

**Empirical rheology and pasting properties of soft-textured durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* ssp. *durum*) and hard-textured common wheat (*T. aestivum*)**

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**Keywords**

Puroindolines; kernel hardness; gluten aggregation; dough rheology

## 1 **Abstract**

2 Puroindoline (PIN<sup>1</sup>) proteins are the molecular basis for wheat kernel texture classification and  
3 affect flour milling performance. This study investigated the effect of PINs on empirical  
4 rheology and pasting properties in *T. turgidum* ssp. *durum* and *T. aestivum*. Soft wheat (cv.  
5 Alpowa), durum wheat (cv. Svevo) and their derivatives in which PINs were deleted (Hard  
6 Alpowa) or expressed (cv. Soft Svevo). Presence of PINs affected flour particle size and  
7 damaged starch. PINs increased the pasting temperature and breakdown viscosity, while the  
8 effect on peak viscosity and setback were not consistent. Presence of PINs was negatively  
9 associated with GlutoPeak gluten aggregation energy and farinograph dough stability, suggesting  
10 a weakening of the gluten matrix. As regards dough extensibility, the role of PINs was evident  
11 only in common wheat: 5DS distal end deletion increased the resistance to extension, without  
12 affecting the dough extensibility. This study showed PINs to have different impact on pasting  
13 and rheological properties of *T. aestivum* and *T. turgidum* ssp. *durum* flours.

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### <sup>1</sup> **List of abbreviation**

AU, arbitrary unit; BE, Brabender equivalent; BU, Brabender unit; FU, farinograph unit; GPU,  
GlutoPeak unit; LT30, Loss of Torque 30 s after maximum torque; PIN, puroindoline protein;  
SKCS, Single Kernel Characterization System.

## 14 **1. Introduction**

15 Puroindolines (PINs) are wheat endosperm proteins associated with starch granules. They  
16 are considered minor components due to their low level (about 0.1%) in wheat (Dubreil et al.,  
17 1998). Despite the low level of occurrence, PINs play a key role in determining the kernel  
18 hardness of wheat (Morris, 2002; Bhave and Morris, 2008), which is defined as the force  
19 required to crush the kernels. The expression of PINs is controlled by *Puroindoline a* (*Pin a*) and  
20 *Puroindoline b* (*Pin b*) genes (Morris, 2002; Bhave and Morris, 2008) located on the distal end  
21 of the short arm of chromosome 5D (5DS). Functional expression of both genes results in soft  
22 kernel texture while the presence of only one functional gene or mutation in either of the genes  
23 results in hard kernel texture.

24 Common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L) endosperm texture ranges from soft to very hard,  
25 while durum (*T. turgidum* ssp. *durum*) – which does not contain the 5D chromosome and  
26 therefore no PIN genes - has harder kernel texture. Kernel texture has been an important index in  
27 wheat commercialization, with hard kernel wheat attracting higher purchase value (Turnbull and  
28 Rahman, 2002), due principally to the higher protein content compared to soft wheat (Pauly et  
29 al., 2013a). The different kernel texture of the grains influences milling and end-use quality  
30 characteristics that have been extensively reported in recent reviews on this topic (Pauly et al.,  
31 2013a, b). Soft wheat requires less energy to mill, has higher break flour yield, smaller flour  
32 particle size and less damaged starch compared to hard wheat (Martin et al., 2007). The  
33 comparatively higher proportion of intact starch granules in soft wheat flours – together with the  
34 lower protein content - result in lower water absorption compared to hard wheat flour. Flours  
35 from soft wheat are used in making pastries and cookies while flours from hard wheat are used

36 for bread and other leavened products. On the other hand, durum wheat is considered the best  
37 raw material for producing pasta and cous-cous.

38         The probable effect of PINs on dough rheology and product end-use quality has elicited  
39 considerable interest over the last decade. Most of the studies were carried out using  
40 fractionation/reconstitution experiments. Addition of purified PINs at 0.1% level produced  
41 opposite effects on dough strength and extensibility for flours with good or poor bread making  
42 performance (Dubreil et al., 1998). In particular, addition of PINs to good and poor bread quality  
43 flours increased and decreased dough strength and extensibility, respectively. Rouille et al.  
44 (2005) reported that adding 0.2% PINs to bread flour resulted in increased crumb grain fineness  
45 without affecting the bread specific volume, suggesting that PINs affect gas cell stabilization in  
46 bread dough (Pauly et al., 2013b). Similarly, Pauly et al. (2013c) recently reported PINs as  
47 exerting a softening effect when present above 0.07% in biscuit flour, highlighting how the level  
48 of PINs is critical to product quality. Although these studies expanded our knowledge about the  
49 role of PINs in dough and product characteristics, they present some limitations. First, PINs were  
50 usually added at levels higher than those naturally present in flour. Second, PINs isolation could  
51 have altered their functional properties, likely affecting protein interactions and, thus, dough  
52 rheology. Finally, Triton X-114 – which is generally used to isolate PINs – is very difficult to  
53 remove from protein samples. Thus, the presence of this detergent could impact the outcome of  
54 experiments (Pauly et al., 2013b).

55         About a decade ago, some authors investigated the effects of PINs on bread quality using  
56 transgenic lines in which PINs were over-expressed. Hogg et al. (2005) demonstrated that  
57 transgenic over-expression of PINs in common wheat decreased loaf volume and crumb grain  
58 scores. Cytological processes (homoeologous recombination) have also been used to transfer PIN

59 genes to durum wheat producing soft durum lines (Gazza et al., 2011; Morris et al., 2011). The  
60 driving force behind producing soft-textured durum varieties is the potential increase in durum  
61 wheat production and end-use product applications. In theory, a broader, more diverse range of  
62 end-use for durum wheat should drive consumer demand and, hence, production (Morris et al.,  
63 2015). On the effect of durum kernel modification on product, pasta cooking quality was  
64 unaffected by the kernel hardness, whereas bread from durum wheat exhibited an increase in loaf  
65 volume associated with kernel softening (Gazza et al., 2011).

