

Accepted Manuscript

Optimization of rice bread formulation by mixture design and relationship of bread quality to flour and dough attributes

Jennifer Elizabeth Cajas Locke, Luciana Carla González, Maria Ana Loubes, Marcela Patricia Tolaba



PII: S0023-6438(19)30639-5

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.108299>

Article Number: 108299

Reference: YFSTL 108299

To appear in: *LWT - Food Science and Technology*

Received Date: 15 February 2019

Revised Date: 30 May 2019

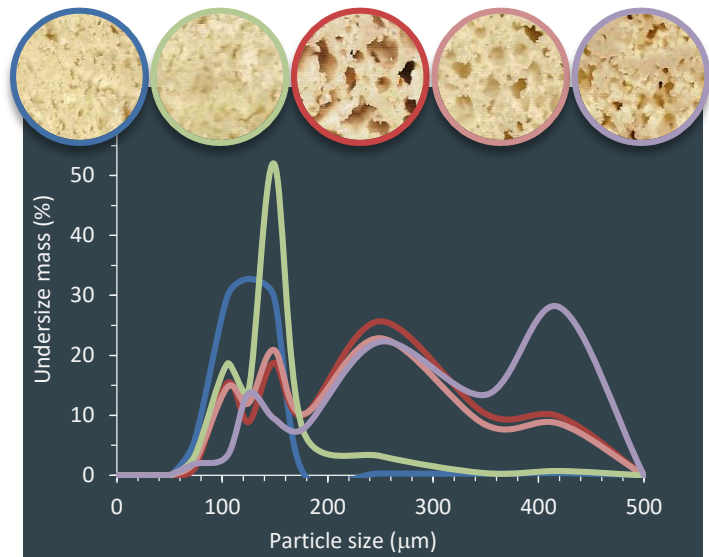
Accepted Date: 21 June 2019

Please cite this article as: Cajas Locke, J.E., González, L.C., Loubes, M.A., Tolaba, M.P., Optimization of rice bread formulation by mixture design and relationship of bread quality to flour and dough attributes, *LWT - Food Science and Technology* (2019), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2019.108299>.

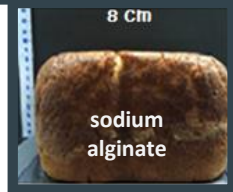
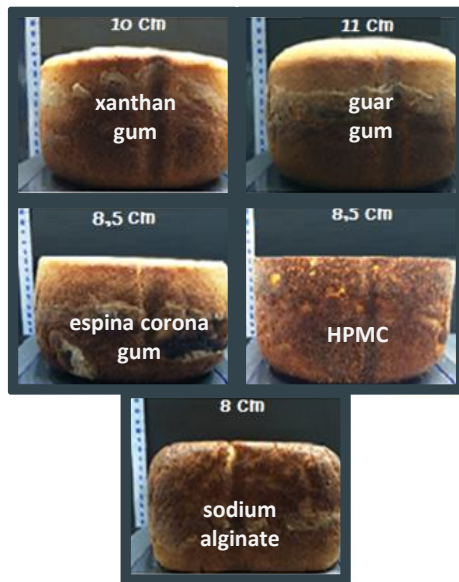
This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Gluten-free bread

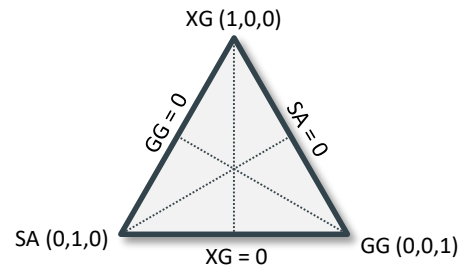
Rice flour selection



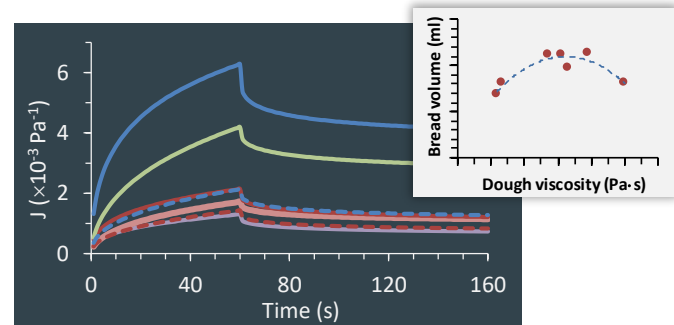
Gluten substitutes selection



Mixture design



Dough rheology



1 **Optimization of rice bread formulation by mixture design and relationship of**
2 **bread quality to flour and dough attributes**

3
4 Jennifer Elizabeth Cajas Locke^{1,2}, Luciana Carla González^{1,2}, Maria Ana Loubes^{1,2},
5 Marcela Patricia Tolaba^{1,2,*}

6
7 ¹ University of Buenos Aires, School of Exact and Natural Sciences, Department of
8 Industries, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

9 ² CONICET - University of Buenos Aires, Institute of Food Technology and Chemical
10 Processes (ITAPROQ), Buenos Aires, Argentina.

11
12 *Corresponding author. Address: Facultad de Ciencias Exactas y Naturales -
13 Universidad de Buenos Aires - Intendente Güiraldes 2160 - Ciudad Universitaria -
14 C1428EGA - Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires - Argentina; Phone/ Fax: 54 11 4576
15 3366; mtolaba@di.fcen.uba.ar¹

16
Abbreviations

GS: gluten substitutes, XG: xanthan gum, GG: guar gum, SA: sodium alginate, HPMC: hydroxypropyl methylcellulose, ECG: espina corona gum, SM: Santa María flour, K: Kapac flour, SP: Señor de Sipan flour, PG: partially gelatinized flour, TG: totally gelatinized flour, D50: median diameter, DI: dispersion index, ΔH : gelatinization enthalpy, WAI: water absorption index, WSI: water solubility index, SWP: swelling power, BV: bread volume, CAF: cell area fraction, MCA: mean cell area, CD: cell density, TPA: texture profile analysis, LVR: linear viscoelastic region.

17 **Abstract**

18 The bread making aptitude of five rice flours (native and gelatinized) and five gluten
19 substitutes (GS) were prior tested and the best ingredients for mixture design were set.
20 Native flour with a wide distribution of particle size, xanthan gum (XG), guar gum
21 (GG) and sodium alginate (SA) were selected due to their good performance. The effect
22 of formulation on bread volume (BV), cell area fraction (CAF) of breadcrumb and
23 dough rheology was determined by using a simplex centroid mixture design with
24 constrain (2.1 g of GS/100 g of flour). A significant effect of formulation on
25 viscoelasticity of dough was observed. A non-linear relationship between BV and
26 dough viscosity was found with maximum BV at 60000 Pa·s. The optimum formulation,
27 from XG to GG mass ratio of 0.71, yields maximum values of BV (4.07 ml/g of flour)
28 and CAF (29%); optimum bread presented good textural attributes and a slightly toasted
29 crust.

31 **Keywords:** gluten substitute, image analysis, gas cells, baking quality

33 **1. Introduction**

34
35 The increasing demand of gluten free food has favored the development of rice-based
36 products. Rice is preferred by its hypoallergenic character, high content of easily
37 digestible carbohydrates and low sodium and prolamin contents (Gujral & Rosell,
38 2004).

39 In contrast with wheat bread, rice bread production requires the addition of
40 hydrocolloids with ability to form viscoelastic dough to emulate the gluten functionality
41 (Kohlwey, Kendall, & Mohindra, 1995). Hydrocolloids contribute with gas retention

42 during fermentation and cooking, playing a key role to set dough structure and bread
43 texture.

44 Gluten has been replaced by gums, hydrocolloids (agar; CMC; HPMC; among others)
45 and enzymes such as amylases, proteases or hemicellulases (Molina-Rosell, 2013;
46 Gujral & Rosell, 2004). For rice bread, XG and HPMC have been proposed as GS
47 because of their beneficial effect on BV although its use makes the product more
48 expensive (Rosell & Marco, 2008).

49 Mixture design is frequently applied to optimize bread formulation (Yilmaz, Yildiz,
50 Yurt, Toker, & Baştürk, 2015). The influence of flour particle size, on rice bread quality
51 (de la Hera, Martinez, & Gómez, 2013; Sánchez, González, Osella, Torres, & de la
52 Torre, 2008) as well as the effect of bread formulation on bread quality and dough
53 rheology (Tao, Xiao, Wu, & Xu, 2018; Witczak, Korus, Ziobro, & Juszczak, 2019) have
54 been studied. Oscillatory tests such as creep-recovery essays have been successfully
55 applied to investigate the rheological behavior of dough and its relationship with quality
56 attributes of bread. However, the information concerning to the viscoelastic properties
57 of gluten free dough and the correlations between bread quality and rheological
58 parameters is quite limited (Lazaridou, Duta, Papageorgiou, Belc, & Biliaderis, 2007).

