1	THERMO-MECHANICALLY INDUCED PROTEIN AGGREGATION AND
2	STARCH STRUCTURAL CHANGES IN WHEAT FLOUR DOUGH
3	
4	
5	C.M. ROSELL ¹ , R. ALTAMIRANO-FORTOUL ¹ , C. DON ² , A. DUBAT ³
6	
7	¹ Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Technology. CSIC. Avenida Agustin Escardino,
8	7. Paterna 46980. Valencia. Spain.
9	² Foodphysica, Driel, The Netherlands, e-mail: clyde.don@foodphysica.com
10	³ Chopin, Paris, France.
11	
12	
13	Running head: Proteins and starch under thermo-mechanical constraints
14	
15	*Corresponding author: <u>crosell@iata.csic.es</u>
16	Tel +34 963900022
17	Fax +34 963636301
18	
19	
20	

21 Abstract

22 Various studies have been carried out on wheat flour to understand protein and starch 23 changes when subjected to mixing and temperature constraints, but structural changes 24 of proteins and starch at the typical moisture levels of a dough system, are not fully 25 understood. The aim of this research was to improve our understanding of (micro) 26 structural changes at the mesoscopic level, using: empirical rheology, microscopy (light 27 and scanning electron microscopy), sequential protein extractions and glutenin macro-28 polymer (GMP) wet weight, along mixing-heating-cooling stages of the Mixolab® 29 assay. Studies were performed in three wheat flours with different protein content. The 30 rheological analysis allowed identifying the role of the proteins and the relationship 31 between the protein content and different primary and secondary parameters obtained 32 from the recorded curves. The progressive heating-mixing stages during the Mixolab 33 assay, results in a dynamic re-and de-structuring of proteins involving interactions 34 between the flour proteins from water-soluble, to SDS soluble to SDS insoluble and 35 vice-versa. The microstructure analysis using light, polarized and scanning electron 36 microscopy revealed the changes that proteins and starch molecules undergo during 37 mixing, heating and cooling. Qualitatively the starch structural changes, swelling and 38 gelatinization observed by microscopic techniques, shows some parallels with protein 39 (and glutenin) content of the respective flour. Nevertheless, this tentative finding needs 40 further confirmation by studying flour samples with a large difference in glutenin 41 content.

- 42
- 43

44 Key words: wheat dough, Mixolab, proteins, rheology, microstructure

46 Introduction

47 Wheat flour dough has unique rheological properties, making it very suitable for bread-48 making (Bushuk 1998). Breadmaking is a dynamic process where several physical and 49 chemical changes are involved (Rosell 2011). The gluten proteins are largely 50 responsible for the rheology of wheat flour dough, structural formation during mixing, 51 and gas-holding, whereas the role of starch is mainly implicated at final textural 52 properties and product stability after baking. In fact, recently Lagrain et al. (2012) 53 confirmed by crumb compressive tests, image analysis and ultrasonic inspection, that 54 when keeping starch properties or moisture content, gluten properties determine bread 55 crumb density and its foam structure without affecting the rheological properties of the 56 crumb cell walls, and starch role is a major determinant of the elastic modulus of bread 57 crumb increase upon storage. Gluten consists of the monomeric gliadins and the more 58 complex glutenins. Glutenin consists of high and low molecular weight glutenin 59 subunits (HMWGS and LMWGS), that are linked together by disulphide bonds 60 (Shewry 1992). Since the paper of Ewart (1968), various molecular structures have been 61 proposed for glutenin. Thus far, there is no consensus on the molecular / polymer 62 structure of glutenin that can explain rheological properties from a molecular structure 63 to macroscopic functionality model. It is also difficult to link molecular information on 64 SH-SS with dough properties. Free SH groups have been reported in the range of 2-4 65 µmol/g dough (Andrews et al. 1995), but still it has not been possible to pinpoint the 66 'rheologically effective disulphide bonds' from the 'rheologically in-effective 67 disulphide bonds' (Bloksma, 1972). Furthermore, later it has been shown that when 68 doughs are mixed with SH-blocker NEMI, the rested doughs can have the same 69 rheological response as the reference dough without NEMI (Don, 2009). It was revealed 70 that non-covalent interactions of mesoscopic glutenin aggregates can rheologically

compensate for covalent interactions. Therefore we focus here on a level between the molecular scale ($\sim 10^{-3} \mu m$) and visible with the unaided eye macro scale ($\sim 10^{3} \mu m$ and over): the mesoscopic scale ($\sim 10^{-1} - 10^{2} \mu m$). This concept of mesoscopic glutenin particles, has been shown to be a relatively new element to improve our understanding of factors affecting wheat flour dough properties (Don et al., 2003, 2005).

Dough mixing is a key step in wheat flour processing, but during mixing a sequence of events takes place: 1) Mixing of flour and water with the help of mechanical energy input leading to distribution of flour components 2) hydration of flour particles, favouring both non-covalent but also covalent interactions 3) finally yielding the formation of a continuous visco-elastic network structure (Cuq et al., 2003).

81 Assessing the rheological properties of wheat flour dough with a recording mixer, is a 82 common physico-analytical practice, both in scientific research as well as in routine 83 analysis (Rosell and Collar, 2009). It already has been established that all rheological 84 tests on dough, whether fundamental or empirical, give useful information to predict the 85 end-use quality of wheat flour. Clearly, the best predictions can be expected when the 86 rates and the extent of the deformation are in the same range as those during dough 87 processing (Dobraszczyk and Morgenstern, 2003). Small deformation rheology is 88 sensitive to starch-starch, starch-protein and protein-protein interactions (Rosell and 89 Foegeding, 2007), but only large deformation measurements can provide information 90 about the extent of the contribution of long-range (protein-protein) and short range (starch-starch and starch-protein) interactions to the viscoelastic behaviour of wheat 91 92 flour dough (Amemiya and Menjivar, 1992)

93

Graveland et al. (1982) established the fractionation procedure based on wheat protein
solubility / insolubility in 1.5% SDS. Aqueous SDS solution is regarded as one of the

96 most efficient solvents for separating extractable and un-extractable gluten proteins 97 under unreduced conditions Singh et al. (1990). The quantity of the so-called SDS 98 insoluble glutenin fraction is significantly correlated with: dough development time, 99 dough strength and bread loaf volume (Weegels et al., 1996; 1997). The mixing studies 100 by Don et al. (2003; 2005) reflect glutenin aggregation changes at constant temperature 101 dough processing and handling (T = 30° C). Next to the physico-mechanical effect of 102 mixing on glutenin aggregate size, the effect of elevated temperatures is expected to 103 change the aggregated state of the gluten proteins. Elevating dough mixing temperatures 104 will swell wheat starch granules, raising the viscosity of the dough (dough pasting) 105 (Rosell et al., 2007), and pasting properties have been revealed as useful predictors of 106 bread firming behaviour during storage (Collar, 2003).

