

1 doi: 10.1016/j.foodchem.2016.12.053

2 **Validation and application of a quantitative real-time PCR assay to detect common**
3 **wheat adulteration of durum wheat for pasta production**

4 *Running Title: A reliable assay for the quantification of common wheat adulteration*

5 Elisa Carloni^{*,a}, Giulia Amagliani^a, Enrica Omiccioli^b, Veronica Ceppetelli^b, Michele Del
6 Mastro^c, Luca Rotundo^a, Giorgio Brandi^a, Mauro Magnani^a

7
8 ^aDepartment of Biomolecular Science, University of Urbino “Carlo Bo”, Via Saffi 2, 61029,
9 Urbino, PU, Italy

10 ^bDiatheva S.r.l., Viale Piceno 137/F, Fano, 61032, PU, Italy

11 ^c Food Safety Lab S.r.l, Viale della Palma s.n.c, 70033, Corato, BA, Italy

12

13

14

15 *Corresponding author: Elisa Carloni

16 Tel. number +39 0722-303540

17 Fax number +39 0722-303541

18 E-mail: elisa.carloni1@uniurb.it

19

20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Pasta is the Italian product par excellence and it is now popular worldwide. Pasta of a
22 superior quality is made with pure durum wheat. In Italy, addition of *Triticum aestivum*
23 (common wheat) during manufacturing is not allowed and, without adequate labeling, its
24 presence is considered an adulteration. PCR-related techniques can be employed for the
25 detection of common wheat contaminations. In this work, we demonstrated that a previously
26 published method for the detection of *T. aestivum*, based on the gliadin gene, is inadequate.
27 Moreover, a new molecular method, based on DNA extraction from semolina and real-time
28 PCR determination of *T. aestivum* in *Triticum* spp., was validated. This multiplex real-time
29 PCR, based on the dual-labeled probe strategy, guarantees target detection specificity and
30 sensitivity in a short period of time. Moreover, the molecular analysis of common wheat
31 contamination in commercial wheat and flours is described for the first time.

32 **KEYWORDS**

33 common wheat adulteration; real-time PCR; semolina; durum wheat; pasta

34

35

36 1. Introduction

37 Wheat is the most important cereal in diets worldwide, and flour is the primary product.
38 Flour obtained from the *Triticum aestivum* L. species (common wheat) is used for
39 manufacturing bread, biscuits, and other leavened products, while *T. durum* Desf. (durum
40 wheat) is used for semolina and dried pasta production. Pasta is the most traditional Italian
41 product and a mainstay of the Italian diet, with national pasta consumption ca. 1.5 million
42 tonnes and annual per capita consumption of ca. 25.3 kg (International Pasta Organization,
43 2014). Pasta is consumed in many other countries including the United States, Brazil, Russia,
44 and Germany, and is one of a few worldwide foods (International Pasta Organization, 2014).
45 Pasta produced exclusively with durum wheat has good cooking properties and stability with
46 incomparable eating quality (Sisson, 2008). Therefore, to guarantee the best product for
47 consumers, a Decree of the President of the Italian Republic states that dried pasta must be
48 produced only with durum wheat and the use of every other cereal is considered fraudulent
49 (DPR n. 187/2001) (Sisson, 2008). Since cross contaminations are frequent during growing,
50 harvesting, and flour milling practices, the current Italian law tolerates a maximum of 3%
51 common wheat in dried pasta. However, for export trade, the same Italian legislative decree
52 allows the production of dried pasta with common wheat flour only if appropriately labeled
53 (DPR n. 187, 2001). However, even in other countries, such as Spain and France, consumers
54 prefer dried pasta made from only durum wheat. Therefore, clear and accurate information
55 about product composition must be given to consumers to enable informed choice (Woolfe
56 & Primrose, 2004). In a previous study, Kelly and Bhave (2007) demonstrated the inaccurate
57 labeling of four commercial Australian pasta samples, finding common wheat was not
58 reported in the ingredient list. In this context, efficient analytical methods for the detection
59 of accidental or intentional contamination with common wheat are essential. Many different

60 methods have been proposed for the qualitative/_quantitative determination of common
61 wheat contamination in pasta.

62 Until a few years ago, most of these analytical techniques (electrophoretic, chromatographic,
63 and immunological assays) were based on the detection of particular proteins, such as
64 albumins, gliadins or friabilin (Bonetti, 2004; Barnwell, McCarthy, Lumley & Griffin, 1994;
65 Stevenson, McCarthy & Griffin, 1994). Among these, a method based on albumin separation
66 using isoelectric focusing (Resmini, 1969) had become the most commonly used in Italy.
67 Since 1980, the Resmini method has been supported by an immunochemical assay based on
68 the albumin fraction (Piazzi & Cantagalli, 1969; Piazzi, Riparbelli, Sordi, Cantagalli,
69 Pocchiari & Silano, 1972). However, protein denaturation during manufacturing is a
70 significant limitation of the protein-based methods (Aktan & Khan, 1992). These analytical
71 methods are inappropriate for high quality pasta obtained using very high temperature drying
72 (Lamacchia, 2007; Wagner, Morel, Bonicel, & Cuq, 2011). Moreover, proteins can be
73 synthesized in different amounts in plant tissues (Tilley, 2003) and the target protein
74 expression profile could be influenced by environmental factrors (Blumenthal, Barlow &
75 Wrigley, 1993), compromising the quantitative analysis.