66 Similarly, back-cross seven (BC<sub>7</sub>) of common soft wheat cultivar (Alpowa) was used to  
67 produce near-isogenic hard kernel lines lacking puroindolines (Morris and King, 2008). No  
68 information on the rheological properties of these near-isogenic wheat lines with modified kernel  
69 texture (hard-textured and soft-textured) is available.

70 This study investigated the effects of PINs expression or deletion on pasting properties,  
71 gluten aggregation, dough mixing and extensibility of soft-textured durum and hard-textured  
72 wheat. It will contribute to improve our understanding of the role of PINs in wheat quality and  
73 utilization.

## 74 **2. Materials and methods**

### 75 **2.1 Wheat samples**

76 Wheat cultivars (cvs.) Alpowa (soft wheat, *T. aestivum* L.), hard kernel Alpowa (Hard  
77 Alpowa), durum wheat (*T. turgidum* L. ssp. *durum*) cv. Svevo, and soft kernel durum wheat cv.  
78 Soft Svevo were used in the study. Hard Alpowa is a back-cross seven near-isogenic line of the  
79 soft wheat cv. Alpowa that lacks the distal portion of short arm of chromosome 5D (Morris and  
80 King, 2008). It involved crossing donor parents possessing *Pin a* and *Pin b* halotype genes with  
81 white soft spring cv. Alpowa. F1 and F2 seeds were harvested, planted and allowed to self. F3

82 seeds from individual F2 plants were subjected to progeny phenotypic screening. A homozygous  
83 hard plant was selected for backcrossing using Alpowa as recurrent male parent. The process  
84 was repeated to identify plants homozygous for hardness trait (Hard Alpowa). Soft Svevo was  
85 developed from recurrent back-crossing durum wheat cv. Svevo with Langdon durum that had  
86 *Pin a* and *Pin b* which were translocated from chromosome 5D of soft wheat cv. Chinese Spring  
87 (Morris et al., 2011). Alpowa and Hard Alpowa were grown in St. Paul (MN, US) and harvested  
88 in 2014. Svevo and Soft Svevo were grown in Pullman (WA, US) in 2013.

89 Wheat grains were conditioned (14.5 g/100 g moisture for Alpowa and Soft Svevo; 15.5  
90 g/100g for Hard Alpowa; 16.5 g/100 g moisture for Svevo) and subsequently milled with a  
91 Quadrumat Junior (C.W. Brabender Inc., South Hackensack, NJ, USA) according to Approved  
92 Method 26-50.01 (AACCI, 1999).

## 93 **2.2 Single Kernel Characterization System**

94 Single Kernel Characterization System (SKCS) hardness values of the wheat cultivars  
95 were determined according to Approved Method 55-31.01 (AACCI, 1999).

## 96 **2.3 Physicochemical characterization of flours**

97 Moisture content was measured by drying the sample at 180 °C for 4 min in an infrared  
98 balance (MB 45, OHAUS, Parsippany, NJ). Damaged starch levels were measured according to  
99 Approved Methods 76-31.01 (AACCI, 1999). Flour particle size distribution was analyzed  
100 according to the Approved Method 55-60.01 (AACCI, 1999).

## 101 **2.4 Pasting Properties**

102 The pasting properties of the wheat flours were determined using a Micro-Visco  
103 Amylograph device (C. W. Brabender Instruments, South Hackensack, NJ). Fifteen grams of

104 flour (14% moisture basis) were dispersed in 100 mL distilled water and stirred at 250 rpm. The  
105 following temperature profile was applied: mixing at 30°C for 3 min, heating from 30 °C to 95  
106 °C at a rate of 7.5 °C/min, holding at 95 °C for 5 min, cooling from 95 °C to 30 °C at a rate of  
107 -7.5 °C/min, and holding at 30°C for 2 min. The following indices were considered: (i) Pasting  
108 temperature (temperature at which an initial increase in viscosity occurs); (ii) Peak viscosity  
109 (maximum viscosity achieved during the heating cycle); (iii) Peak temperature (temperature at  
110 the maximum viscosity); (iv) Breakdown viscosity (index of viscosity decrease during the  
111 holding period, corresponding to viscosity difference between peak and after holding at 95 °C);  
112 (v) Setback viscosity (index of the viscosity increase during, corresponding to the difference  
113 between the final viscosity at 30 °C and the viscosity reached after the holding period at 95 °C).  
114 Peak viscosity, breakdown, and setback viscosities were expressed in Brabender Units (BU).  
115 Pasting temperature and peak temperature were expressed in °C. For each sample the test was  
116 run in triplicate.

## 117 **2.5 GlutoPeak Test**

118 Gluten aggregation properties of flour samples were evaluated using the GlutoPeak  
119 device (C.W. Brabender Inc., South Hackensack, NJ, USA), as reported by Chandi and  
120 Seetharaman (2012). An aliquot of 8.5 g of flour (14% moisture basis) was dispersed in 9.5 g of  
121 0.5M CaCl<sub>2</sub>. Sample temperature was maintained at 34 °C by circulating water through the  
122 jacketed sample cup. The paddle was set to rotate at 1,900 rpm and the test was carried out for 7  
123 minutes. The main indices automatically evaluated by the software provided with the instrument  
124 (GlutoPeak v. 2.1.0) were: (i) Peak maximum time (expressed in seconds), corresponding to the  
125 time before torque decreased due to gluten break down; (ii) Maximum torque (expressed in  
126 Brabender Equivalent - BE), corresponding to the peak occurring as gluten aggregates; (iii)

127 Energy to peak (expressed in GlutoPeak Unit - GPU), corresponding to the area under the curve  
128 until the maximum torque. In addition, the loss of torque 30 s after maximum torque (%) -  
129 corresponding to the decrease in torque 30 s after peak (LT30s) – was calculated. For each  
130 sample the test was run in triplicate.

## 131 **2.6 Mixing Properties**

132 The behavior of the dough during mixing was measured using a Farinograph - AT (C.W.  
133 Brabender Inc., South Hackensack, NJ, USA) equipped with a 50 g mixing bowl and according  
134 to Approved Method AACCI 54 -21.02 (AACCI 2000). The following indices were considered:  
135 (i) Water absorption (expressed in per cent), corresponding to the amount of water needed to  
136 reach the optimal consistency ( $500 \pm 20$  Farinograph Unit, FU); (ii) Dough development time,  
137 corresponding to the time from first addition of water to the point of maximum consistency  
138 range; (iii) Stability, corresponding to the time difference between when the curve reaches  
139 (arrival time) and leaves (departure time) the 500 FU line. Each dough sample was analyzed in  
140 duplicate.