59 Several studies of gluten free bread using combinations of corn, rice, buckwheat or
60 Andean cereals flours have been published (Hager & Arendt, 2013; Machado Alencar,
61 Steel, Alvim, de Moraes & Bolini, 2015). However, the present study is focused on rice
62 based bread from Argentinean rice varieties. Several local rice flours were evaluated in
63 order to select the most suitable one.

64 The aim of the present work was first to evaluate the bread making aptitude of five rice
65 flours (native and gelatinized) and five GS in order to select the best ingredients (flour
66 and three GS) for mixture design. BV and quality of breadcrumb were evaluated. In a

67 second step the effect of the ratio of three GS on BV, CAF, cell density and viscoelastic
68 behavior of dough were determined by means of simplex centroid mixture design with
69 constrain (2.1 g of GS/100 g of flour). Bread crust color, moisture content and texture
70 profile analysis (TPA) of breadcrumb were measured to characterize the optimal bread.
71 Relationship among viscoelastic parameters of dough and bread quality was also
72 investigated.

73

74 **2. Materials and methods**

75

76 **2.1. Materials**

77

78 Three Argentinean commercial rice flours were tested: SM flour (Santa María, Ana
79 Hernández Productos Alimenticios SRL), K flour (Kapac, Alimentos Específicos S.A.)
80 and SP flour (Señor de Sipan, Productos libres de gluten SRL). Partially gelatinized
81 flour (PG) was obtained by high impact milling (Loubes & Tolaba, 2014). Parboiled
82 rice (Molinos Río de la Plata, Argentina) was milling 1 min using a knife mill to obtain
83 totally gelatinized flour (TG). Table 1 summarizes the proximate composition of flours
84 (AOAC, 2000) including amylose content (Morrison & Laignelet, 1983).

85 SA and HPMC (Sigma-Aldrich, USA), XG and GG (Doña Clara, Argentina), espina
86 corona gum (Ideasupply Argentina S.A., Argentina) were used as GS. Bread ingredients
87 (cassava starch, milk powder, egg powder, salt, sugar, dry yeast, sunflower oil) were
88 purchased at a local market (Doña Clara, Argentina).

89

90 **2.2. Flour characterization**

91

92 Flour sample (200 g) was sieved through a set of sieves (ASTM N°: 35, 40, 45, 60, 80,
93 100, 120, 140, 200, 270, 325, ASTM Standard, USA). Median diameter (D50) and
94 dispersion index ($DI=(D90-D10)/D50$) based on mass fractions were reported.

95 Gelatinization temperature and enthalpy (ΔH) were measured in a calorimeter (DSC 822
96 Mettler Toledo, Switzerland) following the procedure of Loubes & Tolaba (2014).

97 Hydration properties were determined at 30°C: WAI (water absorption index) by the
98 method of Chiang & Yeh (2002), SWP (swelling power) and WSI (water solubility
99 index) following the procedure of Loubes & Tolaba (2014). All reported values were
100 the average from three replicates.

101

102 **2.3. Bread making**

103

104 Bread formulation involved: rice flour (384 g), cassava starch (16 g), milk powder (84
105 g), sugar (12 g), egg powder (10 g), salt (8 g), dry yeast (8 g), GS (8 g), bi-distilled
106 water (448 g) and sunflower oil (40 ml). Production steps using an electric bread oven
107 (ATMA HP 4040, Argentina) were: mixing (31 rpm, 25 min), fermentation (25 °C-20
108 min, 32 °C-25 min and 38 °C-45 min) and cooking (121 °C-65 min). Bread was then
109 cooled (60 min, room temperature) and stored (4°C) in plastic bags until further
110 analysis.

111

112 **2.4. Bread quality**

113

114 BV was determined by seed displacement (Sánchez et al., 2008). Breadcrumble quality
115 was set by image analysis (Pongjaruvat Methacanon, Seetapan, Fuongfuchat, &
116 Gamonpilas, 2014). Digital images acquired with a multifunction printer (HP PSC

117 1610, Brazil) were analyzed by using ImageJ software (v. 1.42q, National Institutes of
118 Health, USA). The average values of BV, cell area fraction (CAF), mean cell area
119 (MCA) and cell density (CD) from at least five replicates were reported.

120

121 2.5. Mixture design

122

123 A simplex centroid design with constrain was applied to analyze the effect GS (2.1 g of
124 GS/100 g of flour) on bread attributes. Each response (Y), was modeled as function of
125 codified factors (x_i, x_j, x_k) by means of the equation (Scheffé, 1958):

126

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^3 \beta_i x_i + \sum_{i<j}^3 \beta_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i<j<k}^3 \beta_{ijk} x_i x_j x_k \quad (1)$$

127

128 where β_i represents the effect of each component, β_{ij} and β_{ijk} the interaction effects
129 between components i and j and k . A linear relationship between the amount of GS and
130 each coded factor was adopted.

131

132 2.6. Dough rheology

133

134 Oscillatory tests were performed at 25°C by duplicate in a controlled-stress rheometer
135 Paar Physica, model MCR 300 (Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) which is provided with two
136 parallel plates (3 cm of diameter, gap = 1 cm) and a Peltier cell. Dough sample (10 g),
137 without yeast, was placed between the plates, then the edges of the sample were sealed
138 using silicone oil (viscosity: 290-310 mPa·s).

139 Linear viscoelastic region (LVR) was set from deformation sweep (0.1-100%) at
 140 constant frequency (1 Hz). Frequency sweep (1-100 Hz) was performed at 1%
 141 deformation within LVR. Viscoelastic modulus (G' and G'' , Pa) and damping factor
 142 ($\tan \delta = G''/G'$) were recorded as function of frequency. Creep-recovery test involved a
 143 first step at constant stress (10 Pa) within the LVR during 60 s to complete the creep
 144 stage. Then the stress was removed and the recovery step began and continued for 100 s
 145 while the compliance (J , Pa⁻¹) was recorded as function of time (t). J was modeled
 146 during creep (Eq. 2) and recovery (Eq. 3) phases by Burger's model (Burger, 1935):

147

$$148 \quad J_c(t) = J_0 + J_m [1 - \exp(-t/\lambda)] + t/\mu_0 \quad (2)$$

$$149 \quad J_r(t) = J_{max} - J_0 - J_m [1 - \exp(-t/\lambda)] \quad (3)$$

150

151 Where J_c and J_r are compliances during creep and recovery, respectively; J_0 , J_m and J_{max}
 152 represent the instantaneous, viscoelastic, and maximum creep compliance, respectively;
 153 λ is the retardation time and μ_0 is the steady state viscosity.

154

155 2.7. Optimal bread characterization

156

157 Bread crust color was measured with a Minolta photo-colorimeter (Minolta CM-508d,
 158 Tokyo, Japan) using the D illuminant. CIE L*a*b* and CIE L*C*h coordinates were
 159 measurements in eight random positions and their average value were reported.
 160 Moisture content of breadcrumb was determined by triplicate using 44-15 AACC
 161 method (AACC, 2000). TPA of breadcrumb was performed in a universal texture
 162 machine (Instron 3345, USA). A cylinder of breadcrumb (diameter: 30 mm; thickness:
 163 20 mm) was compressed at 1 mm/s up to 50% using a cylindrical probe (diameter: 3.5

164 mm). After 10 s the procedure was repeated. Hardness, adhesiveness, cohesiveness and
165 elasticity were obtained through the device's software and the average of 25 replicates
166 was reported.

167

168 **2.8. Statistical analysis**

169

170 Statistical analyses of single ANOVA and Fisher test (LSD) were performed with a
171 confidence level of 95%. Multivariate analysis (Pearson's matrix) was applied to detect
172 correlations between product attributes. Statistical tests and mixture design were made
173 by using Statgraphics software Centurion version XVI (Statistical graphics Corporation,
174 USA).

