

1 **Diversity among maize populations from Spain and the United States for dough rheology and**
2 **gluten-free breadmaking performance**

3

4 Running title: **Dough rheology and breadmaking in maize**

5

6 Raquel Garzón,¹ Cristina M. Rosell,¹ Rosa A. Malvar,² Pedro Revilla²

7

8 ¹Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Technology (IATA-CSIC), C/ Agustín Escardino, 7, Paterna
9 46980, Valencia, Spain. E-mail: r.garzon@iata.csic.es crosell@iata.csic.es Phone number: +34

10 963900022. Fax number: +34 963636301

11 ²Misión Biológica de Galicia (CSIC), Apartado 28, 36080 Pontevedra, Spain. E-mail: rmalvar@

12 mbg.csic.es previlla@mbg.csic.es Phone number +34 986854800. Fax number +34 986841362

13

14 * Corresponding author: Pedro Revilla previlla@mbg.csic.es, Phone number +34 986854800, Fax

15 number +34 986841362

16

17 Research supported by the Spanish Plan for Research and Development (project codes AGL2013-48852-

18 C3-1-R and AGL2014-52928-C2-1-R), Spanish National Research Council (CSIC), and the European

19 Regional Development Fund (FEDER).

20

21

22 **Summary**

23

24 Maize is used for bakery and for gluten free food for celiac patients. Our objective was assessing diversity
25 for dough rheology and breadmaking in maize with different origins, grain types and growth cycles.

26 Endosperm type affected bread crumb color having dent maize higher L^* and a^* and instant recovery

27 speed. Population origin affected flotation index, onset pasting temperature, bread crumb color, hardness

28 and instant recovery speed. Finally, growth cycle affected flotation index, crumb color L^* and a^* , and

29 cohesiveness. Water binding capacity, crumb color and hardness were the most discriminative parameters

30 for maize. The maize population Andaluz/Daxa was the less distant from wheat parameters, and

31 Tremesino was the most different.

32

33 **Key words:** Maize; flour; rheology; bread; gluten-free bread

34

35 **Introduction**

36

37 In the north of Spain and Portugal, maize (*Zea mays* L.) whole grain has been used for bakery for more
38 than four centuries (Brites *et al.*, 2010; Malvar *et al.*, 2012; Revilla *et al.*, 2003, 2008; Vaz Patto *et al.*,
39 2007, 2009). In those countries, maize bread is usually made with mixtures of flour from maize, wheat
40 and rye. Nevertheless, maize is also used for bakery in countries where wheat is not available at
41 affordable prices (Nkhabutlane *et al.*, 2014; Rai *et al.*, 2012). Lately, a great potential value of maize is
42 the manufacturing of bakery products for celiac patients (Brites *et al.*, 2010; de la Hera *et al.*, 2013).
43 Indeed, maize lacks gluten, a mixture of storage proteins that gives wheat bread the viscoelastic network
44 that enables the dough to hold the gas produced during the fermentation process, leading to an aerated
45 crumb bread structure. However, gluten must be absent in the diet of celiac patients and bread made
46 without gluten has physical characteristics that differ substantially from standard wheat bread (Matos &
47 Rosell, 2011, 2015).

48 Quality criteria for maize have been defined for diverse culinary uses, e.g. maize is classified in
49 the US into five different grades, based on grain density, proportion of whole grains, damaged grains, and
50 grain color (FAO, 1992); nevertheless, less attention have been paid to their classification according to
51 breadmaking potential. Genotypic variation and environmental growth conditions have a significant
52 impact on physico-chemical quality of maize grain. This impact has been largely documented on the
53 processing quality and sensory properties of masa and tortilla (Mexican products) (Vazquez-Carrillo *et*
54 *al.*, 2011; Harrigan *et al.*, 2007), which required special processing. However, very limited information
55 has been reported regarding fermented bread. Previous reports pertaining to the relationship between
56 maize standard quality criteria and breadmaking potential have been focused on the production of breads
57 containing gluten. Revilla *et al.* (2008) found genetic variability for yield and grain quality in a collection
58 of open-pollinated maize populations used for making gluten containing bread in the north and northwest
59 of Spain. Brites *et al.* (2010) found not significant differences among maize varieties for dough behavior
60 during mixing and handling or specific volume, but sensory analysis revealed a preference for traditional
61 maize populations over the hybrids. Accordingly, consumers prefer maize bread made with traditional
62 flint populations than with modern commercial dent hybrids (Landa *et al.*, 2006). Differences among
63 maize samples were also significant for chemical traits such as protein, amylose and ash content (Brites *et*
64 *al.* 2010). Vaz Patto *et al.* (2009) found variability for viscosity and chemical composition in a collection

65 of maize populations from Portugal and concluded that Portuguese germplasm could be a valuable
66 resource for quality improvement. To the best of our knowledge, diversity for bakery performance in the
67 gluten free context has not been previously reported in a representative collection of maize germplasm.

68 Our objective was assessing diversity for dough rheology and breadmaking in representative
69 collection of open-pollinated maize populations with different origins, grain types and growth cycles..

