1	Selective modification of wheat bran affects its impact on gluten-
2	starch dough rheology, microstructure and bread volume
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13 Abstract

14 Wheat bran incorporation in bread has multiple health benefits, but also a detrimental effect on 15 overall bread quality. Bran is hypothesised to withdraw water from gluten, resulting in less optimal 16 viscoelastic dough properties and a lower gas retention capacity, in turn resulting in a decreased 17 bread loaf volume. In this study, wheat bran samples having different water retention capacities 18 were produced and used to investigate this hypothesis. Gluten-starch model systems were used and 19 the effect of substitution of part of the starch by bran in combination with different water 20 absorptions and mixing times was evaluated. The properties of the gluten network in the doughs 21 were investigated using rheological and microstructural analyses and these properties were linked to 22 the final bread loaf volume. A proper gluten network microstructure, as visualised with CLSM, could 23 be achieved in the presence of wheat bran. However, significant effects of the type of wheat bran, 24 water absorption and mixing time on dough rheology and loaf volume were observed. Wheat bran 25 addition decreased the strain hardening of dough despite optimisation of water absorption and 26 mixing time. The deleterious effect of wheat bran on dough rheology increased by adding modified 27 wheat bran with high water retention capacity and surface area. The results indicate that dynamic 28 water redistribution after mixing and gas cell incorporation can have an effect on dough rheology 29 when wheat bran is added to dough. The strain hardening behaviour of dough proved itself a 30 valuable predictor of bread loaf volume also in the presence of (modified) wheat bran.

32 Graphical abstract



34 Keywords

35 Wheat bran; dough rheology; gluten; CLSM; bread; water retention

37 1 Introduction

38 Because of the high dietary fibre content and rich nutritional profile, consumption of bran-rich food 39 products is, from a health perspective, more interesting than consumption of products based on 40 refined wheat flour. Indeed, consumption of wheat bran has been associated with health benefits 41 such as improved gastrointestinal health and a decreased risk for the development of cardiovascular 42 diseases, cancer and metabolic diseases (Stevenson et al., 2012). However, consumption of wheat 43 bran enriched foods remains low, because most consumers prefer products made with refined flour. 44 The incorporation of bran in cereal-based foods poses significant challenges during processing and on 45 product quality (Hemdane, Jacobs, et al., 2016). Because bread is an important staple food in many 46 countries, insight into the effect of wheat bran in bread making is crucial to increase whole wheat 47 bread consumption. However, there is a lack of insight into the mechanism(s) responsible for the 48 deleterious effect of wheat bran. This hampers the development of strategies for improvement.

49 The incorporation of wheat bran in bread has been associated with unwanted effects on dough properties, bread loaf volume, colour, texture and taste. Different mechanisms have been proposed 50 51 to explain the effect of wheat bran on bread loaf volume (Hemdane, Jacobs, et al., 2016). It has been 52 demonstrated that the lower bread loaf volume in the presence of wheat bran is not caused by a 53 decrease in the gassing power of the dough but by a decrease in the gas retention capacity (Pomeranz et al., 1977; Sanz Penella et al., 2008). Several studies ascribe this effect to the 54 55 competition for water between bran and gluten, which may cause considerable modifications to the 56 gluten network (Bock et al., 2013; Hemdane et al., 2017; Hemdane, Langenaeken, et al., 2016; Lai et 57 al., 1989; Li et al., 2012). Indeed, the strong water-binding properties of bran may negatively affect 58 dough rheology (Hemdane et al., 2018). Bock et al. (2013) and Li et al. (2012) stated that because of 59 bran induced redistribution of water in dough, the secondary structure of gluten changes and this is the basis of the poor quality of whole wheat bread. Nevertheless, a comprehensive study into the 60 61 combined effect of wheat bran and water binding on the gluten network development is lacking.

62 During the entire bread-making procedure, dough is submitted to stress and deformation. The 63 rheological properties of dough are involved in its functional behaviour and final product quality. 64 Strain hardening of gluten proteins in dough promotes equal growth of gas cells and delays their 65 coalescence and disproportionation during late fermentation and early baking (Meeus et al., 2019). 66 Recent work (Meerts et al., 2017a, 2017b) has shown the value of pure uniaxial extensional 67 measurements for studying the rheology of wheat doughs at large deformations in the non-linear 68 regime. In literature, the effect of wheat bran on dough rheology has to the best of our knowledge, 69 however, only been studied with empirical methods using the Farinograph (Sanz Penella et al., 2008; 70 Zhang & Moore, 1997), Extensigraph (Zhang & Moore, 1997), Alveograph (Gómez et al., 2011) and 71 Rheofermentometer (Gómez et al., 2011; Sanz Penella et al., 2008). Besides, the effect of water 72 content is not clear, as dough development conditions are often not optimised. Jacobs et al. (2016) 73 indicated the importance of the water absorption and mixing time on the ability of dough to retain 74 gases during fermentation and baking and consequently bread loaf volume. They reported that for 75 wheat bran addition, baking absorptions as determined by Farinograph and Mixograph do not 76 correspond to the baking absorptions that coincide with the maximal loaf volume. This makes 77 studying the behaviour of bran in bread extremely complicated, as it is challenging to disentangle the 78 effects of altered dough formulations and direct effects of wheat bran.