107 In a Mixolab[®] assay the effects of both mixing and heating on wheat gluten proteins 108 and wheat starch can be noticed as a torque reading vs. a time-temperature axis. The test 109 sample remains doughy throughout the measurement, keeping moisture at similar levels 110 as in bread dough. Structural changes of proteins and starch at the typical moisture 111 levels, mixing-time and temperature/pasting regimes of a Mixolab® assay, are far from 112 clear. Therefore, the aim of this study was to reveal structural changes at the mesoscopic 113 level, using: microscopy -Light Microscopy (LM) and Scanning Electron Microscopy 114 (SEM), sequential protein extractions and glutenin macro-polymer (GMP) wet weight, 115 along mixing-heating-cooling stages of the Mixolab® assay. The study will be focussed 116 on the matrix states around, and at the C1 (peak), C2, C3, C4 and C5 Mixolab® 117 readings. For this purpose, three different flours were selected on basis of protein 118 quantity and C1 mixing time: Corde Noire, Gruau Rouge, Ficelle Verte.

119

120 Materials and Methods

121 Wheat flour characterization

Three commercial flours from soft wheat were provided by Chopin Technologies (Villeneuve-la-Garenne Cedex, France), which are commercially named as Gruau Rouge, Ficelle Verte and Corde Noire. Flours were characterized for moisture, protein, fat and ash content following the ICC standard methods (1999). Total carbohydrates were determinate by difference. Damage starch was determined according to the ICC Standard method n°172 (ICC, 2011). Flour alveograph parameters were determined according to ICC Standard method n°121 (ICC, 2011).

129

130 Mixolab® analysis

131 Wheat flour was poured in the Mixolab® bowl and mixed with the necessary amount of 132 water for reaching optimum dough development (ICC, 2011). Wheat dough weight was 133 fixed to 75 grams. The Mixolab® profile carried out in order to characterize dough 134 consistency changes due to dual mixing and temperature constraint starts at 30°C and 135 with constant mixing speed of 75 rpm. Dough mixing was carried out at 30°C for eight 136 minutes and then the temperature was increased up to 90°C over 15 min at the rate of 4 137 °C/min. Bowl temperature was held at 90°C for 7 min, then cooled to 50°C over 10 min 138 at the rate of 4° C/min and finally held at 50°C for 5 min. The duration of each assay 139 was 45 minutes. Figure 1 shows a typical curve recorded in the Mixolab® along the 140 different stages (mixing, heating, cooling). Detailed description of the physical changes 141 that occurred along Mixolab® measurement was reported by Rosell et al. (2006). 142 Briefly, the first part of the Mixolab® curve records the dough behavior during mixing 143 and overmixing; during this stage, the torque increased until it reaches a maximum 144 (C1). At that point, the dough is able to resist the deformation for certain time, which 145 determines the dough stability. The simultaneous mechanical shear stress and 146 temperature constraint (2nd stage) decrease the torque until a minimum value (C2) that 147 could be related to the beginning of the protein structure destabilization or protein 148 weakening. As the temperature increases starch gelatinization takes place (3rd stage) 149 with a concomitant increase in the torque until a new maximum value (C3). A reduction 150 in viscosity is observed in the 4th stage derived from the physical breakdown of the 151 starch granules, leading to a minimum value of the torque (C4). The decrease in the 152 temperature produces an enhancement in the dough consistency (stage 5th), resulting in 153 a maximum torque (C5). Parameters obtained from the recorded curve are detailed in 154 Table 1. In addition, the slopes defined along ascending and descending curves were 155 calculated. Values reported in Table 2 are the average of ten measurements.

156

157 Dough sample preparation for LM and SEM survey and analysis

After recording the times where main changes occur (C1, C2, C3, C4, C5), assays were repeated stopping the analysis at each stage. Sampling for microstructure studies is detailed in Table 1. Dough samples were quickly transferred to a freezer and then subjected to freeze-drying.

162

163 Light microscopy (LM)

Flours and freeze-dried doughs were suspended in distilled water (8% w/w) and kept vortexing till use. The suspension was poured and spread out onto microscope slide and samples were dehydrated using pure ethanol followed by acetone and finally air. Samples were either directly observed under both light and polarizing optics or stained with specific dyeing reagents. Starch was detected using iodine solution, and proteins were detected with Ponceau Red. The dried samples were stained with iodine solution (0.2 % w/v iodine and 2 % w/v potassium iodate) for 10 min and then with Ponceau 2R

171 (0.2 % w/v Ponceau 2R in 50 % ethanol containing 0.18 % v/v of 0.5M H₂SO₄) solution 172 for 10 min. After staining, sections were rinsed in distilled water, followed by a wash in 70% (v/v) ethanol, absolute ethanol, acetone and finally air drying. Samples were 173 174 mounted in fluorescence-free immersion oil and viewed directly. The distribution of 175 protein and starch in the sample was observed using a light/fluorescence Nikon Eclipse 176 90i microscope (IZASA, Madrid, Spain). Proteins appeared red whereas starch appeared 177 blue. Sections were photographed using a Digital Sight DS-5Mc color camera (Nikon 178 Instruments Europe BV, Amsterdam, The Netherlands). Digital images were captured 179 directly to the computer from three to five regions of the sample surface. Reported 180 images were chosen to best represent the set of sample images obtained.

181

182 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Flour and freeze-dried dough samples were mounted on metal stubs using double sided stick tape and sputter-coated with 100–200 Å thick layer of gold and palladium by Ion Sputter (Bio-Rad SC-500, Aname, Madrid, Spain). Analysis of the specimens was performed at 10 kV accelerating voltage with a scanning electron microscope (S-4100, Hitachi, Ibaraki, Japan) equipped with a field emission gun, a back-secondary electron detector and an EMIP 3.0 image data acquisition system (Rontec, Normanton, UK) from the SCSIE Department of the University of Valencia.

