatability of dried tegs, 175 Paltatability of dried			
pickcle, 434-435, 455 Orangs for marmalade, 415 Oronic acid, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Oven, baking, 4 Oven, baking			
Orateges for marmalack, 415 Orotic acid, 32, 223 Obstoornalacia, 32 23 Obstoornalacia, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Ovens, bakina, 24 Overs, bakina, 26 Ozygonion by, in canning, 27 in headspace gases, 31, 32 in-pack scavenging of, 367 protection against, 383 Package forming, filling and closing machines, 383 Deard, 361 Dearl, 361 Dearl, 362 October, 363 Dearl, 363 Dear			
Osmosis, reverse, 263 Osteomalicatis, 338 Oversi, validity, 348 Oversi, 348 Oversi, 348 Oversi, validity, 348 Oversi, 348	Oranges for marmalade, 415	Palatability of dried eggs, 175	
Ostcomlacia, 338 Oven, vienna, 12 Ovens, baking, 42 Ovens, baking, 42 Ovens, baking, 43 Ovens, baking, 44 Ovens, baking, 45 Ovens, baking,		Pallets and palletization, 385, 484	432
Oven, vicena, 12 Ovens, baking, 4 Overrun, 206 Ovens, 201 In-pack, sexuenging of, 367 protection against, 383 Over, 361 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 206 Overrun, 207 Overrun, 2			
Oversing, baking, 4 Oversing, 50 devery and the second of		Palm kernel oil, 204	
Overrun, 206 Oxygen corrosion by, in carming, 27 in headsgrose gases, 31, 32. In headsgrose gases, 31, 34. In headsgrose gases, 31,			
Oxygen corrosion by, in canning, 27 in headspace gases, 31, 32 in protection against, 533 of protection against, 535 of chedydrated (pods, 366 of of chedydrated (pods, 366 of of chedydrated (pods, 367 of chedydrated vegetables, 178 of diedydrated vegetables, 179 of pixtig addiedyd			
corrosion by, in canning, 27 in headspace gases, 31, 32 in heads acqueign of, 367 protection against, 383 Package forming, filling and closing machines, 358 ines, 358 et seq. board, 361 board, 361 boil-in-bag, 49, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359 361 361-362 collaspible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, anuminum, 351 containers, composite, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, nouled thermophastic, ontainers, foil, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, moulded thermophastic, ontainers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, moulded thermophastic, ontainers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, or yeghourt, 156 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, or yeghourt, 156 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, for yeghourt, 156 containers, paper, for liquids, 355 containers, proved we w			
in headspace gases, 31, 32 in-pack acavenging of, 367 protection against, 383 protection against oxygen, 383 containers, paper, for figuids, 385 conta	corrosion by, in canning, 27		
in-pack scavening of, 367 protection against, 383 protection against, 383 processing, 384 processing, 385 processing, 385 processing, 385 processing, 386 processing, 386 processing, 386 processing, 386 processing, 387 processing, 387 processing, 387 processing, 388 processing, 386 processing, 386 processing, 386 processing, 387 processing, 388 proc	in headspace gases, 31, 32		
protection against, 383 Package forming, filling and closing machines, 385 Packaging, 348 et seq. bags, 352-353 board, 361 board, 361 board, 361 board, 361 cases, 361-362 of cheese, 361-362 of cheese, 361-362 of cheese, 361-362 ontainers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids,		coated, barrier properties of, 354	apple, 15
Package forming, filling and closing machaes, 385 across, 385 across, 381 across, 384 et seq, 348 et seq, 348 et seq, 348 across, 381 board, 361 boil-in-bag, 49, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359 361 cases, 361 -362 of cheses, 362 collapsible truiti, pitces, 262 collapsible truiti, pitces, 264 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, offid, 219 containers for fish, 219 containers, outer shipping, 383 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, subjenging, plastic, 385 containers, subjenging, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers, other shipping, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, other shipping, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, other shipping, 383 containers, 39aper, 50 liquids, 305	protection against, 383	greaseproof, 378	
Package forming, filling and closing machines, 387 natarials, Bexble, 379 Packaging, 348 et seq. bags, 32-353 bags, 32-354 bags, 32-353 bags, 32-354 bags, 32-353 bags, 32-354 bags, 32-353 bags, 32-354			
Packaging, 348 et seq. bags, 322-353 board, 361 boate, 362 containers, and cartoning systems, 359-361-362 of cheese, 362 collapsible tubes, 364 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, collapsible rubes, 364 containers, foli, 351 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, for yeghourl, 156 for grotection against oxygen, 383 for grotection against oxygen, 383 for grotection against oxygen, 383 for protection against oxygen, 383 for protection against oxygen, 383 materials, flexible, 370-378 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 376 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 plyting, 1, 320 physica and the gentlements for for force foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 plyting, 1, 320 physica acid, 320, 339 physias, 1, 32	P		
ness, 382 packaging, 348 et seq. bags, 352-355 bags, 32-355 bags, 32-355 bard, 34 sq. 94, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359-361 cases, 361-362 or cheeses, 361-362 or cheeses, 361-362 collaspiste tubes, 364 containers, sluminum, 351 containers, sluminum, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 352 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 352 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 352 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, provided thermoplastic, 365 containers, for yoghourt, 156 contenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated foods, 365-378 of died minced and provides, 365 of died minced foods, 366-367 of dehydrated foods, 365-378 of retail market, 336 for retail market, 336 for retail market, 336 for verdail market,			Pilchards, canning of, 29