175

176 **3. Results and Discussion**

177

178 **3.1. Flour properties**

179 Particle size, gelatinization and hydration properties are shown in Table 2. Particle size
180 of K and SP flours were similar with peaks at 105 μm , 150 μm , 250 μm and 420 μm
181 (data in Supplementary Material 1). Gelatinized flour (TG) presented peaks at 250 μm ,
182 420 μm , and 125 μm . In contrast, flour SM presented a mono modal distribution (peak
183 at 125 μm) while PG flour had a bimodal distribution (peaks at 149 μm and 53 μm). SM
184 and PG presented lower granulometry and DI in comparison with the others. As the
185 particle size distribution strongly influences the behavior of dough and sets the bread
186 quality (Sánchez et al., 2008), these evaluations are relevant, and they showed the
187 diversity of rice flour granulometry in the local market.

188 In accordance with the study of Iturriaga, Lopez, & Añon (2004) for long grain rice
189 varieties cultivated in Argentina, peak temperatures between 65 °C and 69 °C were here
190 obtained. Different gelatinization degrees were observed: 78% (PG), 100% (TG) and
191 0% (SM, SP, K). Gelatinized flours showed higher values of hydration properties in
192 comparison with native flours (Table 2). Particularly, PG doubled the values of SWP
193 respect to K and SP native flours. In general, hydration increased as particle size
194 decreased; a similar correspondence was also observed by de la Hera et al. (2013).
195 It must be noted that significant correlations were found: D50-WAI ($r = -0.70$, $p <$
196 0.05), D50-WSI ($r = -0.82$, $p < 0.01$), WAI- ΔH ($r = -0.83$, $p < 0.01$) and WSI- ΔH ($r = -$
197 0.68 , $p < 0.05$). These results evidenced an increase of WAI and WSI as well as a
198 decrease of ΔH with decreasing values of D50. In other words, rice flours with fine
199 granulometry exhibit pre-gelatinized character, high hydration capacity and high
200 solubility.

201

202 3.2. Flour selection

203

204 The selection was based on the effect of flour particle size on bread quality. The aim
205 was to maximize BV and CAF. Breads were made with XG (procedure in section 2.3).
206 The highest volume was obtained with K flour (1304 ± 48 ml) followed by SP flour
207 (1332 ± 67 ml). BV of 1098 ± 55 ml (SM flour) and 1037 ± 52 ml (PG flour) were
208 obtained while TG flour produced the lowest BV (unacceptable). A significant
209 correlation BV-DI ($r = 0.98$; $p < 0.05$) was found; high values of DI favored BV. The
210 same conclusion was also obtained by Sánchez, González, Osella, Torres, & de la Torre,
211 (1999) and Martínez (2012) who produced rice-based bread.

212 Bread slices used to determine CAF by image analysis are shown in Fig. 1. K flour
213 exhibited the highest CAF ($26 \pm 1.5\%$) followed by SP ($19.4 \pm 1.5\%$), SM ($8.1 \pm 0.4\%$)
214 and PG ($8.1 \pm 1.3\%$). A significant correlation D50-CAF ($r = 0.95$, $p < 0.05$) was found.
215 As K flour (DI=1.37 and a multimodal particle size distribution: 105-420 μm) provided
216 the best performance, it was selected for the optimization of bread formulation (section
217 3.4).

218

219 **3.3. Selection of gluten substitutes**

220 The effects of GS on BV and breadcrumb quality were determined (Table 3). Breads
221 were made with K flour and a fixed amount (8 g) of each GS (section 2.3).

222 GG produced the highest volume followed by XG. The difference between them can be
223 attributed to the higher dough viscosity obtained with XG, due to its molecular structure
224 and higher molecular weight (2000 kDa). XG is a polysaccharide containing d-glucose,
225 d-mannose, and d-glucuronic acid as building blocks in a molecular ratio of 3:3:2 with a
226 high number of trisaccharide side chains. On the other hand, GG is a galactomannan
227 with a lower molecular weight of 300 kDa, it has a mannose backbone with galactose
228 side chains (mannose to galactose molar ratio of 1.8). Breads elaborated with SA or
229 HPMC presented, in contrast, the lowest BV.

230 XG produced the highest CAF followed by SA and GG. Particularly, SA produced the
231 highest mean CA ($1.63 \text{ mm}^2/\text{cell}$) with a CD similar to that of GG. The presence of gas
232 cell uniformly distributed has been associated to the structure stability after shaking,
233 which could be favored by a high viscosity of the mixture (Hager & Arendt, 2013). XG
234 and GG provided good volume while SA produced well-sized cell. Therefore, they were
235 chosen to optimize bread formulations (section 3.4).

236

237 **3.4. Bread formulations**

238

239 The effects of bread formulation (based on K flour, XG, GG and SA), on bread
240 attributes were determined (Table 4). The combination of gums presented the highest
241 BV but similar values were also obtained with XG-GG-SA and XG-SA formulations. In
242 contrast, SA provoked a significant reduction ($p < 0.05$) in BV (28%) in comparison
243 with XG-GG combination. The specific volume of bread here obtained (1.3-1.8 ml/g)
244 was lower than that reported (3.6-4.3 ml/g) by Aoki, Umemoto, Okamoto, Suzuki, &
245 Tanaka, (2015), who used twice the amount of GS in comparison with the present work.
246 All bread slices presented an acceptable appearance (Figure 2). Wide ranges of CD (6.8-
247 21.7 cells/cm²), MCA (1.2-2.79 mm²/cell) and CAF (18.4-29.7%) were obtained (Table
248 4). XG produced, in comparison with others substitutes, higher CD which means a more
249 compact breadcrumb (Fig. 2). In contrast, XG-GG mixture and ternary mixture
250 provided the highest values of MCA favoring a greater porosity of breadcrumb (Fig. 2).
251 The CD obtained with GG was similar to that informed by Ziobro, Korus, Witczak, &
252 Juszczak (2012) for bread based on corn and potato starches. CD here obtained were
253 lower than those reported (42-61 cells/cm²) by Machado et al. (2015) for rice bread
254 enriched with 20% of quinoa or amaranth flour. The interaction between mixture
255 components is enhanced by adding a protein flour obtaining a more compact porosity.

256

257 **3.5. Mixture design analysis**

258

259 The effect of GS on BV and CAF was satisfactorily simulated by means of Eq. 1. All
260 GS had significant effects ($p < 0.05$) on bread quality; the interaction effect between
261 gums was significant. A quadratic model was adequate ($R^2 = 0.945$) to simulate BV as

262 function of GS (Fig. 3.a) while a cubic expression was required to satisfactorily ($R^2 =$
263 0.997) model CAF (Fig. 3.b). A synergic effect among gums in the absence of SA was
264 detected from the optimization analysis. Maximum values of BV (1645 ml) and CAF
265 (30.1%) were obtained by using XG to GG mass ratios of 0.71 and 1.7, respectively. In
266 contrast, the lowest BV (1169 ml) was obtained in the absence of gums, with the
267 maximum concentration of SA. Synergistic interaction between polysaccharides has
268 been attributed to cross linking capacity of polymer's chains, which has a favorable
269 impact on textural properties of bread (Wang, Wang, & Sun, 2002). The synergistic
270 effect among gums has been explained based on the interaction of the exposed mannose
271 segments in the backbone of the guar gum macromolecule with single-helical portions
272 of xanthan molecules to form a complex which yield a three-dimensional network and
273 gel.

274 Bread quality obtained in the present work is comparable to that informed by Lazaridou
275 et al. (2007), who used a combination of several functional ingredients (XG, pectin,
276 agarose, β -glucan, CMC) to reach good BV and texture in rice bread.

277 Multiple optimization analysis was also performed to maximize BV and CAF
278 simultaneously. It was found a desirability of 0.95 for XG to GG mass ratios of 0.713
279 (without SA). To validate the model, bread was elaborated with this optimum mixture
280 obtaining 1563 ml of BV and 29% of CAF, in accordance with the predicted values (Eq.
281 1).

282

283 **3.5.1. Characterization of optimum bread**

284

285 Optimum bread presented a slight toasted crust (L^* : 24.53 ± 0.78 ; a^* : 17.72 ± 0.25 ; b^* :
286 25.51 ± 0.71) and a breadcrumb with a moisture content of $53.25 \pm 1.04\%$ (db).

287 Browning of bread crust, produced by Maillard reaction and influenced by the presence
288 of reducing sugars and amino acids (Kent & Evers, 1994), is a desirable attribute in rice
289 breads which present higher luminosity in comparison with wheat breads (Gallagher &
290 Gormley, 2002). Optimum bread had values of chroma ($C^* = 31.07 \pm 0.69$), hue ($h =$
291 55.16 ± 0.51) and moisture content similar to those reported in the literature for gluten
292 free breads (Martínez, 2012; Ronda, Perez-Quirce, Lazaridou, & Biliaderis, 2015).
293 Hardness (20.96 ± 0.85 N), elasticity (0.81 ± 0.01), cohesiveness (0.29 ± 0.01),
294 gumminess (6.01 ± 0.28), chewiness (4.89 ± 0.24) and adhesiveness (not detected) of
295 the optimal bread, reflect a good quality bread considering literature reports (Ronda et
296 al., 2015; Machado et al., 2015; Ziobro et al., 2012).