190

191 **Dough samples for soluble/insoluble protein analyses**

The numbers in Figure 1 show the parts of the Mixolab® analyses where a sample has been taken for soluble/insoluble protein analyses. Table 1 shows the sample numbers that have been analyzed for protein extractability. Sampling after certain mixing times went as follows: 1) Stop the Mixolab®, 2) Collect the dough sample as quickly as possible, 3) Freeze the dough sample in liquid nitrogen, 4) Lyophilise the collectedsamples and 5) Powder the sample on a Retsch mill for the extractability study.

198

199 SDS insoluble gel-proteins (GMP) and soluble proteins

200 For the determination of the 1.5% SDS soluble proteins and wet-weight of the 1.5% 201 SDS insoluble proteins an adapted sequential extraction method was used, largely based 202 on the original extraction procedure of Graveland et al. (1982). Weigh 100 mg of flour 203 or powdered dough in an Eppendorf tube (2mL). A pre-extraction of water-solubles was 204 done with ~2mL of 1% NaCl solution then centrifuged for 10 minutes at 10,000 rpm 205 (Eppendorf), the supernatants were collected. Then 1.8 mL of demineralised water was 206 added and vortexed vigorously; add 200µL of 15% SDS solution to the suspension and 207 shake gently to disperse flour and dilute SDS (1.5%). Centrifuge the tubes for 30 208 minutes in an Eppendorf centrifuge at 10,000 rpm. The relative protein content of the 209 (SERVA supernatants was determined by BCA method Electrophoresis, 210 Raamsdonksveer, The Netherlands), taking flour as index 100%. For processed dough 211 the starch phase is known to swell more, although most of the starch remains insoluble 212 in cold water or 1.5% SDS. The 1.5% SDS insoluble proteins remain on top of the 213 starchy phase. The 1.5% SDS insoluble proteins are rendered soluble by reduction in 214 1.5mL of 1.5% SDS with 0.2% DTT. The Eppendorf tubes are centrifuged (30', 10,000 215 rpm) after which the supernatant is poured off. The remaining starchy gel is weighed 216 and subtracted from the gel-weight (starch + disulphide linked GMP-gel proteins) of the 217 previous centrifugation under unreduced conditions. This provides a wet weight 218 estimation of disulphide linked SDS insoluble gel-proteins, also called Glutenin Macro 219 Polymer (GMP). The extractions were done in triplicate.

221 Statistical analysis

Experimental data were statistically analyzed by using Statgraphics V.7.1 program
(Bitstream, Cambridge, MA, USA) to determine significant differences among them.
Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) procedure was used to discriminate among
the means at the 95.0% confidence level.

226

227 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

228

229 Mixing and thermal behaviour of wheat flours

230 The behaviour during mixing and heating of three commercial flours, selected due to 231 their different protein content, were determined using the Mixolab® (Figure 1). Wheat 232 flours differed in their protein, ash, damaged starch content and their Alveograph 233 parameters (P, L, W, P/L) (Table 2). Primary and secondary parameters defined from 234 the Mixolab® plots are listed in Table 2. For comparing purposes, analysis of the 235 different flour behaviour was carried out at constant consistency (C1 of 1.1 Nm), where 236 hydration was not the constraint. Primary and secondary Mixolab® parameters were 237 significantly dependent on the type of flour, with exception of amplitude, temperature at 238 C3, pasting temperature range and the delta slope (related to the speed of amylose 239 retrogradation during cooling). Time to reach the maximum dough development (C1) 240 and dough stability during mixing were significantly dependent on the amount of 241 protein of the wheat flour, being shorter or lower with the flour of lower amount of 242 protein, respectively. Proteins, besides damaged starch and arabinoxylans, are the main 243 components involved in water adsorption and dough hydration, although proteins due to 244 their major abundance are of great importance as revealed by the present results for 245 water absorption (Table 2). In addition, protein nature is also important, if exogenous

246 proteins are added, determines the development time or time necessary for hydrating all 247 the compounds (Bonet et al., 2006). Dough stability related to the strength of the protein 248 network was significantly higher with higher protein content flours, which was also 249 reflected in the Alveograph parameters. No significant differences were observed on the 250 amplitude, parameter associated to dough elasticity (Rosell and Collar, 2008). The 251 parameter associated to protein weakening (C2) showed the highest value with the 252 highest protein content flour. The flour with the lowest content of proteins had the C2 at 253 the lowest temperature. The combined effect of the mechanical shear stress and the 254 temperature constraint produced a decrease in the torque that has been related with the 255 beginning of the protein destabilization and unfolding (Rosell et al., 2007). In wheat 256 flours, the minimum torque (C2) has been detected in the range 52-58 °C, further 257 protein changes during heating might be masked by the modification of the physico-258 chemical properties of the starch (Rosell et al., 2007). Regarding the starch the wheat 259 flour with the lowest protein content showed the highest consistency after starch 260 gelatinization (C3), and also the highest stability during heating (C4). This finding 261 agrees with previous results of Symons and Brennan (2004) describing a relationship between the peak viscosity and the starch content and its degree of swelling. 262

263 No strong relationship was found between the protein content of the flours and the 264 proteins weakening range, but we can highlight a few results. It was observed that there 265 are significant differences in protein weakening (C2) between the highest protein 266 content flour and the others. Specifically, C2 of Gruau Rouge was 0.55 Nm, whereas for 267 Ficelle Verte and Corde Noire ranged 0.44-0.41 Nm, and they showed significant 268 differences in their protein content (Gruau Rouge 14.9%, Ficelle Verte 9.9%, and Corde 269 Noire 10.96%). In addition, at C4 the values for Gruau Rouge vs Ficelle Verte and Corde Noire were far apart: 1.61Nm vs. 2.02 and 1.93 Nm. The starch gelatinization 270

271 range was inversely related to protein and directly related to the carbohydrates content.
272 The flour with the highest protein content showed the greatest gelling, in which the
273 amylose chains which leached outside the starch granules during the heating, are
274 prompted to recrystalize. The re-association between the starch molecules, especially
275 amylose, results in the formation of a gel structure. This stage is related to the
276 retrogradation and reordering of the starch molecules and low values of setback
277 indicates low rate of amylose retrogradation and low syneresis (Rojas et al., 1999).