70

71 **Material and Methods**

72

73 Maize

74

75 Seven maize open-pollinated populations were selected as a representative sample of the maize
76 germplasm available for breeding in the Spanish collection, including two populations from the USA
77 (Table 1). The populations represent the grain types, the climatic adaptation and the growth cycles used in
78 breeding programs. Each population was multiplied in Pontevedra (northwest of Spain) for three years in
79 order to have seed from three environments for evaluations. Two commercial flours of wheat and rice
80 were included in the tables of means for reference, but they were not included in the statistical analyses.
81 Whole grain of maize populations and commercial rice were milled and used for making bread, along
82 with wheat flour (Figure 1).

83 The assessment of the flotation index was used for characterizing the kernel hardness. One
84 hundred kernels were placed in a beaker containing 300 mL of NaNO₃ solution (1.25 g mL⁻¹). They were
85 stirred to separate the kernels and let stand for 1 min. The number of floating kernels indicates the
86 flotation index (SAGARPA, 2002). The test was performed in duplicate.

87

88 Maize whole meal characteristics

89

90 Whole meal maize flour was obtained after milling the samples using a laboratory mill (IKA M20
91 Labortechnik, Staufen, Germany). Whole meal flour was sieved through 0.85 mm screen, and then larger
92 particles were ground and sieved again to obtain less than 0.85 mm particles, this fraction was added back
93 to the flour. Moisture flour content was calculated based on ISO 6540:1980 method (ISO, 1980). The
94 pasting properties were determined by Rapid Visco Analyser (RVA 4500, Perten Instruments SA,
95 Stockholm, Sweden) following the International Association of Cereal Chemists Approved Method 162
96 (ICC, 1997). The sample (3.5 g of flour based on 14 g of moisture per 100 g of flour) was dispersed in
97 distilled water (25.0 mL). For RVA calculation, flour samples were hold for 60 s at 50 °C, heated from 50
98 to 95 °C in 282 s, hold at 95 °C for 150 s and then cooled to 50 °C. Each cycle was initiated by a 10 s, 960
99 rpm paddle speed for mixing followed by a 160 rpm paddle speed for the rest of the assay. Viscosity was
100 recorded during a heating-cooling cycle using Thermocline software for Windows (Perten Instruments

101 SA, Stockholm, Sweden). Peak viscosity at 95°C, final viscosity, setback (difference between final
102 viscosity and peak viscosity at 95°C) and onset temperature were evaluated.

103 The water hydration capacity, defined as the amount of water retained by the sample under
104 centrifugation, was also evaluated. Samples (100 mg) were mixed with distilled water (1 ml) and vortexed
105 for five minutes at 600 rpm, then they were centrifuged at 5,000 x g for 10 min. Water hydration capacity
106 was expressed as grams of water retained per gram of solid. All the analyses were made by duplicate.

107

108 Breadmaking Process

109

110 The formula used for maize and rice was in flour basis: 2% sugar, 1% dry yeast, 0.5% xanthan gum and
111 100% water. For wheat flour breads were used the same formulation without the hydrocolloid (xanthan
112 gum) and the amount of water was 60% (v/w flour basis). The doughs were optimally mixed at 100 rpm
113 in stirrer with a turbine accessory (IKA Eurostar 40, Staufen, Germany). The breadmaking were carried
114 out in a scale down method, 4 g of dough were put in well-greased glass pans, proofed for 30 min at 35
115 °C and 50% relative humidity and then baked in an oven at 130 °C for 7 min (Garzón & Rosell, 2014).

116 Two batches were run for each sample.

117

118 Bread Analyses

119

120 In order to determine the bread quality, the crumb color and texture were quantified. Crumb bread color
121 was determined by using a colorimeter (Chroma meter CR-400/410, Konica Minolta, Tokyo, Japan) after
122 standardization with a white calibration plate ($L^*=96.9$, $a^*=-0.04$, $b^*=1.84$). The color was recorded
123 using CIE- $L^*a^*b^*$ uniform color space, where L^* indicates lightness, a^* indicates hue on a green (-) to
124 red (+) axis, and b^* indicates hue on a blue (-) to yellow (+) axis. Values are the mean of three replicates.
125 Crumb hardness was determined in a Texture Analyzer TA-XT2i (Stable Micro Systems, Surrey, UK)
126 using a texture profile analysis (TPA). A bread slice of 10 mm thickness was compressed up to 50% of its
127 original height at a test speed of 1 mm/s, with a cylindrical stainless steel probe having an adapted
128 diameter for these slices (diameter 6 mm). Values were the mean of six replicates.

129

130 Statistical Analysis

131

132 The effect of maize population on grain hardness, flour characteristics and bread technological quality
133 parameters were analyzed by analysis of variance being varieties fixed factors and all other sources of
134 variation random factors. Means comparisons were performed by Fisher's protected LSD test. As the
135 maize populations represent different origins, growth cycles and grain types (Table 1), subsequent
136 analyses of variance were carried out for studying the effects of these factors on flour and bread quality
137 parameters. For these analyses, we grouped the populations by origins (North of Spain, South of Spain
138 and USA), growth cycles (early, medium and late), and grain type (dent and flint), respectively. In these
139 analyses, means were calculated with the Least-square-means method because the number of data used
140 for calculating each mean was different: consequently, mean comparisons were made by pairs of means
141 using the Least-square-means method. Principal component analyses were performed with flour and
142 bread parameters, respectively, in order to identify the most discriminant parameters for maize
143 populations and to figure out the distribution of the maize populations in the multivariable space. All
144 statistical analyses were conducted at a significant level of $P \leq 0.05$ with Statistical Analysis System (SAS
145 Institute, 2010).