76 To eliminate these drawbacks, a new generation of methods based on DNA analysis to detect
77 common wheat adulteration has been devised (Alary, Serin, Duviou, Jourdrier & Gautier,
78 2002; Arlorio, Coïsson, Cereti, Travaglia, Capasso & Martelli, 2003; Kelly & Bhave, 2007;
79 Sonnante, Montemurro, Morgese, Sabetta, Blanco & Pasqualone, 2009). These molecular
80 approaches are based on the detection of specific sequences in D-genome DNA, which is the
81 specific target in common wheat and absent in durum wheat (Bryan, Dixon, Gale &
82 Wiseman, 1998). Techniques based on the DNA analysis have been investigated for several
83 reasons. First of all, DNA can withstand degradation caused by high temperatures and,
84 therefore, fragments of sufficient length and integrity should still be avaialble for

85 amplification (Kelly & Bhave, 2007). Second, PCR amplification is distinguished by high
86 sensitivity and specificity, allowing the analysis of very small amounts of DNA and the
87 detection of low levels of common wheat adulteration (Kelly & Bhave, 2007). Another
88 advantage is that genomic DNA can be extracted from any plant tissue and is not affected by
89 environmental conditions or the developmental stage of the plant (Tilley, 2003). Finally,
90 PCR methods are particularly convenient because of their simple and rapid set up.
91 Some PCR-based methods have been described recently. Pasqualone, Montemurro, Grinn-
92 Gofron, Sonnante and Blanco (2007) developed a SYBR Green real-time PCR assay to
93 quantify common wheat adulteration in semolina and bread products. Terzi, Malnati,
94 Barbanera, Stanca, and Faccioli (2003) applied a real-time PCR protocol with the aim of
95 discriminating common and durum wheats through the amplification of gliadin and glutenin
96 genes. The aim of this work was to find an effective method for the quantitative analysis of
97 common wheat adulteration of durum wheat. A pre-existing method developed by Terzi et
98 al. (2003) was evaluated initially. After this preliminary check, a new commercial
99 amplification method for determination of the relative DNA ratio of *T. aestivum* in *Triticum*
100 spp. was validated and used to quantify common wheat adulteration in wheat flours. The
101 analysis of common wheat contamination in commercial raw materials, such as wheat and
102 flours, using a molecular biology assay, is described for the first time.

104 **2. Materials and Methods**

106 *2.1. Materials and DNA extraction and quantification*

107 Kernels from the durum wheat cultivar ‘Claudio’ and the common wheat cultivar ‘Bolero’
108 were kindly provided by Dr Antonella Petrini, Research and Experimentation Centre for

109 Plant Improvement (CERMIS, Macerata, Italy). Commercial samples of six different cereals
110 (kamut, spelt, corn, millet, oat, and rice) in five commercial brands, purchased from various
111 Italian food businesses, were used.

112 Each cereal species was milled separately using a commercial grinder (Kenwood, Havant,
113 United Kingdom). To prepare the common/ durum wheat flour mixtures (0.2%, 1%, 3%,
114 10%, and 15%), common and durum wheat semolina were weighed, mixed, and
115 mechanically homogenized for at least 60 min using the tube rotator EU-plug (VWR
116 International, INC., West Chester, Pennsylvania).

117 Genomic DNA was extracted using the Grains DNA extraction kit (Diatheva, Fano, Italy)
118 according to the manufacturer's instructions, and the DNA concentration measured using the
119 Nanodrop ND-1000 System (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, Delaware). Genomic
120 units (GU) for *T. turgidum* and *T. aestivum* were calculated assuming that the genomic
121 molecular weights were 12.84 and 17.67 fg, respectively, as previously shown by Eilam,
122 Anikster, Millet, Manisterski and Feldman (2008).

123

124 2.2. Real-time PCR analysis

125 Real-time amplifications were carried out in a RotorGene Q thermocycler (Qiagen, Hilden,
126 Germany) and in an Applied Biosystems 7500 Instrument (Life Technologies, Carlsbad,
127 California).

128 Glud and Glia primer and probe sequences, used in the preliminary step of this work, were
129 developed previously by Terzi et al. (2003). Reactions were performed using the Hot-Rescue
130 Real-Time PCR Kit – FP (Diatheva). The final 25 µl reaction volume contained 900 nM
131 forward and reverse primers, 200 nM dual-labelled probes, and 100 ng of DNA template.