## 141 **2.7 Dough Extensibility**

142 Dough extensibility was measured with a micro-Extensograph instrument (C.W.  
143 Brabender Inc., South Hackensack, NJ, USA) on a 20 g dough piece, according to the  
144 manufacturer's manual. Dough was prepared according to AACCI Approved Method 54-10.01  
145 in the 50 g test bowl of the farinograph, with addition of 2% NaCl, on a flour weight basis. The  
146 following parameters were considered: (i) Resistance to extension (expressed in BU), measured  
147 50 mm after the curve has started and is related to the elastic properties of dough; (ii) Maximal  
148 resistance to extension (expressed in BU); (iii) Extensibility (expressed in mm) corresponding to



149 distance at sample rupture; (iv) Energy (expressed in arbitrary units, AU) corresponding to the  
150 area under the curve; (v) Ratio, corresponding to the ratio between extensibility and resistance;  
151 (vi) Ratio Max, corresponding to the ratio between extensibility and maximal resistance to  
152 extension. Measurements for each sample were performed in duplicate and from each dough two  
153 subsamples were tested.

## 154 **2.8 Statistical analysis**

155 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed utilizing Statgraphics XV version 15.1.02  
156 (StatPoint Inc., Warrenton, VA, USA). Puroindolines presence was used as a factor. When the  
157 factor effect was found to be significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ), significant differences among the respective  
158 means were determined using Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) test.

## 159 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 160 **3.1 Kernel and flour characterization**

161 Physical characteristics of wheat samples are summarized in Table 1. Durum wheat  
162 Svevo and Hard Alpowa samples exhibited higher SKCS hardness values than Soft Svevo and  
163 Alpowa soft wheat, respectively. Kernel texture in wheat is controlled by *Pin a* and *Pin b* genes:  
164 soft wheat has both functional *Pin a* and *Pin b*, while hard wheat has either one or a mutation of  
165 either *Pin a* or *Pin b*. Durum wheat does not contain any of these endosperm-softening PIN  
166 genes, and therefore, it has very hard kernels. Similarly, the Hard Alpowa is missing the distal  
167 portion of chromosome 5DS and thus is also missing the PIN genes. The differences in PIN  
168 expression affected the flour protein concentration. Flours from grains without PINs (Svevo and  
169 Hard Alpowa) showed higher protein content than the corresponding samples with PINs (Table  
170 1). The effect of PINs expression on protein content needs further investigation.

171 Kernel hardness affects various flour properties including particle size distribution and  
172 damaged starch (Table 1). As regards particle size, milling Svevo grain (using a mill for common  
173 wheat) resulted in two main fractions: one fraction with particle size  $\geq 75 \mu\text{m}$  (55% of total) and  
174 another with particle size  $< 75 \mu\text{m}$  (45% of total). PIN expression and the consequential soft  
175 kernel texture affected milling properties of the sample. Indeed, flour from Soft Svevo had a  
176 higher percentage of particles  $< 75 \mu\text{m}$  (75% of total) and lower percentage of  $\geq 75 \mu\text{m}$  (25% of  
177 total). Moreover, differences in particle size contributed to differences in color between the two  
178 flours which is in agreement with Gazza et al. (2011). Color attributes - with particular regards to  
179 yellowness - are of great importance in durum wheat quality evaluation. Svevo exhibited a  
180 higher yellowness ( $b^*$ ) than Soft Svevo (20.0 vs 14.4, Fig. S1). Differences in color could also  
181 be attributed to differences in damaged starch granules, which do not reflect light as effectively  
182 as intact granules (Miskelly, 1984).

183 The deletion of the chromosome 5DS distal end where the *Pin a* and *Pin b* genes are  
184 located in Hard Alpowa resulted in an increase in kernel hardness and consequently larger flour  
185 particle size with a higher percentage of particles  $\geq 75 \mu\text{m}$  compared to Alpowa (65 vs 48% of  
186 total for Hard Alpowa and Alpowa, respectively).

187 Differences in kernel texture also affected the level of damaged starch in the flours. As  
188 expected, in Alpowa and Soft Svevo, the percentage of damaged starch was significantly  
189 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) lower than in Hard Alpowa and Svevo, respectively (Table 1). The level of damaged  
190 starch in the flour contributes to the water absorption capacity of the flour during mixing.  
191 Damaged starch absorbs about twice its own weight of water, which is about 5 times greater than  
192 that of intact starch (Stauffer 2007), and depending on its level, makes a significant contribution  
193 to the overall water absorption capacity of flours (Cauvain, 2009).

## 194 3.2 Pasting properties

195 The effects of PINs on flour pasting properties are shown in Fig. 1. Soft Svevo showed  
196 higher pasting temperature, peak viscosity, breakdown viscosity and setback viscosity values  
197 than Svevo (Fig. 1A and Table 2). The significantly ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) higher pasting temperature in Soft  
198 Svevo compared to Svevo may be attributed to the presence of PINs, in agreement with a  
199 previous study on starch isolated from transgenic rice (Wada et al., 2010). PINs – which are  
200 localized at the starch surface (Feiz et al., 2009) - could inhibit the access of water to starch,  
201 which in turn would result in an extended time (and higher temperature) for starch to gelatinize  
202 and to reach peak viscosity. Interestingly, the detail in Fig. 1A showed for Soft Svevo a delay in  
203 granule swelling (related to increased viscosity) compared to Svevo, likely suggesting an effect  
204 of PINs on starch swelling at temperatures below 85 °C. As the temperature increased, Soft  
205 Svevo showed a higher peak viscosity than Svevo, indicating greater swelling capacity.  
206 However, Soft Svevo exhibited a slightly slower gelatinization rate, since it reached the peak  
207 viscosity at around 10 min, whereas Svevo reached the maximum value about 30 seconds earlier.  
208 PINs therefore seem to tolerate temperature, moderating temperature effect on starch properties.  
209 During the holding time at 95 °C for 5 min, Soft Svevo showed higher stability to high  
210 temperature and mixing as indicated by the lower breakdown value compared to Svevo. Finally,  
211 during the cooling step, starch in Soft Svevo showed a greater ability to reassociate in a new  
212 structure that exhibited higher viscosity compared to Svevo, therefore suggesting a higher  
213 retrogradation tendency.