146

147

148 **Results and discussion**

149

150 Grain, whole meal and bread quality traits of seven open-pollinated maize populations with different
151 grain type, origin and growth cycle (Table 1) were shown in Table 2. For comparison purposes, the values
152 obtained for wheat and rice are included in Table 2, but not considered in statistical analysis. Grain
153 quality was evaluated by recording flotation index, which is an estimator of grain hardness or grain
154 density. For flotation index, there was enough variability from the most grain-dense population
155 Tremesino (23.33) to the lightest-grain population ASG (76.67) (Table 2), but it was not possible to find
156 significant relationship with the type of grain. Growth cycle affected flotation index, having early
157 populations higher flotation index. Similarly, population origin affected flotation index, as the US
158 populations were harder than the Spanish ones. The optimum value for flotation index depends on the
159 intended use of the maize grain. Values lower than 40% are recommended for the masa and tortilla
160 industry, although highlands landraces used for that purpose had an average flotation index of 61%
161 (Vázquez-Carrillo *et al.*, 2011). The preference for high density grains have been reported for bread
162 (Thompson and Goodman, 2006; Revilla *et al.*, 2008).

163 Maize flours had water binding capacity similar to rice and larger than wheat flour; onset pasting
164 temperature was slightly larger in maize flours, compared to rice and wheat; maximum and final viscosity
165 in maize was far below those of rice and wheat; and setback was similar in maize and wheat (Table 2).
166 Moisture was higher for early than for late populations, and for American than for Spanish populations
167 (Table 3). Water binding capacity varied with origin, growth cycle and grain type, being the lowest values
168 obtained with Rastrojero and Sajambre, along with Tremesino and Tuy (Table 2). Pasting properties were
169 determined since gelatinization and gelification has been reported as one of the most important predictors
170 for gluten free bread development (Matos & Rosell, 2015). Viscosity recorded during the heating-cooling
171 cycle (Figure 2) of whole meal maize suspensions showed different profiles compared to those of wheat
172 or rice flours. Generally, viscosity patterns of maize traits lacked of a clear peak viscosity, showing a
173 continuous increase in viscosity during heating and cooling, although two deep slopes were detected
174 initially after the onset temperature and then at the end of the cooling gradient. No decay of viscosity,
175 when holding temperature at 95 °C, was detected when analyzing the different traits, indicating good
176 stability of the starch granules during heating, in consequence, no breakdown was determined. The lowest
177 maximum viscosity at 95 °C was obtained for Tremesino, which together with Tuy showed the lowest

178 final viscosity; Both populations had also the lowest flotation index and thus have the grains with the
179 highest density. It would be expected lower breadmaking performance in those populations since Matos
180 and Rosell (2015) found a significant positive correlation between the viscosity increase during cooling
181 and both hardness and cohesiveness of bread crumbs. There was diversity for flour quality among these
182 maize populations, as previously reported by Brites *et al.* (2010), who also found significant differences
183 among maize populations for flour color and viscosity, since they reflected the variation of genotypes
184 associated to starch structural properties (Ketthaisong *et al.*, 2014). The population Tuy, which had high
185 hedonic sensory qualification for gluten containing breads in a previous study (Revilla *et al.* 2008) was
186 closer to wheat only for grain hardness and cohesiveness, while it was distant for onset pasting
187 temperature, chewiness, and instant recovery speed.

188 Breads were made from each maize population to identify the effect of genetic variation on their
189 breadmaking performance (Table 2, Figure 1). All maize populations produced bread clearly distinct from
190 wheat and rice. Maize breads were far below wheat and rice values for crumb color L^* , retarded recovery
191 elasticity, cohesiveness and chewiness (Table 2). Maize populations had variable values for crumb color
192 a^* and b^* , being maize similar to wheat and rice for crumb color a^* and having higher values for crumb
193 color b^* . The southern Spanish late dent population Andaluz/Daxa was the closest one to wheat for crumb
194 color L^* and b^* , while the southern Spanish medium semident population Tremesino was the most distant
195 to wheat for crumb color a^* and was quite distant for L^* and b^* . Endosperm type affected significantly
196 bread traits (Table 3, Figure 1). Dent and flint populations were significantly different for some bread
197 traits, particularly flint maize had lower crumb luminosity L^* and reddish color (a^*), but yielded higher
198 yellowish tone (b^*). Southern Spanish maize led to brighter crumbs with reddish light yellow tones, and
199 breads showed faster recovery of the crumb structure, similar to the US maize. Finally, growth cycle
200 affected crumb color parameters L^* and a^* , and cohesiveness, having early populations higher crumb
201 color b^* and lower L^* and a^* and instant recovery speed than late populations. Regarding crumb
202 hardness, maize breads showed close hardness to rice breads, which, as expected, was higher than that of
203 wheat bread. Population origin had significant effect on hardness, being southern Spanish populations the
204 hardest ones. In addition, dent maize had higher instant recovery speed, which have being associated to
205 lighter crumb structures with higher number of gas cells leading to faster recovery of the structure after
206 compression (Matos *et al.*, 2014). Rai *et al.* (2012) found that substitution of wheat flour by rice or maize
207 altered the pasting properties and breadmaking qualities. As the proportion of wheat flour was reduced,

208 the pasting temperature and the baking absorption increased, whereas bread specific volume decreased.
209 Similar results were also reported by Nkhabutlane *et al* (2014), who found that steamed maize breads had
210 lower volume, harder and denser crumbs, their texture was more chewy, dry, fibrous, brittle and needed
211 higher compression force to deform than wheat bread. Therefore, bread quality parameters were quite
212 distant from those of wheat or rice, and most of them depend on the maize variety chosen. There was
213 diversity for bread quality among these maize populations but no clear pattern of geographic or growth
214 cycle was observed for dough characteristics. Similarly, Revilla *et al.* (2008) concluded that there was no
215 clear relationship between agronomic and breadmaking performance in gluten containing breads.