278 Studies performed with wheat dough containing different hydrocolloid combinations 279 indicated that the overall effect on the mechanical shearing and thermal treatment of the 280 wheat dough can be studied using the different slopes defined in the Mixolab® plots 281 (Bonet et al., 2006). The parameter α described the effect of the combination of 282 mechanical shearing and slight thermal treatment on the wheat dough. Whereas the 283 parameters β , γ , and δ indicated the behaviour of wheat dough during heating, holding 284 at 90°C, and cooling, respectively, they were thus mainly associated with starch 285 changes. The protein weakening occurred faster in the flour with the highest protein 286 content. The rates associated to starch changes were faster in the wheat flour with the 287 highest protein content. Starch gelatinization rate and gelling was slower in the flours 288 with lower protein content. The damage starch did not show a significant contribution to 289 dough absorption and only a significant effect was detected when temperature increased 290 (during protein weakening range).

291

SDS insoluble gel-proteins (GMP), the SDS soluble proteins and water-soluble proteins in relation with the Mixolab assay

294 The GMP-gel wet weight per gram flour of the three flour samples Gruau Rouge, Corde

Noire and Ficelle Verte were respectively: 3.4 ± 0.1 , 2.7 ± 0.1 and 1.7 ± 0.1 g/g. These

296 differences in GMP-gel wet weight run in parallel with respective flour protein content 297 and mixing times to peak C1. Taking the initial values of the respective flour as 100%, 298 the protein extractions for the flour samples can be plotted in a single figure against the 299 respective sample numbers and average dough temperatures (Figure 2a-c). The mixolab 300 torque (Tq) vs sample number is also given in Figure 2 (2d). Going from flour towards 301 dough peak (C1 at 30° C) it can be observed that the initially SDS insoluble gel-proteins 302 are rendered soluble in SDS by the mixing action. This is in agreement with earlier 303 observations (Weegels et al. 1996, Don et al. 2003). After this dough mixing step the 304 average dough temperature is increased, resulting in a progressive re-aggregation of 305 apparently disulphide linked SDS insoluble proteins. It is perhaps remarkable that the 306 heat induced re-aggregation of GMP seems to start at such a low average dough 307 temperature (36°C, sample #2). Andrews et al. (1995) report somewhat higher 308 temperatures for significant loss of free $SH > 50^{\circ}C$, although some loss of relative free 309 -SH can be observed already around 40°C. We suspect that it was too difficult to 310 significantly detect the losses of free SH along the temperature range $50^{\circ}C > T > 30^{\circ}C$. 311 Physical accessibility of SH groups (in the µmol range and even less) can be affected, 312 because our results show (Figure 2a) that glutenin apparently already starts aggregating 313 into SDS insoluble structures between 35 - 45°C. About 50-80% recovery can be noticed due to a mild temperature induced aggregation. This also shows that our choice 314 315 to focus at the mesoscopic level of SDS insoluble GMP re-aggregation provides new 316 information. Furthermore, it reveals that separating fractions on basis of SDS solubility 317 is an effective way for studying the re- and de-structuring of key protein fractions in 318 processed dough. On the level of the instrument we should keep in mind that the 319 mixing bowl surface temperature can be higher. We calculated this difference for the 320 #1-#4 sampling points and found that the average bowl temperature is $\sim 3^{\circ}$ C higher than

the average temperature measured by the probe. Therefore, the temperature of dough in 321 322 direct contact with the bowl surface is higher, but remained $< 50^{\circ}$ C at point #3 (fig 2a) 323 where recoveries of SDS insolubles are noted between 70-90% (Ficelle Verte 88%, 324 Corde Noire 76%, Gruau Rouge 70%). The recovery percentages of GMP from #1 to 325 #3 in Figure 2a show that Ficelle Verte had the highest recovery rate, Corde Noire 326 intermediate and Gruau Rouge the slowest recovery. Figure 2b shows a steep decrease 327 of SDS soluble protein for Ficelle Verte (90%) compared to Corde Noire and Gruau 328 Rouge at point #3 (resp. 120%. 116%). These differences in aggregation can be 329 explained from our extraction data (2a-b) and the dough consistency (2d) as follows:

The rates of dispersing the insoluble wheat proteins with a low protein quality
 Ficelle Verte (lowest flour GMP, shortest C1-time), intermediate quality Corde
 Noire (intermediate flour GMP, intermediate C1-time) and high quality Gruau
 Rouge (highest flour GMP, highest C1-times) lays down the path for a faster
 heat-induced re-aggregation of GMP after C1-time when dough is warmed-up.
 A better distribution of protein aggregates in dough (SDS soluble, but not water soluble) can re-assemble more effectively than less well-dispersed proteins.

2) The measured consistency of the warm doughs at sampling points #2 and #3
show torques for Ficelle Verte <Corde Noir <Gruau Rouge (Figure 2d) in
compliance with respective flour GMP levels, hence the respective initial reaggregation rate into SDS-insolubles at mild heating, can be related to the
respective dough consistency. It is very likely that aggregation in a lower
consitency environment will tend to run faster (low Tq FV) than in a higher
consistency medium (higher Tq, GR).

344

345 For dough samples taken at Mixolab® stages #4(C2) and #5 the status of SDS insoluble 346 gel-proteins hovers somewhat under (#4=C2) and over (#5) the 80% recovery mark. 347 This indicates that mixing forces that are known to disrupt glutenin aggregates (Don et 348 al. 2005) are competing with heat-induced re-aggregation. The C2 point coincides with 349 a minimum in the Mixolab® curve, it is well-possible that over-mixing combined with 350 heat-induced re-aggregation results in a more discontinuous gluten network with a 351 lower resistance to movement, hence the minimum in the observed torque (Nm). When 352 dough heating proceeds (#6, #7), the heat induced aggregation of gluten(in) proteins 353 apparently overruns the disruption by mixing, resulting in recoveries of about 100% and 354 over (120%) the initial flour GMP wet-weight. The fact that the SDS insoluble quantity 355 exceeds the level of the flour reference indicates that also other proteins fractions may 356 have 'co-aggregated' with the insoluble glutenins. At the final stage water-holding of 357 the SDS insoluble gel proteins is compromised (lower recovery), this shows that 358 prolonged heating brings gluten proteins to a more denatured aggregated state.