214 As regards *T. aestivum*, Hard Alpowa showed a significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) decrease in pasting  
215 temperature and breakdown viscosity than Alpowa (Fig. 1B and Table 2). These results are  
216 consistent with the results obtained for Svevo and Soft Svevo, which could be related to the

217 impact of PINs expression (Svevo vs Soft Svevo) or 5DS distal end deletion (Alpowa vs Hard  
218 Alpowa) on pasting temperature and paste stability during the holding time at 95 °C. As regards  
219 the impact of PINs on viscosity during heating and cooling, Hard Alpowa showed higher peak  
220 viscosity and setback values than Alpowa. These results are in agreement with those obtained  
221 from reconstitution studies on common wheat flours which suggested that PINs affect pasting  
222 profiles by restricting starch water absorption and swelling in a diluted system, as in the case of  
223 the Micro-ViscoAmlograph test (Pauly et al., 2012; Debet and Gidley, 2006). Conversely, the  
224 impact of 5DS distal end deletion on peak viscosity and setback is not consistent with the trend  
225 observed for PINs expression (Fig. 1A).

226 Overall, the results on pasting properties suggest that PINs impact the temperature for  
227 onset of gelatinization (pasting temperature) and also the breakdown viscosity. However, the  
228 effect of PINs on starch swelling (peak viscosity) and retrogradation tendency (setback) remains  
229 unclear since it is apparently dependent on the type of wheat (i.e. *T. aestivum* or *T. turgidum* ssp.  
230 *durum*). Decreases in viscosity during heating and cooling have also been associated with an  
231 increase in damaged starch (Liu et al., 2014; Leon et al., 2006). This is consistent with our data  
232 on Svevo and Soft Svevo. On the contrary, since Hard Alpowa contained higher levels of  
233 damaged starch than Alpowa (Table 1), a lower maximum viscosity would have been expected  
234 for Hard Alpowa compared to Alpowa. This leads to the conclusion that PINS likely do affect  
235 flour pasting profiles.

### 236 **3.3 Gluten Aggregation Properties**

237 Fig. 2 presents the impact of PINs on gluten aggregation profile obtained by the  
238 GlutoPeak test. The parameters associated with the aggregation curves are reported in Table 2.  
239 During the test, the sample slurry is subjected to intense mechanical action, promoted by the

240 speed (1,900 rpm) of the rotating element, which facilitates the formation of gluten, and a rapid  
241 increase of the torque curve is registered until the maximum torque is reached. Further mixing  
242 depolymerizes the network, with a concomitant decline in torque. The loss of torque 30s (LT30s)  
243 after maximum torque is an index of gluten strength during prolonged mixing.

244 In Svevo, PINs expression caused a significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) decrease in maximum torque  
245 with no effect on the peak maximum time (Fig. 2A; Table 1). Consequently, GlutoPeak test  
246 energy, which is the area under the mixing curve to peak and takes into consideration the  
247 maximum torque and peak maximum time indices, decreased when PINs were expressed. This  
248 energy has been shown to correlate with gluten strength (measured as gluten index) and pasta  
249 cooking quality (Marti et al., 2014). Finally, 30s after maximum torque, Soft Svevo showed a  
250 significantly ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) higher LT30s value than Svevo indicating a higher loss of torque and thus  
251 greater gluten breakdown due to over-mixing compared to Svevo.

252 The 5DS distal end deletion caused a significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) decrease in peak maximum  
253 time and an increase in maximum torque and energy that suggest the presence of stronger gluten  
254 in Hard Alpowa compared to Alpowa (Fig. 2B), as supported by the energy value (Table 2).  
255 Among the GlutoPeak indices, the energy value is considered the most significant parameter for  
256 the prediction of the conventional parameters related to dough mixing such as stability,  
257 extensibility, and tenacity (Marti et al., 2015).

258 Since both PINs expression and 5DS distal end deletion did not affect the glutenin and  
259 gliadin genes, and therefore the gluten composition of the samples (data not shown), differences  
260 in gluten aggregation kinetics among the samples were likely related to PIN proteins. In flour,  
261 PINs are present at the starch granule surface and associate with polar lipids (Feiz et al., 2009).  
262 During dough mixing, they are removed from the granule surface and become incorporated in

263 the gluten network, together with polar lipids (Finnie et al., 2010; Pauly et al., 2012). It may be  
264 hypothesized that PIN-polar lipid complexes interact with gluten proteins and delay and limit the  
265 extent of gluten aggregation.

### 266 **3.4 Mixing Properties**

267 The farinograph profiles of wheat samples are reported in Fig. 3. Soft Svevo showed  
268 lower water absorption capacity than Svevo, and similarly Alpowa showed lower water  
269 absorption capacity than Hard Alpowa (Table 2), reflecting the effect of high starch damage of  
270 the milling products from hard kernels compared with soft kernels (Table 1). Moreover as a  
271 consequence of PINs expression (Soft Svevo vs Svevo) dough development time and stability  
272 decreased (Fig. 3A). Indeed, differences in protein content between particular samples might  
273 account for the differences in dough strength. The protein contents of the samples of PINs  
274 expression and deletion (Table 1) are in agreement with previous reports that showed a decrease  
275 in flour protein when PINs were transgenically expressed (Hogg et al., 2005). Since in the  
276 present study each set of samples was grown under the same environmental conditions, results  
277 suggest that differences in protein content were solely related to presence of PINs that affected  
278 the mixing properties of the dough.