Packaging, 348 et seq. bags, 332–353 board, 361 boil-in-bag, 49, 354 carrons and cartoning systems, 359–360 carrons and cartoning systems, 359–360 cf. chese, 362 collapsible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, for fish, 219 containers, foil, 3376–378 containers for fish, 219 containers, foil, 3376–378 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, for yoghour, 156 convenience, 365 of debydrated foods, 366–367 of debydrated foods, 366–367 of debydrated foods, 367–379 for debydrated foods, 366–367 of debydrated foods, 374 of paked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for protection against oxygen, 383 of backery jam, 389 and backery jam, 389 of backery inincement, 419 of backery jam, 389 of backery inincement, 419 of backery jam, 383 of backery inincement, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 31 of protein foods, 31 of pr			
bags, 352–353 board, 361 boil-in-bag, 49, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359–361 cases, 61–362 cases, 61–362 collarisolte tubes, 364 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, foil, 351 containers for fish, 219 containers, foil, 351 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 576–378 containers, glass, 767–378 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated obegatable, 178 design of, 365 of derived minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 for first market, 386 for vending machines, 351 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 fination of, 375 glassine for,	Packaging 348 at sag		
board, 361 boil-in-bag, 49, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359—361 cases, 361–362 of cheese, 362 closures for fruit juices, 262 collapsible tubes, 364 containers, abminism, 351 containers, abminism, 351 containers, abminism, 351 containers, for fish, 219 containers, for fish, 219 containers, moulded thempolastic, 382 containers, suppers, plastic, 385 containers, suppers, pl			
boil-in-bag, 49, 354 cartons and cartoning systems, 359–36 cartons and cartoning systems, 359–36 cases, 361–362 of cheses, 562 collapsithe tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, for fish, 219 containers, for fish, 219 containers, for fish, 219 containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, subject, 382 containers, shipping, 383 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers, spore, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers for goydhourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 of dims, for cheese, 100 flims, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 of bakery mincement, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 of frietzer-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of bakery mincement, 419 of preceding for first and vegetables, 375 of furtiu turds, 395 of bakery mincement, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of prictic			
cartons and cartoning systems, 359–361 cases, 361–362 of cheese, 362 closures for fruit juices, 262 collapsible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 confectionery, 364 confectionery, 364 confainers, aluminium, 351 containers for fish, 219 containers for fish, 219 containers for fish, 219 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376–378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for back goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 gl			
of canned products, 32, 33 of cases, 361–362 of cheese, 362 collapsible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, for fish, 219 containers, glass, 376–378 containers, glass, 376–378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated foods, 365–366 films, for cheese, 100 films, het sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 of retail market, 386 of verding machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 373 glassine for, 373 moulded pulp, 382 of bakery imneemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery imneemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery imneemeat, 419 of bydine day wegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of onions, 434 of on an imminum, 431 of print in divides, determination, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 or onions, 434 of			gumming of, 32
cases, 361–362 of cheese, 362 closures for fruit juices, 262 closures for fruit juices, 262 collapsible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, aluminum, 351 containers, composite, 365 containers, foil, 351 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liq			
colsures for fruit juices, 262 collapsible tubes, 364 confectionery, 364 containers, aluminum, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, foil, 351 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, shipping, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 179 deletemination, 401 pectinesterase activity in determination, 301 flims, heat sealing of, 378-379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 390-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, 382 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery imine-meat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 73 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 375 on fruit and vegetables, 42 of nicons, 432		of fruit juices, 274	
collapsible tubes, 364 containers, 364 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers for fish, 219 containers, foil, 351 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 flims, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378-379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 laminates, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery immerment, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 of reze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 or fruit and vegetables, 42 of some serving vegetables, 42			in meat canning, 37