216 Altogether, our populations had lower pasting temperatures than those reported by Brites *et al.*
217 (2010) for the two Portuguese populations analyzed and even lower than those of wheat and rice. These
218 results agree with the results of Martínez and el-Dahs (1993) who found a reduction of maximum
219 viscosity and an increase of final viscosity when maize flour was added to wheat flour. Several authors
220 found clear differences between flint and dent maize for dough properties (Brites *et al.*, 2010; Almeida-
221 Dominguez *et al.*, 1997; Sandhu *et al.*, 2007); although present study indicates that flour and bread
222 characteristics are slightly related with flint or dent phenotype and dent grains were more distant than flint
223 grains for this quality traits when a representative sample of maize populations with intermediate values
224 for flint and dent grain are used.

225 Principal components analysis was performed to find possible clusters of maize populations
226 according to flour and bread parameters. The first two principal components (CP) for flour traits had
227 eigenvalue above one and explained 89% of the variability (Figure 3a). PC1 explained 67% of the
228 variability and the quality traits with highest contribution were final viscosity and setback with positive
229 sign, which were the most discriminative quality parameters for maize flour (Matos and Rosell 2015).
230 PC2 explained 22% of the variability and the quality trait with highest positive contribution was
231 maximum viscosity at 95°C, while Water Binding Capacity had a negative score in PC2. Both US
232 populations were located in the same sector of the plot, while the Spanish populations were dispersed.
233 Furthermore, there was no clear distribution pattern for origin, cycle or grain type. However, traditional
234 maize bread containing gluten in the humid Spain is made with populations like Tuy that is in the double
235 negative sector.

236 For bread quality (Figure 3b), the first three PC had eigenvalue above one; PC1 explained 41%
237 and had the highest positive contributions from hardness and crumb color L^* , while crumb color b^* and

238 cohesiveness had large negative contributions. PC2 explained 29% of the variability and the largest
239 positive contributors were chewiness, retarded recovered elasticity, and crumb color a^* . Therefore, the
240 bread quality parameters with the highest discriminant ability among maize populations were hardness,
241 crumb color L^* , crumb color b^* and cohesiveness. The distribution of maize populations in the PCA plot,
242 based on bread quality, was not related to that based on flour quality (Figure 3a). The distribution maize
243 populations in the PCA plot based on bread parameters did not follow a clear pattern. Nevertheless, the
244 two US populations were quite close and both populations from norther Spain were not far away along
245 the PC2, suggesting that the origin of maize germplasm could have some effect on bread quality. Also
246 both medium-cycle populations from the dry Spain (Rastrojero and Tremesino) were quite close,
247 suggesting that growth cycle could affect bread quality.

248 Considering both PCA for flour and bread together, they resemble the PC1 obtained by Vaz
249 Patto *et al* (2009) although the quality traits involved in each analysis were different except for the
250 viscosity traits. Similarly, these authors obtained a PC1 that included color, as in our present work. We
251 can speculate that the populations with positive scores in these PCs would produce flour with
252 characteristics less distant from the dough of wheat, though they are not necessarily those with more
253 potential value for the quality standards of traditional maize bread. Actually, the viscosity profile of
254 standard wheat and rice samples and that of two typical maize flours (the European Flint Tuy, and the
255 Corn Belt Dent AS3(HT)C3) was so different that we should not expect to imitate wheat bread replacing
256 wheat by maize (Figure 2). The viscoelastic profile obtained for these populations was very different from
257 those of wheat and rice, but it was also different than the profile found by Brites *et al.* (2010) by using
258 maize flour produced by an electric mill.

259

260 **Conclusion**

261

262 There is large diversity among maize populations for flour and bread quality parameters, and maize was
263 very different from wheat or rice for most parameters, particularly maximum and final viscosity, crumb
264 color b^* , retarded recovery elasticity and chewiness. Considering all traits together, the southern Spanish
265 medium semident population Tremesino was the most distant from wheat quality parameters, followed by
266 the northern Spanish medium flint population Tuy; while the southern Spanish population Andaluz/Daxa
267 and the US early semiflint population AS-G were the less distant to wheat. Maize origin affected most

268 quality parameters, while growth cycle affected fewer parameters and grain type only a few bread
269 parameters. These results open new possibilities for breeding maize for bread quality, but further research
270 is needed in order to find out which types of maize are more appropriate for breadmaking.