79 Against this background, more insight into the effect of wheat bran hydration properties on gluten 80 network development is needed. Moreover, the effect of dough water absorption and mixing time 81 should be included when examining the effect of wheat bran in bread. Therefore, in this study, the 82 hypothesis that the high water binding capacity of wheat bran causes a modification of the 83 microstructure of the gluten network and/or its rheological properties and, therefore, a lower loaf volume was evaluated. This was done by creating wheat bran samples with different water binding 84 85 capacities. The effect of these wheat bran samples on the viscoelastic gluten network in dough was 86 investigated at different water absorptions and mixing times and linked to the effect on bread loaf 87 volumes. A gluten-starch mixture as a simplified model system for flour was used. It allowed us to

88 keep the gluten content constant when wheat bran is added and excludes the effect of gluten 89 dilution. By using different water absorptions and mixing times, we could evaluate if, under optimal 90 conditions, a similar gluten network with good gas retention capacity could be developed and 91 contribute to a high bread loaf volume. The development of the gluten network was investigated by 92 studying the gluten network microstructure. The viscoelastic properties of the dough were evaluated 93 using a fundamental rheological technique rather than empirical ones. The effect of the different water absorptions and mixing times combined with the wheat bran samples with different water 94 binding capacities will inform us of the effect of wheat bran hydration properties during bread 95 96 making.

97 2 Materials and methods

98 2.1 Materials

99 Commercial wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) bran was provided by Dossche Mills (Deinze, Belgium). The 100 wheat bran consisted of 25.0 ± 2.8% AX, 11.4 ± 1.0% starch, 18.1 ± 0.5% proteins, 5.4 ± 0.5% lipids 101 and 6.4 ± 0.1% ash as described by De Bondt *et al.* (2020). Vital wheat gluten (ca. 75% proteins) and 102 wheat starch were from Tereos Syral (Aalst, Belgium). Sugar, salt and fresh compressed baker's yeast 103 (Koningsgist, AB Mauri, Dordrecht, The Netherlands) were purchased at a local supermarket. The 104 dyes used for microscopy were from Sigma Aldrich (Bornem, Belgium).

105 2.2 Wheat bran modification

Three different wheat bran samples were obtained by dry milling (DM) of commercial wheat bran: coarse (C_{DM}), fine (F_{DM}) and ultrafine (UF_{DM}) wheat bran. C_{DM} was obtained by milling the commercial wheat bran using a Cyclotec 1093 Sample mill (FOSS, Höganäs, Sweden) with a sieve with mesh size 2 mm. The F_{DM} and UF_{DM} wheat bran were obtained by milling the commercial wheat bran for 30 seconds and 2 min, respectively, in a vibratory disc mill RS 200 (Retsch, Haan, Germany) equipped with a stainless steel grinding jar of 250 mL (20 g dm wheat bran). With wet milling (WM), an additional wheat bran sample with an ultrafine particle size was obtained (UF_{WM}). Herefore, a suspension of bran in deionised water (20% dm) was milled for 6 min in the vibratory disc mill RS 200. After milling, the suspension was freeze-dried before further use.

115 2.3 Particle size distribution

The particle size of the modified wheat bran samples was measured with the wet module of an LS 13 320 Laser Diffraction Analyser (Beckman Coulter, Suarlée, Belgium). Approximately 50 mg of bran was suspended in 20 mL water and sonicated (20 kHz, amplitude 40%) for 1 minute to avoid aggregation. This sample was analysed in quadruplicate and the particle size was calculated using the Fraunhofer Theory.

121 2.4 Hydration properties of wheat bran

The total water retention capacity (TWRC) was measured in triplicate based on the method described by Jacobs et al. (2015) with some slight modifications. Wheat bran (1.000 g) was weighed in a falcon tube and 30 mL deionised water was added. The falcon tube was shaken for 30 min (150 rpm, 7°C) and centrifuged for 10 min (4000 g, 7°C) after which the supernatant was discarded from the pellet. The residue was weighed and reweighed after drying overnight in an oven at 90°C. The water held by the sample was expressed on the initial dry mass of the sample, as shown by this equation:

Total water retention capacity $\left(\frac{mL}{g}\right)$

= $rac{mass \ pellet \ after \ centrifugation \ -mass \ pellet \ after \ drying}{inital \ dry \ mass \ of \ sample}$

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The strong water retention capacity (SWRC) was determined in triplicate with drainage centrifugation based on the method described by Jacobs *et al.* (2015) and optimised by De Bondt *et al.* (2020). Wheat bran (50 mg) was added to the upper part of a QlAprep Spin Miniprep Columns (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and 700 μl deionised water was added. Samples were hydrated for 1 h

and centrifuged for 10 min at 15000g. Afterwards, the samples were weighed and reweighed after
drying overnight at 90°C. A blanc with water was used to correct for the amount of water held by the
filter. The SWRC was calculated as the amount of water held by the initial dry mass of the sample:

$$Strong \ water \ retention \ capacity \ \left(\frac{mL}{g}\right) = \frac{m_{centr} - m_{dry} - m_{filter}}{m_{initial \ dry}}$$

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With m_{initial dry} the initial dry mass of the sample, m_{centr} the mass of the material in the column after
centrifugation, m_{dry} the mass of the material in the column after drying and m_{filter} the mass of water
held by the filter.