132 Real-time amplifications were performed under conditions described by Terzi et al. (2003).

133 Further analyses were performed using the Grain quantitative kit (Diatheva) following

134 manufacturer's instructions. The Grain quantitative kit was specifically designed to
135 determine the relative DNA copy number ratio of *T. aestivum* in *Triticum* spp. by comparing
136 amplification results from a *T. aestivum* specific target with a sequence generally present in
137 all species of *Triticum* genus, used as normalizer. This test is based on the dual-labelled
138 probes real-time PCR assay, where the *Triticum* spp. amplification is detected in the yellow
139 channel (VIC: ex 538 nm - em 554 nm) and *T. aestivum* in the green channel (FAM: ex 495
140 nm – em 520 nm). The absolute quantification of each target is obtained through two
141 calibration curves, one for each specific target gene. Data were analyzed using the optical
142 system software RotorGene Q v2.1.0 (Qiagen) and the 7500 Software v2.0.6 (Life
143 Technologies), respectively, for the RotorGene Q thermocycler and the Applied Biosystems
144 7500 Instrument.

145

146 2.3. *In silico and experimental specificity analysis*

147 The specificity of Glud and GliA primers/probes developed by Terzi et al. (2003) was
148 examined using *in silico* analysis. Sequence alignment studies were performed using the
149 BLAST online program (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>), searching in the nucleotide
150 collection (nr/nt) database and using Megablast (optimized for highly similar sequences).
151 DNA (100 ng) from all the cereal species stated above was tested separately with Glud and
152 GliA primers/probes and with the Grain quantitative kit (Diatheva).

153

154 2.4. *Limit of detection, calibration function and validation of the real-time PCR assay*

155 The limit of detection (LOD) is defined the smallest number of GU which gives a positive
156 amplification result in at least 90% of cases (Omiccioli, Schiavano, Ceppetelli, Amagliani,
157 Magnani & Brandi, 2015). To analyze extreme dilutions, three series of 10-fold dilutions of

158 a DNA mixture containing *T. aestivum* in *T. turgidum* (10% ratio) were tested, starting from
159 3.2×10^4 and going up to 3.2 GU/PCR of *Triticum* spp. Every dilution point was repeated
160 three times in the same amplification run.

161 To study the calibration function, another mixture of *T. turgidum* and *T. aestivum* DNAs at
162 a ratio of 3%, reflecting the Italian law limit, was prepared and serially (2-fold) diluted in
163 three independent series, on different days and by different operators. *T. turgidum* ranged
164 from 828.6 to 51.7 ng/PCR while *T. aestivum* from 33.9 to 2.1 ng/PCR. Each dilution was
165 amplified in triplicate using the Grain quantitative kit, and the calibration function was
166 calculated by linear regression analysis of threshold cycles (Ct) measured for each
167 amplification vs. the \log_2 copy number for each standard dilution for the two fluorescence
168 acquisition channels. The software calculated automatically the correlation coefficient (R^2),
169 slope and efficiency of the two standard curves. Data were compared with those obtained
170 from the amplification of standard DNA provided in the commercial kit, containing both *T.*
171 *turgidum* and *T. aestivum* DNAs, diluted, according to manufacturer's instructions, and
172 analyzed as described above.

173 Quantitative analyses were performed on binary mixtures of DNA extracted from common
174 wheat flour cv. Bolero and durum wheat semolina cv. Claudio in the ratios 0.2%, 1%, 3%,
175 10%, and 15%. DNA amplification was performed as previously described.

176 177 2.5. Limit of detection and validation of the whole method

178 For LOD determination of the entire method (DNA extraction and amplification test in
179 multiplex real-time PCR), two distinct (0.15%) wheat mixtures containing common wheat
180 flour in durum wheat semolina were prepared. For the two-wheat mixture, an aliquot of 200
181 mg was used for DNA extraction and each sample was amplified in 10 replicates, for a total
182 of 20 samples.

183 Validation of the method was carried out by testing flour mixtures in the ratios 0.15%, 0.2%,
184 1%, 3%, 10%, and 15%. Three separate extractions for each flour mixture were performed
185 and each DNA extract was amplified twice.

186

187 *2.6. Sample analysis*

188 Fifteen Italian wheat samples, four wheat samples from EU countries, 29 non-European
189 (non-EU) wheat samples, and 33 wheat flour samples were analyzed. Genomic DNA was
190 extracted using the Grains DNA extraction kit (Diatheva) according to the manufacturer's
191 instructions, and common wheat contamination ratios were evaluated by multiplex real-time
192 PCR using the Grain quantitative kit (Diatheva). Results from samples containing an
193 common wheat contamination less than 2% were expressed as "< 2%", without an exact
194 value.