359 Figure 2b shows the results for the SDS soluble proteins (SDSS). For all three flour 360 samples the initial mixing stage to C1 (#1) renders the glutenin proteins soluble, as 361 shown by Don et al. (2003). When heating and mixing proceeds (#2, #3, #4=C2) the 362 SDS soluble proteins are further re-aggregated into SDS insoluble structures as 363 indicated by the increase in GMP-gel proteins in Figure 2a. During further mixing and 364 heating (samples #5, #6=C3, #7=C4, #8=C5) the recoveries of SDS soluble proteins are 365 between 95 - 110%. There is not a fully clear parallel between the recovery levels of 366 SDS soluble (Figure 2b) and GMP-gel (Figure 2a). Specifically at point #6 Figure 2a 367 shows that the GMP is 110-120%, SDS soluble fraction > 100%, but there is a loss of 368 water-soluble proteins ~80% recovery (Figure 2c). Tentatively, the progressive heating-369 mixing stages during the Mixolab assay, results in a dynamic re-and de-structuring of 370 proteins involving interactions between the flour proteins from water-soluble, to SDS 371 soluble to SDS insoluble and vice-versa. This has been suggested earlier by Schofield et 372 al. (1983) for heated gluten. Later on, Rosell & Foegeding (2005) also confirmed that 373 hypothesis by studying the viscoelastic properties of gluten subjected to heating-cooling 374 cycles. In that study, the storage modulus of the gluten proteins underwent a progressive 375 decrease with the temperature increase that has been associated to protein unfolding. In 376 a more molecularly oriented gluten study, the proteins showed a minimum value of 377 storage modulus (G') at 57°C, indicating a thermal transition derived from the protein 378 crosslinking involving SH/SS interchange, oxidation and hydrophobic interactions (Li 379 & Lee, 1998). The SH/SS interchange is an interesting notion, but here we will focus 380 on the meso- and macro scale, but it is clear that when dissolving GMP, the DTT 381 reduces the mesoscopic heat aggregated glutenin protein structures completely into 382 subunits soluble in 1.5% SDS. As with free SH measurements it is doubtful whether 383 complex macroscopic phenomena can be explained with measurements down to the 384 molecular level of glutenin subunits.

385

386 Figure 2c shows that the result for the water-extractability of proteins (albumins and 387 globulins) vs. the mixing-heating steps of the Mixolab® assay. For C1 the results 388 clearly show an increase in water-soluble proteins for all three flour samples. As mixing 389 and heating progresses (#2, #3, #4=C2, #5, #6, #7 and #8) the relative recovery of 390 water-extractable proteins decreases from 100% towards about 75% at the final stages 391 (#7=C4 and # 8=C5). There are some minor differences in aggregation rate of water 392 soluble proteins, between the three flour samples; the overall picture is that water-393 solubility is compromised. Looking at results at #6 it is plausible that unrecoverable 394 albumins and globulins 'co-aggregated' into one of the water-insoluble fractions.

Especially into the SDS insoluble part when heating is > 70°C resulting in recoveries > 120% for GMP. Clearly albumins and globulins are a minor fraction of the wheat flour proteins, and 20% of this minor fraction represents even less. However, the role of water-soluble protein has been disregarded in comparison to gluten proteins; it is interesting to see in this study revealed that it becomes part of the water-insoluble fraction when processed.

401

402 **Protein-starch interactions and rheological response**

403 Figure 2d shows the general rheological response (Torque, Tq) values measured with 404 the Mixolab at the respective sampling points. All the effects underlying torque-levels 405 during a mixing assay, let alone a mixing + heating assay, are far from clear. It is 406 difficult to experimentally reveal interaction effects between starch and protein in one 407 type of rheological test; hence we used a combination of microscopy and protein 408 extraction to improve our understanding of dough structural changes at the mesoscopic 409 level. A simplified, but often used concept is that of discriminating the effects into two 410 zones: 1) gluten development (C1), overmixing and 2) upon heating, the Tq responses 411 are related to starch swelling/gelatinization only. This simplification should be viewed 412 with some caution. The pattern of Tq vs time-temperature and the de-aggregated / re-413 aggregated glutenin levels in Fig 2a-d strongly suggests that also proteins must affect 414 the Tq levels beyond C1 (gluten development). For example at sample point #3 we can 415 notice that the Tq response follows: Gruau Rouge > Corde Noire > Ficelle Verte. This 416 indicates that with mild heating $(30 - 50^{\circ}C)$ beyond C1, torque is still affected by: 1) 417 flour protein content, 2) 1.5% SDS soluble glutenins, especially noted for Ficelle Verte 418 with the lowest percentage of 1.5% SDS solubles at sample point #3 in Figure 2b. At 419 sample point #7=C4 when the dough is processed at high temperatures (80-90°C) it can

be noticed that the Tq values for Gruau Rouge = 1.60 Nm and Ficelle Verte = 2.02 Nm. This difference cannot be explained by starch dilution, due to protein content difference alone. Also the amount of 1.5% SDS solubles is similar at this point, but for Gruau Rouge there is a lower recovery of GMP wet weight. A lower swelling in 1.5% SDS indicates that the glutenins are in a highly heat-aggregated state, these heat-aggregated structures may interfere with the consistency of the gelatinized starch phase, hence the lower Tq value observed.

427

428 Microstructure changes during mixing, heating and cooling

The changes of the microstructure of the main components of the three different wheat flours along mixing-heating and cooling were analysed by different microscopy techniques, which comprised light and fluorescence microscopy, polarized microscopy and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

433

434 The microscopic images (Figure 3) show the starchy material after staining with lugol. 435 In the wheat flour samples (Figure 3A) two different populations of starch granules 436 were detected, the smaller ones with rounded shape and the bigger granules with 437 lenticular shape. The images obtained during mixing, heating and cooling showed the 438 changes underwent by the starch granules when subjected to mechanical and thermal 439 constraints. The images for the dough mixing (Figure 3B) still showed the two granules 440 population, as well as after the mild heating that occurred in C2 (Figure 3C). When 441 heating proceeded further than 53-55°C, depending on the flour, where gel formation 442 occurred starch granules showed bigger size due to the swelling phenomenon, which 443 also induced the deformation of the granules (Figure 3D). The remaining granules were 444 surrounding by a more transparent film, which corresponded to the amylose leached out

into extragranular space during the starch gelatinization. In C4 (Figure 3E) and C5 (Figure 3F) that effect was even more dramatic and the remnants of collapsed granules dispersed in the extragranular polymer matrix were clearly visible, and the initial dark blue colour changed to light pinkish purple colour; suggesting differences in the chain length of the polymers that complexed with iodine, which agree with previous observations of Dillon et al (2011). This technique did not allow differing among the different wheat flour samples.