271

272 **Acknowledgements**

273 Technical assistance of M.V. San Eustaquio is greatly acknowledged.

274

275

276 **References**

277

- 278 Almeida-Dominguez, H. D., Suhendro, E. L., & Rooney, L. W. (1997). Factors affecting rapid visco
279 analyser curves for the determination of maize kernel hardness. *Journal of Cereal Science*, **25**, 93–
280 102.
- 281 Brites, C., Trigo, M. J., Santos, C., Collar, C., & Rosell, C. M. (2010). Maize-Based Gluten-Free Bread:
282 Influence of Processing Parameters on Sensory and Instrumental Quality. *Food Bioprocess*
283 *Technology*, **3**, 707–715
- 284 de la Hera, E., Talegon, M., Caballero, P., & Gomez, M. (2013). Influence of maize flour particle size on
285 gluten-free breadmaking. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, **93**, 924–932.
- 286 FAO (1992). Maize in human nutrition. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome.
- 287 Garzón, R., Rosell, C. M. (2014). A sistematic study of breadmaking settings for obtaining small scale
288 bread. AACC International Annual Meeting.
- 289 Harrigan, G. G., Stork, L. G., Riordan, S. G., Ridley, W. P., MacIsaac, S., Halls, *et al.* (2007). Metabolite
290 analyses of grain from maize hybrids grown in the United States under drought and watered
291 conditions during the 2002 field season. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, **55**, 6169–
292 617.
- 293 ICC (1997) Standard Methods of the International Association for Cereal Science and Technology, ICC
294 Standards. The International Association for Cereal Science and Technology: Vienna.
- 295 ISO, 1980. International Standard 6540:1980. Maize: Determination of Moisture Content (on Milled
296 Grains and on Whole Grains). Geneva: International Organization for Standardization.
- 297 Ketthaisong, D., Suriharn, B., Tangwongchai, R., & Lertrat, K. (2014). Changes in physicochemical
298 properties of waxy corn starches after harvest, and in mechanical properties of fresh cooked
299 kernels during storage. *Food Chemistry*, **151**, 561–567.
- 300 Landa, A., Revilla, P., Malvar, R. A., Butrón, A., & Ordás, A. (2006). Maíz para panificación.
301 *Agricultura*, **886**, 506-509.
- 302 Malvar, R. A., Butrón, A., & Revilla, P. (2012). Maize bread: healthy and safe. En: *Bread consumption*
303 *and health*, (MT Pedrosa Silva Clerici, ed.), pp.155-168, Nova Science Publishers, Nueva York,
304 ISBN 978-1-62081-090-3.

305 Malvar, R. A., Revilla, P., Moreno-González, J., Butrón, A., Sotelo, J. *et al.* (2008). White maize:
306 genetics of quality and agronomic performance. *Crop Science*, **48**, 1373-1381.

307 Martínez, F., & el-Dahs, A. A. (1993). Effect of addition of instant corn flour on rheological
308 characteristics of wheat flour and breadmaking III. *Archivos Latinoamericanos de Nutrición*, **43**,
309 321–326.

310 Matos, M.E., & Rosell, C.M. (2011). Chemical composition and starch digestibility of different gluten
311 free breads. *Plant Food for Human Nutrition*, **66**, 224-230.

312 Matos, M. E., Sanz, T., & Rosell, C. M. (2014). Establishing the function of proteins on the rheological
313 and quality properties of rice based gluten free muffins. *Food Hydrocolloids*, **35**, 150-158.

314 Matos, M. E., Rosell, C. M. (2015). A review: understanding gluten free dough for reaching breads with
315 physical quality and nutritional balance. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, **95**, 653–
316 661.

317 Nkhabutlane, P., du Randa, G. E., de Kock, H. L. (2014). Quality characterization of wheat, maize and
318 sorghum steamed breads from Lesotho. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, **94**, 2104–
319 2117.

320 Rai, S., Kaur, A., Singh, B., & Minhas, K. S. (2012). Quality characteristics of bread produced from
321 wheat, rice and maize flours. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, **49**, 786–789.

322 Revilla, P., Landa, A., Rodríguez, V. M., Romay, M. C., Ordás, A., & Malvar, R. A. (2008). Maize for
323 bread under organic agriculture. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*, **6**, 241–247.

324 Revilla, P., Soengas, P., Cartea, M. E., Malvar, R. A., & Ordás, A. (2003). Isozyme variability among
325 European maize populations and the introduction of maize in Europe. *Maydica*, **48**, 141–152.

326 SAGARPA (2002). Productos alimenticios no industrializados para consumo humano-Cereales-Parte 1:
327 Maíz blanco para proceso alcalino para tortillas de maíz y productos de maíz nixtamalizado-
328 Especificaciones y métodos de prueba. Dirección General de Normas México D.F NMX-FF-
329 034/1- SCFI-2002.

330 Sandhu, K. S., Singh, N., Malhi, N.S. (2007). Some properties of corn grains and their flours I:
331 Physicochemical, functional and chapati-making properties of flours. *Food Chemistry*, **101**, 938–
332 946.