141 2.5 Nitrogen physisorption

The specific surface area of the wheat bran samples was measured using the BET Surface Area Analyser (3P meso 222, 3P Instruments, Odelzhausen, Germany) based on nitrogen gas sorption at 77 K. Samples were freeze-dried and 1 to 2 g of sample was used for analysis. Degassing was done for 6 hours at 60°C, and the measurements were done at a dose amount of 0.5ml/g until a relative pressure (p/p0) of 0.3 and 2.0 ml/g until a relative pressure of 0.99.

147 2.6 Dough rheology

148 Dough rheology was measured according to Meerts et al. (2017b) with some slight modifications. 149 Dough was prepared as described in 2.2.1, i.e. including yeast, sugar and salt. After kneading, the 150 dough was pressed between two plates for 1 min to obtain a sample thickness of 4 mm. Dough strands with fixed dimensions (length = 12.5 mm, height = 4.0 mm, thickness = 4.0 mm) were 151 152 prepared using a hollow stamp and analysed without resting. The strands were attached to the 153 extensional viscosity fixture (EVF) mounted on an ARES-G2 rheometer (TA Instruments, New Castle, 154 DE, USA) using two clamps. Extension took place at a constant nominal rate of 0.12 s⁻¹, resulting in an effective extension rate of 0.10 s⁻¹ due to slip phenomena until a Hencky strain (ϵ (t)) of 2.89 was 155 156 reached. The reported data are means of measurements on seven dough strands from two separate dough batches. In Figure 1 the different parameters derived from the extensional viscosity curves are
shown alongside the symbols used. In the other figures, the measuring points after breakage of the
dough strands are removed for clarity of the graphs.



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Figure 1. An example of an extensional viscosity curve that is obtained using the setup that is used and the parameters derived from it.

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164 2.7 Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM)

165 Dough was prepared as described in 2.2.1, but part of the water was replaced by solutions containing

166 calcofluor (2.00 ml; 0.1 mg/ml), fluoresceïne (0.43 ml; 0.1 mg/ml) and rhodamine B (0.43 ml; 0.1

167 mg/ml), such that the dough contained 23 ppm calcofluor and 5 ppm fluoresceine and rhodamine B

each on flour basis. After kneading, the dough was squeezed between slides and and the fluorescently stained components visualised with a 20x objective on a Fluoview 1000 confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus). Images were obtained by sequentially scanning with different laser beams and emission filters. Calcofluor was excited with a laser of 405 nm and detected between 410 and 490 nm. Fluoresceine and Rhodamine B were excited with a laser of 488 and 561 nm respectively and dectected between 495-540 nm and 575-620 nm. Images of 1024 x 1024 pixels were made with a speed of 4 µs/pixel and size 635.9 µm x 635.9 µm with the use of the Kalman filter.

For better visualisation, the contrast of the pictures was adjusted with ImageJ. We choose to adjust the contrast up to 1% saturated pixels with histogram stretching using the 'enhance contrast' function. The image of the red channel shows the gluten strands and is further analysed with AngioTool (see further). The green channel shows both proteins and starch. To visualise the proteins and starch simultaneously, the red channel was subtracted from the green channel to create a new green image representing only fluorescent starch. Afterwards, this channel was merged with the red channel.

Protein network analysis was performed as described by Bernklau *et al.* (2016). The red channel of the CLSM pictures was analysed with AngioTool64 version 0.6a (National Cancer Institute, National Institute of Health, Maryland, USA). The vessel diameter was set to 2 and 3 and the low and high threshold intensity to 15 and 255. Small particles were removed under 10 and the function 'fill holes' was deactivated. Calibration was set to 1.6 pixels/µm. Doughs were made in triplicate and from each dough, eight images were made, resulting in 24 images for each dough type. The gas cell area was determined by calculating the area of pixels with a brightness value below 300.

189 2.8 Bread making

The gluten-starch mixture consisted of 12% vital gluten and 88% starch, while the gluten-starch-bran
mixture consisted of 12% gluten, 73% starch, 15% bran.

192 Bread was made according to the straight dough procedure of Shogren and Finney (1984). The 193 following formula was used: 10.0 g gluten-starch or gluten-starch-bran mixture (14.0% moisture 194 content), 5.3% compressed fresh yeast, 6.0% sucrose, and 1.5% salt. Water absorption and kneading 195 time were varied. The ingredients were mixed in a 10 g pin bowl mixer (National Manufacturing, 196 Lincoln, NE, USA). Dough fermentation was performed in a fermentation cabinet (National 197 Manufacturing) at 30 °C and 90% relative humidity. Punching of the dough was done after 52 and 77 198 min of fermentation. After 90 min of fermentation, the dough was punched, moulded, and proofed 199 for an additional 36 min. The dough was baked for 13 min at 232 °C in a rotary oven (National 200 Manufacturing, Lincoln, NE, USA). Loaf volume was determined with a Volscan Profiler (Stable Micro 201 Systems, UK).

202

203 2.9 Statistics

For dough rheology, seven measurements were performed on two dough samples and for CLSM eight measurements were performed on three dough samples. A mixed model was constructed to identify significant differences in parameters, and means were compared with a Tukey test. In this way, both the variability in the strands and in the dough samples was taken into account.

208 3 Results

209 3.1 Hydration properties of dry-milled and wet-milled wheat bran

Wheat bran was milled in different ways to obtain four wheat bran samples with different hydration properties (Table 1). Three wheat bran samples were obtained by dry milling (DM): coarse (C_{DM}), fine (F_{DM}) and ultrafine (UF_{DM}) wheat bran. One wheat bran sample was obtained by wet milling (WM): ultrafine (UF_{WM}).