195 *2.7. Statistical analysis*

196 Statistical analyses, such as means, standard deviation (SD) and relative SD (RSD %), were
197 undertaken using GraphPad Prism 5.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc. California). The distribution
198 of sample values are represented in a scatter plot (vertical) created using GraphPad Prism
199 5.0 software.

200

201 3. Results and Discussion

202

203 3.1. *Glud* and *Glia* primers/probes specificity

204 In the first phase of the present work, *Glud* and *Glia* primers/probes, designed by Terzi et al.
205 (2003) from the U86029.1 and AF234648.1 GenBank sequences, were tested for specificity
206 with DNA from certified durum wheat cv. Claudio and common wheat cv. Bolero. The low-
207 molecular-weight glutenin gene was selected as a specific target for plants belonging to the
208 *Triticum* genus, while the gliadin gene was chosen to selectively target *T. aestivum*
209 genotypes, allowing the establishment of a qualitative real-time PCR for the detection of
210 common wheat in durum wheat. In the present work, the *Glud* specific amplification product
211 was obtained for both durum wheat cv. Claudio and common wheat cv. Bolero (Table 1),
212 reconfirming that low-molecular-weight glutenin is a *Triticum* genus-specific target.
213 However, *Glia* primers/probe also gave positive results for both genotypes (Table 1), in
214 contrast with Terzi et al. (2003) who demonstrated previously the capacity of these
215 primers/probe to discriminate 26 common and 28 durum wheat cultivars, including Claudio.
216 In support of our results, *in silico* analyses were performed using the BLAST online program.
217 *Glia* primers have 100% identity with sequences in *T. durum* partial GAG56B gene for
218 gamma-gliadin of cultivar Wascana (AJ389704.1), Rugby (AJ389703.1), Fortore
219 (AJ389702.1), DT433 (AJ389701.1), and Astrodur (AJ389699.1). The *Glia* probe has 100%
220 identity with *T. durum* partial GAG56B gene for gamma-gliadin of cultivar Wascana and
221 Rugby, and a 96% identity for cultivar Fortore, DT433, and Astrodur. The gamma-gliadins
222 are deemed to be the most ancient of the gliadins and low molecular weight glutenins
223 (Shewry & Tatham, 1990). It has been already shown in Genbank that gamma-gliadin
224 sequences belong primarily to tetraploid *T. durum* and hexaploid *T. aestivum* (Goryunova et
225 al., 2012), in accordance with experimental data.

226 The results reported by Terzi et al. (2003) could be ascribed to the use of different real-time
227 PCR instrumentation and amplification reagents, affecting assay sensitivity. To obtain more
228 information about the species-specificity of selected targets, the same real-time PCR
229 amplification was carried out using commercial samples of kamut, spelt, corn, millet, oat
230 and rice (Table 1). All cereals belonging to the *Triticum* genus (spelt, *T. spelta* and kamut,
231 *T. turgidum* ssp. *turanicum*) tested positive for both glud and glia. Spelt DNA amplification
232 agreed with previous outcomes (Terzi et al., 2003), while kamut DNA, which should be
233 gliadin negative, was not tested previously (Martel et al., 2004). Millet, belonging to
234 *Panicum* genus, also produced a gliadin-specific amplification product. Thus, our results
235 confirmed the genus-specificity of glud and the lack of *T. aestivum*-specificity of glia. The
236 gliadin sequence, AF234648.1, is not a common wheat specific target, so the combination
237 of glud and glia targets, previously proposed for durum and common wheat discrimination,
238 respectively, cannot be used reliably for quantification of common wheat contamination in
239 durum semolina. This new knowledge could be essential for diagnostic labs that use this
240 method to detect the adulteration with common wheat in durum wheat for pasta production.
241 Therefore, the potential for using a commercial Grain quantitative kit (Diatheva) was
242 assessed and its performances were evaluated.

243

244 3.2 Performance study of the Grain quantitative kit

245 Validation experiments were carried out to establish whether the chosen commercial kit
246 could be a specific and sensitive amplification assay.

247

248 3.2.1 Specificity

249 During wheat harvest^{ing} and grinding, grain contamination by other cereals is very common.

250 Therefore, the specificity of a system should be guaranteed for both: (a) *Triticum* genus, to
251 avoid erroneous quantification of non *Triticum* cereals, which leads to the underestimation
252 of common wheat; (b) *T. aestivum*, to prevent the over^{_}estimation of the amount, with the
253 risk of finding values that erroneously exceed the legal Italian limit. This mistake could cause
254 enormous economic damage to flour and pasta manufacturing companies.

255 The specificity of the amplification kit assay was assessed on a panel of target and non-target
256 commercial cereals from different species. The results shown in Table 1 demonstrate the
257 selectivity of this assay for *Triticum* genus and *T. aestivum* species. The *Triticum* genus target
258 was reliably detected in all species from *Triticum* genus, such as durum and common wheat
259 cultivars, spelt, and kamut (Table 1). Negative results were obtained for the other cereals
260 belonging to different genera.