confectionery, 364 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, composite, 364 containers, desiceants for, 367 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 576-378 containers, glass, 576-378 containers, glass, 576-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated poods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glaminates, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, a82 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery limpacks, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery limpacks, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery limpacks, 382 of bakery limpacks, 384 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of futil and vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 375 or fruit and vegetables, 375 or fruit and vegetables, 375 or soft displayed and vegetables or soft displayed and vegetables or soft displayed and vegetables or soft displayed and vegetables, 375 or soft displayed and veg	closures for fruit juices, 262		
containers, aluminium, 351 containers, composite, 364 containers, desiccants for, 367 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 for backed goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 glaminates, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded plup, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 of frieze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of frieze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of dehydrated of horder and the vegetables, 375 of dehydrated vegetables, 375 of dehydrated vegetables, 375 of dehydrated vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 376 of fruit and vegetables, 377 of self-grain fruit juices, determination, 420 of noins, 434 of vegetables, 179-180 of noins, 43			
containers, composite, 364 containers, desiccants for, 367 containers for fish, 219 containers, fights, 311 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated type delay for fired minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378-379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, and 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of futil and vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of fruit and vegetables, 375 on the search of the delay of the search of the search of the delay of the search of the sea			
containers, desiccants for, 367 containers for fish, 219 containers, [9] says 376-378 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 382 glassine fo			
containers for fish, 219 containers, foil, 351 containers, glass, 376–378 containers, glass, 376–378 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, outer shipping, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated degetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 for moulded plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 glassine for, 375 gl			
containers, foli, 351 containers, glass, 376-378 containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, super, for liquids, 385 containers, spaper, for liquids, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of died minced meat, 174 drums, 366 of lims, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378-379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 laminates, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded plup, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 of vegetables, 179-180 Pellarg, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phosphoric acid, 18 Poctin, 68, 274, 419-420 content, estimation of, 420 in diabetic jams, 391 enzymic destruction of, 402 of netri guise, determination, 252 gel formation, 401 Pecling of fruit and vegetables, 42 of vegetables, 179-180 Pellarg, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142-143 Peroxide value, 206 Pet foods, 13 flakes, 163 flour, as sausage filler, 288 granules, drying of, 163 Potatoe canning of, 43 freezing of, 179-180 Poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467			
containers, glass, 67 preserves, 398 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, noulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers, for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 laminates, 330–373 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 178 places are freed from freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods			
containers, glass, for preserves, 398 containers, moulded thermoplastic, 382 containers, outer shipping, 383 containers, outer shipping, 383 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dided minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–353 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 multi-packs, 382 multi-packs, 382 multi-packs, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincement, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit und vegetables, 375 of fruit rand vegetables, 1, 320 phytin, and solve for the stimation of, 420 in diabetic jams, 391 content, estimation of, 267 in fruit juices, determination, 252 gel formation, 401 plectinestrase activity in fruit juices, determination, 252 gel formation, 401 plectinestrase activity in fruit juices, of fruit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 peeling of, 179–180 prectine, 420 for in fruit juices, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 prectine, 420 for extending, 142–143 provide value, 206 prectine determination, 252 pel formation, 401 prectinestrase activity in fruit juices, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 prectine, 339 prepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 provide value, 206 prectine determination, 252 pel formation, 401 prectinestrase activity in fruit juices, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 prectine, 42 pressure from dehydration, 181 prouting value, 206 prectine, 420 pressure from dehydration, 42 pressur	containers, glass, 376-378	requirements for dehydration, 181	