214 C_{DM} , obtained after dry milling with a Cyclotec 1093 Sample mill, had a median particle sizes (d₅₀) of 215 963.7 µm. Dry milling with a vibratory disc mill for 30 seconds and 2 minutes resulted in bran with a

216 d_{50} of 193.5 μ m (F_{DM}) and 28.5 μ m (UF_{DM}), respectively. A similar ultrafine particle size (d_{50} of 28.4 217 μ m) was obtained by wet milling wheat bran for 6 minutes, resulting in the UF_{WM} wheat bran. 218 Particle size reduction by dry milling slightly increased the specific surface area of the wheat bran, 219 but the UF_{WM} bran had a much higher surface area (1.49 m²/g dm) than the UF_{DM} bran (0.48 m²/g 220 dm). On the one hand, the SWRC of the samples followed the same trend as the surface area. On the 221 other hand, the TWRC decreased during progressive dry milling. Wet milling also reduced the TWRC 222 in comparison with the C_{DM} bran. The decrease was smaller for the UF_{WM} bran (3.93 ml/g dm) than 223 for the UF_{DM} bran (3.22 ml/g dm).

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Table 1 The physical properties of coarse bran (C_{DM}), fine bran (F_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling (UF_{DM}) and wet milling (UF_{WM}). Means in the same row with a different letter are significantly different (p<0.05).

	C _{DM}	F _{DM}	UF _{DM}	UF _{WM}
d₅₀ (μm)	963.7 ± 80.5ª	193.5 ± 60.8 ^b	28.5 ± 0.9 ^c	28.4 ± 0.3 ^c
BET surface area (m²/g dm)	0.35 ± 0.02 ^c	0.33 ± 0.05 ^c	0.48 ± 0.02^{b}	1.49 ± 0.06 ^a
Total water retention capacity (ml/g dm)	4.96 ± 0.27ª	3.37 ± 0.04 ^c	$3.22 \pm 0.0^{\circ}$	3.93 ± 0.02 ^b
Strong water retention capacity (ml/g dm)	0.90 ± 0.02 ^c	0.97 ± 0.02 ^c	1.09 ± 0.05^{b}	1.39 ± 0.04ª

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228 3.2 Bread loaf volume of gluten-starch mixtures with and without modified wheat

229 bran

Breads prepared from gluten-starch mixtures with and without modified wheat bran were made with different water absorptions and mixing times. The optimal conditions for dough development for the gluten-starch mixture were determined by Mixograph and Farinograph and were 4.0 min mixing time and 51.4% Farinograph water absorption, respectively (results not shown). In the presence of wheat bran, Farinograph and Mixograph do not provide the processing conditions that correspond with an optimal bread loaf volume. It was shown that the higher the water absorption is, the higher the bread loaf volume will be, with dough handling properties as the limiting factor (Roels et al., 1993).

Therefore, the maximal water absorption of a starch-coarse bran-water mixture that still gives a manageable dough was manually determined (61.6%). For the mixtures with modified wheat bran, the same maximal water absorption was used. Based on these values and some preliminary dough making trials, a range of manageable water absorptions and mixing times was chosen for glutenstarch and gluten-starch-bran bread-making (Figure 2).

Figure 2 shows the specific loaf volume of bread made with gluten-starch or gluten-starch-bran mixtures for different water absorptions and mixing times. The largest loaf volume (2.95±0.13 ml/g) was achieved with the gluten-starch mixture at a water absorption of 51.4% and mixing time 4.0 min. With the addition of bran, a maximal specific volume of only 2.50±0.10 ml/g could be achieved. Particle size reduction with dry milling always resulted in smaller bread loaf volumes. Bread made with UF_{WM} bran did not rise at all and was therefore very small. Changing the water absorption or mixing time did not have any effect on the dough made with UF_{WM} bran.



Figure 2. The specific volume of bread made with gluten-starch(-bran) mixtures with different water absorptions
 and mixing times. Coarse bran (C_{DM}), fine bran (F_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling (UF_{DM}) and wet
 milling (UF_{WM}) were used. Means of triplicate measurements are given with standard deviations.

Rheology of gluten-starch dough at different water absorptions and mixing times 254 3.3 255 The effect of water content and mixing time on the rheology of gluten-starch dough is shown in 256 Figure 3. For all curves, the transient extensional viscosity η_e^+ increased linearly between a strain of 257 0.01 and 0.1. At higher strains, η_e^+ increased super-linearly, which reflects the strain hardening 258 behaviour of the viscoelastic gluten network. When the mixing time was increased, the whole curve 259 shifted downwards. On the contrary, for increasing water contents, the linear part of the curve 260 shifted downwards whereas at larger strains the curves at different water contents increase until a 261 similar viscosity.

262 Several values can be deduced from the curves and used to compare them (Figure 4) quantitatively 263 (Figure 1). The minimal strain at which the dough strands in this study break is 1.05. Therefore, the 264 viscosity at strain 1.05 is used to compare all dough strands in the non-linear part at the same 265 viscosity. The extrapolation of the linear part of the curve (strain 0.01-0.1) to strain 1.05 gives a good 266 indication of the behaviour of the dough in the linear part because it takes into account the absolute 267 value and the slope of the linear part. This value is named the linear viscosity at strain 1.05. The 268 strain at the breakpoint and the maximum viscosity are also given, in order to be able to quantify 269 the full non-linear part of the different dough strands. The strain hardening behaviour of the dough is 270 quantified by the SHI, which is the ratio of the maximum viscosity on the linear viscosity at the 271 maximal strain.