261 The *T. aestivum* primers/probe provided in the kit show^{ed} positive amplification results for
262 the Bolero cultivar. Neither *T. durum* Claudio, nor all the other cereal species used for the
263 specificity tests, including millet, gave any amplification products with the *T. aestivum*^{_}
264 specific oligonucleotide set. These results highlighted the greater specificity^{_} of the
265 commercial system compared to the Terzi et al. (2003) protocol, confirming its suitability
266 for the quantitative assessment of common wheat presence in durum wheat flour.

267 268 3.2.2 *Limit of detection, calibration function and validation of the real-time PCR assay*

269 To establish the threshold for common and total wheat DNA by means of the dual-labelled
270 probes PCR assay, mixtures of DNA extracted from durum wheat flour cv. Claudio and
271 common wheat flour cv. Bolero in a 9:1 ratio were subjected to amplification. LOD for both
272 *T. aestivum* and *Triticum* spp. corresponded to three GU/PCR, detected in 100% cases.

273 Therefore, the amplification assay was very sensitive, allowing up to 3 GU of both targets to
274 be detected in DNA mixtures.

275 The proportion of common wheat in durum wheat should be calculated after absolute
276 quantification of the specific target DNA sequences using two separate standard curves. To
277 obtain quantification data with high specificity, sensitivity and reproducibility, the reliability
278 and validity of the standard curve and standard materials used should be assessed (Pfaffl,
279 2004; Reischl & Kochanowski, 1995; Bustin, 2000; Pfaffl & Hageleit, 2001; Reiter,
280 Kirchner, Müller, Holzhauser, Mann, & Pfaffl, 2011).

281 Table 2 summarizes the means and standard deviation of values obtained from a standard
282 curve study conducted by amplifying three series of two-fold diluted *T. turgidum* and *T.*
283 *aestivum* DNA mixtures. A set of standard curves was constructed using standard DNA
284 provided in the commercial kit while another set used wheat DNA that was extracted in
285 laboratory. Efficiency and slope for *Triticum* spp. and *T. aestivum* standard curves were
286 acceptable, allowing accurate quantifications to be obtained (Table 2). The two targets
287 investigated, irrespective of the standard DNA mixture used, generated satisfactory R²
288 median values (Table 2). Specifically, the R² means for the *T. aestivum* standard curves were
289 less than the R² means of *Triticum* spp. standard curves. This small difference could be
290 because of the high quantity DNA from the *Triticum* targets, which was to the disadvantage
291 of the common wheat standard curve linearity. However, R² values were similar to those
292 obtained by another research group quantifying common wheat adulteration using real-time
293 PCR (Sonnante et al., 2009). To verify the reproducibility of Ct measurements and the
294 resulting assay stability, DNA two-fold dilutions were performed in triplicate. In all three
295 experiments, for the two sets of standard curves, standard deviation (SD) values were in the
296 range 0.03 – 0.17 for the *Triticum* spp. standard curve and 0.05 – 0.28 for the *T. aestivum*
297 curve. Although closer ranges of SD values were found in another study (Sonnante et al.,

298 2009), standard deviations were satisfactory, indicating that the quantitative commercial kit
299 used in this study is stable and reliable. The lower and upper limits of quantification (LLOQ
300 and ULOQ) were the lowest and highest standard curve points that could still be used for
301 quantification. Therefore, the LLOQ of the assay was 4×10^3 and 1.2×10^2 GU, while the
302 ULOQ was 6.4×10^4 and 1.92×10^3 GU for *Triticum* spp. and *T. aestivum*, respectively.

303 This real-time PCR assay was performed to obtain a ratio of common wheat in a specific
304 matrix. To quantify the threshold of for common wheat in foods, using this amplification
305 assay, a mixture of common and durum wheat semolina were subjected to amplification. The
306 relative standard deviation (RSD) values ranged from 14.16 to 19.53 %, proportionally to
307 the decrease in common wheat flour contamination, revealing good precision of the
308 amplification assay (Table 3). Different from other methods, which give only data regarding
309 compliance of the analyzed sample with the Italian legal limit, the commercial system
310 evaluated in this study, because of its very wide quantification range (0.2% - 15%), might
311 give specific information about the degree of common wheat adulteration. The experimental
312 deviation from the expected ratio was very low for common wheat concentrations from 0.2
313 to 10% while lower quantification accuracy was observed in the mixture containing 15%
314 common wheat (Table 3). These results agree with previous reports of difficulties in
315 obtaining exact quantification values for samples with high DNA quantities (Sonnante et al.,
316 2009), although the %RSD value at 15% was not the highest (Table 3). However, considering
317 that the Italian legal threshold of common wheat in durum wheat is 3%, for our purpose,
318 accurate results were more important for the lower concentration range than for the higher
319 one.

