

1      **Use of rapid tests to predict quality traits of CIMMYT bread wheat genotypes grown**  
2                                    **under different environments.**

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19 **Abstract**

20 At the International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT), wheat quality  
21 improvement is an important goal of breeding. CIMMYT scientists develop germplasm, which is  
22 diverse for quality traits intended for use in the preparation of different wheat-based products.  
23 The integration of quality traits is complex due to the high cost of conducting traditional quality  
24 tests. One option for tackling this problem is the use of such rapid-small-scale methods as  
25 Solvent Retention Capacity (SRC), SDS Sedimentation (SDSS) and Swelling Index of Glutenin  
26 (SIG) to predict flour performance. The objectives of this study were to investigate the effect of  
27 genotypes, contrasting environmental conditions and their interactions (GxE) on different rapid-  
28 small-scale tests, and to identify their suitability for use in prediction of quality traits. A  
29 significant GxE effect was observed for all three methodologies. Overall, SIG was found to be  
30 the best predictor of gluten strength across different environments. It was also best at  
31 determining bread-making quality in some environments, followed by SDSS for bread making.  
32 SRC was found to be useful to select for gluten strength, but for extensibility and bread-making  
33 more grain data is needed.

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36 **Keywords:** wheat quality; solvent retention capacity; SDS sedimentation; swelling index of  
37 glutenin, alveograph; bread-making.

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41 **1. Introduction**

42           Successful adoption of new wheat varieties is largely dependent on the grain yield and  
43 grain quality demands of average consumers and industrial food manufacturers (both semi-  
44 mechanized and mechanized industrial) in a given region. Due to these complex and multifaceted  
45 needs, International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) scientists focus on the  
46 core breeding challenges of simultaneous improvement of wheat production and quality for  
47 global distribution. With the estimated growth of the bakery industry at 6% globally, a need for  
48 improved quality varieties has increased, but the integration of quality traits in a breeding  
49 program remains a challenge. The focus is often on traits with more direct importance for  
50 farmers such as grain yield or disease resistance. Additionally, high costs and time limitations  
51 restrict the use of traditional quality tests conducted with the mixograph, farinograph,  
52 alveograph, or end-use quality tests in large breeding programs where thousands of genotypes  
53 are evaluated annually. Often there is not enough grain in early generations to conduct such  
54 analyses. The absence of quality selection tests in the early or middle generations of a breeding  
55 program could result in the development of advanced lines unsuitable for release due to related  
56 shortcomings of poor processing and end-use quality.

57           Small-scale, high-throughput methods for predicting flour performance, allow researchers  
58 to make a broad selection, discard lines with insufficient quality, keeping those with improved  
59 quality. The development of small scale dough testing equipment has been successful in several  
60 cases (see Bekes, Lukow, Uthayakumaran, & Mann, 2003, for a good review). Several types of  
61 equipment have been developed to work with small samples, including the two-gram mixograph  
62 (standard mixographs use 35 g of flour) (Rath, Gras, Wrigley, & Walker, 1990), the micro Z-arm

63 mixer (4 g of flour), analogous to the farinograph (50-250 g of flour) (Haraszi, Gras, Tömösközi,  
64 Salgó, & Bekes, 2004), which shows high correlations with standard equipment. Near infrared  
65 (NIR) spectroscopy also has a great deal of potential to predict quality traits (Osborne, 2006), but  
66 is a costly, difficult for many breeding programs to afford. An economical and time saving  
67 alternative is to use simple chemical tests, which result in correlated processing and end-use  
68 quality traits. Sodium dodecyl sulfate sedimentation (SDSS), a commonly used traditional  
69 quality test, gives an overall idea of gluten quality and a fair prediction of bread-making  
70 (Blackam & Gill, 1980; Peña, Amaya, Rajaram, & Mujeeb-Kazi, 1990). The Swelling Index of  
71 Glutenin (SIG), developed by Wang and Kovacs (2002a), is a newer high throughput evaluation  
72 method, based on the same principle as SDSS (glutenin swelling capacity and insoluble glutenin  
73 content) and has revealed the capacity to predict quality traits in bread wheat (Li, Wu,  
74 Hernandez-Espinosa, & Peña, 2015; Wang and Kovacs 2002b). Finally, Solvent Retention  
75 Capacity (SRC) is another significant means of measuring quality to determine which micro-  
76 methods have already been developed (Bettge, Morris, Demacon, & Kidwell, 2002; Guzman,  
77 Posadas-Romano, Hernandez-Espinosa, Morales-Dorantes, & Peña, 2015). SRC, originally  
78 developed by Slade and Levine (1994), determines the capacity of flour to hold four solvents:  
79 water, associated with the overall water holding capacity of all flours constituents; 50 g/L  
80 sodium carbonate, related to the damaged starch content of the flour; 500 g/L sucrose,  
81 associated with the concentration of arabinoxylans; and 50 g/L lactic acid, associated with the  
82 glutenin swelling capacity (Gaines, 2000). This method develops a flour-quality profile that  
83 defines the contribution of individual grain components (Kweon, Slade, & Levine, 2011). This  
84 method has been widely used in soft wheats for cookie-making (Duyvejonck, Lagrain, Pareyt,  
85 Courtin, & Delcour, 2011; Gaines (2004); Guttieri, Bowen, Gannon, Brien, & Souza, 2001;