The linear viscosity, the viscosity at strain 1.05 and the strain at breakpoint are well correlated with water absorption and mixing time. Increasing the water content or increasing the mixing time, decreased the linear viscosity at strain 1.05 and the viscosity at strain 1.05. The strain at the breakpoint, which is a measure for the resistance of dough against extension, was not influenced by the water absorption but was determined by the mixing time. The maximum viscosity gave a very large variability and, therefore, it was not possible to see significant differences in maximum viscosity

for the different conditions. However, there was a trend that the maximum viscosity decreases when water absorption increases. For a mixing time of 4 minutes, considered optimal, the maximum viscosity was higher than for 2.5 or 5.5 minutes. The SHI shows an increasing trend in function of water content and mixing time.



Effect of mixing time



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Figure 3. Extensional viscosity curves for gluten-starch doughs prepared at different water contents and mixing times. Mixing times are 2.5 min (\circ), 5.0 min (\Box) or 7.5 min (Δ) and water absorption (WA) 47.4% (light grey), 49.4% (grey) or 51.4% (black).



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Figure 4 Rheological parameters of gluten-starch dough made with different water absorptions and mixing
 times, deduced from extensional viscosity curves. Means are shown. For each parameter, different letters
 indicate significant differences (p<0.05).

3.4 Gluten network microstructure in gluten-starch doughs at different mixing times In Figure 5, the effect of mixing time on the gluten network microstructure of a gluten-starch dough is shown. At a mixing time of 2.5 min, fewer but bigger gluten strands are visible. At a mixing time of 4.0 and 5.5 min, the gluten network seems to be more distributed, surrounding the starch granules. The protein network analysis (Figure 6) indeed shows that the protein width and lacunarity (which is a measure for the presence of irregular structures and large holes) are larger and the protein length

- smaller for the dough that was mixed for 2.5 minutes than for dough mixed 4.0 or 5.5 minutes.
- 299 Besides, the end-point and branching rate are maximal at 4.0 minutes of mixing.



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Figure 5. Influence of mixing time on dough microstructure of gluten-starch dough. Doughs were prepared in
 triplicate (a, b and c) at a water absorption of 51.4% and at different mixing times (2.5, 4.0 and 5.5 minutes).
 Doughs were stained with rhodamine B to visualise proteins (red) and with fluoresceine to visualise starch
 granules (green) and analysed with CLSM.



Figure 6. Influence of mixing time on dough gluten network microstructure as analysed with AngioTool. Doughs
were prepared in triplicate (a, b and c) at a water absorption of 51.4% and at different mixing times (2.5, 4.0
and 5.5 minutes) and each dough was analysed 8 times (24 measurements). For each parameter, different
letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05).

310 3.5 Rheology of gluten-starch doughs with coarse bran at different water311 absorptions and mixing times

In Figure S1 and Figure S2, the effect of water absorption and mixing time on the rheology of dough made from a mixture of gluten, starch and coarse bran is shown. There were only small effects of the water absorption on the dough rheological parameters. The effect of the mixing time on the linear viscosity at strain 1.05, the viscosity at strain 1.05 and the strain at breakpoint was similar as for dough without bran. The maximum viscosity decreased when mixing time increased, so there was no optimum as was seen with dough without bran (Figure 4).

The extensional viscosity curve of the gluten-starch dough at the conditions that correspond to the highest bread loaf volume (51.4% water absorption and 4.0 min mixing time) was compared with that of gluten-starch-coarse bran doughs with different water absorptions and mixing times (Figure 7). This shows that it is possible to get a similar viscosity in the linear part in the presence and absence of bran by changing water content and mixing time. However, in the presence of bran, the viscosity does not increase as much as in the gluten-starch dough. Besides, most gluten-starch-bran doughs break faster than the dough without bran.

Figure 7. Extensional viscosity curves for the optimal gluten-starch dough, prepared at 51.4% water absorption and 4.0 minutes of mixing (black dots), together with gluten-starch-bran doughs prepared at different water contents and mixing times.

330 3.6 Rheology of gluten-starch doughs with modified wheat bran

331 In Figure 8, the effect of the different modified wheat bran samples on the dough rheology of a 332 gluten-starch mixture is shown. For all doughs, the water absorption and mixing time that 333 correspond to the maximum bread loaf volume are used. This was a water absorption and mixing 334 time of 51.4% and 4.0 minutes or 61.6% and 7.5 minutes, for the gluten-starch and the gluten-starchbran doughs, respectively. The wheat bran-containing doughs had a significantly lower SHI (2.4-8.7) 335 than the dough without wheat bran (13.8) (Figure 8B). The dough rheology in the three dry milled 336 wheat bran samples is similar. However, the wet-milled wheat bran shows a complete different 337 338 rheological behaviour. The viscosity of the entire curve is much higher, and almost no strain 339 hardening could be observed. Besides, the strain at breakpoint is significantly lower than in the other 340 samples.

Figure 8. (A) Extensional viscosity curves for gluten-starch dough with or without modified bran. Coarse bran (C_{DM}), fine bran (F_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling (UF_{DM}) and wet milling (UF_{WM}) were used. (B) Rheological parameters corresponding to the extensional viscosity curves. Means are shown. For each column, different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05).

