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1 **Quality of bread baked from frozen dough –effects of rye, and sugar**
2 **content, kneading time and proofing profile**

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12 **Abstract**

13 The objectives of this study were to evaluate whether proofing profile influences volume and crumb
14 firmness in bread baked from frozen dough, and whether rye or sugar content and different kneading times
15 affect the microstructure of the frozen dough. Microscopy was used to explain the differences.

16 Wheat doughs mixed with rye (“rye”) and with sugar (“sweet”) were frozen after 3 different proofing times
17 (0, 18, and 38 min) and visualized with confocal laser scanning microscopy and 3-dimensional micro-
18 computed tomography. The baked breads were evaluated for volume and texture. Breads from un-proofed
19 frozen dough allowed to proof after thawing showed the highest volume (4.0 cm³/g) and the softest crumb
20 texture. The pre-proofed sweet bread had firmer crumbs and lower volume (2.5-3.0cm³/g) than the pre-
21 proofed rye bread (2.7-3.7cm³/g). Reasons for the differences in quality parameters between the rye and
22 sweet breads were investigated by studying the different influences of kneading time and sugar content on

23 fresh and frozen dough. The gluten network was found to be more homogeneously distributed in doughs
24 with longer kneading times and lower sugar content, and less well distributed and more lumped in frozen
25 than in fresh dough.

26

27 1. Introduction

28 The “in-store baked” market segment is steadily increasing. Freezing has been an important advance for
29 this industry, allowing improved working hours and making it easier for many companies to produce
30 “freshly baked” bread in stores, bars, restaurants, etc. However, while freezing has helped to increase the
31 shelf life of bakery products, low temperature storage is known to negatively affect dough, damage the
32 structure of the bread, and reduce the final bread quality (Bárcenas and Rosell, 2006; Selomulyo and Zhou,
33 2007; Yi and Kerr, 2009). When the dough is subjected to temperatures below zero, free water leaks and
34 forms ice crystals that may grow and damage the gluten network during storage (Bárcenas and Rosell, 2006;
35 Meziani, Jasniewski, Ribotta, Arab-Tehrany, Muller, Ghoul and Desobry, 2012b; Naito, Fukami,
36 Mizokami, Ishida, Takano, Koizumi and Kano 2004; Yi and Kerr, 2009). These ice crystals may also affect
37 the yeast membrane leading to decreased viability (Naito et al, 2004; Yi & Kerr, 2009). These effects
38 produce unanticipated texture, pore size distribution (density), volume, and consumer acceptance.

39
40 Unfermented frozen doughs need time for thawing and for proofing prior to baking. This method is often
41 used for goods such as sweet buns and pizza dough. (Le Bail, Nicolitch and Vuillod, 2010; Meziani,
42 Ioannou, Jasniewski, Belhaj, Muller, Ghoul and Desobry, 2012a). In what is often referred to as ‘pre-
43 fermented frozen dough’ or ‘partially fermented dough’ the dough ingredients are mixed and left to proof;
44 the fermentation is then interrupted by freezing the dough (Le-Bail et al., 2010). An investigation of pre-
45 proofed doughs (Lucas, Grenier, Bornet, Challos and Quellec, 2010) found that those subjected to proofing
46 before freezing showed deformation, higher proportions of large bubbles, lower specific volume and height,
47 and densification of the bottom part contributing to a greater collapse of the dough. All of these effects
48 seemed to be attributable to the compression of the gases in the dough during cooling, a subsequent rupture
49 of the dough between the air bubbles, and their resulting coalescence (Lucas et al., 2010). The greatest
50 collapse was observed in doughs with the longest fermentation time previous to freezing that were thawed
51 before baking (Lucas et al., 2010).

52

53 Huang, Kim, Li and Rayas-Duarte, (2008) described baking frozen sweet dough as a challenge. When the
54 dough contains sugar, its osmotic pressure increases and the yeast cells may dehydrate more quickly,
55 decreasing gas production, and leading to a lower final volume (Huang et al., 2008; Meziani, 2012a).
56 Meziani, Kaci, Jacquot, Jasniewski, Ribotta, Muller, Ghoul and Desobry, (2012c) also mentioned in their
57 study that sugar increases the development of yeast before freezing. Another reported result of having sugar
58 in frozen bread dough is the change it induces in rheological characteristics, including the final rigidity of
59 the bread caused by the formation of ice crystals (Meziani, Jasniewski, Gaiani, Ioannou, Muller, Ghoul and
60 Desobry 2011). However, it has also been reported that sweet doughs require a longer mixing process than
61 plain white doughs to develop both the matrix of gluten and the porous structure of the dough (Calderón-
62 Dominguez, Neyra-Guevara, Farrera-Rebollo, Arana-Errasquín and Mora-Escobedo,2003; Tlapale-
63 Valdivia, Chanona-Pérez, Mora-Escobedo, Farrera-Rebollo, Gutiérrez-López and Calderón-Domínguez,
64 2010). Mixing is an important operation. During this process the structure of the dough and resulting bread
65 is formed, the visco-elastic properties of the gluten are developed, and air is incorporated into the dough
66 (Dobraszczyk and Morgenstern, 2003).