86 Pasha, Anjum, & Butt, 2009; Zhang, Zhang, Zhang, He, & Peña, 2007) and in hard wheat  
87 germplasm for other products (Colombo, Pérez, Ribotta, & León, 2008; Duyvejonck, Lagrain,  
88 Dornez, Delcour, & Courtin, 2012; Li et al. 2015; Xiao, Park, Chung, Caley, & Seib, 2006).  
89 However, most of the aforementioned studies, which used hard bread wheat were undertaken  
90 with a limited number of genotypes and/or under a single set of environmental conditions. More  
91 SRC data from diverse genetic backgrounds and environmental conditions are needed to validate  
92 the value of this test in breeding programs and to understand its use relative to SDSS and SIG.

93 This study aimed mainly to investigate the effect of genotype (G), contrasting  
94 environmental (E) conditions and their interactions (GxE) on SDSS, SIG and SRC. It also  
95 aimed to identify the suitability of those methods for use in the prediction of quality traits in a set  
96 of CIMMYT bread wheat lines grown worldwide.

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## 98 **2. Materials and methods**

### 99 *2.1 Plant Materials and Field Trials*

100 A trial consisting of 54 CIMMYT bread wheat lines, including advanced lines, historical and  
101 modern varieties (Electronic Supplementary Material 1), were sown in the 2012-2013 and 2013-  
102 2014 crop seasons in Ciudad Obregon (Mexico). The trial was set up in a lattice square design  
103 with three replications and sown under six different environmental conditions: optimum  
104 irrigation with drip (control environment); flat sown with basin irrigation; reduced irrigation or  
105 moderate drought stress; severe drought stress; medium heat stress and severe heat stress. More  
106 details of the trial are illustrated in Guzman, Autrique, Mondal, Singh, Govindan, Morales-  
107 Dorantes, et al. (2016)

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109 *2.2 Grain and flour parameters*

110           Thousand kernel weight (g) and test weight (g/L) were evaluated with the digital image  
111 system SeedCount SC5000 (Next Instruments, Condell Park, Australia). Grain protein (g/kg),  
112 hardness (%) and moisture content were determined by near-infrared spectroscopy (NIR Systems  
113 6500, Foss, Hillerød, Denmark) calibrated based on official American Association of Cereal  
114 Chemists (AACC) methods 39-10 and 46-11A (AACC, 2010). Grain samples previously  
115 conditioned at 140-160 (g/kg) of moisture were milled into flour using Brabender Quadrumat Jr  
116 (C. W. Brabender OHG, Duisburg, Germany).

117           Measurement of SDSS volume was carried out according to Peña et al. (1990). SIG was  
118 determined with lactic acid according to the second variant of the method used by Wang and  
119 Kovacs (2002a). SRC was carried out according to Guzman et al. (2015) with four solvents:  
120 water, sodium carbonate, sucrose and lactic acid. All data from these tests are available in  
121 Electronic Supplementary Material 1.

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123 *2.3 Rheological and baking tests*

124           Dough development properties were determined by Mixograph of Swanson (National  
125 Mfg., Lincoln, U.S.A.) using 35 g of flour (AACC method 54-40A), obtaining dough  
126 development time and %Torque\*min. The Chopin Alveograph (Trippette & Renaud, Villeneuve-  
127 la-Garenne, France) was used to determine dough tenacity, extensibility, strength (ALVW) and  
128 tenacity/extensibility ratio (ALVP/L) (AACC 54-30A) using 60 g of flour. The bread-making  
129 process was conducted using the direct dough method (AACC method 10-09) and bread loaf  
130 volume was determined by rapeseed displacement using a volumeter.

131

## 132 2.4 Statistical Analysis

133 Pearson correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) and the significance of each comparison in the study were  
134 obtained using SAS.

135 Combined analyses of variance (ANOVA) across environments for grain and other quality  
136 traits were performed using procedure Proc Anova of the SAS statistical software (SAS, 2014).

137 The means of genotypes in each environment throughout the two-year period during which  
138 the trials were undertaken were used in the variable selection stepwise procedure using an alpha  
139 level of 0.0001 (Proc Stepwise, SAS version 9.4, 2014). All multiple regression equations are  
140 detailed in Electronic Supplementary Material 2.