452

453 Starch granule morphology and birefringence were studied using a polarized light 454 microscope (Figure 4). In Figures 4A, 4B, 4C, it was observed the birefringence in 455 starch granules viewed by polarized microscopy, which indicated the integrity of the 456 starch granules. Two size populations were detected during mixing and mild heating 457 (C2). However, when gelatinization took place, the bigger starch granules lost the 458 birefringence paste, whereas it still was observed in the smaller size population of starch 459 granules. Some birefringence was also detected in C4, but only a few granules of small 460 size, kept that property after heating (Figure 4E).

461

462 The SEM technique allowed to visualize the three dimensional structure of the wheat 463 flour and dough besides the changes induced by mechanical and thermal constraints. 464 Wheat flour appeared as aggregates of protein matrix embedding groups of cellular 465 components, mainly starch granules (Figure 5). In the wheat flours (Figure 5A, 6A, 466 7A,), two distinct populations of starch granule sizes were detected, the larger or A-type 467 granules (lenticular shaped) and the smaller or B-type granules (spherical shaped) on the 468 surface of the A-type granules. Some starch granules appeared distorted as a 469 consequence of milling. Those results agree with previous findings of Rojas et al

470 (2000). When comparing the different wheat flours, it seems that the starch granules are 471 more disaggregated in flour with the lowest protein content (Ficelle Verte). The other 472 flours showed more compact structure with more cementing material holding the 473 structure, which corresponded to the protein matrix. After mixing (Figure 5B, 6B, 7B), 474 the resulting dough presented a reticular structure where starch granules are embedded 475 in a protein matrix. Numerous holes were observed in that network that derived from 476 the air incorporation during mixing. The starch granules appeared dispersed in the 477 continuous matrix. Again, starch granules were more visible in the sample with lowest 478 protein content (Ficelle Verte, Figure 6B), due to the lower amount of viscoelastic 479 protein material for holding the starch granules. Beyond this stage no structural 480 differences among the different wheat flours were detected. When dough was subjected 481 to heating, protein aggregation followed by denaturation was taking place, however 482 SEM micrographs did not allow to clearly distinguish those changes (Figure 5C, 6C, 483 7C), nevertheless some smooth areas could be detected, which might be consequence of 484 the gel structure of denatured proteins. At this stage no changes in the starch granules 485 were observed, thus no gelatinization was taking place. In C3, where the starch 486 gelatinization was supposed to occur, changes were readily evident in the dough 487 microstructure. Micrographs (Figure 5D, 6D, 7D) showed swollen and slightly 488 elongated starch granules with distorted structure, they adopted flatten microstructure, 489 where a deep longitudinal groove in the middle could be observed in some granules. At that stage, fragments of proteins were scattered over the starch granules surface, 490 491 adopting filamentous shapes. No significant differences were observed among the 492 micrographs of doughs from C3 stage and C4 stage (Figure 5E, 6E, 7E). It seems that 493 the additional changes induced when keeping dough at heating affected more the 494 internal structure of the starch granules, but not the external appearance of the granules.

495 Conversely, after cooling (C5) the microstructure was totally different (Figure 5F, 6F, 496 7F). Starch granules were completely distorted and only few granules could be 497 envisaged in the dough microstructure. Both A-type and B-type granules were longer 498 and presented a higher dispersion of sizes than in flour and dough. Micrographs showed 499 a combination of smooth zones resulted from the starchy gel, with some cavities linked 500 together by filamentous structures.

501

502 The rheological analysis of three different wheat flours by using the Mixolab® device 503 allowed identifying the role of the proteins and the relationship between the protein 504 content and different primary and secondary parameters obtained from the recorded 505 curves. The microstructure analysis using light, polarized and scanning electron 506 microscopy revealed the changes that proteins and starch undergo during mixing, 507 heating and cooling. By polarized and light microscopy it was possible to identify the 508 gelatinization of the starch, whereas the scanning electron microscopy made it possible 509 to observe the three dimensional changes in the wheat dough when subjected to 510 mechanical and thermal constraints. The microstructure techniques did not allow us to 511 draw a firm conclusion on differences in starch structural changes between for example 512 a high vs. lower glutenin wheat flour (GR vs FV). This is plausible, because wheat 513 starch composition of high vs. low protein and glutenin flour can be expected to be 514 similar. Nevertheless, it was possible to observe (Figure 6A, 6B) some differences that 515 are likely to be related to the respective protein content of the flour. It would require a 516 set of wheat flour samples that largely differ in glutenin content to strengthen this 517 finding.

518

519 **Conclusions**

520 The Mixolab instrument can be used to reproducibly prepare mixing and heat processed 521 dough samples for further study. Industrial dough processing is complex, but we did 522 find valuable information by a systematic microscopy study and determining protein 523 extractability of the dough samples. Qualitatively the starch structural changes, swelling 524 and gelatinization observed by microscopic techniques, shows some parallels with 525 protein (and glutenin) content of the respective flour. Nevertheless, this tentative finding 526 needs further confirmation by studying flour samples with a large difference in glutenin 527 content. The Tq values measured during both mild temperature range (30-50°C) and 528 higher temperatures (70-90°C) of the assay, seem to be affected by both starch and 529 protein structural changes. Unexpectedly, the weakest flour (Ficelle Verte) with the 530 least insoluble glutenin, showed the highest rate of heat-induced (30-50°C) insoluble 531 glutenin recovery rate. Our findings indicate that effective protein dispersing and dough 532 consistency are important in determining glutenin aggregation rate during the Mixolab 533 assay. This demonstrated that studying on the meso- and macro level has advantages 534 over studies attempting to find answers on macro-rheological phenomena at the 535 molecular level of SH groups. On basis of protein mass conservation in a dough system 536 we must consider that albumins and globulins have 'co-aggregated' with SDS insoluble 537 glutenin.

538

539 Acknowledgement

Authors acknowledge the financial support of Spanish Scientific Research Council
(CSIC) and the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Sustainability (Project AGL201123802/ALI). RC Altamirano would like to thank predoctoral grant by the CSIC (Spain).
The practical assistance of Mr. A. (Andries) Gort & Mrs A. (Anke) Gort from Gort
Bakery Consultancy (Zwijndrecht, The Netherlands) is also acknowledged.