320 321 3.2.3 *Limit of detection and validation of the whole method*

322 Significant differences between the amplification results from lab-prepared DNA mixtures
323 compared with DNA extracted from the food samples were observed. This discrepancy was
324 due to the extraction method in a complex matrix (Jankiewicz, Broll, & Zagon, 1999).
325 Results determined using DNA mixtures allow only a “theoretical” threshold to be obtained,
326 while the “real” minimum detectable level can be determined starting with food samples
327 (Jankiewicz et al., 1999). Therefore, wheat flour mixtures were also analyzed to assess
328 sensitivity. However, that there is a lack of specific guidelines for the validation of
329 biomolecular methods for quantification of common wheat contamination should be taken
330 into account.

331 For LOD determination, 0.15% wheat mixtures were analyzed. The two targets, *Triticum*
332 spp. and *T. aestivum*, were amplified correctly and revealed in all samples (100%).
333 Therefore, the LOD for this method was 0.15%, lower than the limits of sensitivity identified
334 using previous methods (Arlorio et al., 2003; Casazza, Morcia, Ponzoni, Gavazzi,
335 Benedettelli, & Breviario, 2012) and considerably lower than the limit permitted by Italian
336 law. The entire method, including DNA extraction and amplification, therefore, allows the
337 detection of very small amounts of common wheat in durum wheat.

338 Other wheat flour mixtures (0.2%, 1%, 3%, 10%, and 15%) were analyzed to validate the
339 whole method. Table 3 shows that the experimental deviations from the expected ratio of the
340 flour mixture (FM) are higher than the experimental deviations of the respective DNA
341 mixture (DM) amplification results. Moreover, considering the experimental deviation from
342 the expected value, quantification accuracy was lower for flour mixtures containing more
343 than 10% of common wheat, even if the RSD% values were inversely proportional to the
344 ratio of common wheat contamination and, in particular, the 0.2% ratio was associated with
345 a very high RSD% (Table 3). Nevertheless, this quantification method is more sensitive than
346 previous ones that are able to detect up to 1% common wheat (Sonnante et al., 2009).

347 Adulteration with concentrations below 1% is not economically advantageous and unlikely
348 to be perpetrated, so this quantification method meets the needs of the market. In conclusion,
349 the validation results indicate that this new method is reliable and effective for detection and
350 quantification of common wheat flour in durum wheat semolina.

352 3.3 Sample analysis

353 A serious concern for consumers and food authorities is ensuring the authenticity of foods.
354 Correct and detailed labeling of food composition has become a crucial element in the global
355 market (Ibrahim, Al-Hmoud, Al-Rousan, & Hayek, 2011). In this context, the production of
356 pastas from mixtures of durum and common wheats, without adequate labelling, is usually
357 considered adulteration. Kelly and Bhave (2007) identified previously mislabeling of durum
358 pastas, and Ibrahim et al. (2011) showed that 65.4% of presumed wheat durum pasta products
359 sold in Jordan were adulterated with common wheat. Thus, the analysis of pasta products,
360 and related basic ingredients (e.g. flour), is essential for the production of high quality pasta
361 worldwide, not just in Italy.

362 In line with Italian law, all of the Italian and EU wheat samples analyzed had a common
363 wheat contamination less than 2% (Fig. 1). Therefore, these wheats could be used for pasta
364 sold in Italy or on the global market. On the contrary, 41.4% of the non-EU wheat samples
365 analyzed contained more than 3%, with the highest value being 7.90% (Fig. 1). Flour samples
366 ranged from < 2% to 7% of *Triticum aestivum* in *Triticum* spp. and 27.3% of semolina
367 samples are illegal on the Italian market (Fig. 1). Until now, investigations have analyzed
368 pasta samples, as the final product in the manufacturing chain (Kelly & Bhave, 2007; Ibrahim
369 et al., 2011; Casazza et al., 2012). This is the first study in which commercial raw materials,
370 such as wheat and flour, have been analyzed using a molecular assay to detect the percentage
371 of *T. aestivum* present. Raw product examination allows the classification of wheat and

372 flours, converging in their commercial use, for appropriate and legal trade and reducing
373 unreliable manufacturers.

374

375 **4 Conclusion**

376 In the first phase of this work, we demonstrated that the combination of glud and glia targets
377 should not be used for reliable quantification of common wheat in durum semolina.

378 Therefore, the study focused on evaluation of the “Grain quantitative kit” commercial
379 method. This assay, a multiplex real-time PCR based on the dual-labeled probe strategy,
380 guarantees specific and sensitive target detection, and quantification in a short period of time.

381 Moreover, the limit of sensitivity of this method (0.15%), less than the Italian legal limit
382 (3%), would allow easy detection of common wheat in durum wheat for pasta production.