## 141 3. Results and discussion

### 142 3.1 Grain and flour characteristics

143 The data of both cropping cycles were quite similar (data not shown), explained by the high  
144 heritability revealed in all traits (Table 1). A wide range in grain characteristics was observed in  
145 genotypes across different environments. Test weight and particularly thousand kernel weight  
146 grain morphology parameters showed great variability, between and within each environment.  
147 The range of values for grain hardness was somewhat smaller (32-55%), without any samples  
148 showing real soft texture (>55%). For grain protein content, the variation was also important  
149 (107-175 g/kg) and larger in such highly stressed environments as severe drought stress or severe  
150 heat stress. Compared to the optimum environment (110-141 g/kg) protein content was high in  
151 severe drought (12-17.1%) and heat stress environments (121-175 g/kg). Across environments,  
152 test weight and thousand kernel weight showed a negative association with grain protein content,  
153  $r = -0.48$  and  $-0.52$ , respectively, ( $p < 0.0001$ ), due to a dilution or concentration effect depending  
154 on grain size. In SRC tests, lactic acid SRC showed the highest variation and the lowest was

155 shown in sodium carbonate SRC, with water SRC and sucrose SRC (also showing smaller ranges  
156 than lactic acid SRC. The range of lactic acid SRC in control environment (105-162.3%) was  
157 similar to that found by Duyjevonck et al. (2012), Li et al. (2015) and Xiao et al. (2006) (studies  
158 conducted using hard wheat). Lactic acid SRC is related to gluten strength (Gaines 2000) and  
159 thus higher values are expected as this study included hard or semi-hard bread wheat lines often  
160 used for products that require medium-strong gluten compared to soft wheat or cookie-making  
161 that requires weak gluten content (Guttieri et al. 2001; Zhang et al. 2007). Lactic acid SRC  
162 significantly increased in drought-stressed environments, most likely due to the increase in grain  
163 protein content ( $r$  value between lactic acid SRC and grain protein content in the whole trial was  
164 0.33,  $p < 0.0001$ ), although no such effect was seen in medium and severe heat-stress  
165 environments. The increase in grain protein content in heat-stressed environments is done  
166 together with qualitative change in protein composition (a decrease in glutenin-to-gliadin ratio)  
167 that influenced the lactic acid SRC values (and weaker gluten). Previous studies have reported  
168 such observations (Blumenthal, Bekes, Gras, Barlow, & Wrigley, 1995). A similar trend was  
169 found also in SDSS and SIG. A significant correlation was observed between lactic acid SRC  
170 and SDSS and SIG ( $r = 0.32$  and  $0.48$ , respectively,  $p < 0.0001$ ), and SDSS with SIG ( $r = 0.76$ ,  
171  $p < 0.0001$ ). The same fact was observed by Duyvejonck et al. (2012) with Zeleny sedimentation  
172 and lactic acid SRC.

173 Sodium carbonate SRC is related with grain hardness ( $r = -0.55$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) because sodium  
174 carbonate SRC is related to flour starch damage. Both high and low sodium carbonate SRC  
175 values were observed, higher values indicating hard texture (Duyvejonck et al. 2012; Xiao et al.  
176 2006) and lower values soft texture (Bettge et al. 2002; Guttieri, Souza, & Sneller, 2008). Higher  
177 sodium carbonate SRC values were found in drought environments, associated to lower grain



178 hardness values (hard grain), and lower in severe heat-stress environment, associated to softer  
179 texture. The same trend was found in sucrose SRC, which is related to the pentosans and  
180 somewhat to gliadin content, and water SRC (Gaines 2000). SRC, SDSS and SIG values were  
181 affected by specific irrigation treatments and temperature regimes similar to those reported by  
182 Walker, Campbell, Carter, & Kidwell (2008), Zhang et al. (2007) and in contrast to results  
183 reported by Guttieri, McLean, Lanning, Talbert, & Souza (2002). As grain protein content,  
184 sucrose SRC showed an inverse correlation with test weight and thousand kernel weight ( $r = -$   
185  $0.22$  and  $-0.31$ , respectively,  $p < 0.0001$ ), probably because pentosans are located in the cell wall,  
186 which is more concentrated in the grain.

187 Therefore, the samples appear to represent a wide spectrum of grain and quality traits. This  
188 was confirmed with further rheological analysis (mixograph, alveograph and bread-making)  
189 (data not showed).

190

### 191 *3.2 Analysis of variance*

192 For any methodology to be suitable for use as a wheat-quality improvement selection tool, it  
193 must detect significant differences among genotypes and have low GxE effects for consistent  
194 selection. This has been already studied for SRC in soft wheat, with several studies reporting  
195 high genotypic and limited or no significant GxE effect (Guttieri and Souza 2003; Guttieri et al.  
196 2001, 2002; Pasha et al. 2009). In contrast, significant GxE effects were found in a study by  
197 Walker et al. (2008) and by Zhang, Zhang, & He, (2008) in a study involving soft spring and  
198 winter wheat lines grown in different locations of Washington state in the United States.