546 **References**

- 547 Amemiya, J.I., and Menjivar, J.A. 1992. Comparison of small and large deformation
 548 measurements to characterize the rheology of wheat flour doughs. J Food Eng. 16:
 549 91–108.
- Andrews, D. C., Caldwell, R. A., and Quail, K. J. 1995. Sulfhydryl Analysis. II. Free
 sulfhydryl content of heated doughs from two wheat cultivars and effect of
 potassium bromate. Cereal Chem. 72:330-333.
- Bloksma A.H. 1972. The relation between thiol and disulphide contents of dough and
 its rheological properties. Cereal Chem. 49: 104-118
- Bonet, A., Blaszczak, W., and Rosell, C.M. 2006. Formation of homopolymers and
 heteropolymers between wheat flour and several protein sources by
 transglutaminase-catalyzed cross-linking. Cereal Chem. 83:655–662.
- Bushuk, W. 1998. Interactions in wheat dough. In: 'Interactions: The keys to cereal
 quality, (R.J. Hamer and R.C. Hoseny, eds) AACC, St Paul, Minnesota, USA pp.
 1-14.
- 561 Collar, C. 2003. Significance of viscosity profile of pasted and gelled formulated wheat
 562 doughs on bread staling. Eur. Food Res. Technol. 216:505–513.
- 563 Cuq, B., Abecassis, J., and Guilbert, S. 2003. State diagrams to help describe wheat
 564 bread processing. Int. J. Food Sci. Technol. 38:759–766.
- 565 Dhillon, S., Abdel-Aal, E.M., and Seetharaman, K. 2011. Effect of iodine on polymer
 566 leaching and granule swelling of starches from different botanical sources. J.
 567 Cereal Sci. 54:76-82.
- Dobraszczyk, B.J., and Morgenstern, M.P. 2003. Rheology and the breadmaking
 process. J. Cereal Sci. 38:229–245.

- Don, C., Lichtendonk, W.J., Plijter, J.J., and Hamer, R.J. 2003. Understanding the link
 between GMP and dough: from glutenin particles in flour towards developed
 dough. J. Cereal Sci. 38:157-165.
- 573 Don, C., Lichtendonk, W.J., Plijter, J.J., and Hamer, R.J. 2005. The effect of mixing on 574 glutenin particle properties: aggregation factors that affect gluten function in 575 dough. J. Cereal Sci. 41:69-93.
- 576 Don, C., Gluten network formation, dough development and the mechanisms
 577 underlying glutenin particle disruption. In: Proceedings of the 10th International
 578 Gluten Workshop 7-9 Sept 2009, Clermont Ferrand, France
- 579 Ewart, J.A.D. 1968. A hypothesis for the structure and rheology of glutenin. J. Sci.
 580 Food Agric. 19:617-623.
- Graveland, A., Bosveld, P., Lichtendonk, W.J., and Moonen J.H.E., 1982. Extraction
 and fractionation of wheat flour proteins. J. Sci. Food Agric. 33, 1117-1128
- 583 ICC. 2011. International Association of Cereal Chemists. Vienna (Austria). Standard
 584 Method 173.
- Lagrain, B., Wilderjans, E., Glorieux, C., and Delcour, J. A. 2012. Importance of gluten
 and starch for structural and textural properties of crumb from fresh and stored
 bread. Food Biophysics. 7: 173-181.
- Li, M., and Lee, T.C. 1998. Effect of cysteine on the molecular weight distribution and
 the disulfide crosslink of wheat flour proteins in extrudates. J. Agric. Food Chem.
 46:846–853.
- Rojas, J. A., Rosell, C. M., and Benedito, C. 1999. Pasting properties of different wheat
 flour-hydrocolloid systems. Food Hydrocolloids. 13:27–33.

- Rojas, J.A., Rosell, C.M., Benedito, C., Pérez-Munuera, I., and Lluch, M.A. 2000. The
 baking process of wheat rolls followed by cryo scanning electron microscopy.
 Eur. Food Res. Technol. 212:57-63.
- Rosell, C.M., Collar, C., and Haros, M. 2007. Assessment of hydrocolloid effects on the
 thermo-mechanical properties of wheat using the Mixolab®. Food Hydrocolloids.
 21:452–462.
- Rosell, C.M., and Collar, C. 2009. Effect of temperature and consistency on wheat
 dough performance. Int. J. Food Sci. Technol. 44:493–502.
- Rosell, C.M., and Foegeding, A. 2007. Interaction of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose
 with gluten proteins: small deformation properties during thermal treatment. Food
 Hydrocolloids. 21:1092–1100.
- Rosell, C.M. 2011. The Science of doughs and bread quality. In V. R. Preedy, R. R.
 Watson, & V. B. Patel, (Eds.), Flour and breads and their fortification in health
 and disease prevention (pp.3-14). London, Burlington, San Diego: Academic
 Press, Elsevier. ISBN: 9780123808868
- 608 Schofield, J.D., Bottomley, R.C., Timms, M.F., and Booth, M.R. 1983. The effect of
- heat on wheat gluten and the involvement of sulfhydryl-disulfide interchangereactions. J. Cereal Sci. 1:241-253.
- 611 Shewry, P.R., Halford, N.G., and Tatham, A.S. 1992. High molecular weight subunits612 of wheat glutenin. J. Cereal Sci. 15:105-111.
- Sing N.K., Donovan G.R., Batey I.L., MacRitchie F. 1990. Use of sonication and size
 exclusion HPLC in the study of wheat flour proteins. I. Dissolution of total
 proteins in the absence of reducing agents. Cereal Chem 67 (2) 150-161
- 616 Symons, L.J., and Brennan, C.S. 2004. The effect of barley beta-glucan fiber fractions
- on starch gelatinization and pasting characteristics. J. Food Sci. 69: 257-261.

618	Weegels, P.L., van de Pijpekamp, A.M., Graveland, A., Hamer, R.J., and Schofield,
619	J.D. 1996. Depolymerisation and repolymerisation of wheat gluten during dough
620	processing. I. Relationships between GMP content and quality parameters. J.
621	Cereal Sci. 23:103-111.

Weegels, P.L., Hamer, R.J., and Schofield, J.D. 1997. Depolymerisation and
repolymerisation of wheat gluten during dough processing II. Changes in
composition. J. Cereal Sci. 25:155-163.