382 ontainers, outer shipping, 383 ontainers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dided minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 phenyliketonuria, 389 not bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit cands, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 phosphate set, 1, 320 phytia, and of the phytia, 1, 320 phytia, 390 of furit and vegetables, 375 phosphates et, 1, 320 phytia, 339 phospinite acid, 320, 339 phytia, 390 of furit and vegetables, 375 phosphates et, 1, 320 phytia, 339 of pfurit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of vegetables, 179–180 pecling losses of, 179 pecling of, 179–180 requirements for dehydration, 181 pouch, plastic, 13 poultry canning of, 43 composition of, 345 murtrent losses during scalding, 177 pecling of, 179–180 requirements for dehydration, 181 poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467 prowder, beliary to storage of, 467 prow		Pectin, 68, 274, 419-420	
containers, outer shipping, 383 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery amicemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curls, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 planiates, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 planiates, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 planiates, 395 of furit and vegetables, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 374 physin, 339 physins, 339 of furit curls, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 physin, 339 of furit curds, 395 of furit and vegetables, 375 physin, 339 of furit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of truit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of truit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla destruining, 251 pelling in fruit juices, determination, 401 process control testing, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 179–180 phenyla and vegetables, 42 of onions,			
containers, paper, for liquids, 385 containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated foods, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 for metall market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375			
containers, shipping, plastic, 385 containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 375 glaminates, 350–333 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frizit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 Peroxide value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 316 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 Persmice value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Premites, cake, 5 Preservatives for soft drinks, 275 in bread and cakes, 9 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphorus, 339 Phosphorus, 339 Phrysin, 339 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of friuit curds, 395 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit curds, 395 of furit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 436 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in			
containers for yoghourt, 156 convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated foods, 365–365 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 375 glaminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 od entire in fruit juices, determining, 251 pecling of, 179–180 requirements for dehydration, 181 poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467 peoult, 208 pecling josses of, 179 pecling of, 179–180 requirements for dehydration, 181 poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467 peoult, plastic, 13 poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467 pewder, baking (see Baking powder) Powder, shiling of, 369 premier jus, 205 premier jus,			composition of, 345
convenience, 365 of dehydrated foods, 366–367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 multi-packs, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fireze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 Provide value, 206 Pest of wheat and flour, 320 Pest foods, 13 pH (see also Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, 316 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phosphatase test, 138 Poultry canning of, 43 freezing of, 47 storage of, 467 Powder, baking (see Baking powder) Powders, filling of, 369 Premixes, cake, 5 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservatives for soft drinks, 275 in bread and cakes, 9 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat rproducts, 297 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 390 glass containers for, 390 glass containers for, 390 glass containers for, 390 process of vict value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Physic acid, 320, 339 Precing of, 47 storage of, 467 Powder, filling of, 369 Premixes, cake, 5 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservatives for soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 43a in soft drinks, 18 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 43a in sof			nutrient losses during scalding, 177
of dehydrated foods, 366-367 of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378-379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355-356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350-353 materials, flexible, 370-373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of rocegetables, 179-180 person for deyetables, 179-180 person for degetables, 179-180 person for of freeze-dried foods, 375 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 179-180 person for deyetables, 179-180 person for of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179-180 person for of deyetables, 179-180 person for of			
of dehydrated vegetables, 178 design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 83, 74 of froit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 42 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in cheesemaking, 142–143 Peroxide value, 206 Pets of wheat and flour, 320 Prosuits of 43 Freezing of, 47 Powder, baking (see Ba	of dehydrated foods, 366–367		