199 In the current study, genotype was the most important source of variation (Table 2) for water  
200 SRC, sodium carbonate SRC, sucrose SRC and SDSS, and the second one, lactic acid SRC and

201 SIG. This is most likely due to the large diversity for quality traits that the set of lines used had  
202 and for the high heritability of those traits. Environmental effect was significant, particularly for  
203 lactic acid SRC and SIG, explaining more than 40% of the variation found in those traits. This  
204 strong environmental effect was due to highly contrasting field management conditions used in  
205 each trial, particularly in severe drought and heat-stress environments. The result for lactic acid  
206 SRC is in contrast to that observed by Guttieri et al. (2001, 2002) where no significant  
207 environmental effect was observed. On the contrary, Walker et al. (2008) found a significant  
208 environmental effect on spring wheat lactic acid SRC values. A significant environmental effect  
209 implies that for accurate measurements and efficient selection of genotypes with the rapid tests,  
210 control genotypes must be evaluated in diverse environments. This applies to SIG and SDSS  
211 tests as well, based on the results in this study. The strong environmental effect on the three traits  
212 was somewhat expected as all of them depend on some way in protein content, which is well  
213 known to be highly influenced by different environmental conditions.

214 The year effect was minor. All the interactions related with the genotype (GxE, GxY and  
215 GxExY) were highly significant and together explained around 12-19% of the variation, except  
216 for lactic acid SRC (9%). This result agrees with Walker et al. (2008), who also found significant  
217 interactions for SRC tests in samples produced in a wide range of environments. Previously,  
218 Guttieri et al. (2001, 2002) did not find significant GxE for SRC tests. In our study, although the  
219 variation explained by interaction effects is low, their significance serves as a recommendation  
220 that multiple environments should be used for selection. This approach should be used in  
221 breeding programs with a multiregional or global focus similar to CIMMYT's, which involves  
222 the use of contrasting growing conditions in different environments and the use of diverse  
223 germplasm that could potentially adapt to each of them.

224 Among lactic acid SRC, SDSS and SIG, SDSS showed stronger genetic control, thereby  
225 suggesting its efficiency in selection for better quality genotypes in breeding programs. Other  
226 SRC solvents (water, sodium carbonate, sucrose) also had high genotype effect, making them  
227 suitable for selection, although high GxE interactions reveal the need for selection in multiple  
228 environments.

229

### 230 *3.3 Prediction models for processing and end-use quality traits*

231 In breeding for wheat quality, there are other traits that are taken into consideration in  
232 addition to bread-making while evaluating lines, which means that flour quality cannot be  
233 expressed by a single trait, but depends on the interaction of several factors. Among them, the  
234 most important are dough strength and extensibility, which can be measured by the mixograph  
235 (dough development time and Torque) and by the alveograph (balance between tenacity and  
236 extensibility, ALVP/L, gluten strength, ALVW). The above mentioned traits together with grain  
237 hardness are used in the CIMMYT breeding program to classify the lines evaluated in five  
238 different end-use types (Guzman, Medina-Larqué, Velu, González-Santoyo, Singh, Huerta-  
239 Espino, & Peña, 2014). Well-trained operators and a large quantity of flour are required for the  
240 aforementioned tests. Therefore, the development of simple tests that use just a few grams of  
241 flour is essential for early generation testing in breeding programs. . Stepwise multiple regression  
242 models were deployed using six different sets of wheat grain and flour quality parameters. The  
243 first set included data from SRC tests carried out with the four different solvents; second and  
244 third sets only included the data from SDSS and SIG, respectively. The next sets (fourth, fifth  
245 and sixth) were equivalent to the first three tests, but in this case data of test weight, thousand  
246 kernel weight, grain hardness and grain protein content were added to all of them. Those

247 parameters are routinely and easily obtained with such high-throughput methodologies as image  
248 analysis and NIR (Osborne, 2006), which require a small amount of grain. Making different sets  
249 to build prediction models was intended to use as few parameters as possible to really save  
250 resources and time, so that only highly significant traits ( $p < 0.0001$ ) to each model were included.  
251 SRC, SDSS and SIG were not combined in the same set to make clear which of the three popular  
252 tests is the best option for analysis of lines from the breeding program. Regression models were  
253 first built based on all environmental data of the trial and subsequently for each specific  
254 environment (data from both years). The  $r$  values of each model to predict different quality traits  
255 are shown in Table 3. In Electronic Supplementary Material 2 all multiple regression equations  
256 are included.