383 This commercial system could impede fraudulent pasta manufacturing and make labeling on
384 pasta packages more accurate. Lastly, for the first time, commercial raw materials were
385 analyzed using a molecular assay and, in line with Italian law, no Italian and EU wheat
386 samples showed *T. aestivum* adulteration above 3%.

387

388 **5 References**

389

390 Aktan, B., & Khan, K. (1992). Effect of high-temperature drying of pasta on quality parameters and
391 on solubility, gel electrophoresis, and reversed phase high performance liquid chromatography of
392 protein components. *Cereal Chemistry*, 69, 288-295.

393 Alary, R., Serin, A., Duviau, M., Jourdrier, P., & Gautier, M. (2002). Quantification of Common
394 Wheat Adulteration of Durum Wheat Pasta Using Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain
395 Reaction (PCR). *Cereal Chemistry*, 79, 553-558.

396 Arlorio, M., Coisson, J.D., Cereti, E., Travaglia, F., Capasso, M., & Martelli, A. (2003). Polymerase
397 chain reaction (PCR) of puroindoline b and ribosomal/puroindoline b multiplex PCR for the
398 detection of common wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) in Italian pasta. *European Food Research and
399 Technology*, 216, 253-258.

400 Barnwell, P., McCarthy, P.K., Lumley, I.D., & Griffin, M. (1994). The use of reversed-phase high
401 performance liquid chromatography to detect common wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) adulteration of
402 durum wheat (*Triticum durum*) pasta products dried at low and high temperature. *Journal of
403 Cereal Science*, 20, 245-252.

404 Blumenthal, C.S., Barlow, E.W.R., & Wrigley, C.W. (1993). Growth environment and wheat quality:
405 the effect of heat stress on dough properties and gluten proteins. *Journal of Cereal science*, 18, 3-
406 21.

407 Bonetti, A., Marotti, I., Catizone, P., Dinelli, G., Majetti, A., Tedeschi, P., & Brandolini, V. (2004).
408 Compared use of HPLC and FZCE for cluster analysis of *Triticum* spp and for the identification of *T.*
409 *durum* adulteration. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 52, 4080-4089.

410 Bryan, G.J., Dixon, A., Gale, M.D., & Wiseman, G. (1998). A PCR-based method for the detection of
411 hexaploid bread wheat adulteration of durum wheat and pasta. *Journal of Cereal Science*, 28, 135-
412 145.

413 Bustin, S.A. (2000). Absolute quantification of mRNA using real-time reverse transcription
414 polymerase chain reaction assays. *Journal of Molecular Endocrinology*, 25, 169-193.

415 Casazza, A.P., Morcia, C., Ponzoni, E., Gavazzi, F., Benedettelli, S., & Breviario, D. (2012). A reliable
416 assay for the detection of soft wheat adulteration in Italian pasta is based on the use of new DNA
417 molecular markers capable of discriminating between *Triticum aestivum* and *Triticum durum*.
418 *Journal of Cereal Science*, 56, 733-740.

419 DPR n. 187. (2001). Regolamento per la revisione della normativa sulla produzione e
420 commercializzazione di sfarinati e paste alimentari, a norma dell'articolo 50 della legge 22 febbraio
421 1994, n. 146, Republic President, Italy.

422 Eilam, T., Anikster, Y., Millet, E., Manisterski, J., & Feldman, M. (2008). Nuclear DNA amount and
423 genome downsizing in natural and synthetic allopolyploids of the genera *Aegilops* and *Triticum*.
424 *Genome*, 51, 616-627.

425 Goryunova, S.V., Salentijn, E.M.J., Chikida, N.N., Kochieva, E.Z., van der Meer, I.M., Gilissen,
426 L.J.W.J., & Smulders, M.J.M. (2012). Expansion of the gamma-gliadin gene family in *Aegilops* and
427 *Triticum*. *BMC Evolutionary Biology*, 12, 1-12.

428 Ibrahim, M.A., Al-Hmoud, N.D., Al-Rousan, H., & Hayek, B.O. (2011). Detection of Durum Wheat
429 Pasta Adulteration in the Jordanian Market by Polymerase Chain Reaction Technology. *American*
430 *Journal of Food Technology*, 6, 492-499.

431 International Pasta Organization. (2014). *The world pasta industry status report 2013*. Retrieved
432 January 20, 2016, from <<http://www.internationalpasta.org>>.

433 Jankiewicz, A., Broll, H., & Zagon, J. (1999). The official method for the detection of genetically
434 modified soybeans (German Food Act LMBG § 35): a semi-quantitative study of sensitivity limits
435 with glyphosate tolerant soybeans (Roundup Ready) and insectresistant Bt maize (Maximizer).
436 *European Food Research and Technology*, 209, 77-82.