design of, 365 of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit tand vegetables, 375 of onions, 434 of vegetables, 179–180 Pellagra, 339 Pepsin in checsemaking, 142–143 storage of, 467 Powder, baking (see Baking powder) Powders, filling of, 369 Premier jus, 205 Pre			
of dried minced meat, 174 drums, 366 films, for cheese, 100 films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 glaminates, 350–353 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of vegetables, 179–180 Pellagra, 339 Pellagra, 339 Person, 339 Person, 142–143 Peroxide value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 Peroxide value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 Peroxide value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 Peroxide value, 206 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 Phosphorit of the sealso Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, 316 If ruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 In fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 In fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 In fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 In fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phosphoritan, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phospholipids, 207 Preservet, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432	design of, 365	of onions, 434	Poultry
drums, 566 films, for cheese, 100	of dried minced meat, 174	of vegetables, 179–180	canning of, 43
films, heat sealing of, 378–379 foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375			freezing of, 47
foamed plastics for, 374 for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Pests of wheat and flour, 320 Pet foods, 13 pH (see also Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, 316 pet foods, 13 pH (see also Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, 316 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 Phage, 80 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phoenix closure, 52 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphoric acid, 18 Poshorus, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 339 Of premier jus, 205 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservatives for soft drinks, 275 in bread and cakes, 9 in canned products, 44 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413–415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Premier jus, 205 Premier jus, 205 Presire vation by actic acid, 422 Preservation by actic acid, 422 Preservations by actic	nims, for cheese, 100	Pensida value 200	
for baked goods, 355–356 for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of froit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Pet foods, 13 pH (see also Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, 316 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 phage, 80 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphoric acid, 18 Phosphoric acid, 18 Physin, 339 Phyrnoderma, 339 Physins, 339 Of bytic acid, 320, 339 Phytin, 1 Premier jus, 205 Premixes, cake, 5 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservation by actic acid, 422 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservation by acid acid, 422 Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservation by acid acid, 422 Preservations for soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in	formed plastics for 274		
for protection against oxygen, 383 for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 for rending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 pH (see also Acidity), 13, 34, 35, 82, 235, Preservation by acetic acid, 422 Preservatives for soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 Preserves in jam manufacture, control of, 402 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 in preservatives for soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and salves, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and salves, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and salves, 43 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and salves, 43 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and salves,	for baked goods 355_356		
for retail market, 386 for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of in fruit juices, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phosphatasine, 339 Phosphate bond energy, 339 Phosphatase test, 138 phosphoric acid, 18 Phosphoric acid, 18 Physin, 339 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Or pectin gels, 401 Phage, 80 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phenylalanine, 339 Phoenix closure, 52 In pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 390 glass containers for, 390 quality control in manufacture of, 413–415 Oressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
for vending machines, 351 function of, 375 in fruit juices, determination of, 252 function of, 375 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 of pectin gels, 401 in canned products, 44 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 odour in, 383 phosphatase test, 138 phosphatase test, 138 phosphoric acid, 18 physin, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 in bread and cakes, 9 in canned products, 44 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413-415 process control testing, 414, 432			
function of, 375 glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 in jam manufacture, control of, 402 of pectin gels, 401 phage, 80 phage, 80 phage, 80 phage, 80 phage, 80 phage, 80 phenylalanine, 339 phenylketonuria, 339 phenylketonuria, 339 phenylketonuria, 339 phenylketonuria, 339 phosphata bond energy, 339 phosphatase test, 138 phospholipids, 207 phosphoric acid, 18 physin, 339 physin, 339 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 in bread and cakes, 9 in canned products, 44 in canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413- 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