625

626 FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Schematic plot of a generic Mixolab® curve and points of sampling forprotein extractions and microscopy analysis.

629 **Figure 2.**

630 2a) Relative percentages of SDS insoluble GMP-gel wet-weight from Mixolab® doughs

631 at various mixing stages for flour samples Gruau Rouge, Corde Noir and Ficelle Verte,

taking flour GMP-gel wet weight as 100%.

2b) Relative percentages of SDS soluble protein (SDSS) from Mixolab® doughs at
various mixing stages for flour samples Gruau Rouge, Corde Noir and Ficelle Verte,
taking flour SDSS as 100%.

636 2c) Relative percentages of water-soluble protein (WS) from Mixolab® doughs at

- 637 various mixing stages for flour samples Gruau Rouge, Corde Noir and Ficelle Verte,
- 638 taking flour WS as 100%.
- 639 **2d**) A plot of the general rheological mixing pattern (Torque, Tq) vs sampling points for
- 640 the protein extraction study split in a low Tq section (left) and higer Tq section (right).

Figure 3. Light micrographs of wheat flour (A) and wheat dough (B-F) from Gruau
Rouge. Wheat dough obtained from the Mixolab® at stage C1 (B), C2 (C), C3 (D), C4

643 (E), C5 (F). Starch was stained with lugol. Micrographs magnification 40x.

Figure 4. Polarized micrographs of wheat flour (A) and wheat dough (B-F) from Gruau

- 645 Rouge. Wheat dough obtained from the Mixolab® at stage C1 (B), C2 (C), C3 (D), C4
- 646 (E). Micrographs magnification 40x.
- 647 Figure 5. Scanning electron micrographs of wheat flour (A) and wheat dough (B-F)
- 648 from Gruau Rouge. Wheat dough obtained from the Mixolab® at stage C1 (B), C2 (C),
- 649 C3 (D), C4 (E).
- 650 Figure 6. Scanning electron micrographs of wheat flour (A) and wheat dough (B-F)
- from Ficelle Verte. Wheat dough obtained from the Mixolab® at stage C1 (B), C2 (C),
 C3 (D), C4 (E).
- Figure 7. Scanning electron micrographs of wheat flour (A) and wheat dough (B-F)
 from Corde Noire. Wheat dough obtained from the Mixolab® at stage C1 (B), C2 (C),
 C3 (D), C4 (E).
- 656

658	Table 1. Scheme of sampling performed for protein extractability and microstructure
659	studies (SEM and LM). Dough samples were taken after reaching the Mixolab
660	parameter point and further used for protein or microstructure analysis.

Sample	Mixolab	Description	Protein	SEM and LM	
No.	Parameter		Extractions		
1	C1	Dough peak resistance at 30°C	+	+	
2	C1->C2	Onset of dough weakening	+	-	
3	C1->C2	Further thermo-mechanical weakening	+	-	
4	C2	Dough weakening minimum	+	+	
5	C2->C3	Dough at intermediate stages of thermal	+	-	
6	C3	Dough at the peak of thermal pasting	+	+	
7	C4	Dough viscosity at peak dough	+	+	
8	C5	Dough viscosity increase at cooling	+	+	

665	Table 2.	Wheat	flour	characteristics	and	Mixolab®	parameters	of	three	different
-----	----------	-------	-------	-----------------	-----	----------	------------	----	-------	-----------

666 commercial flours.

	Gruau Rouge		Ficelle Verte		Corde Noire		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Absorption (%)	55.8	0.1	53.0	0.1	54.2	0.1	
Time to C1, min	1.6	0.1	1.0	0.1	1.2	0.1	
C1, Nm	1.13	0.04	1.09	0.03	1.12	0.02	
Stability, min	10.8	0.3	6.3	0.9	6.9	0.7	
C2, Nm	0.55	0.02	0.44	0.01	0.41	0.01	
Time to C2, min	17.4	0.0	17.0	0.1	17.5	0.0	
Temperature at C2, °C	54.8	0.8	53.4	0.7	55.0	0.7	
Initial pasting temperature,							
°C	60.3	0.5	60.7	0.4	62.2	0.6	
C3, Nm	1.96	0.03	2.06	0.02	1.99	0.03	
Time to C3, min	25.0	0.1	26.0	0.1	26.1	0.1	
C4, Nm	1.61	0.03	2.02	0.04	1.93	0.10	
Time to C4, min	31.4	0.1	30.9	0.1	31.9	0.1	
C5, Nm	3.04	0.02	3.01	0.01	2.66	0.04	
Time to C5, min	45.0	0.0	45.0	0.0	45.0	0.0	
Protein weakening range,		0.02	0.55				
C2-C1, Nm	-0.59	0.03	-0.66	0.02	-0.71	0.02	
C3-C2 Nm	1 42	0.02	1.62	0.01	1 58	0.02	
Cooking stability range,	1.72	0.02	1.02	0.01	1.50	0.02	
C4-C3, Nm	-0.34	0.06	-0.04	0.04	-0.05	0.07	
Pasting temperature range,							
°C	25.6	0.9	28.7	1.8	27.8	2.8	
Gelling, C5-C4, Nm	1.42	0.06	1.02	0.01	0.81	0.01	
alpha, Nm/min	-0.091	0.002	-0.068	0.004	-0.078	0.004	
beta, Nm/min	0.518	0.034	0.453	0.033	0.510	0.039	
gamma, Nm/min	-0.204	0.010	-0.015	0.004	-0.017	0.005	
delta, Nm/min	0.115	0.017	0.079	0.004	0.076	0.002	
Tenacity (P), mm	76	5	57	3	60	4	
Extensibility (L), mm	165	8	157	6	155	4	
P/L	0.46	0.03	0.36	0.02	0.39	0.03	
Deformation energy (W),		4.0					
x10 ⁻⁴ J	358	10	212	9	214	8	
Damage starch, %	21.50	0.02	22.80	0.42	23.50	0.32	
Ash, %	1.13	0.00	0.95	0.01	1.00	0.01	
Protein, %	14.90	0.02	9.89	0.08	10.96	0.00	
Carbohydrates, %	69.27	0.08	75.14	0.18	73.23	0.12	

667

668 Mean values within rows were significantly different at P < 0.05

669 Figure 1.



