297

298 **3.6. Rheological behavior of dough**

299

300 **3.6.1. Frequency sweep tests**

301

302 LVR was prior tested. XG presented a more extended LVR (0.1 to 8.3%) in comparison
303 with GG (1-5.2%) or SA (1-4.7%). The highest LVR were obtained for binary (0.1-
304 8.0%) and ternary (1-17.8%) mixtures due to synergic effect among GS. These results
305 were similar to those reported by Lazaridou et al. (2007) and Sivaramakrishnan, Senge,
306 & Chattopadhyay (2004) for dough to make gluten-free bread.

307 Frequency sweep is shown in Fig. 4. G' was independent of frequency within 1 to 50
308 Hz. All mechanical spectra revealed that the elastic character ($G' > G''$) prevails up to a
309 frequency value which was dependent of bread formulation. For XG and GG it was up
310 to 70 Hz while for XG-GG was up to 92 Hz. These results are in accordance with
311 literature reports (Sivaramakrishnan et al., 2004; Gujral & Rosell, 2004). SA produced

312 in contrast a viscous character from 26 Hz with a significant reduction of viscoelastic
313 modulus (788 Pa), at $\tan \delta = 1$, in comparison with those of gums ($G' = G'' = 6840$ -
314 8890 Pa). The distinctive rheological behavior of different formulations reflects the
315 specific interactions rice flour-GS and GS-GS. As regard the interactions between
316 hydrocolloids, it must be mentioned the synergic effect among XG and GG (which was
317 previously explained) and the ternary interaction between SA and the complex formed
318 by GG and XG. Harding, Smith, Lawson, Gahler, & Wood (2011) who studied the
319 macromolecular interactions in ternary mixtures of hydrocolloids, have hypothesized
320 that a complex of two polysaccharides was required to promote non-covalent
321 interactions between SA and the complex of gums.

322

323 **3.6.2. Creep-recovery tests**

324

325 The significant effect of bread formulation on creep-recovery tests and the viscoelastic
326 character of dough can be appreciated in Fig. 5. XG showed the highest resistance to
327 deformation followed by XG-GG. In contrast, SA and SA-GG produced the maximum
328 values of dough strain and residual deformation at the end of creep and recovery phases.
329 Residual deformation reflects the magnitude of the viscous component. High values are
330 associated to low capacity of gas retention and its unfavorable effect on BV (Table 4).

331 XG due to its rigid, ordered chain conformation, shows high viscosity values at low
332 shear rates favoring dough elasticity and the increase of BV (Lazaridou et al., 2007).

333 Compliance was satisfactorily simulated ($R^2 > 0.99$) by Burger's model (Eq. 2 and 3).
334 As shows in Table 5, all compliance values in creep phase (J_0, J_m) were higher in
335 comparison with those of XG while viscosities (μ_0) were lower than that of XG. These
336 results were comparable to those reported by Lazaridou et al. (2007) for dough to

337 produce gluten-free bread. Dough involved in pasta production shows in contrast lower
338 values of compliances (Sozer, 2009). This is due to the higher value of shear stress (τ
339 750 Pa) applied in pasta evaluation in comparison with the present work (10 Pa).

340 For creep phase the relative contributions of instantaneous compliance ($J_0/(J_0+J_m)$) and
341 average compliance ($J_m/(J_0+J_m)$) were within 16-29% and 71-84% respectively. Values
342 of mean retardation time (λ) were, in general, slightly higher than that of XG
343 formulation. The differences in the viscoelastic behavior can be interpreted in terms of
344 the differences in the stretching of the associative network, which is set by non-covalent
345 intermolecular bonds between starch and GS (Edwards, Peressini, Dexter, & Mulvaney,
346 2001). For recovery phase, the relative elastic contribution ($(J_0+J_m)/J_{max}$) was maximum
347 for XG formulation (43.4%) while for GG-SA formulation was minimum (30.1%).
348 Viscous character prevailed at the end of recovery phase for all samples tested. In
349 addition, the retardation times increased significantly (between 18.3 s and 21.9 s) in
350 comparison with those of the creep phase, due to the molecular stretching to which the
351 components of the mixture are subjected during creep. An increase of retardation time
352 during recovery phase, but of smaller magnitude (7 s), was also observed by Hernández-
353 Estrada, Rayas-Duarte, Figueroa, & Morales-Sánchez (2014) in wheat-based dough.

354 The influence of GS is related to its molecular structure and the conformation of the
355 polysaccharide chains, which determine the possible cross-linking between polymer
356 chains and mixture components.

357 Among all the substitutes studied, the XG exhibits the lowest compliance (J_m) and the
358 highest steady state viscosity (μ_0). Viscoelastic behavior of dough from XG formulation
359 is explained by the well-known ability of this gum to form a weak gel, as well as to
360 provide high viscosity at low shear rate, due to the rigid conformation of its chains
361 (Doublier & Cuvelier, 1996).

362

363 **3.7. Relationship between dough and bread attributes**

364

365 The non-linear relationship between BV and dough viscosity (Fig. 6) was satisfactorily
366 simulated ($R^2 = 0.87$) by a quadratic equation. BV increased with the increase of dough
367 viscosity up to 60000 Pa.s (critical value); a further increase of viscosity had a negative
368 effect on volume. Gas retention capacity of dough was optimum at critical viscosity,
369 favoring the production of high values of CD and MCA during baking. Similar
370 relationship BV - dough viscosity were found by Ronda et al. (2015) who elaborated
371 gluten free rice bread with the addition of β -glucans from oat and barley. The
372 relationship here presented can be useful to predict the aptitude of dough to produce
373 good quality bread.

374

375 **4. Conclusions**

376

377 The effect of flour granulometry on bread quality was significant. Multimodal particle
378 size distribution and high dispersion index led to good values of bread volume and gas
379 cells. Due to its positive effect on bread quality: XG, GG and SA were selected to
380 perform the mixture design. A differentiated viscoelastic behavior of dough could be
381 observed from different formulations. Rheological tests evidenced the synergic effects
382 between gums. SA produced low gas retention capacity of dough. In contrast, dough
383 samples elaborated with xanthan gum or combination of gums showed the highest
384 volume and dough resistance. The rheological behavior during creep-recovery test was
385 satisfactorily modeled by Burger's model. The steady state viscosity of dough was

386 related to bread quality. Maximum bread volume was obtained from dough with 60000
387 Pa·s of viscosity.

388 Bread formulation was satisfactorily optimized by mixture design. Bread volume and
389 CAF were significantly enhanced by addition of guar gum and xanthan gum to the
390 formulation. Optimum bread presented desirable attributes in terms of crust color,
391 texture profile and moisture content of the breadcrumb.

392

393 **5. Acknowledgments**

394

395 The authors acknowledge the financial support from Buenos Aires University and
396 National Council of Scientific Research of Argentina. This work has been funded by
397 PME-2006-01685 and UBACYT (Project UBACYT 20020170100367BA).

398

399 **6. References**

400

401 AACC (2000). *Approved methods of the American Association of Cereal Chemists*
402 (10th ed.). St Paul, Minnesota: American Association of Cereal Chemists.

403

404 Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AOAC). (1995). *Official methods of*
405 *analysis* (16th ed.). Washington, D.C: Association of Official Analytical Chemists.

406

407 Aoki, N., Umemoto, T., Okamoto, K., Suzuki, Y., & Tanaka, J. (2015). Mutants that
408 have shorter amylopectin chains are promising materials for slow-hardening rice bread.
409 *Journal of Cereal Science*, 61, 105-110.