257         From the first three sets of parameters (SRC, SDSS or SIG) we obtained models that  
258 explained much of the variation in target traits. In models developed with all trial data, SIG was  
259 found to be the best predictor of gluten strength, with  $r$  values of 0.81 and 0.90 for torque and  
260 alveograph gluten strength (ALVW), respectively. SRC (in this case only lactic acid SRC as the  
261 other solvents were not found significant for prediction; see Electronic Supplementary Material  
262 2) was also a very good predictor for those traits ( $r = 0.85$  for ALVW) followed by SDSS ( $r =$   
263  $0.77$  for ALVW). To predict alveograph gluten tenacity and extensibility, the models built with  
264 both SDSS and SIG were unable (not significant) to predict the important alveograph  
265 tenacity/extensibility ratio (ALVP/L) value. Predictions with lactic acid SRC for ALVP/L  
266 improved slightly ALVP/L ( $r = 0.58$ ) although they were far from accurate. For alveograph  
267 tenacity and alveograph extensibility, the combination of sodium carbonate SRC and water SRC,  
268 respectively, with lactic acid SRC, gave acceptable values of prediction. When predicted values  
269 of alveograph tenacity and alveograph extensibility were obtained and used to calculate

270 ALVP/L, the prediction of this trait is improved ( $r = 0.64$ ). For bread-making, SIG and SDSS ( $r$   
271 0.67 and 0.66) were remarkably better than lactic acid SRC (0.51). Overall, trial data revealed  
272 that SIG was the most useful test to predict end-use quality and gluten strength, and for selection  
273 of gluten extensibility lactic acid SRC, sodium carbonate SRC and water SRC should be carried  
274 out.

275         The next research priority was to determine if models built with data from a specific  
276 environment would have the same potential to predict quality traits in that environment. In  
277 environments with better field conditions lactic acid SRC and SIG were both excellent predictors  
278 of gluten strength, being lactic acid SRC slightly better. SDSS was also acceptable but did not  
279 reach higher  $r$  than 0.67 for ALVW. In drought-stressed environments results were the same, but  
280 SDSS showed better prediction than previously in medium drought stress environments ( $r =$   
281 0.78) and something less in severe drought stress environments ( $r = 0.73$ ). In heat-stressed  
282 environments, lactic acid SRC lost some prediction power but water SRC gained significantly in  
283 medium heat-stress environments to reach SRC  $r$  value of 0.74 and the same in severe heat-stress  
284 environments, where of all SRC solvents only lactic acid SRC again played a significant role.  
285 SDSS predictions for gluten strength were improved in medium heat-stress environments and  
286 even more in severe heat stress environment, but SIG fared better ( $r = 0.84$ ). Again, results  
287 indicated that SIG is the best rapid test to predict gluten strength consistently across different  
288 environments. Wang and Kovacs (2002b), and Li et al. (2015) reached the same conclusions  
289 after conducting similar experiments. The ability of SIG to predict gluten strength compared to  
290 other tests is due to its higher association with the insoluble glutenin fraction in flour (Wang and  
291 Kovacs 2002a).

292 For alveograph tenacity/extensibility ratio (ALVP/L) prediction SIG and SDS models  
293 results were completely insignificant. Lactic acid SRC data was also insignificant. This could be  
294 due to the interaction of other factors, apart from the insoluble glutenin fraction, which affect  
295 ALVP/L, reflecting the balance between dough tenacity and extensibility. However, other SRC  
296 solvents had a certain amount of prediction power. For example, sodium carbonate SRC ( $r =$   
297 0.61 and 0.68) revealed this characteristic when sown flat with basin irrigation and medium heat-  
298 stress environments, respectively. Duyvejonck et al. (2012) also observed the association of  
299 sodium carbonate SRC with alveograph tenacity. Dexter et al. (1994) observed that starch with  
300 higher damage resulted in more water retention by flour, leading to stiffer dough and related  
301 increased dough resistance. Although the  $r$  values were moderate, experiments showed they may  
302 not lead to accurate prediction of ALVP/L.

303 For bread-making predictions, SIG was found to be the best in most of the environments  
304 ( $r$  not higher than 0.64), excluding flat sown with basin irrigation and severe heat-stress  
305 environments where SDSS was the best one ( $r = 0.64$  and  $0.72$ , respectively). Lactic acid SRC  
306 was only near SDSS and SIG in predicting bread loaf volume in the control environment, so that  
307 test is not highly recommended to predict loaf volume if it is not complemented with other data.  
308 This finding is in disagreement with Xiao et al. (2006), who found lactic acid SRC better than  
309 SDSS when predicting loaf volume ( $r$  of 0.83 vs. 0.76) and with Colombo et al. (2008) ( $r$  of 0.72  
310 vs. 0.51). Study results are in partial agreement with Li et al. (2015), who showed SDSS to be  
311 the best predictor for bread loaf volume sown flat with basin irrigation, severe drought and heat-  
312 stress environments, in comparison to lactic acid SRC or SIG. Wang and Kovacs (2002b) found  
313 SIG and SDSS of equal benefit to predicting bread loaf volume ( $r = 0.54$ ).