279 Our findings on mixing properties are in agreement with those reported by Hogg et al.  
280 (2005). On the contrary, studying the effects of grain texture on pasta-making and bread-making,  
281 Gazza et al. (2011) found that soft durum lines had higher stability than hard durum lines (cv.  
282 Langdon), likely due to the inability of damaged starch in hard durum lines flour to hold all the  
283 water absorbed initially. Moreover, soft-textured durum wheat lines did not differ from the hard  
284 durum lines in terms of dough mixing time (Gazza et al., 2011). These contrasting results  
285 confirm the observation made by Pauly et al. (2013c) that when puroindolines were added to

286 biscuit flour at levels higher than 0.07%, it affected the dough texture. This suggests that for  
287 PINs to affect flour-dough quality parameters such as mixing time and stability, they will have to  
288 be present at a certain threshold level.

289         The 5DS distal end deletion (Alpowa vs. Hard Alpowa) increased both dough  
290 development time and stability (Table 2; Fig. 3B). The absence of PINs likely improved gluten  
291 protein interaction, resulting in increased dough development time and stability. The results  
292 agree with the typical farinograph profiles of strong and weak dough wheat flours. Usually,  
293 strong dough flours require higher amounts of water and longer mixing times to form a fully  
294 developed gluten network, which exhibits longer stability than flours with poor bread-making  
295 performance (Cauvain, 2009). Some of the differences in farinograph measurements (e.g. water  
296 absorption) could be attributed to protein content, damaged starch and flour particle size,  
297 whereas the differences in dough development time and stability are generally attributed to  
298 different types of gluten (Matsuo and Irvine, 1970).

### 299 **3.5 Dough Extensibility**

300         The tensile properties of dough were carried out on a “micro scale” using 20 g of dough  
301 and a micro-Extensograph which records the resistance of dough to stretching and the distance  
302 the stretched dough covers before breaking. The resistance of dough to the deformation forces is  
303 expressed as energy value and correlates well with the gas retention capacity of dough, volume  
304 of the end product after baking, handling properties, and is also taken as a guideline parameter  
305 for flour blending operations at milling facilities (Ktenioudaki et al., 2010). Hard wheat flours  
306 generally show high extensibility and a relatively high resistance to extension, a good balance of  
307 which is essential to hold gas bubbles during the fermentation of bread dough and other leavened

308 products. On the other hand, doughs from soft wheat flours show high extensibility but low  
309 resistance to extension which makes them suitable for pastries and cakes.

310 Dough strength and extensibility of Soft Svevo were similar to Svevo (Table 2). Indeed,  
311 the PIN-possessing chromosome translocation does not alter any of the gluten proteins from the  
312 parent durum variety (Morris et al., 2011; Morris and King, 2008). For both Svevo and Soft  
313 Svevo, dough extensibility did not change for the different resting times (45, 90 and 135 min,  
314 data not shown). Gluten network in *T. turgidum ssp.durum* seems to be too tenacious for PINs to  
315 have a noticeable effect on dough extensibility. The results of the present work partially agree  
316 with previous studies. Gazza et al. (2011) reported no differences in dough extensibility  
317 (measured as Alveograph L value) between durum wheat with PINs and one with no PINs. On  
318 the other hand, dough strength (Alveograph W value, which is energy required to blow and break  
319 a bubble of dough) was significantly lower in soft durum lines compared with hard durum lines  
320 (Gazza et al., 2011). The Alveograph, however, is performed using a constant level of water  
321 absorption such that dough rheology is confounded with flour water absorption. Performing  
322 reconstitution experiments, Dubreil et al. (1998) showed that addition 0.1% of PINs drastically  
323 decreased the dough strength (Alveograph W) and increased the extensibility (measured as  
324 Alveograph L) in wheat flours with poor and medium bread-making performances. On the  
325 contrary, when PINs were added to a flour of good bread-making quality, an increase in W and a  
326 decrease in L were observed. Moreover, regardless of the bread baking quality of flour, tenacity  
327 (measured as Alveograph P) increased in the presence of PINs. It is important to keep in mind  
328 that contrasting results could be related to differences between the techniques. Firstly, the  
329 Extensograph stretches the dough in uniaxial mode while Alveograph expands the dough in all  
330 directions. Secondly, Extensograph works with doughs prepared to optimum hydration levels



331 suited for different processing applications as in the real industrial world, whereas a constant  
332 amount of hydration is used in an Alveograph.

333 5DS distal end deletion did not affect dough extensibility (Table 2). On the other hand,  
334 Hard Alpowa showed a significantly ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) higher resistance to extension and strength than  
335 Alpowa, suggesting that the presence of PINs improved the resistance to extension only in the  
336 case of weak flours. In addition, Hard Alpowa exhibited higher ratio values than Alpowa (Table  
337 2). Since ratio indices are a measure of the balance between elasticity and extensibility, high  
338 values are generally indicative of tenacious/strong dough.

#### 339 **4. Conclusions**

340 The study of the role of PINs on physical properties of doughs prepared from *T. aestivum*  
341 and *T. turgidum* ssp. *durum* - in which the genes for PINs were deleted or expressed, respectively  
342 – highlighted the following points: (i) wheat samples with PINs exhibited delayed starch  
343 gelatinization and less capacity to maintain the granule integrity at high temperature, (ii) wheat  
344 samples with PINs exhibited delayed gluten aggregation, likely due to the formation of PIN-lipid  
345 complexes that surround gluten proteins, (iii) wheat samples with PINs exhibited decreased  
346 dough stability, an indication that PINs interact with gluten, and (iv) the impact of PINs on starch  
347 swelling and dough extensibility is species- or variety-dependent.

348 The effects of PINs on dough rheological properties should be confirmed by investigating  
349 a larger number of varieties. Further studies should investigate the nature of PIN-gluten  
350 interactions and their potential role in product quality.

#### 351 **Acknowledgments**

352 The authors kindly acknowledge Dr. J. Anderson (University of Minnesota) for growing  
353 Alpowa and Hard Alpowa, Professor Maria Ambrogina Pagani (University of Milan) for critical  
354 reading of the manuscript, and CW Brabender (South Hackensack, NJ, USA) for the use of their  
355 analytical equipment. The immense contribution and inspiration from Dr. Koushik Seetharaman  
356 is also recognized.