333 SAS Institute (2010). SAS Version 9.3. The SAS Institute, Cary, NC.

- 334 Thompson, D.L., & Goodman, M.M. (2006). Increasing kernel density for two inbred lines of maize.
335 *Crop Science*, **46**, 2179–2182.
- 336 Vaz Patto, M. C., Alves, M. L., Almeida, N. F., Santos, C., Mendes Moreira, P., Satovic, Z. *et al.* (2009).
337 Is the bread making technological ability of Portuguese traditional maize landraces associated with
338 their genetic diversity? *Maydica*, **54**, 297–311.
- 339 Vaz Patto, M. C., Moreira, P. M., Carvalho, V., Pego, S. (2007). Collecting maize (*Zea mays* L. convar.
340 *mays*) with potential technological ability for bread making in Portugal. *Genetic Resources and*
341 *Crop Evolution*, **54**, 1555–1563.
- 342 Vázquez-Carrillo, G., García-Lara, S., Salinas-Moreno, Y., Bergvinson, D. J., Palacios-Rojas, N. (2011).
343 Grain and Tortilla Quality in Landraces and Improved Maize Grown in the Highlands of Mexico.
344 *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, **66**, 203–208.
- 345
- 346
- 347

Table 1. Maize populations evaluated during three years in Pontevedra (Northwestern Spain) for grain, flour and bread quality.			
Maize population	Origin	Growth cycle	Grain type
Andaluz/Daxa	South of Spain	Late	Dent
AS3(HT)C3	Corn Belt Dent, USA	Medium	Dent
ASG	USA + Europe	Early	Semi flint
Rastrojero	East of Spain	Medium	Semi dent
Sajambre	Northern Spain	Early	Flint
Tremesino	South of Spain	Medium	Semi dent
Tuy	Northwest of Spain	Medium	Flint

Table 2. Means^a of kernel, whole-meal and bread traits from seven maize open-pollinated populations cultivated in northwestern Spain during three years and standard references of rice and wheat.

Variety	Grain traits	Flour traits					
	Flotation index (%)	Moisture (%)	Water Binding Capacity (g H ₂ O/100g)	Onset pasting temperature (°C)	Maximum viscosity at 95°C (cP)	Final viscosity (cP)	Setback (cP)
Andaluz/D	43 b	10.8 c	149 ab	77.3 a-c	684 a	1755 a	1188 a
AS3(HT)C3	73 a	11.9 a	151 a	76.7 bc	660 ab	1728 a	1164 ab
ASG	77 a	11.5 b	145 a-c	76.0 c	661 ab	1716 a	1185 ab
Rastrojero	75 a	11.1 c	134 d	77.5 a-c	679 a	1612 a	1058 bc
Sajambre	67 a	10.9 c	130 d	79.0 a	671 a	1624 a	1128 ab
Tremesino	23 c	10.9 c	138 b-d	78.3 ab	542 c	1300 b	885 d
Tuy	38 bc	11.0 c	137 cd	79.3 a	586 bc	1405 b	944 cd
LSD $P=0.05$	19	0.4	11	2.2	83	179	129
Rice		11.3	128	69.0	4342	4164	1907
Wheat		14.0	88	64.5	2024	2209	1142

^a Means followed by the same letter within the same column, are not significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ according to the Fisher's protected LSD

Table 2 (continued). Means^a of kernel, whole-meal and bread traits from seven maize open-pollinated populations cultivated in northwestern Spain during three years and standard references of rice and wheat.

Variety	Bread traits							
	Crumb color <i>L</i> *	Crumb color <i>a</i> *	Crumb color <i>b</i> *	Hardness (g)	Retarded recovered elasticity	Cohesiveness	Chewiness (g)	Instant recovery speed
Andaluz/D	85 a	-0.9 b	13 d	189	0.7	0.2 c	25 bc	0.3 a
AS3(HT)C3	80 d	-1.3 cd	36 a	167	0.9	0.2 bc	23 c	0.3 a
ASG	81 c	-1.5 d	29 c	175	0.8	0.2 a-c	30 a-c	0.1 b
Rastrojero	83 b	-0.9 b	28 c	154	0.9	0.3 a	41 a	0.4 a
Sajambre	80 cd	-1.1 bc	30 c	141	0.8	0.3 a	31 a-c	0.1 b
Tremesino	81 c	-0.3 a	34 b	168	0.8	0.3 ab	35 ab	0.1 b
Tuy	81 c	-1.9 e	32 b	139	0.7	0.3 a	22 c	0.1 b
LSD P=.05	1	0.3	2			0.1	11	0.1
Rice	92	-1.7	6	146	1.2	0.7	114	0.3
Wheat	91	-1.8	11	57	5.3	0.8	149	0.3

^a Means followed by the same letter within the same column, are not significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ according to the Fisher's protected LSD

Table 3. Means ^a of kernel, whole-meal and bread traits from groups of open-pollinated maize populations: Dent vs. Flint, North Spain vs. South Spain vs. USA, and Early vs. Medium vs. Late cultivated in northwestern Spain during three years.							
Maize population	Grain traits	Flour traits					
	Flotation index (%)	Moisture (%)	Water Binding Capacity (g H ₂ O/100g)	Onset pasting temperature (°C)	Maximum viscosity at 95°C (cP)	Final viscosity (cP)	Setback (cP)
Grain type							
Dent maize	54	11.2	143	77.5	641	1599	1073
Flint maize	60	11.1	137	78.1	639	1582	1086
Origin							
North Spain	52 b	10.9 b	133	79.2 a	629	1515	1036
South-East Spain	47 b	11.0 b	140	77.7 ab	635	1555	1043
USA	75 a	11.7 a	148	76.3 b	660	1722	1174
Growth cycle							
Early	77 a	11.5 a	145	76.0	661	1716	1185
Medium	55 b	10.8 ab	149	77.3	684	1755	1188
Late	43 b	11.2 b	138	78.2	627	1534	1036

^a Means followed by the same letter within the same set (grain type, origin, or growth cycle), are not significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ according to the least-square-

means method

Table 3 (continued). Means^a of gluten free breads from groups of open-pollinated maize populations: Dent vs. Flint, North Spain vs. South Spain vs. USA, and Early vs. Medium vs. Late cultivated in northwestern Spain during three years.