314           When additional test weight, thousand kernel weight, grain hardness and grain protein  
315 content data was added to the original sets of SRC, SDSS and SIG data, the predictions were  
316 significantly increased for some traits and in some specific environments. For gluten strength  
317 traits, overall predictions were not increased to a great degree, although in some cases progress  
318 was evident. For example, SDS + grain hardness in full irrigation environments or lactic acid  
319 SRC + thousand kernel weight in severe heat stress environment. SIG alone or with such other  
320 parameters as grain protein content in full irrigation environments, continued being the most  
321 useful trait to predict gluten strength. With regard to ALVP/L, in most circumstances new data  
322 added to the models did not involve an increase in the prediction with SDSS or SIG. Therefore,  
323 both rapid tests should be discarded if the objective is to make selection for gluten extensibility.  
324 In the case of SRC, a significant increase in prediction for ALVP/L was achieved when other  
325 traits were added to the model. In the model showing all data, lactic acid SRC + sodium  
326 carbonate SRC+ test weight explained 65% of the ALVP/L variation. In the control environment,  
327 the use of lactic acid RC + sodium carbonate SRC + grain protein content resulted in  $r$  of 0.61, in  
328 areas flat sown with basin irrigation environment lactic acid RC + grain protein content + test  
329 weight resulted in  $r$  of 0.7, while in severe heat stress environment  $r$  of 0.6 (and of 0.69 if  
330 ALVP/L is manually calculated from predicted alveograph tenacity and extensibility) was  
331 obtained with water SRC + thousand kernel weight. Those values, although not very high, could  
332 be sufficient to undertake a broad selection for the purpose of discarding tenacious breeding  
333 lines. Additionally, in medium heat stress environment the prediction for ALVP/L reached  $r$  of  
334 0.78 (sodium carbonate SRC + test weight + grain protein content), which was sufficient to make  
335 a more accurate selection.

336 Finally, for bread-loaf volume prediction, the addition in the model of more grain traits  
337 data resulted in very important increases, particularly for SRC. Different combinations of two  
338 solvents (lactic acid SRC + sodium carbonate SRC or sucrose SRC) + grain protein content +  
339 test weight or thousand kernel weight led to predictions with  $r$  of 0.78 in full irrigation  
340 environments, higher than those of SDSS or SIG in combination with other grain traits. For  
341 drought-stressed environments, better predictions are given by SIG + thousand kernel weight, but  
342 similar results are obtained with SRC or SDSS. For heat-stressed environments, SDS in  
343 combination with grain protein content + thousand kernel weight or with test weight had the  
344 higher values. Therefore, for bread making there are various choices of rapid tests – some better  
345 than others – depending on the environment and the availability of other grain traits. It seems  
346 unsuitable to select only one rapid test for all the environments, but if the priority of the breeding  
347 program is to improve gluten strength and bread-making, research shows that SIG is overall  
348 probably the best test. The results from our models for predicting loaf volume are slightly  
349 inferior to those from Xiao et al. (2006) using similar sets of data ( $r$  of 0.83 or 0.87), probably  
350 because they also include milling and mixograph parameters in the model. Using those  
351 parameters, lactic acid SRC, combined with other traits, produced better result than SDSS  
352 combined with other traits, which for this study occurred in full irrigation environments.

353 As expected, grain protein content data was incorporated as a significant factor into  
354 several of the predictions models, as it is well known that processing and end-use quality traits  
355 are highly dependent on protein quality and quantity. Test weight and thousand kernel weight  
356 were significant in some models because they explained the concentration or dilution of other  
357 grain components that affect quality. Grain hardness was also significant in some models due to



358 its profound effect on dough water absorption, which can influence several rheological and end-  
359 use quality tests.

360

#### 361 **4. Conclusions**

362 In the current study, a large and diverse set of hard bread wheat germplasm was analyzed  
363 with different rapid tests. Research confirmed that the three methodologies are under strong  
364 genetic control, although environmental effects and GxE interactions were significant in all cases  
365 with an impact significant enough to consider the necessity of multi-location evaluation. The  
366 prediction efficiency for several quality traits of each rapid test was evaluated in different  
367 environments and in combination with other grain traits, an important component to help  
368 breeding programs select the best methodology depending on field conditions and traits of  
369 interest. In addition to these discoveries, when choosing a rapid-small-scale test to screen for  
370 quality attributes in a breeding program, research revealed the importance of considering the  
371 number of samples that can be analyzed per unit time, the cost of that activity and the equipment  
372 required to do it. In this regard, SRC tests and SIG, performed as described by Guzman et al.  
373 (2015) and Wang and Kovacs (2002a) require more expensive equipment (thermomixer and  
374 centrifuge for small test tubes), which also ensure high repetitiveness of the analysis done.  
375 Besides, both methodologies imply the use of Eppendorf test tubes, which could be discarded  
376 after running the test or be cleaned, although in the case of SRC this is extremely time-  
377 consuming because the pellets remain strongly adhered to the bottom of the tube. The SDSS  
378 performed as described by Peña et al. (1990) requires 25 ml test tubes that need to be cleaned  
379 after the test. The three methodologies are high-throughput and hundreds of samples can be  
380 analyzed in one day. SDSS is faster because it requires a higher flour amount (1g), making the

381 sample weighting process much faster than for LARC or SIG, for which 0.3g and 0.02g must be  
382 accurately weighted in a precision balance. Evaluating these methodological characteristics is  
383 also important when selecting a methodology to be implemented in the breeding program.