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348 3.7 Gluten network microstructure in gluten-starch doughs with modified wheat

349 bran

350 The microstructure of dough was visualised with CLSM (Figure 9 and Figure S3). For all doughs, the

351 water absorption and mixing time that correspond to the maximum bread loaf volume are used. In

352 Figure 9A, the gluten strands are visualised in red and the starch granules in green. In Figure 9B, the 353 fluorescence of calcofluor is shown, which corresponds mainly to the wheat bran particles. It is not 354 possible to visually see differences in the gluten structure between the dough without bran and the 355 doughs with coarse, UF_{DM} and UF_{WM} bran. In the microscopy pictures of UF_{DM} and UF_{WM} bran, much 356 more wheat bran particles are present than in the coarse bran. A rough calculation shows that the 357 volume of one sphere of 200 μ m (d₅₀ of C_{DM} bran) is the same as around 300 spheres of size 30 μ m 358 (d₅₀ of UF_{DM} and UF_{WM} bran). This shows that it is possible that much more particles are seen in the 359 UF wheat bran. In Figure 9, there is no bran particle present in the microscopy picture of the C_{DM} 360 bran.

Protein network analysis was used to quantify the gluten network. In Figure 9C, the network obtained with AngioTool is shown, and the results are shown in Figure 10. Dough with wheat bran shows a higher protein strand width and length relative to a dough without bran. Besides, the branching rate is higher and the end-point range is lower, which indicates that the network is more interconnected. The different wheat bran samples show similar behaviour, only the lacunarity and gas cell area of the UF_{WM} bran is significantly higher than for the other bran samples.

Figure 9. Gluten microstructure of dough made with a mixture of gluten and starch (water absorption 51.4% and mixing time 4.0 min) or a mixture of gluten, starch and (modified) bran (water absorption 59.6% and mixing time 7.5 min). Coarse bran (C_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling (UF_{DM}) and wet milling (UF_{WM}) were used. Doughs were stained with rhodamine B to visualise proteins (A-red), with fluoresceine to visualise starch granules (A-green) and with calcofluor to visualise bran particles (B-blue) and analysed by CLSM. The protein network was analysed with Angiotool (C). The scale bar has a size of 100 μm.

Figure 10. Gluten microstructure data as obtained with AngioTool analysis of pictures of gluten and starch
dough (water absorption 51.4% and mixing time 4 min) or gluten, starch and (modified) bran dough (water
absorption 59.6% and mixing time 7.5 min). Coarse bran (C_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling (UF_{DM})
and wet milling (UF_{WM}) were used. Doughs were prepared in triplicate, and each dough was analysed eight
times (24 measurements). For each parameter, different letters indicate significant differences (p<0.05).

378 3.8 Correlation between dough rheology and bread loaf volume in the presence and379 absence of wheat bran

380 We investigated if there is a correlation between bread loaf volume and dough rheology. For dough 381 without bran and dough with C_{DM} , F_{DM} and UF_{DM} , the 9 different conditions of water absorption and 382 mixing time were used. The UF_{WM} bran was only included at a water absorption of 61.6% with mixing 383 times 5, 7.5 and 10 minutes. Lower water contents did not allow proper measurement of dough 384 rheology. In total, 39 samples were used. In Table 2, the correlation coefficients between loaf volume 385 and the rheological parameters are shown. No significant correlation could be found between the 386 loaf volume and the viscosity at strain 1.05 or the maximum viscosity. A weak negative correlation 387 between the linear viscosity at strain 1.05 and the loaf volume and a weak positive correlation 388 between loaf volume and strain at breakpoint was observed. The strongest correlation with bread 389 loaf volume was found with the strain hardening index. This correlation is also shown in Figure S4.

Table 2. Correlation coefficients between bread loaf volume and dough rheology parameters. (* p<0.01,
 p<0.001, *p<0.0001)

	Loaf volume
Linear viscosity at strain 1.05	-0.53**
Viscosity at strain 1.05	-0.20
Strain at breakpoint	0.43*
Maximum viscosity	0.18
Strain hardening index	0.69***

392 4 Discussion

393 4.1 The effect of dry and wet milling of wheat bran on its hydration properties

394 Four wheat bran samples with different hydration properties were obtained using different milling

techniques (Table 1). The **dry milling** process decreases particle size and TWRC, as was also seen by

Jacobs *et al.* (2015). However, the SWRC increased. Jacobs *et al.* (2015) found that the SWRC of wheat bran is independent of particle size until 77 μ m. In this study, we show that this statement is no longer true for smaller particle sizes. The specific surface area increased from 0.34 m²/g to 0.48 m²/g for the C_{DM} and UF_{DM} bran, respectively. In comparison, Jacobs *et al.* (2015) observed an increase in specific surface area from 0.38 to 0.72 m²/g, when the average particle size of wheat bran was reduced from 1687 to 77 μ m. The difference with our study probably stems from the different milling technique used.

Dry and **wet milling** to a similar particle size resulted in entirely different properties of wheat bran. UF_{WM} bran had a much higher surface area (1.49 m²/g) than the UF_{DM} bran (0.48 m²/g). This could indicate that the real particle size of the UF_{WM} bran is actually smaller, but that during particle size measurement aggregates are formed. A more plausible explanation is that the sample is more porous because during wet milling water penetrates in the wheat bran structure and in the subsequent freeze-drying step, more pores are obtained. The high SWRC of the UF_{WM} bran can be associated with its high specific surface area.