410

- 411 Burger, J. M. (1935). *First report on viscosity and plasticity*. Nueva York: Nordemann
412 publishing company.
413
- 414 Chiang, P.Y., & Yeh, A.I. (2002). Effect of Soaking on Wet-milling of Rice. *Journal of*
415 *Cereal Science*, 35, 85-94.
416
- 417 Cornejo, F., & Rosell, C.M. (2015). Physicochemical properties of long rice grain
418 varieties in relation to gluten free bread quality. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*,
419 62, 1203-1210.
420
- 421 De la Hera, E., Martinez, M., & Gómez, M. (2013). Influence of flour particle size on
422 quality of gluten-free rice bread. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 54(1), 199-206.
423
- 424 Doublier, J.L., & Cuvelier, G. (1996). Gums and Hydrocolloids: Functional Aspects. In
425 A.C., Eliasson (Ed), *Carbohydrates in Food* (pp. 283-318). New York: Marcel Dekker
426 Inc.
427
- 428 Edwards, N.M., Peressini, D., Dexter, J.E., & Mulvaney, S.J. (2001). Viscoelastic
429 properties of durum wheat and common wheat dough of different strengths. *Rheologica*
430 *Acta*, 40, 142-153.
431
- 432 Gallagher, E., & Gormley, T.R. (2002). *The quality of gluten free breads produced at*
433 *retail outlets*. Research Report. Dublin: Teagasc, The National Food Center.
434

- 435 Gujral, H.S., & Rosell, C.M. (2004). Improvement of the breadmaking quality of rice
436 flour by glucose oxidase. *Food Research International*, 37, 75-81.
437
- 438 Hager, A.S., & Arendt, E.K. (2013). Influence of hydroxypropylmethylcellulose
439 (HPMC), xanthan gum and their combination on loaf specific volume, crumb hardness
440 and crumb grain characteristics of gluten-free breads based on rice, maize, teff and
441 buckwheat. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 32(1), 195-203.
442
- 443 Harding, S.E., Smith, I.H. Lawson, C.J., Gahler, R.J., & Wood, S. (2011). Studies on
444 macromolecular interactions in ternary mixtures of konjac glucomannan, xanthan gum
445 and sodium alginate. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 83(2), 329-338.
446
- 447 Hernández-Estrada, Z.J., Rayas-Duarte, P., Figueroa, J.D.C., & Morales-Sánchez, E.
448 (2014). Creep recovery tests to measure the effects of wheat glutenins on doughs and
449 the relationships to rheological and breadmaking properties. *Journal of Food*
450 *Engineering*, 143, 62-68.
451
- 452 Iturriaga, L., Lopez, B., & Añon, M. (2004). Thermal and physicochemical
453 characterization of seven argentine rice flours and starches. *Food Research*
454 *International*, 37(5), 439-447.
455
- 456 Kent, N.L., & Evers, A.D. (1994). Bread made with gluten substitutes. *Technology of*
457 *cereals*, 215.
458

- 459 Kohlwey, D.E., Kendall, J.H., & Mohindra, R.B. (1995). Using the physical properties
460 of rice as a guide to formulation. *Cereal Food World*, 40(10), 728-732.
461
- 462 Lazaridou, A., Duta, D., Papageorgiou, M., Belc, N., & Biliaderis, C.G. (2007). Effects
463 of hydrocolloids on dough rheology and bread quality parameters in gluten-free
464 formulations. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 79, 1033-1047.
465
- 466 Loubes, M.A., & Tolaba, M.P. (2014). Thermo-mechanical rice flour modification by
467 planetary ball milling. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 57(1), 320-328.
468
- 469 Machado Alencar, N.M., Steel, C.J., Alvim, I.D., de Moraes, E.C., & Bolini, H.M.A.
470 (2015). Addition of quinoa and amaranth flour in gluten-free breads: Temporal profile
471 and instrumental analysis. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 62(2), 1011-1018.
472
- 473 Magaña, E.M., Ramírez, B., Torres, P.I., Sánchez, D.I., & López, J. (2011). Efecto del
474 contenido de proteína, grasa y levadura en las propiedades viscoelásticas de la masa y la
475 calidad de pan tipo francés. *Ciencia y tecnología de América o Interciencia*, 36(4), 248-
476 255.
477
- 478 Martínez, M. (2012). *Influencia de la adición de harinas extruídas en la elaboración de*
479 *panes de arroz* (Master's Thesis). Universidad de Valladolid, Soria, España.
480
- 481 Molina-Rosell, C. (2013). Alimentos sin gluten derivados de cereales. In L., Rodrigo,
482 A.S., Peña (Eds.), *Enfermedad celíaca y sensibilidad al gluten no celíaca* (pp. 447-461).
483 España: Omnia Publisher.

484

485 Morrison, W.R., & Laignelet, B. (1983). An improved colorimetric procedure for
486 determining apparent and total amylose in cereal and other starches. *Journal of Cereal*
487 *Science*, 1, 9-20.

488

489 Pongjaruvat, W., Methacanon, P., Seetapan, N., Fuongfuchat, A., & Gamonpilas, C.
490 (2014). Influence of pregelatinized tapioca starch and transglutaminase on dough
491 rheology and quality of gluten-free jasmine rice breads. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 36, 143-
492 150.

493

494 Ronda, F., Perez-Quirce, S., Lazaridou, A., & Biliaderis, C. (2015). Effect of barley and
495 oat β -glucan concentrates on gluten-free ricebased doughs and bread characteristics.
496 *Food Hydrocolloids*, 48, 197-207.

497

498 Rosell, M., & Marco, C. (2008). Rice. In E.K., Arendt, F., Dal Bello (Eds.), *Gluten -*
499 *Free Cereal Products and Beverages* (pp. 81-96). Cambridge: Academic Press.

500

501 Sánchez, H.D., González, R.J., Osella, C.A., Torres, R.L., & de la Torre, M.A.G.
502 (1999). Comportamiento de variedades de arroz en la elaboración de pan sin gluten.
503 *Archivos Latinoamericanos de Nutrición*, 49(1), 162-165.

504

505 Sánchez, H.D., González, R.J., Osella, C.A., Torres, R.L., & de la Torre, M.A.G.
506 (2008). Elaboración de pan sin gluten con harinas de arroz extrudidas. *Ciencia y*
507 *Tecnología Alimentaria*, 6(2), 109-116.

508

- 509 Scheffé, H. (1958). Experiments with mixtures. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*
510 *B*, 20, 344-360.
- 511
- 512 Sivaramakrishnan, H.P., Senge, B., & Chattopadhyay, P.K. (2004). Rheological
513 properties of rice dough for making rice bread. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 62, 37-45.
- 514
- 515 Sozer, N. (2009). Rheological properties of rice pasta dough supplemented with
516 proteins and gums. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 23, 849-855.
- 517
- 518 Yilmaz, M.T., Yildiz, Ö., Yurt, B., Toker, O.S., & Baştürk, A. (2015). A mixture design
519 study to determine interaction effects of wheat, buckwheat, and rice flours in an
520 aqueous model system. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, 61(2), 583-589.
- 521
- 522 Tao, H., Xiao, Y., Wu, F., & Xu, X. (2018). Optimization of additives and their
523 combination to improve the quality of refrigerated dough. *LWT - Food Science and*
524 *Technology*, 89, 482-488.
- 525
- 526 Wang, F., Wang, Y.J., & Sun, Z. (2002). Conformational role of xanthan gum in its
527 interaction with guar gum. *Food Chemistry and Toxicology*, 67(9), 3289-3294.
- 528
- 529 Witczak, M., Korus, J., Ziobro, R., & Juszczak, L. (2019). Waxy starch
530 as dough component and anti-staling agent in gluten-free bread. *LWT - Food Science*
531 *and Technology*, 99, 476-482.
- 532

533 Ziobro, R., Korus, J., Witczak, M., & Juszczak, L. (2012). Influence of modified
534 starches on properties of gluten-free dough and bread. Part II: Quality and staling of
535 gluten-free bread. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 29, 68-74.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

536 **Figure captions**

537

538 **Fig. 1.** Cross-section of pan breads made from different rice flours. SM: Santa María
539 flour, K: Kapac flour, SP: Señor de Sipan flour, PG: Partially gelatinized flour.

540

541 **Fig. 2.** Cross-section of pan breads as function of mixture design. XG: xanthan gum,
542 SA: sodium alginate, GG: guar gum.

543

544 **Fig. 3.** Predicted surfaces of bread quality as function of codified factors a) Bread
545 volume (BV), b) Cell area fraction (CAF) of breadcrumb.

546

547 **Fig. 4.** a) Elastic modulus (G') and b) damping factor ($\tan \delta$), of dough as function of
548 bread formulation during frequency sweep at 25 °C with constant deformation of 1%.
549 XG: xanthan gum (\blacktriangle), SA: sodium alginate (\square), GG: guar gum (\triangle), XG-GG (\blacklozenge),
550 XG-SA-GG (\blacksquare), SA-GG (\bullet), XG-SA (\diamond).