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**Table 1.** Mean values, value ranges and heritability for grain traits and rapid tests found for 54 bread wheat genotypes in the whole and in each environment of the trial.

	Total			Full drip irrigation		Full basin irrigation		Mild drought stress		Severe drought stress		Mild heat stress		Severe heat stress	
	Mean	Range	Heritability	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
<b>Grain traits</b>															
Test weight (g/L)	802	679-846	0.88	812	767-832	811	756-841	815	751-842	800	742-828	802	744-830	773	679-807
Thousand kernel weight (g)	41.6	23.5-59.3	0.97	46.5	29.4-56.7	43.4	28.1-55.1	45.8	30.6-57.6	37.6	26.7-52.5	42.6	30.8-59.3	33.3	23.5-45.9
Grain hardness (%)	42.6	32-55	0.9	42.2	36-50.8	43.2	36-52.4	40.0	35.0-48.8	41.5	32-51	43.3	36-53.4	45.5	38-55
Grain protein content (g/kg)	135	107-175	0.83	124	110-141	120	107-138	137	117-158	150	120-171	129	114-152	150	121-175
<b>Rapid tests</b>															
Water SRC (%)	70.2	56.4-83	0.92	69.8	58.2-78	68.8	56.4-77.3	72.1	61.5-83.1	72.8	63.3-81.4	69.8	60.5-77.3	68.0	57.3-77
Sodium carbonate SRC (%)	79.1	62.4-94.3	0.94	79.5	67.1-90	78.2	65.5-88.6	81.4	69.2-94.3	81.1	69.1-89.4	78.4	67-89.7	75.9	62.4-86.5
Sucrose SRC (%)	94.1	80.3-110.6	0.92	91.4	81.2-101.7	89.9	80.3-98.5	96.4	82.2-109.8	98.9	88.7-110.7	92.9	83.9-105.5	95.3	82.4-108.8
Lactic acid SRC (%)	128.4	87.4-196.2	0.95	125.6	105-162.3	122.2	92.7-163.1	139.1	108.4-177.5	146.9	119.6-196.2	120.5	91.8-160.9	116.3	87.4-152.2
SDSS (ml)	15.7	8-23.0	0.96	13.9	8-21.5	13.8	8-20.5	15.7	10-21.5	18.7	11.5-23	15.0	9-22.5	17.1	9-22.0
SIG	5.9	4.2-7.9	0.92	5.6	4.6-6.6	5.5	4.2-6.5	6.0	5-7.4	6.6	5.1-7.9	5.7	4.7-7.3	6.1	4.9-7.4

SRC: solvent retention capacity; SDSS: SDS sedimentation; SIG: swelling index of glutenin.

**Table 2.** Effects of genotype, environment and year and their interactions on the rapid tests. Sum of squares and percentages of sum of squares respect to the total sum of squares obtained from ANOVA analysis are showed.

	DF	SDSS		Water SRC		Sodium carbonate SRC		Sucrose SRC		Lactic acid SRC		SIG	
		SS	% SS	SS	% SS	SS	% SS	SS	% SS	SS	% SS	SS	% SS
Genotype	53	7861	54	8411	48	13934	54	15295	41	125491	40	145	34
Environment	5	4024	28	3711	21	4570	18	12075	33	152620	49	178	41
Year	1	15	0.1	177	1	62	0.2	74	0.2	7	0**	23	5
GxE	265	948	6	1961	11	2587	10	4257	12	15018	5	30	7
GxY	53	211	1	265	1	504	2	433	1	2843	1	6	1
YxE	5	607	4	1152	6	1545	6	1355	4	4026	1	10	2
ExGxY	265	669	5	1057	6	1592	6	1664	4	9434	3	25	6

\*All the effects were highly significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ), except \*\*.

SDSS: SDS sedimentation; SRC: solvent retention capacity; SIG: swelling index of glutenin.

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**Table 3.** *r* correlation values obtained with different multiple regression equations to predict processing and end-use quality traits using rapid tests and grain traits in the whole trial and in each environment.