410

411 4.2 The effect of water absorption and mixing time on gluten network 412 microstructure, dough rheology and bread loaf volume in a gluten-starch dough 413 It is well known that water absorption and mixing time of dough are crucial parameters in the bread-414 making process. The effect of wheat bran is often attributed to competition for water between 415 wheat bran and other dough ingredients and to improper development of the gluten network. To 416 investigate this hypothesis, it is important to look first at how dough behaves at different water 417 absorptions and mixing times to make comparison with dough with (modified) bran possible.

In a gluten-starch dough at each water absorption, a mixing time of 4.0 minutes resulted in higher bread loaf volumes than 2.5 or 5.5 minutes (Figure 2). It is known in the literature that both an underdeveloped and an overdeveloped gluten network can lead to a lower gas retention capacity.

Increasing the water absorption also increased the bread loaf volume, which was expected based on the study of Roels *et al.* (1993). Therefore, the optimal bread-making conditions for the glutenstarch mixture were a water absorption of 51.4% and a mixing time of 4.0 minutes.

424 Water absorption and mixing time had a clear effect on the dough rheology. Changes in water 425 absorption mainly resulted in shifts of the viscosity curves at small strains. This was also observed by 426 Meerts et al. (2017a). In agreement with the results of Meerts et al. (2017a) the SHI showed an 427 increasing trend in function of the water absorption. However, the mixing time had a much larger 428 effect on the strain hardening of the gluten network. This is in contradiction with the results of Meerts et al. (2017a), who showed that mixing time did not affect the viscosity at small strains. 429 430 However, Meerts et al. (2017a) used dough made from flour while in this study, a mixture of starch 431 and commercial purified gluten was used. During purification of gluten, the gluten network is 432 developed and dried afterwards. Therefore commercial purified gluten can show different behaviour than gluten in flour. This is illustrated by the fact that in the study of Meerts et al. (2017a), dough 433 434 strands did not break before the maximal strain of 2.7, while breakage at lower strains was observed 435 in our study. The large protein width and small protein length of the dough at 2.5 minutes show that 436 the gluten network is not yet fully developed at short mixing times (Figure 5 & Figure 6). This can 437 indicate that commercial gluten needs a longer mixing time to show comparable behaviour than 438 gluten in flour. Peighambardoust et al. (2006) also describe that at the early stages of mixing, a 439 coarse and heterogeneous gluten structure is formed. Afterwards, the kneading process extends the 440 gluten structure.

441 4.3 The effect of coarse wheat bran on gluten network microstructure, dough442 rheology and bread loaf volume

The effect of C_{DM} wheat bran on bread-making was investigated by substituting starch with wheat bran in a gluten-starch model system. By using a gluten-starch mixture as a model system for flour, it was possible to keep the gluten content constant. However, the obtained bread loaf volumes are

small in comparison with bread made from flour. The difference in loaf volume between glutenstarch dough could be caused by the absence of the water-extractable fraction of flour. Besides, we should keep in mind that the behaviour of isolated gluten may differ from its behaviour in wheat flour.

450 Wheat bran can bind large amounts of water, which is reflected in a significant increase in dough 451 water absorption when part of the flour is substituted by wheat bran (Seyer & Gélinas, 2009). In this 452 study, the water absorption of the dough needed to be increased from 47.4-51.4% to 57.6%-61.6% to 453 get a manageable dough. However, even by adjusting the water absorption and mixing time, the 454 substitution of starch by wheat bran always resulted in lower bread loaf volumes (Figure 2). This can 455 be linked to the decreased strain hardening of the dough in the presence of wheat bran, which 456 causes a decreased gas retention capacity. Indeed, the SHI could be correlated with bread loaf 457 volume (Table 2). This is in accordance with the conclusions of Meeus et al. (2019) and Van Vliet et al. 458 (2008) that the strain hardening behaviour of dough during extension is a valuable indicator of bread 459 quality. We showed that this is also the case in a gluten-starch mixture in the presence of wheat 460 bran. By adjusting water absorption and mixing time, the viscosity in the linear part could be 461 equalised between dough with and without bran, but the strain hardening behaviour of the dough 462 with bran was always lower. This indicates that although the same amount of gluten is present in 463 dough with and without bran, wheat bran always decreases dough strength. Zhang et al. (1997) also 464 observed that wheat bran decreases dough strength, as indicated by a decrease in maximum 465 resistance and the area under the Extensigraph curve.

466 CLSM analysis of the dough also showed that wheat bran affects the gluten microstructure. However, 467 the gluten network is clearly well-developed because it is not comparable to the structure of an 468 underdeveloped dough (Figure 5 & Figure 6). According to the study of Lucas *et al.* (2018), a weak 469 gluten network is characterised by a low branching rate, high protein strand width, high end-point 470 ratio and low lacunarity. The addition of wheat bran increases the branching rate and decreases the

471 end-point rate of the gluten network. According to Lucas et al. (2018), this would be indicative of a 472 stronger, more crosslinked network being formed. However, if this were the case, it was not 473 reflected in the dough rheology analyses. Although it is reasonable to assume that not all 474 microstructural alterations to the gluten network would necessarily imply rheological changes, these 475 results do show that the interpretation of the AngioTool output parameters remains somewhat 476 challenging. The visualisation of gluten strands with CLSM does not inform us of the type of 477 interactions between proteins, and this can probably have a large effect on the viscoelastic 478 properties.