551

552 **Fig. 5.** Creep-recovery tests as function of bread formulation. XG: xanthan gum (—),
553 SA: sodium alginate (—), GG: guar gum (—), XG-GG (-- --), XG-SA-GG (-- --), SA-
554 GG (—), XG-SA (—).

555

556 **Fig. 6.** Relationship between bread volume (BV) and steady state viscosity of dough
557 (μ_0).

1 **Table 1**2 Proximate chemical composition of tested rice flours¹.

Composition (g/100 g, db)	Flours				
	SM	K	SP	PG	TG
Moisture	11.16 ± 0.09 ^{bc}	11.63 ± 0.11 ^c	11.12 ± 0.17 ^b	10.62 ± 0.03 ^a	12.13 ± 0.21 ^d
Carbohydrate	78.99 ± 1.07 ^a	79.80 ± 0.60 ^a	79.20 ± 0.84 ^a	79.5 ± 1.39 ^a	78.10 ± 0.82 ^a
Protein	5.92 ± 0.05 ^b	4.18 ± 0.08 ^a	6.89 ± 0.11 ^c	7.04 ± 0.09 ^c	7.22 ± 0.14 ^c
Lipid	1.18 ± 0.02 ^c	1.59 ± 0.02 ^d	0.32 ± 0.00 ^b	0.10 ± 0.00 ^a	0.10 ± 0.00 ^a
Fiber	2.37 ± 0.09 ^d	1.59 ± 0.03 ^b	0.53 ± 0.01 ^a	1.45 ± 0.04 ^b	2.06 ± 0.03 ^c
Ash	0.50 ± 0.00 ^b	1.21 ± 0.03 ^c	1.95 ± 0.05 ^d	1.29 ± 0.04 ^c	0.38 ± 0.01 ^a

3 ¹ Amylose content was within 18 – 22 g/100 g, db (dry basis).4 SM: Santa María flour, K: Kapac flour, SP: Señor de Sipan flour, PG: Partially
5 gelatinized flour, TG: Totally gelatinized flour.6 Values with different letters in the same row are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

1 **Table 2**

2 Characteristic parameters of particle size distribution, and thermal and hydration
 3 properties of tested rice flours.

Flours	D50 (μm)	DI	Tp ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	ΔH (J/g, db)	WAI (g/g, db)	WSI (%)	SWP (g/g, db)
SM	$135 \pm 2^{\text{a}}$	$0.40 \pm 0.03^{\text{a}}$	$64.8 \pm 0.1^{\text{a}}$	$4.8 \pm 0.2^{\text{b}}$	$2.99 \pm 0.02^{\text{c}}$	$2.54 \pm 0.04^{\text{b}}$	$3.42 \pm 0.03^{\text{b}}$
K	$220 \pm 22^{\text{b}}$	$1.37 \pm 0.2^{\text{bc}}$	$67.6 \pm 0.4^{\text{b}}$	$6.2 \pm 0.3^{\text{c}}$	$2.43 \pm 0.02^{\text{a}}$	$1.21 \pm 0.05^{\text{a}}$	$2.89 \pm 0.06^{\text{a}}$
SP	$177 \pm 9^{\text{a}}$	$1.64 \pm 0.07^{\text{c}}$	$66.4 \pm 0.2^{\text{b}}$	$4.0 \pm 0.1^{\text{b}}$	$2.52 \pm 0.02^{\text{b}}$	$1.34 \pm 0.03^{\text{a}}$	$2.72 \pm 0.03^{\text{a}}$
PG	$156 \pm 1^{\text{a}}$	$0.43 \pm 0.02^{\text{a}}$	$69.4 \pm 0.5^{\text{c}}$	$1.5 \pm 0.3^{\text{a}}$	$3.39 \pm 0.01^{\text{d}}$	$2.80 \pm 0.04^{\text{c}}$	$4.62 \pm 0.15^{\text{c}}$
TG	$313 \pm 11^{\text{c}}$	$1.08 \pm 0.06^{\text{b}}$	n.d.	n.d.	$4.39 \pm 0.03^{\text{e}}$	$2.75 \pm 0.02^{\text{c}}$	$5.42 \pm 0.02^{\text{d}}$

4 D50: Particle sizes corresponding to 50% cumulative undersize mass (median
 5 diameter), DI: Dispersion index, Tp: Peak gelatinization temperatures, ΔH :
 6 Gelatinization enthalpy, WAI: Water absorption index, WSI: Water solubility index,
 7 SWP: Swelling power.

8 SM: Santa María flour, K: Kapac flour, SP: Señor de Sipan flour, PG: Partially
 9 gelatinized flour, TG: Totally gelatinized flour.

10 n.d.: not detected.

11 Values with different letters in the same column are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

1 **Table 3**

2 Effect of gluten substitute on bread quality.

Gluten substitute	Bread volume (ml)	Cell area fraction (%)	Mean cell area (mm²/cell)	Cell density (cells/cm²)
XG	1304 ± 48 ^{ab}	26.0 ± 1.5 ^c	1.20 ± 0.08 ^a	21.7 ± 2.1 ^b
GG	1474 ± 47 ^b	21.5 ± 2.7 ^{bc}	1.41 ± 0.07 ^{ab}	15.2 ± 0.6 ^a
SA	1173 ± 42 ^a	23.1 ± 0.1 ^c	1.63 ± 0.05 ^b	14.2 ± 0.5 ^a
ECG	1312 ± 49 ^{ab}	13.0 ± 0.7 ^a	1.17 ± 0.07 ^a	11.1 ± 1.1 ^a
HPMC	1294 ± 48 ^a	16.4 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	1.36 ± 0.09 ^a	12.1 ± 0.9 ^a

3 XG: Xanthan gum, GG: Guar gum, SA: Sodium alginate, ECG: Espina corona gum,

4 HPMC: Hydroxypropyl methylcellulose.

5 Values with different letters in the same column are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

1 **Table 4**

2 Experimental design and bread quality as function of formulation.

Mixtures	Gluten substitute (g)			Bread	Cell area	Mean cell	Cell
	XG	SA	GG	volume	fraction	area	density
	(Coded ¹)	(Coded ¹)	(Coded ¹)	(ml)	(%)	(mm ² /cell)	(cells/cm ²)
1	8 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1304 ± 48 ^{ab}	26.0 ± 1.5 ^{bc}	1.20 ± 0.08 ^a	21.7 ± 2.1 ^d
2	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (1)	1474 ± 47 ^{bc}	21.5 ± 2.7 ^{ab}	1.41 ± 0.07 ^{ab}	15.2 ± 0.6 ^c
3	0 (0)	8 (1)	0 (0)	1173 ± 42 ^a	23.1 ± 0.1 ^{ab}	1.63 ± 0.05 ^b	14.2 ± 0.5 ^c
4	4 (0.5)	0 (0)	4 (0.5)	1622 ± 81 ^c	29.7 ± 3.1 ^c	2.79 ± 0.23 ^c	10.3 ± 0.4 ^b
5*	2.67 (0.33)	2.67 (0.33)	2.67 (0.33)	1618 ± 81 ^c	18.4 ± 0.4 ^a	2.56 ± 0.06 ^c	6.8 ± 0.6 ^a
6	0 (0)	4 (0.5)	4 (0.5)	1315 ± 66 ^{ab}	18.9 ± 0.3 ^a	1.53 ± 0.19 ^{ab}	11.9 ± 0.8 ^{bc}
7	4 (0.5)	4 (0.5)	0 (0)	1615 ± 81 ^c	20.1 ± 1.1 ^a	1.55 ± 0.12 ^{ab}	12.7 ± 0.8 ^{bc}

3 ¹ A linear relationship among experimental and coded factors was used.

4 * Central point of experimental design (triplicate).

5 XG: Xanthan gum; SA: Sodium alginate; GG: Guar gum.

6 Values with different letters in the same column are significantly different ($p < 0.05$).

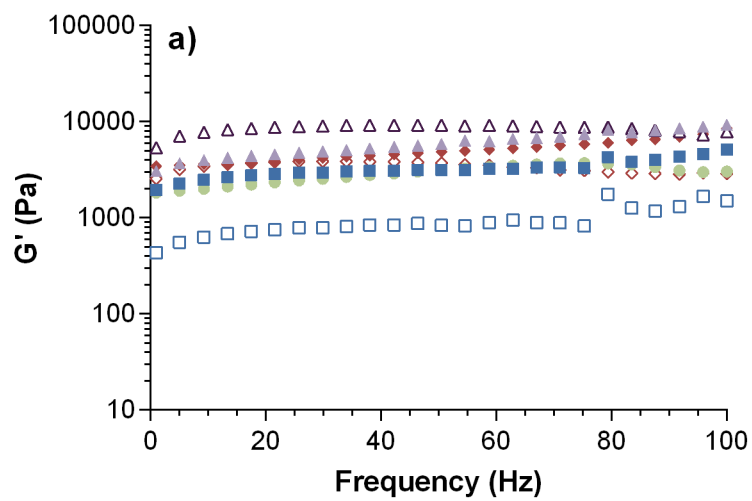
2 Burger's model parameters (equations 2-3) of doughs as function of formulation.