glassine for, 375 laminates, 350–353 materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 of pectin gels, 401 phage, 80 ph	function of, 375		
materials, flexible, 370–373 moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phenylalanine, 339 In canned soft drinks, 18 in fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in sand sauces, 438 in soft drinks, 18 in sand sauces, 48 in soft drinks, 18 in sand sauces, 48 in soft drinks, 1	glassine for, 375	of pectin gels, 401	
moulded pulp, 382 multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phenylketonuria, 339 Phosphoric al, 339 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphoric acid, 18 Phosphoric acid, 18 Phosphoric acid, 18 Phosphoric acid, 18 Physin, 339 physin, 339 physic, 339 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Physin, 1 In fats, 207 in pickles and sauces, 438 in soft drinks, legislation regarding, 272 for meat products, 297 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413- 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
multi-packs, 382 odour in, 383			
odour in, 383 of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phosphatase test, 138 Phosphatase test, 138 Phospholipids, 207 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413- 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
of bakery jam, 389 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99-102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phosphatase test, 138 phosphorius, 207 Preserves, 389 et seq. bakery, 389 colours for, 390 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413- 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
of bakery mincemeat, 419 of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phosphoric acid, 18 Physin, 339 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413– 415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
of cheese, 99–102 of fish, 370 of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phosphoric acid, 18 Physion, 339 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413–415 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			
of fish, 370 for freeze-dried foods, 71 of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phosphorus, 339 Phrynoderma, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 339 Physin, 320 Physin, 320 Physin, 320 Physin, 320 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			bakery, 389
for freeze-dried foods, 71 Phrynoderma, 339 glass containers for, 398 quality control in manufacture of, 413-of frozen foods, 48, 374 Physia, 339 quality control in manufacture of, 413-of fruit curds, 395 Phytic acid, 320, 339 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432			colours for, 390
of freeze-dried foods, 374 of frozen foods, 48, 374 of fruit curds, 395 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Physin, 339 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 Process control testing, 414, 432	for freeze-dried foods, 71	Phrynoderma, 339	
of fruit curds, 395 Phytic acid, 320, 339 Pressing of fruit pulps, 269 of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phytin, 1 Process control testing, 414, 432		Physin, 339	
of fruit and vegetables, 375 Phytin, 1 Process control testing, 414, 432			
or margarino, 170 Ficcalini, 450-457 Proline, 340			
	o. margarmo, 170	i Iodania, Touris I	i totilie, 540

Duraniania naid 0	Detection 22	C 4 - 11 222
Propionic acid, 9	Retorting, 33	Scutellum, 322
Propylene glycol esters, 192 Protein	Retorts, instrumentation of, 34 Rheology of milk products, 143	Seaming of cans, 26, 32
amino acids and quality of, 326	Rhubarb, canning of, 50	Sea water, 241 Semolina, 321
concentrate from fish (FPC), 225	Rice, 321	for macaroni, 317
crude, 340	as sausage filler, 288	Separator, cyclo-pneumatic, 310
defining nutritional value of, 330	Rice bran oil, 205	Serine, 341
efficiency ratio, 340	Rickets, 341	Sharps, 322
equivalent, 340	Rigor mortis, 280, 296	Shea butter, 203
in fish, 236	Ripening	Shortbread, 10
in milk, determination of, 138, 150	of butter, 83	Shortcake biscuits, 2
reference, 340	of cheese, 87, 98, 143	Shortening, 11, 208–209
score, 340	Roasting of cocoa beans, 70	pumpable, 209
stripping, 320	Roll tube method for bacterial count, 144	Short paste, 10
of wheat, 320	Roller drying, 132	Shrink wrapping, 386
of wheat flour, 5	Roller mills for chocolate, 67	Siderophilin, siderosis, 341
Prover, 3	Rope, 1, 9, 10, 303, 306, 316	Sild, 241
Proving of dough, 2, 3	Ropy milk, 144	canning of, 29
Provitamin, 340	Rose-hip products, 275	Slab release agents, 192
Prunes, 44	Royal icing (see Icing)	Slag wool, 476
Psychrophils, 139	Rubber, cellular expanded, 476	Slaty beans, 70
Pudding, apple, 15	Rubble reel, 321	Slaughtering, 296
Puff paste, 9	Rusk, 288	Sleepy cream, 83
Pumping pickle, 297	Rusks, 10	Slice curing, 299
Purée	Rutin, 341 Rusting (see Correction)	Smoking
apple, 15	Rusting (see Corrosion)	of cured meat, 299–300
tomato, for beans, 17	Rye, 321	kiln, Torry, 29
Purifiers, 319		of fish, 29, 241–242
	S	Smoky beans, 70
Q	Sacks, 386	Soda bread, 7, 11
Quality control		Sodium, 341
	Safflower seed oil, 205	Sodium benzoate in canned products, 44 Sodium bicarbonate, 1, 11, 321
in canning, 16	Salad cream, 439–440 adverse effects of sulphur dioxide in, 438	
in dairying, 124 in the fish industry, 237–239	Salad oil, 208	Sodium carboxymethyl cellulose, 445 Sodium diacetate, 9
in pickle and sauce manufacture, 431–432	Salt, 298	Sodium nitrite in cured meats, 37, 44
in preserves manufacture, 413-415	in breadmaking, 2	Soft drinks (see also Fruit juices and
of meat products, 297	in cured meats, 37	Squashes)
of tomato purée, 452–453	in the fish industry, 240	canning of, 18
Quick freezing (see also Freezing), 44	iodized, 335	carbonated, 18
Quien freezing (see unse 1 feezing), 11	for pickles and sauces, 440	preservatives for, 275
_		preservatives legislation regarding 272
R	Salting of fish, 240–241	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272