Total (six environments)	Dough development		Alveograph W	Alveograph P/L	Alveograph tenacity	Alveograph extensibility	Alveograph P/L*	Loaf volume
	time	Torque						
Set 1: SRC	0.63	0.74	0.85	0.58	0.78	0.70	0.64	0.51
Set 2: SDSS	0.66	0.73	0.77	NS	NS	0.62	NS	0.66
Set 3: SIG	0.73	0.82	0.91	NS	0.52	0.52	NS	0.68
Set 4: SRC + GT	0.63	0.74	0.85	0.64	0.81	0.77	0.69	0.78
Set 5: SDS + GT	0.66	0.73	0.79	NS	NS	0.71	0.51	0.74
Set 6: SIG + GT	0.73	0.82	0.91	0.48	0.65	0.69	0.51	0.80
Full drip irrigation	Dough development	Torque	Alveograph W	Alveograph P/L	Alveograph tenacity	Alveograph extensibility	Alveograph P/L*	Loaf volume



	<b>time</b>							
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	0.60	0.72	0.83	0.50	0.71	0.57	0.52	0.58
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.60	0.65	0.64	NS	NS	0.57	NS	0.57
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.62	0.71	0.79	NS	0.48	0.52	NS	0.59
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.60	0.72	0.83	0.62	0.77	0.62	0.58	0.78
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.64	0.68	0.73	NS	NS	0.64	0.48	0.73
<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>	0.68	0.75	0.81	0.47	0.65	0.65	0.50	0.74
	<b>Dough</b>							
	<b>development</b>		<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Loaf</b>
<b>Full basin irrigation</b>	<b>time</b>	<b>Torque</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>P/L</b>	<b>tenacity</b>	<b>extensibility</b>	<b>P/L*</b>	<b>volume</b>
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	0.67	0.76	0.84	0.62	0.77	0.67	0.68	0.57
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.61	0.64	0.68	NS	NS	0.64	NS	0.65
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.67	0.73	0.82	NS	0.52	NS	NS	0.58
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.76	0.82	0.85	0.70	0.77	0.84	0.71	0.81
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.71	0.75	0.73	0.57	0.57	0.77	0.55	0.77
<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>	0.76	0.73	0.84	0.57	0.71	0.73	0.59	0.75
	<b>Dough</b>							
	<b>development</b>		<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Loaf</b>
<b>Mild drought stress</b>	<b>time</b>	<b>Torque</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>P/L</b>	<b>tenacity</b>	<b>extensibility</b>	<b>P/L*</b>	<b>volume</b>
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	0.66	0.77	0.85	0.50	0.67	0.66	0.57	0.61
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.66	0.73	0.78	NS	NS	0.62	NS	0.64
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.66	0.77	0.85	NS	NS	0.52	NS	0.65
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.66	0.77	0.85	0.50	0.67	0.66	0.57	0.71
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.66	0.73	0.78	NS	NS	0.66	NS	0.71
<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>	0.66	0.77	0.85	NS	NS	0.62	NS	0.71
	<b>Dough</b>							
	<b>development</b>		<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Alveograph</b>	<b>Loaf</b>
<b>Severe drought stress</b>	<b>time</b>	<b>Torque</b>	<b>W</b>	<b>P/L</b>	<b>tenacity</b>	<b>extensibility</b>	<b>P/L*</b>	<b>volume</b>
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	0.68	0.78	0.86	NS	0.62	0.56	0.45	0.49
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.63	0.69	0.73	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.58
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.75	0.82	0.89	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.65
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.68	0.78	0.86	NS	0.71	NS	0.50	0.71
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.63	0.69	0.73	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.75

<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>								
	0.59	0.69	0.75	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.75
<b>Mild heat stress</b>								
	Dough development time	Torque	Alveograph W	Alveograph P/L	Alveograph tenacity	Alveograph extensibility	Alveograph P/L**	Loaf volume
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.69	0.76	0.66	0.71	0.45
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.62	0.62	0.75	NS	NS	0.58	NS	0.59
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.59	0.69	0.75	NS*	NS	NS	NS	0.65
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.58	0.66	0.77	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.69
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.71	0.72	0.78	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.73
<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>	0.69	0.74	0.78	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.77
<b>Severe heat stress</b>								
	Dough development time	Torque	Alveograph W	Alveograph P/L	Alveograph tenacity	Alveograph extensibility	Alveograph P/L*	Loaf volume
<b>Set 1: SRC</b>	NS	0.61	0.74	0.51	0.76	0.54	0.54	0.46
<b>Set 2: SDS</b>	0.68	0.75	0.79	NS	NS	0.66	NS	0.72
<b>Set 3: SIG</b>	0.65	0.75	0.84	NS	0.57	NS	NS	0.62
<b>Set 4: SRC + GT</b>	0.58	0.71	0.82	0.61	0.79	NS	0.69	0.72
<b>Set 5: SDS + GT</b>	0.68	0.75	0.79	0.51	0.57	0.73	0.51	0.77
<b>Set 6: SIG + GT</b>	0.65	0.75	0.84	0.51	0.67	0.65	0.55	0.75

\*NS: not significant; the rest of *r* values were highly significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ); \*\*ALV P/L calculated using predicted alveograph tenacity and alveograph extensibility.

SDSS: SDS sedimentation; SRC: solvent retention capacity; SIG: swelling index of glutenin; GT: grain traits, which could include test weight, thousand kernel weight, grain hardness and grain protein content.