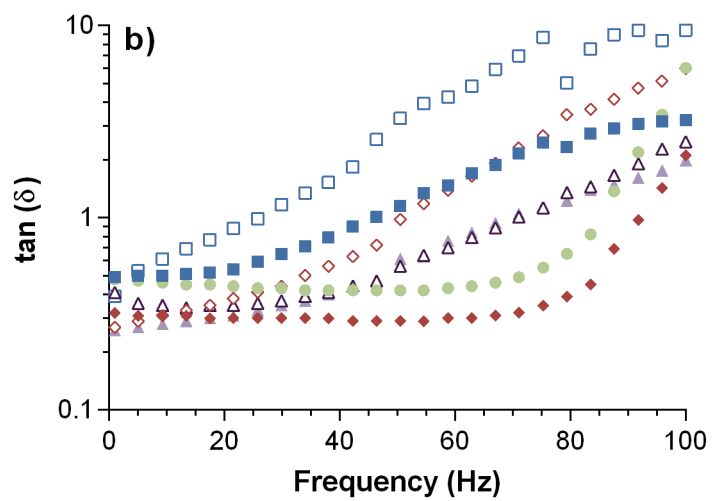
Mixtures	J₀ (10 ⁻⁴ Pa ⁻¹)	J_m (10 ⁻⁴ Pa ⁻¹)	μ₀ (Pa·s)	λ (s)	R²
<i>Creep phase</i>					
1	2.02 ± 0.05 ^{bc}	4.92 ± 0.12 ^{ab}	99486 ± 1890 ^e	6.46 ± 0.12 ^a	0.9992
2	1.42 ± 0.10 ^a	6.67 ± 0.83 ^a	65896 ± 977 ^c	7.81 ± 0.09 ^d	0.9994
3	8.96 ± 0.37 ^e	28.48 ± 0.83 ^d	23601 ± 288 ^a	6.53 ± 0.03 ^a	0.9989
4	1.67 ± 0.00 ^{ab}	4.96 ± 0.07 ^a	78495 ± 481 ^d	6.98 ± 0.00 ^{bc}	0.9993
5*	2.42 ± 0.04 ^c	7.82 ± 0.23 ^b	54129 ± 1165 ^b	7.09 ± 0.06 ^c	0.9992
6	3.12 ± 0.13 ^d	16.18 ± 0.93 ^c	26482 ± 1060 ^a	7.90 ± 0.16 ^d	0.9994
7	3.37 ± 0.08 ^d	8.53 ± 0.1 ^b	62663 ± 1358 ^c	6.70 ± 0.05 ^{ab}	0.9991
Mixtures	J₀ (10 ⁻⁴ Pa ⁻¹)	J_m (10 ⁻⁴ Pa ⁻¹)	J_{max} (10 ⁻³ Pa ⁻¹)	λ (s)	R²
<i>Recovery phase</i>					
1	2.57 ± 0.06 ^a	2.95 ± 0.07 ^a	1.27 ± 0.03 ^a	26.49 ± 0.66 ^a	0.9929
2	2.21 ± 0.28 ^a	3.39 ± 0.44 ^a	1.69 ± 0.28 ^{ab}	26.12 ± 0.02 ^a	0.9931
3	10.78 ± 0.25 ^e	10.40 ± 0.24 ^d	6.17 ± 0.15 ^d	25.79 ± 0.13 ^a	0.9907
4	2.57 ± 0.01 ^a	3.23 ± 0.02 ^a	1.40 ± 0.01 ^a	25.72 ± 0.60 ^a	0.9923
5*	3.63 ± 0.04 ^b	4.74 ± 0.23 ^b	2.09 ± 0.05 ^b	26.15 ± 0.32 ^a	0.9931
6	5.00 ± 0.17 ^d	7.38 ± 0.49 ^c	4.11 ± 0.2 ^c	27.28 ± 0.23 ^a	0.9924
7	4.27 ± 0.05 ^c	4.87 ± 0.12 ^b	2.11 ± 0.00 ^b	28.60 ± 1.03 ^a	0.9924

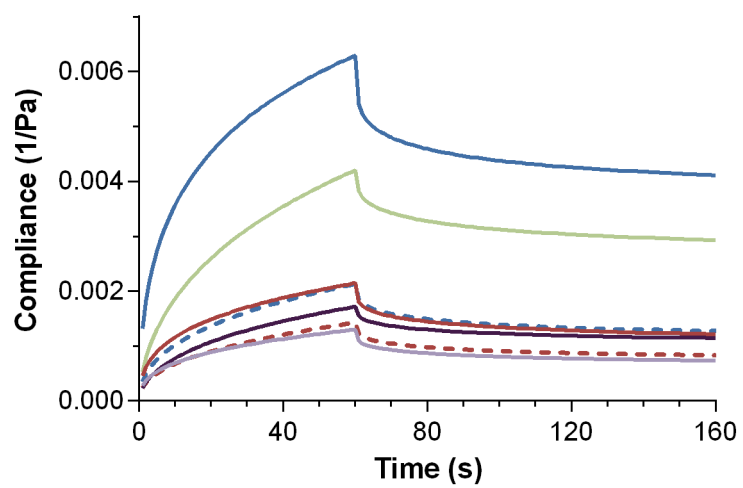
3 J₀: Instantaneous compliance, J_m: Viscoelastic compliance, J_{max}: Maximum creep4 compliance, λ: Retardation time, μ₀: Steady state viscosity.

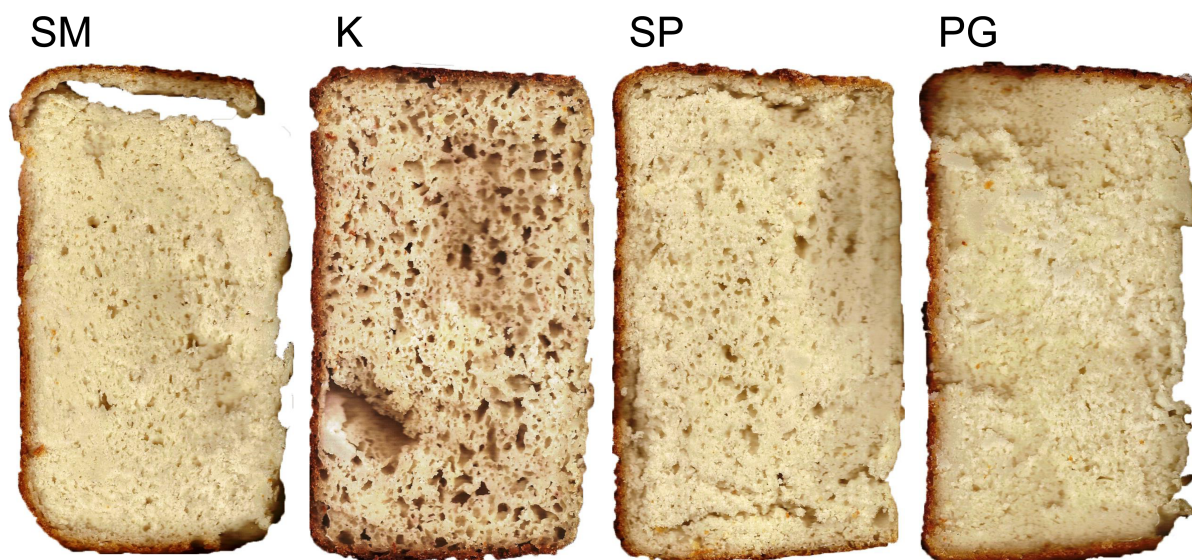
5 * Central point of experimental design (triplicate).