479 4.4 The effect of modified wheat bran on gluten network microstructure, dough480 rheology and bread loaf volume

481 Wheat bran with different water retention capacities was incorporated in dough to investigate the 482 effect of the water-binding on gluten network formation. Decreasing the particle size of wheat bran 483 and consequently increasing the SWRC resulted in lower bread loaf volumes for all different water 484 absorptions and mixing times. In contrary, Jacobs et al. (2016) observed that bread volume is 485 independent of wheat bran particle size until an average particle size of 77 µm if optimal water 486 absorption and mixing times are used. However, they did not see any differences in strong water 487 binding capacity. In our study, the wheat bran samples had different SWRC and a higher SWRC clearly 488 was correlated with lower bread loaf volumes. Bread made with UF_{WM} bran (SWRC = 1.39 ml/g dm) 489 did not rise at all and was therefore very small. The very low bread loaf volumes of the UF_{WM} bran 490 could indicate that the viscoelastic gluten network is not fully developed and therefore cannot retain 491 air during fermentation and baking. However, visualisation of the dough microstructure (Figure 9) 492 and quantification of the gluten network properties (Figure 10) did not show large differences 493 between the different bran samples. The high number of wheat bran particles in the UF wheat bran (Figure 9b) apparently does not disturb the development of the gluten network. The only difference 494 was that the number of gas cells in the dough with UF_{WM} bran was larger than in the other doughs, 495

496 which also influences the lacunarity. This can indicate that the more porous structure of the UF_{WM} 497 bran can function as gas nuclei in the dough. The difference in loaf volume between the UF_{WM} and 498 UF_{DM} bran can therefore not be attributed to a difference in the gluten microstructure as visualised 499 with CLSM. However, the dough rheology of the UF_{WM} bran was completely different from the other 500 bran samples. The viscosity of dough with UFwm bran was much higher than those prepared with dry 501 milled bran or without bran (Figure 8). The effect in the linear part is similar to the effect of 502 decreasing the WA of a gluten-starch dough (Figure 3 and Figure 4) and could indicate the effect of 503 the high SWRC and specific surface area of this bran. This shows that the microstructure of the dough 504 does not directly affect its rheological properties and that it is possible that, after mixing, water 505 redistribution from gluten to the bran affects dough rheology. Hemdane et al. (2017) also observed 506 that wheat bran addition resulted in water immobilisation after mixing.

507 **5 Conclusion**

508 This study highlights the effect of water binding and mixing time on dough rheology, gluten 509 microstructure and bread loaf volume and indicates the importance of optimisation of bread-making 510 conditions in the presence of wheat bran. It was shown that a proper gluten network microstructure, 511 as visualised with CLSM, can be achieved in the presence of wheat bran. However, wheat bran 512 addition always decreases the strain hardening of dough despite the constant gluten content and 513 optimisation of water absorption and mixing time. The deleterious effect of wheat bran on dough 514 rheology increased by adding modified wheat bran with a high SWRC and surface area. The effect of 515 wheat bran with a high water retention capacity on dough rheology was similar to that of decreasing 516 the water absorption. This indicated that water redistribution after mixing and gas cell incorporation 517 could be important. The strain hardening behaviour of dough was observed to be a valuable indicator 518 of bread volume also in the presence of (modified) wheat bran.

519 Acknowledgements

- 520 Yamina De Bondt acknowledges the Research Foundation Flanders (FWO Vlaanderen, Brussels,
- 521 Belgium) for a position as PhD fellow (Grant number: 1199919N). The authors wish to thank Rik
- 522 Nuyts for providing assistance with the CLSM measurements and Pieter De Wever for assistance with
- 523 the N₂ physisorption measurements.

524 **Conflict of interest**

525 The authors declare that they do not have any conflict of interest.

526 **Credit author statement**

- 527 Conceptualisation: YD, WH and CMC; Methodology: YD, WH, PM and CMC; Investigation: YD and WH;
- 528 Funding acquisition: YD and CMC; Resources: PM and CMC, Writing original draft: YD and WH;
- 529 Writing review & editing: YD, PM and CMC

Figure S1. Extensional viscosity curves for gluten-starch-coarse bran doughs prepared at different water contents and mixing times. Mixing time 5.0 min (\circ), 7.5 min (Δ) or 10.0 min (\Box) and water absorption 57.6% (light grey), 59.6% (grey) or 61.6% (black).

535

Figure S2. Rheological parameters of gluten-starch-coarse bran dough made with different water absorptions and mixing times. Means are shown, and for each parameter, different letters indicate significant differences

537 and mixir 538 (p<0.05)

544 used. Doughs were stained with rhodamine B to visualise proteins (A-red), with fluoresceine to visualise starch

545 granules (A-green) and with calcofluor to visualise bran particles (B-blue) and analysed by CLSM. The protein

network was analysed with AngioTool (C). The scale bar has a size of 100 μm. Two different doughs (1 & 2) are
shown for each sample.

548

Figure S4. Correlation between bread loaf volume and the strain hardening index. Dough and bread made of a
 mixture of gluten and starch or a mixture of gluten, starch and (modified) bran were used at different water
 absorptions and mixing times. Coarse bran (C_{DM}), fine bran (D_{DM}) and ultrafine bran obtained by dry-milling

552 (UF_{DM}) and wet milling (UF_{WM}) were used.

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