437 Kelly, F., & Bhave, M. (2007). Application of a DNA-based test to detect adulteration of bread
438 wheat in pasta. *Journal of Food Quality*, 30, 237-252.

439 Lamacchia, C., Di Luccia, A., Baiano, A., Gambacorta, G., La Gatta, B., Pati, S., & La Notte, E. (2007).
440 Changes in pasta proteins induced by drying cycles and their relationship to cooking behaviour.
441 *Journal of Cereal Science*, 46, 58-63.

442 Martel, E., Poncet, V., Lamy, F., Siljak-Yakovlev, S., Lejeune, B., & Sarr, A. (2004). Chromosome
443 evolution of *Pennisetum* species (Poaceae): implications of ITS phylogeny. *Plant Systematics and*
444 *Evolution*, 249, 139-149.

445 Omiccioli, E., Schiavano, G.F., Ceppetelli, V., Amagliani, G., Magnani, M., & Brandi, G. (2015).
446 Validation according to ISO/TS 12869:2012 of a molecular method for the isolation and
447 quantification of *Legionella* spp. in water. *Molecular and Cellular Probes*, 29, 86-91.

448 Pasqualone, A., Montemurro, C., Grinn-Gofron, A., Sonnante, G., & Blanco, A. (2007). Detection of
449 soft wheat in semolina and durum wheat bread by analysis of DNA microsatellites. *Journal of*
450 *Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 55, 3312-3318.

451 Pfaffl, M.W. (2004). Quantification Strategies in Real-time Polymerase Chain Reaction. In: Bustin
452 SA (Eds.), *A-Z of Quantitative PCR* (pp. 87-120). La Jolla, CA, USA, (Chapter 3).

453 Pfaffl, M.W., & Hageleit, M. (2001). Validities of mRNA quantification using recombinant RNA and
454 recombinant DNA external calibration curves in real-time RT-PCR. *Biotechnology Letters*, 23, 275-
455 282.

456 Piazzzi, S.E., & Cantagalli, P. (1969). Immunochemical Analysis on Soluble Proteins of Wheat. *Cereal*
457 *Chemistry*, 46, 642-646.

458 Piazzzi, S.E., Riparbelli, G., Sordi, S., Cantagalli, P., Pocchiari, F., & Silano, V. (1972). Immunochemical
459 Characterization of Specific Albumins of Bread Wheat. *Cereal Chemistry*, 49, 72-78.

460 Reischl, U., & Kochanowski, B. (1995). Quantitative PCR . A survey of the present technology.
461 *Molecular Biotechnology*, 3, 55-71.

462 Reiter, M., Kirchner, B., Müller, H., Holzhauser, C., Mann, W., & Pfaffl, M.W. (2011). Quantification
463 noise in single cell experiments. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 39, e124.

464 Resmini, P. (1969). Determination of the content of soft wheat in macaroni and alimentary paste
465 by electrophoretic analysis of protein components. *Annali dell'Istituto Superiore di Sanità*, 5, 404-
466 405.

467 Shewry, P.R., & Tatham, A.S. (1990). The prolamin storage proteins of cereal seeds: structure and
468 evolution. *Biochemical Journal*, 267, 1-12.

469 Sissons, M. (2008). Role of durum wheat composition on the quality of pasta and bread. *Food*,
470 *Global Science Book*, 2(2), 75-90.

471 Sonnante, G., Montemurro, C., Morgese, A., Sabetta, W., Blanco, A., & Pasqualone, A. (2009). DNA
472 Microsatellite Region for a Reliable Quantification of Soft Wheat Adulteration in Durum Wheat-
473 Based Foodstuffs by Real-Time PCR. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 57, 10199-10204.

474 Stevenson, A., McCarthy, P.K., & Griffin, M. (1994). Polyclonal antisera against unheated and
475 heated common wheat specific gamma and omega gliadins for the detection and adulteration of
476 durum wheat and durum wheat products with common wheats. *Food and Agricultural*
477 *Immunology*, 6, 435-442.

478 Terzi, V., Malnati, M., Barbanera, M., Stanca, A. M., & Faccioli, P. (2003). Development of analytical
479 systems based on real time PCR for *Triticum* species-specific detection and quantitation of bread
480 wheat contamination in semolina and pasta. *Journal of Cereal Science*, 38, 87-94.

481 Tilley, M. (2003). PCR Amplification of Wheat Sequences from DNA Extracted During Milling and
482 Baking. *Cereal Chemistry*, 81, 44-47.

483 Wagner, M., Morel, M.H., Bonicel, J., & Cuq, B. (2011). Mechanisms of heat-mediated aggregation
484 of wheat gluten protein upon pasta processing. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 59,
485 3146-3154.

486 Woolfe, M., & Primrose, S. (2004). Food forensics: using DNA technology to combat misdescription
487 and fraud. *Trends in Biotechnology*, 22(5), 222-226.