	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139	Salting of fish, 240-241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85	Salting of fish, 240-241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq.	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413-414,	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431	Salting of fish, 240-241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435-436	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139	Salting of fish, 240-241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435-436 preservatives in, 438	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172	Salting of fish, 240-241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435-436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441-442	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refingerants, 487–489	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq.	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441–442
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet. 491	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet. 491	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of,	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441–442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of con-	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441–442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference woman, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297 Scalding (see Blanching)	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441–442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412 Release agents, slab, 70	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51 of canned fruit, 39 of canned milk, 39
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412 Release agents, slab, 70 Rennet, 89, 93, 141–143 Rennin (see Rennet)	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297 Scalding (see Blanching) Scaling of dough, 2, 3	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51 of canned fruit, 39 of canned milk, 39
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412 Release agents, slab, 70 Rennet, 89, 93, 141–143 Rennin (see Rennet) Resazurin test, 143	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297 Scalding (see Blanching) Scaling of dough, 2, 3 Scheidmost, 276	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51 of canned fruit, 39 of fish, 213, 216 of milk, 140
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412 Release agents, slab, 70 Rennet, 89, 93, 141–143 Rennin (see Rennet) Resazurin test, 143 Respiratory quotient, 340	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stability of, 445–447 for sweet pickles, 448 syneresis in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297 Scalding (see Blanching) Scaling of dough, 2, 3 Scheidmost, 276 Scones, 10 Scourer, 321 Scratch rolls, 322	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289–291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441–442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51 of canned fruit, 39 of fish, 213, 216 of milk, 140 of pickles and sauces, 442–443
Radioactivity, milk contaminated by, 139 Rancidity in dairy products, 85 in fats, measurement of, 206 in fish oils, test for, 239 Rapeseed oil, 205 Raspberries for jam manufacture, 392 canning of, 49 freezing of, 45 Raw materials, quality tests on, 413–414, 431 Recombined dairy products, 139 Reconstitution of freeze-dried foods, 172 Reduction rolls, 319 Reference man, 340 Reference woman, 340 Reference woman, 340 Refining of chocolate, 69 Refrigerants, 487–489 Refrigeration, 460 et seq. absorption systems for, 460 in the dairy industry, 139 liquid receivers, 478 mechanical, 481–483 steam jet, 491 systems, characteristics of, 466 systems, coefficient of performance of, 467 units of, 495 Relative humidity, equilibrium, of confectionery, 62 Release agent for table jellies, 412 Release agents, slab, 70 Rennet, 89, 93, 141–143 Rennin (see Rennet) Resazurin test, 143	Salting of fish, 240–241 Sandwich spread, 440 Sanitizers (see also Detergents), 114, 115 Sardine, 241 Sardines, canning of, 29 Sauce apple, 15 for canned fish, 29 gelling in, 446 tartare, 440 tomato, for herring, 28 Sauces, 422 et seq. gums for, 445 pasteurizing of, 435–436 preservatives in, 438 spicing of, 441–442 spoilage of, 442–443 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stabilizers and thickeners for, 443–445 stabilizers in, 446 thick, 448–449 thin, 449 Worcester, 449 Sausages, 298–299 casings for, 282–284 colours for, 284 composition of, 344 cooling and drying of, 300 fillers for, 287–289 frankfurter, 283 skinless, 283 sulphur dioxide in, 297 Scalding (see Blanching) Scaling of dough, 2, 3 Scheidmost, 276 Scones, 10 Scourer, 321	preservatives, legislation regarding, 272 Sorbic acid, 9, 100, 213 in pickles and sauces, 438 in table jellies, 411 Sorbitan esters, 192 Sorbitol, 70 in diabetic jams, 391 Soup canned, 50 dehydrated, 161, 180 powders, precooked, 163 Soyabean oil, 205 Soya flour, 11 as sausage filler, 288 Spaghetti, 317 in tomato sauce, canning of, 51 Specific dynamic action, 341 Specific gravity scales for syrups, 53 Specific gravity, determination of, 252 Spectroscopy, N. M. R., 197 Spices, 289-291 in baking, 7 dry soluble, 442 for thick sauces, 448 for thin sauces, 449 in pickles and sauces, 441-442 in vinegar, 424 Spinach canning of, 51 freezing of, 46 Spiral separator, 322 Spirometer, 342 Spoilage, 366 of canned foods, 51 of canned fruit, 39 of fish, 213, 216 of milk, 140

Sponge system, 2	granulated, use of, 11	Tuxford's index, 343
Sprats, canning of, 29	icing, 71	Twaddell hydrometer, 441
Spray drying, 132, 165–166, 266	in beverages, determination of, 252 in jam manufacture, 401–402	Tyrosine, tyrosinosis, 343
Spreads, meat and fish, 52 Squashes, 276	invert, 8, 65	¥ī
Stabilizers	syrups, 53, 72	U
in pickles and sauces, 443-445	white, 70	UHT milk, 151
for fruit fillings, 397 for ice-cream, 195	Sugar nibs, 11 Sulphiting, 181	
Stackburn, 52	of fruit, 173	V
Staining of cans (see Cans, corrosion of)	Sulphur dioxide	Vacuum in cans, 55