Maize population	Bread traits							
	Crumb color <i>L</i> *	Crumb color <i>a</i> *	Crumb color <i>b</i> *	Hardness (g)	Retarded recovered elasticity	Cohesiveness	Chewiness (g)	Instant recovery speed
Grain type								
Dent maize	82 a	-0.9 a	28 b	168	0.8	0.2	31	0.3 a
Flint maize	81 b	-1.5 b	31 a	154	0.7	0.3	28	0.1 b
Origin								
North Spain	81 b	-1.5 b	31 a	145 b	0.7	0.3	28	0.1 b
South Spain	83 a	-0.7 a	25 b	171 a	0.8	0.2	34	0.3 a
USA	81 b	-1.4 b	33 a	165 b	0.8	0.2	26	0.2 a
Growth cycle								
Early	81 b	-1.5 b	29	173	0.8	0.2 ab	30	0.1
Medium	81 c	-1.1 a	32	154	0.8	0.3 a	31	0.2
Late	85 a	-0.9 a	13	189	0.7	0.2 b	25	0.3

^a Means followed by the same letter within the same set (grain type, origin, or growth cycle, are not significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$ according to the least-square-means method

Figure legends

Figure 1. Flour, bread and grain of standard wheat and rice samples and two typical maize populations (the Spanish flint Tuy and the Corn Belt Dent AS3(HT)C3).

Figure 2. Viscosity profile of two typical maize flours (produced in three locations indicated with color lines) obtained from laboratory mill determined by RVA (Rapid Visco Analyser). The three color lines represent years of seed origin: blue for the first year, green for the second and red for the third one. For comparison wheat and rice flour patterns are included.

Figure 3. Plot (PC1 x PC2) from the principal component analyses of whole-meal (a) and bread (b) quality traits for seven maize populations grown in three years in northwestern Spain. Populations with flint grains are represented as empty symbols while dent grains as full symbols. Red symbols are for populations from the USA, brown for those from south Spain and green for northern Spanish populations.