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Table 1. Kernel hardness, and flour particle size and damaged starch content of wheat samples possessing or lacking PINs

		Svevo	Soft Svevo	Alpowa	Hard Alpowa
SKCS		73	17	16	98
Particle size (%)	<75 $\mu$ m	44.1 $\pm$ 1.3	73.9 $\pm$ 0.9	51.5 $\pm$ 1.2	34.8 $\pm$ 1.5
	$\geq$ 75 $\mu$ m	54.1 $\pm$ 1.5	23.9 $\pm$ 1.2	47.9 $\pm$ 0.9	63.5 $\pm$ 1.5
Protein g/100g		15.9 $\pm$ 0.23	14.8 $\pm$ 0.21	12.3 $\pm$ 0.22	14.8 $\pm$ 0.10
Damaged Starch (g/100g <sub>db</sub> )		12.1d	4.8b	4.5a	10.9c

SKCS - single kernel characterization system. Values in the same row with the same letters are not significantly different ( $p \leq 0.05$ )

Table 2. Gluten aggregation and dough mixing and extensibility properties of wheat samples possessing or lacking PINs

		Svevo	Soft Svevo	Alpowa	Hard Alpowa
Micro-Visco Amylograph test	Pasting temperature (°C)	58.3a	60.8b	60.8b	59.0a
	Peak viscosity (BU)	723c	849d	566a	638b
	Breakdown viscosity (BU)	123a	167b	323d	303c
	Setback viscosity (BU)	799c	988d	631a	746b
GlutoPeak test	Peak maximum time (s)	57.7b	58.3b	132.0c	50.3a
	Maximum torque (BE)	52c	34b	30a	54c
	Energy to peak (GPU)	2166c	762a	765a	1576b
	LT 30s (%)	18a	20b	30d	27c
Farinograph test	Water absorption (%)	76.6	60.6	57.2	68.8
	Development time (min:s)	04:51	01:50	01:35	05:31
	Stability (min:s)	03:20	02:35	02:13	08:30
Micro- Extensograph test	Extensibility (mm)	43a	43a	71b	72b
	Resistance (BU)	100b	95b	77a	101b
	Maximum resistance (BU)	101b	96ab	82a	108b
	Ratio	2.3a	2.2a	1.1b	1.4c
	Ratio Max	2.4a	2.2a	1.2b	1.5c
	Energy (AU)	3589a	3409a	4710b	6286c

Values in the same row with the same letters for each test are not significantly different ( $p \leq 0.05$ )

## **Figure Captions**

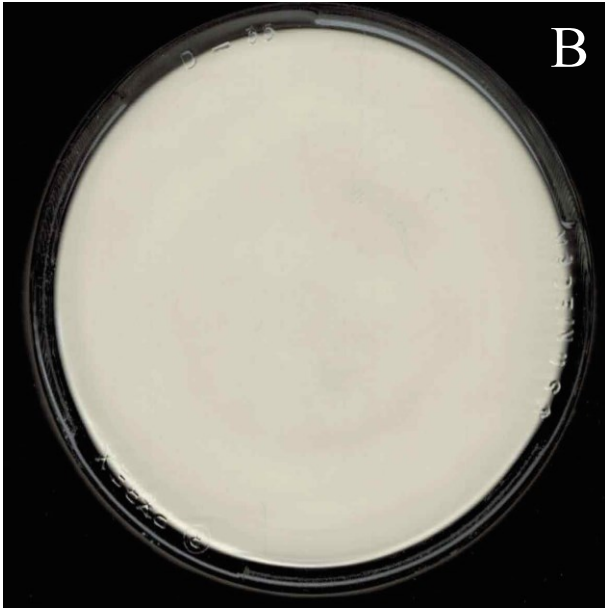
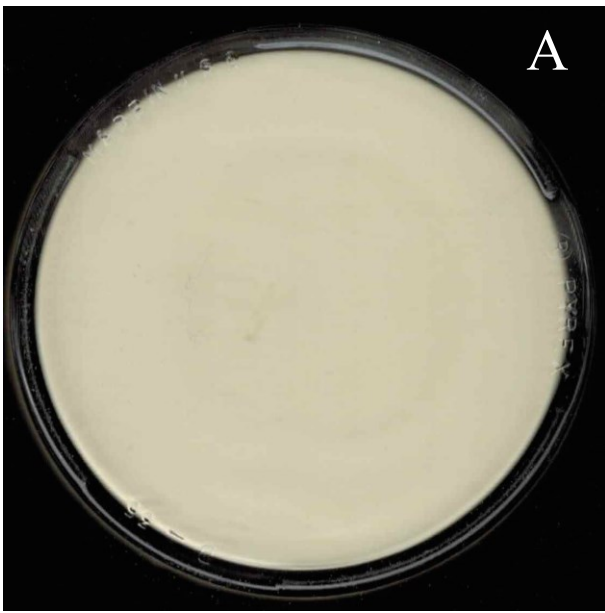
Figure S1. Pictures showing colors of flours (a) Svevo and (b) Soft Svevo.

Figure 1. Pasting profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line) flours and (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line). Dotted lines represent sample temperature.

Figure 2. Gluten aggregation profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line) flours and (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line).

Figure 3. Mixing profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line), (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line).