6 Values with different letters in the same column are significantly different (p < 0.05).





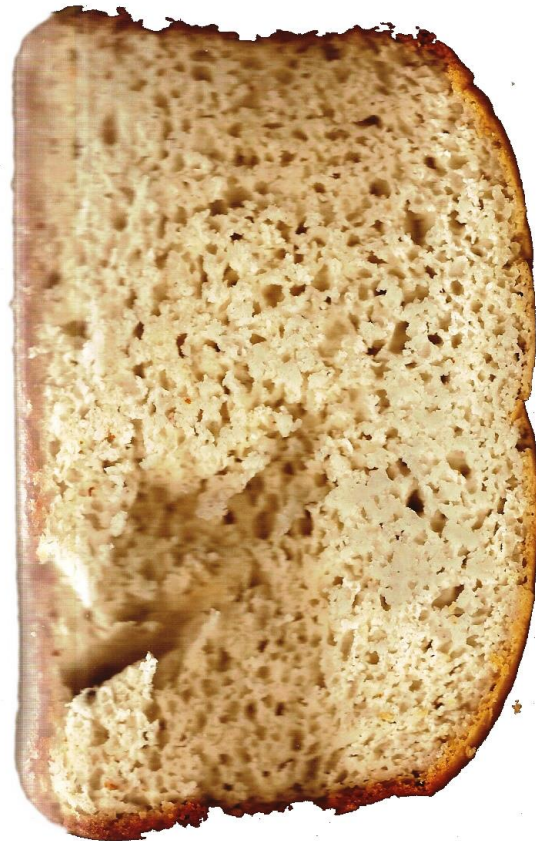




XG



GG



SA



XG-GG



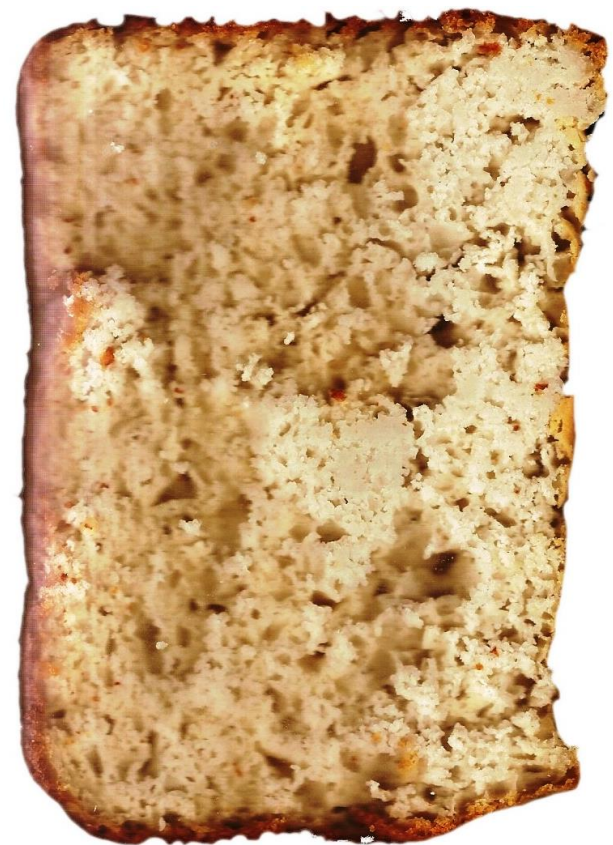
XG-GG-SA



SA-GG

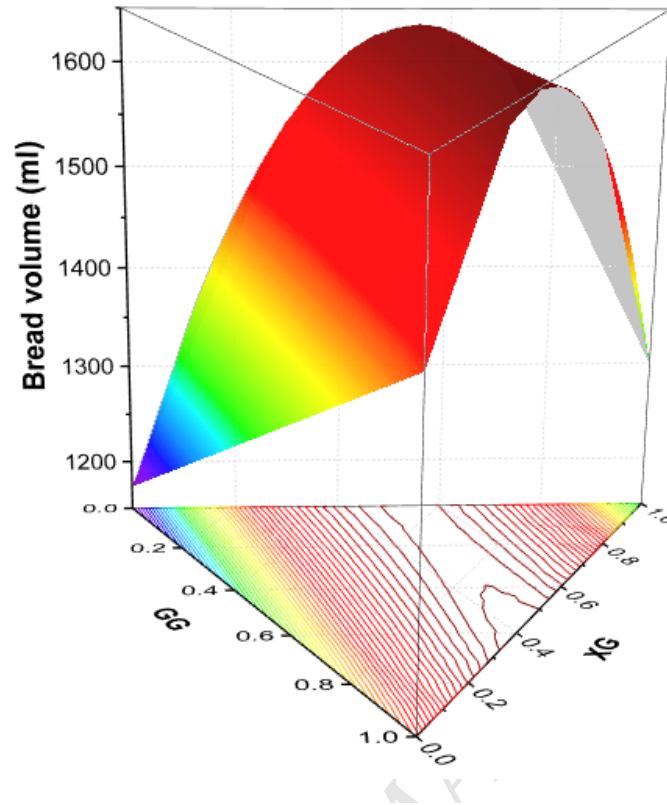


XG-SA



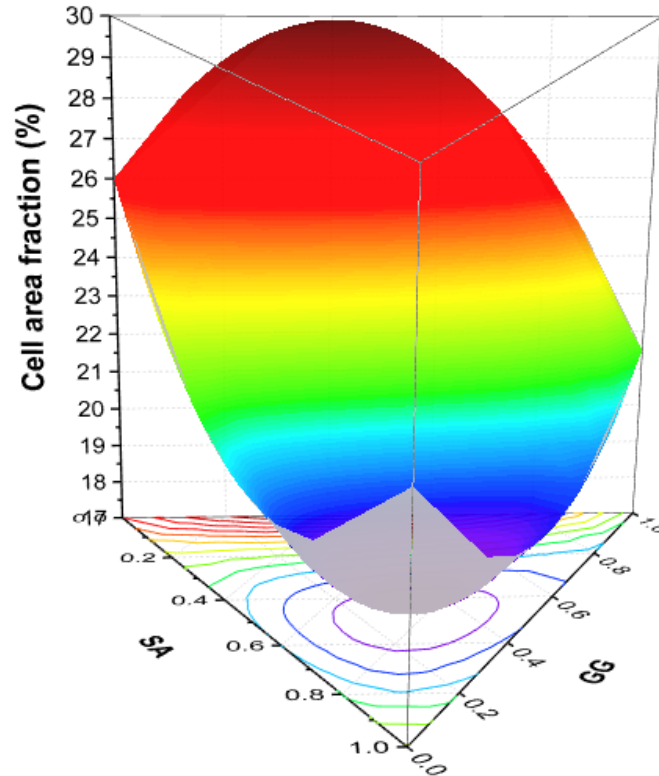
$$BV = 1299.49 XG + 1173.17 SA + 1474.17 GG + 1586.85 XG SA + 1012.85 XG GG \quad R^2 = 0.9448$$

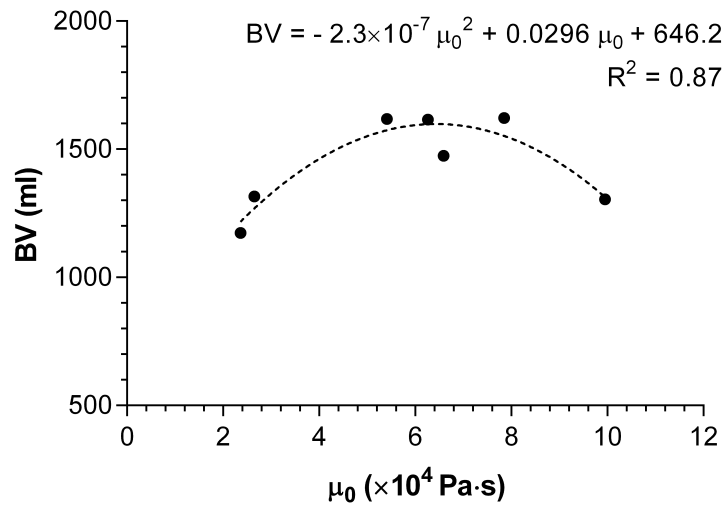
a)



$$CAF = 26 XG + 23.1 SA + 21.5 GG - 17.8 XG SA + 23.8 XG GG - 13.6 SA GG - 115.8 XG SA GG \quad R^2 = 0.9975$$

b)





Highlights

- Several rice flours and gluten substitutes were evaluated to produce rice bread.
- Bread quality was estimated from bread volume and gas cell parameters.
- Mixture design was adopted to perform the optimization of bread formulation.
- The effect of formulation on dough rheology was also studied.
- Correlations among bread quality attributes and dough viscosity were obtained.