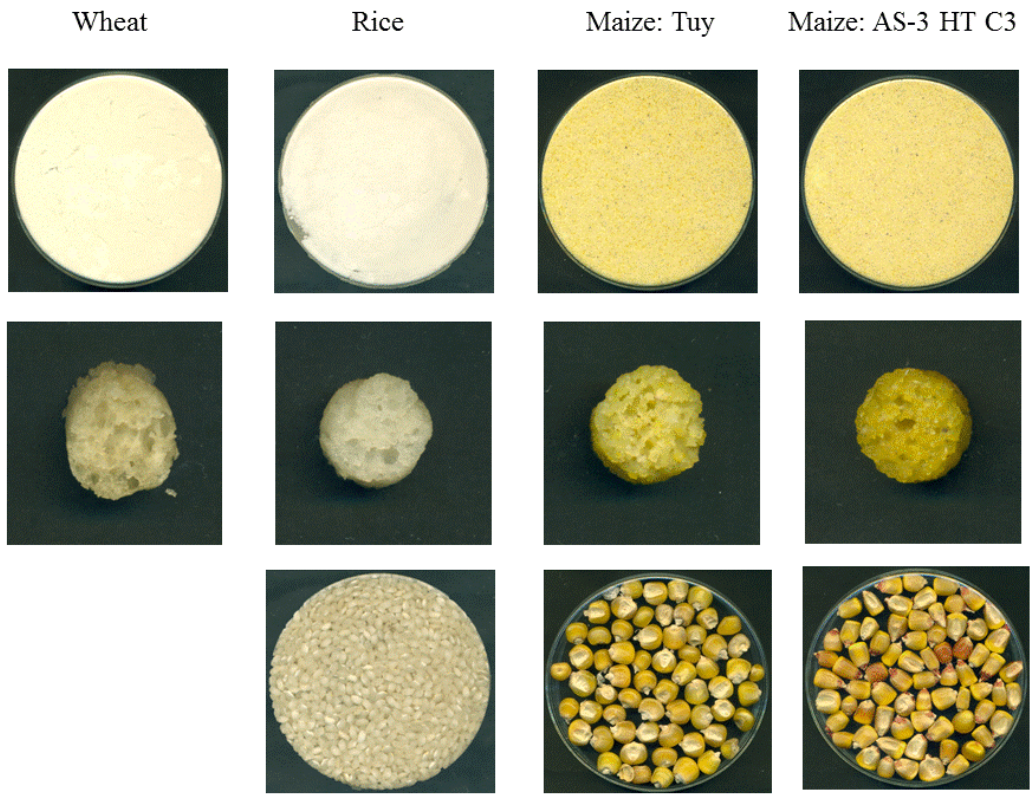


Figure 1

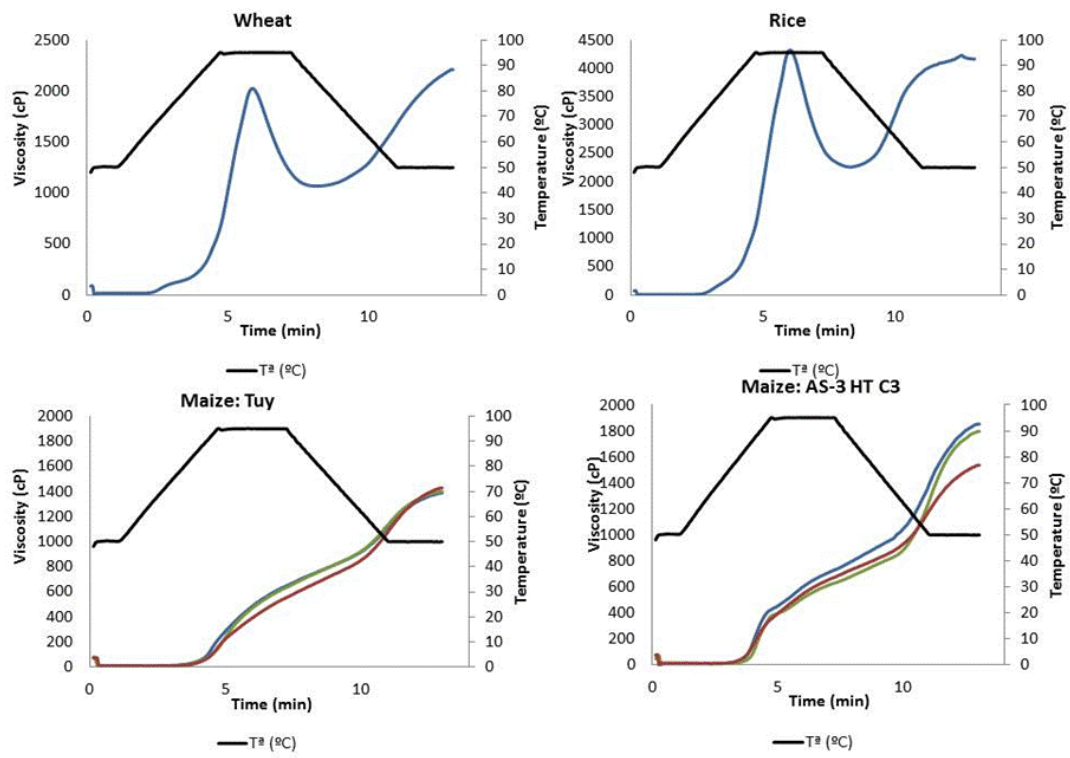


Figure 2

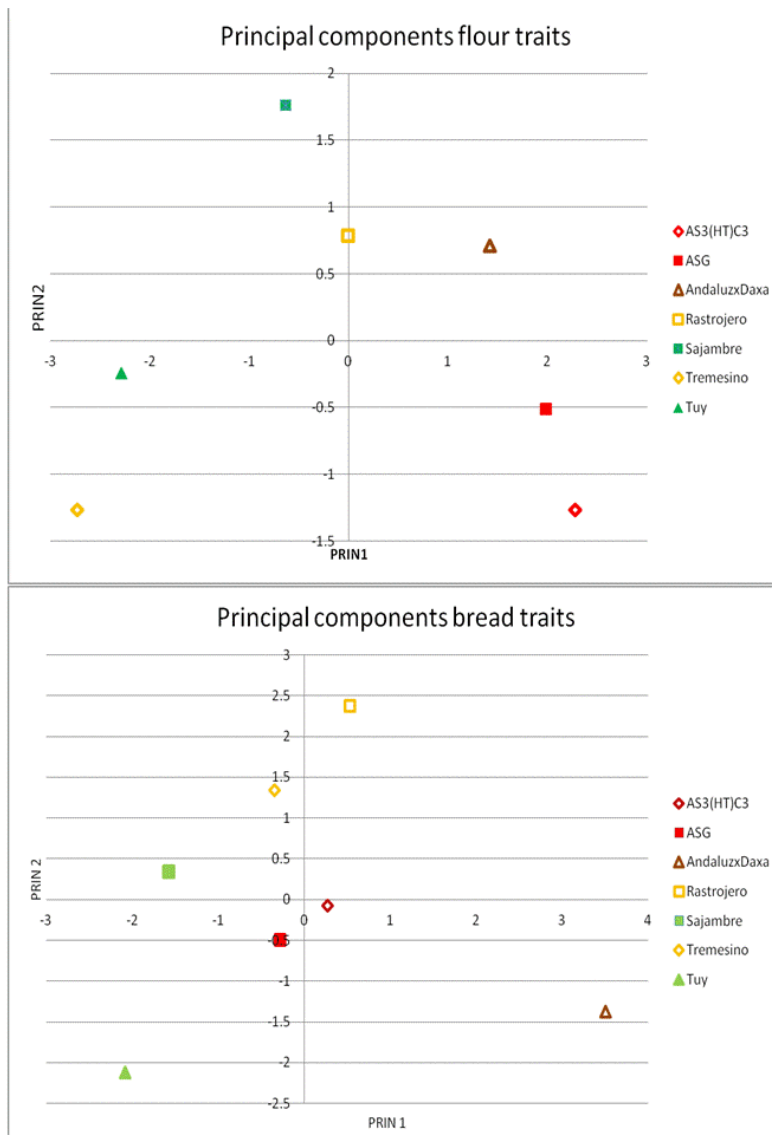


Figure 3