**Fig. S1.** Pictures showing colors of flours (a) Svevo and (b) Soft Svevo.

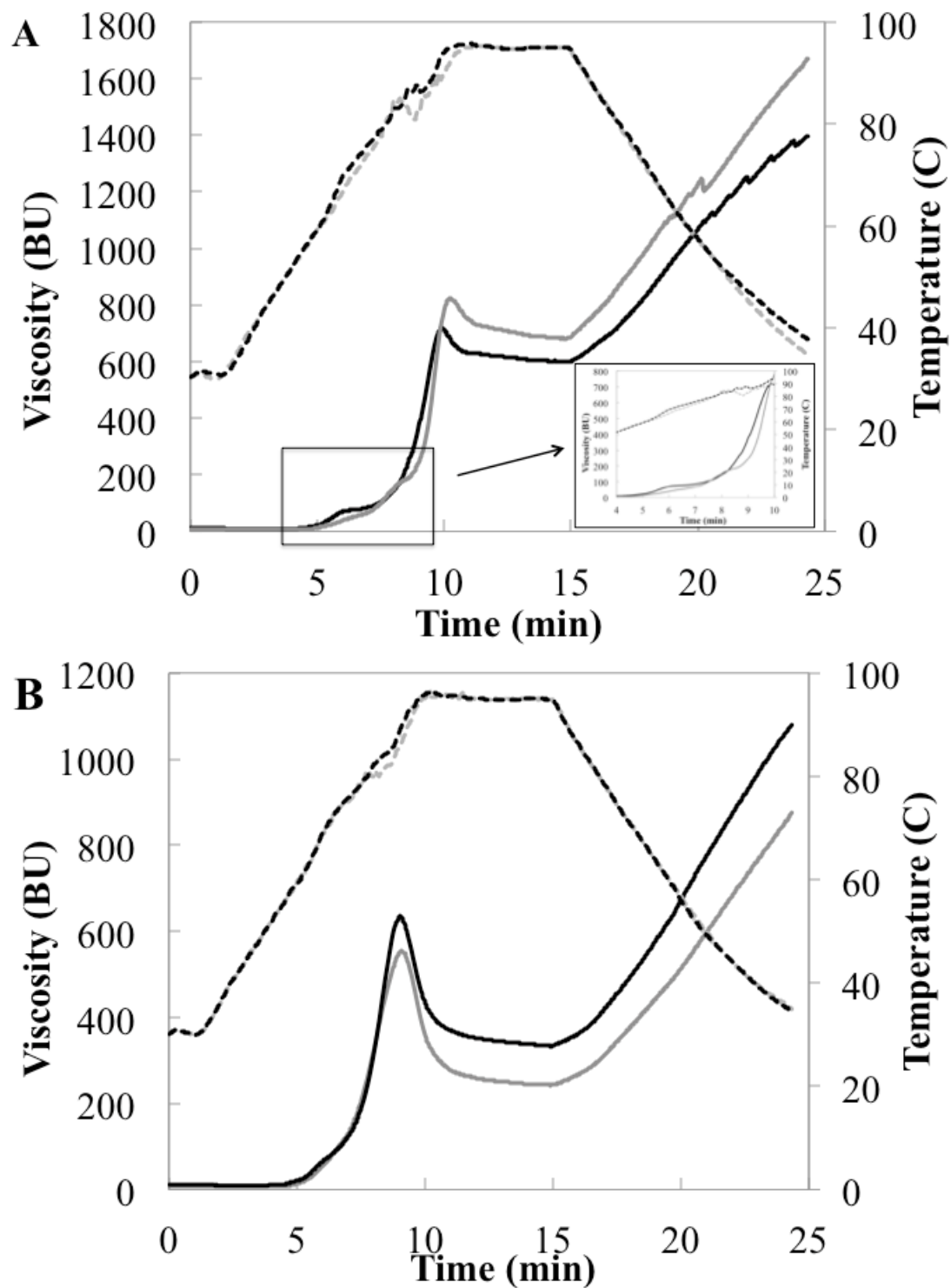


Figure 1. Pasting profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line) flours and (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line). Dotted lines represent sample temperature.

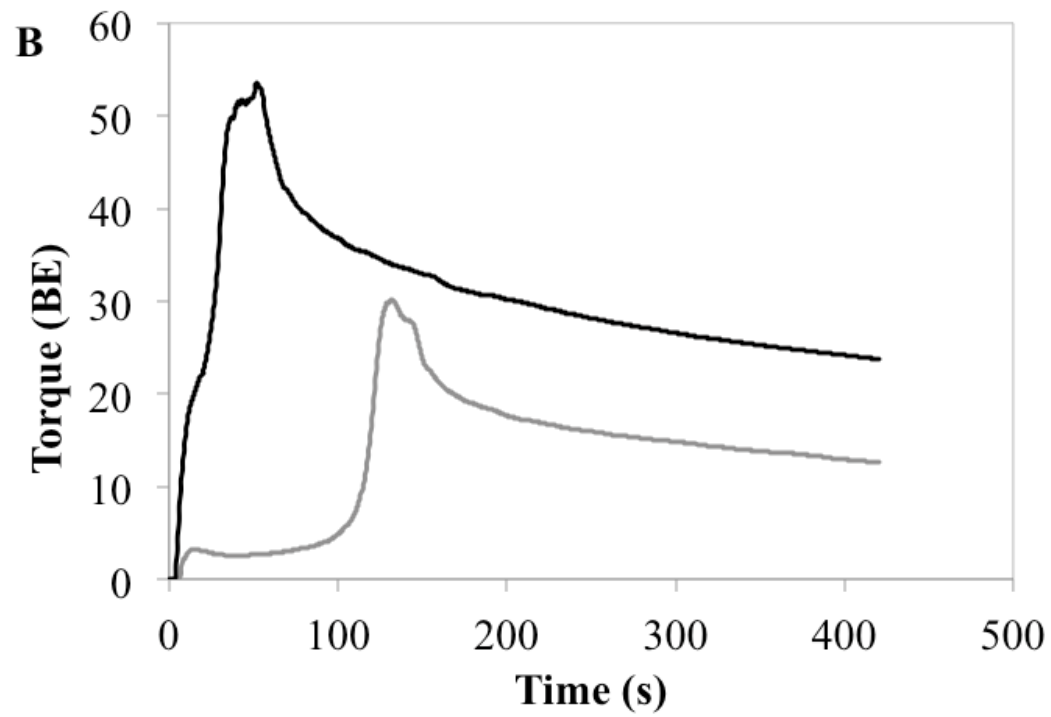
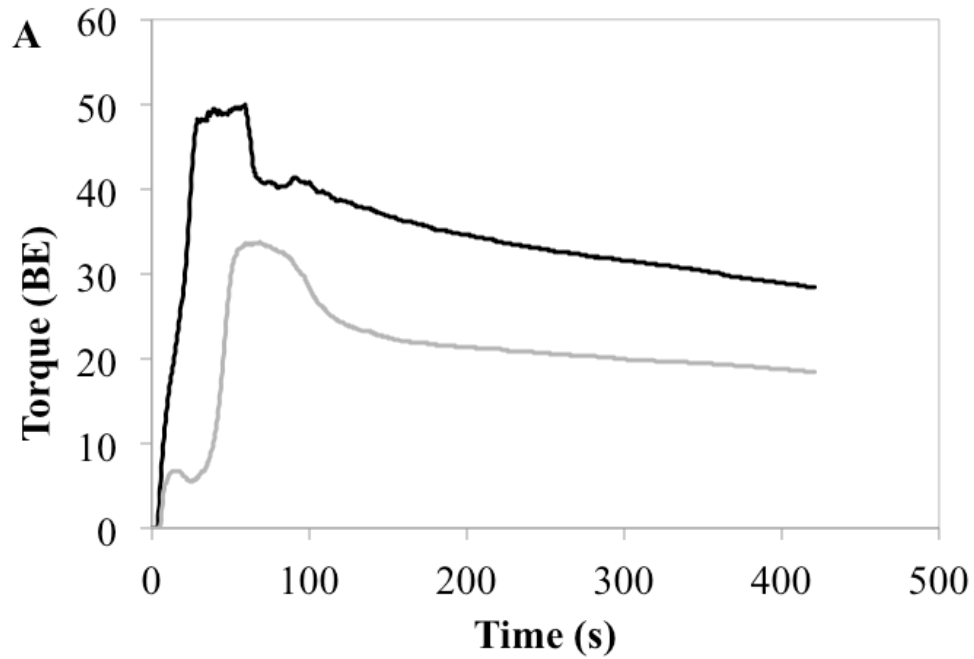