Stainless steels, 264	effect of, on flour, 323	Vacuum drying, 167, 174
Staling, 11 Staphylococci in milk, 145	in beverages, determination of, 253 in canned products, 44	Vacuum packing, 387 Vacuum production (see Exhausting)
Starch, 322	in fruit juices, 275	Vacuumizing of canned apple products, 15
confectionery, 70	in meat products, 297	Valine, 343
damaged, effect on baking of, 310	in pickled red cabbage, 438–439	Vanilla, 7 Vanillin, 73
explosion hazard of, 67 in baking powder, 1	in pickles and sauces, 438 in preserves, 393	Vegetables
moulding, 67	treatment of biscuit dough with, 2	acidity of, 35
stabilizers in pickles and sauces, 444	Sunflower seed oil, 205	blanched, cooling of, 161
stability of, in bread, 11	Superheating, 492	blanching of, 20
Starters cheese, 87, 93, 146–148	Surface area of body, 342 Sweets (see Confectionery)	brine preservation of, 453–454 canning of, 56
cheese, destruction of, 80	Synergism, 209	composition of, 345
culture, testing of, 81	Syneresis in sauces, 446	debrining of, 456
Steam	Syrup	dehydrated, 160
blanching by, 20	analysis of, 249–253	dehydrated, nutritive value of, 176–178 for piccalilli, 437
ejectors, 172 for can sterilization, 15	bottling, 277 for jelly manufacture, 410	for pickle manufacture, 453–456
injection, exhausting by, 27	glucose, 399	freezing of, 46
jet refrigeration system, 491	soft fruit, 277	nutrient loss from, during processing, 176
peeling by, 42, 180	substitute, 254	nutritive values of, 177 peeling of, 42, 179–180
Stearyl tartrate, 5, 191 Sterilants for dairying, 118	sugar, 53	selection and preparation of, for dehydra-
Sterilization	T	tion, 181
by heat, 32		storage of, 472–473
of canned products, UHTST, 15	Tablets, compressed, 61 Tachysterol, 342	washing of, 182 Vending machines, 152, 351
of fruit juice equipment, 276 of jam, 409	Taints in dairy products, 120–123	Venting of retorts, 33
of milk, 148	Tallow, 206	Vermicelli, 317
Sterilizers	Tankers, milk, 116	Vienna bread, 11
flame, 33	Tank linings, 300 Tannins in beverages, determination of,	Vinegars, 423–425 Viscosity, determination of, 253
hydrostatic, 33 Sterility of churns, test for, 104	253	Vitamers, 343
Steroids, 342	Tartaric acid, 72	Vitamin A, 211, 215, 332, 338, 343
Sterols, 209, 342	Teleosts, 244	Vitamin B group, 338, 343, 346
Stilton cheese, 96 Stitch pumping, 38	Tempering of chocolate, 73 Tempering tank, 3	Vitamin B ₁₂ , 335, 346 Vitamin C (see also Ascorbic acid), 278, 332,
Storage, 460 et seq.	Tenderness of meat, 301	346
controlled atmosphere, 473	Tenderometer, 41	in blackcurrants, 19
frozen, 466	Tetrapak, 86	in brussels sprouts, 20
live, 478 of cans, 52	Thermometers, 73, 492 Thiaminase, 244	in rose-hip products, 275 Vitamin D, 209, 211, 332, 346
of dehydrated foods, 180–181	Thickeners (see Stabilizers)	Vitamin E, 210, 346
of fish, 218, 227–228	Threonine, 342	Vitamin H, 328
of frozen foods, 49 of fruit juices, 276	Thyroglobulin, 342 Thyroid gland, 342	Vitamin K, 347 Vitamin P, 334, 347
of fruit and vegetables, 472–473	Tin in canned foods, 55	Vitamins, 211, 343, 346–347
of jam, 409	Tinplate, 24	fat soluble, 333
of meat products, 300	Tocopherols, 210	in fish, 246
of pickles and sauces, 443 Stores, jacketed, 476	Toffee, 59 Tomato	in meat, 301 in wheat, 323
Stores, jacketed, 470 Stoves, confectionery, 63	juice, 277	losses of, in dehydration, 175–178
Straight dough system, 2	ketchup, 450–451	Vol, 1, 12
Strawberries	purée, 451–453	Votator, 66, 211, 490
canning of, 52 freezing of, 45	purée for beans, 17 sauce for herring, 28	
for jam manufacture, 391	Tongue, canning of, 37	W
Streptococcus lactis factor, 342	Torry kiln, 29, 242	Walnut ketchup, 458
Streptogenin, 342	Tragacanth, 64	Walnuts, 68
Strigging machine, 19 Struvite, 243	Transport, refrigerated road, 489 Treacle, 72	pickling of, 456, 458 Washer for wheat, 323
Sucrose, 70	Triglycerides, 210	Washing (see Cleaning)
fatty acid esters of, 192	Trucks	of vegetables, 182
Sugar, 11	hand, 474	Water cooling, treatment of, 24
boiling, 71 Brix scales for, 53	industrial, 475 maintenance of, 479	effect of pressure on b. pt. of, 72
brown, 71	powered, 485–487	for canning, 56
demerara, in cakes, 11	Tryptophan, 343	hardness of, 56
explosion hazard of, 71	Turnips, canning of, 55	in breadmaking, 2
,	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

Water—contd. in pickle and sauce manufacture, 458 metabolic, 337 Water biscuits, 2 Wensleydale cheese, 96 Wet-strength paper, 247 Whale oil, 206 Wheat, 323 alcurone cells of, 303 bacteria of, 10 bran, 306 breaking of, 318 cleaning of, 318 cleaning of, 318 conditioning of, 308, 309, 318 diseases of, 311 divides, 311 flour, for confectionery, 73 germ, 312 germ, composition of, 314 heat treatment of, 316 in flour, 308 Xerophthalmia, 347 Yeast, 12 action on bread dough, 2 for cider fermentation, 260 Yeasts in fruit juices and syrups, 279 spoilage of canned foods by, 56 Yoghourt, 153–156 definition of, 128 fat content, minimum, 145 packaging of, in foil, 350 X Zeaxanthin, 347 Zeaxanthin, 347 in fish, 215	•		
germ, composition of, 314 heat treatment of, 316 Xanthophylls, 347 Zeaxanthin, 347	in pickle and sauce manufacture, 458 metabolic, 337 Water biscuits, 2 Wensleydale cheese, 96 Wet-strength paper, 247 Wetzel grid, 347 Whale oil, 206 Wheat, 323 aleurone cells of, 303 bacteria of, 10 bacterial content of, 305 bran, 306 breaking of, 318 cleaning of, 318 conditioning of, 308, 309, 318 diseases of, 311 divides, 311 flour, for confectionery, 73	pests of, 320 scalping of, 319 scouring of, 321 steam-treated, 322 vitamins in, 323 washing, 323 Wheatfeed, 324 Wheatmeal, 12, 324 Whey, 152–153 corrosion by, 119 draining of, 90 sweetened condensed, in confectionery, 67 Whizzer, 324 Wholemeal, 324 Wholemeal, 324 Wine, casks for, 362 Winnower, 74 Worcester sauce, 449	Y Yeast, 12 action on bread dough, 2 for cider fermentation, 260 Yeasts in fruit juices and syrups, 279 spoilage of canned foods by, 56 Yoghourt, 153–156 definition of, 128 fat content, minimum, 145 packaging of, in foil, 350
impurities in, 517	germ, 312 germ, composition of, 314		-