Figure 2. Gluten aggregation profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line) flours and (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line).

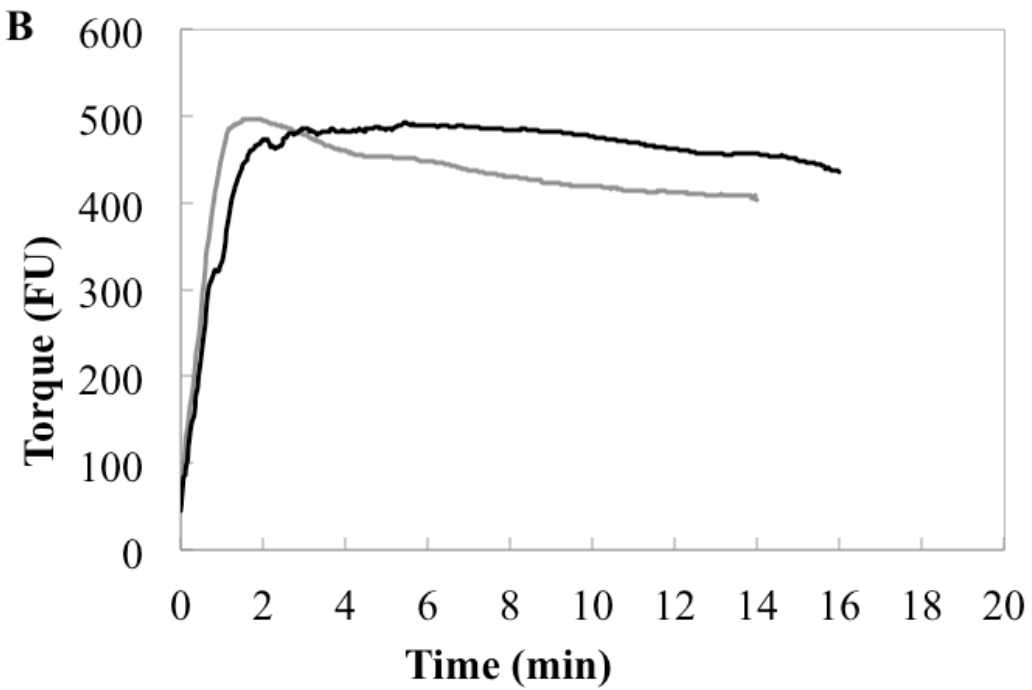
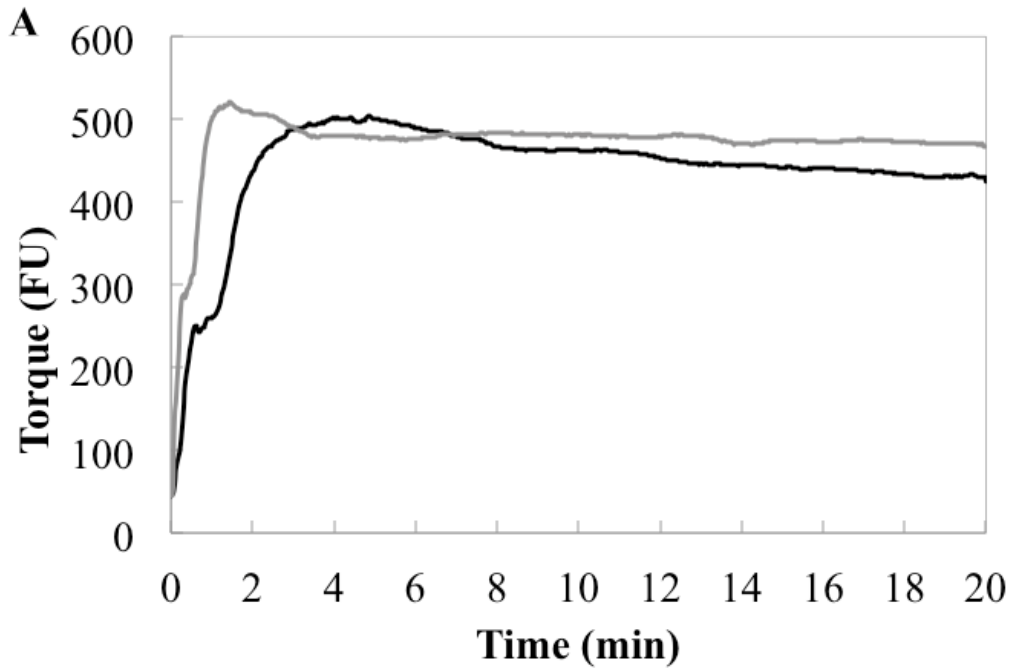


Figure 3. Mixing profile of (a) Svevo (black line) and Soft Svevo (grey line), (b) Alpowa (grey line) and Hard Alpowa (black line).