67
68 Rye is known to be the cereal with the highest dietary fibre, found mainly as arabinoxylan, fructan, and β -
69 glucan (Andersson, Åman, Wandel and Frølich, 2010; Rakha, Åman and Andersson, 2010). In addition to
70 its health aspects, rye flour has been noted to affect baking processes and it has an important delaying effect
71 on both staling and starch retrogradation in bread due to the great amount of water-holding arabinoxylan
72 contained in its cell walls (Rakha et al., 2010).

73
74 The aim of this study was to evaluate whether proofing profile influenced volume and crumb firmness in
75 bread baked from frozen stored dough. Possible reasons for the different effects on quality parameters of
76 the breads were explored though investigating the structure of doughs with various kneading times, sugar
77 content, and freezing protocols.

78

79 **2. Material and Methods**

80 **2.1. Preparation of sweet and rye dough, pre-proofing, and freezing regimes**

81 The doughs for the two different types of bread, rye (wheat flour and rye) and sweet (wheat flour with
82 sugar), were prepared by Fazer Bakery in Umeå 10 weeks before the study was carried out. The recipes are
83 shown in Table 1. The wheat flour used was “bakery wheat flour” from Nord Mills with a protein content
84 of 11.2-14.2% and ash content of max 0.7% of dry substance. The doughs were formed into small (60 g)
85 buns, frozen on trays for 24 hours (-20 °C was reached after 30min), put in plastic bags, placed in boxes at
86 -30 °C, and transported, frozen, to the laboratories at SIK, Gothenburg and SLU, Uppsala, where they were
87 stored at -20 °C until the analyses were performed. Both dough types were prepared in common industrial
88 conditions following the same steps: ingredient scaling, mixing (2 min), kneading (9 min), resting, dough
89 scaling, and shaping. The dough rested (5 min) and was later cut and shaped. The formed buns were treated
90 in three different ways before freezing: one group was not proofed at all but frozen directly (sample A),
91 another group was half-proofed (rye: 19 min; sweet: 18 min) (37°C, 50% RH) (sample B), and the third
92 group was fully proofed (rye: 38 min; sweet 36 min) (37°C, 50% RH) (sample C). Dough ingredients are
93 shown in Table 1 and proofing treatments in Table 2. Proofing times were screened in a pre-test, where the
94 time of the fully proofed was the time that gave the largest volume increase after baking.

95

96 **2.2. Baking**

97 The non-proofed doughs were allowed to thaw for 45 minutes (23°C, 50% RH) before full proofing (37°C,
98 50% RH) in a proofing chamber and baked at 230 °C for 15 minutes (rye) and at 200 °C for 12 minutes
99 (sweet) (sample A). Half-proofed doughs were treated in two different ways: sample B was thawed and
100 half-proofed before baking and after 5 minutes conditioning sample B* was baked directly under the same
101 conditions as the non-proofed doughs. Fully proofed doughs were also treated in two ways: sample C was
102 thawed before baking and sample C* was conditioned for 5 minutes before direct baking.

103 **2.3. Preparation of mini doughs in ReoMixer**

104 Three different concentrations of sugar (96g/kg, 44g/kg, and 1.0g/kg) were used in the sweet doughs
105 prepared in a 10-g ReoMixer (Reomix Instruments, Lund, Sweden) which measures the shear torques
106 during the kneading. The three sweet doughs were kneaded for three different times: 2.5 minutes (under-
107 kneaded), 5 minutes (close to optimal kneading), and 10 minutes (over-kneaded). Each recipe was
108 prepared on 4 different occasions using each of the kneading times. The recipes of the mini doughs are
109 shown in Table 1. The starting recipe was the 9.3% (96g/kg) sugar recipe used in the previous analysis of
110 different proofing profiles. Because yeast was not included in the mini dough recipes, the remaining
111 ingredients were increased somewhat over the starting recipe. Likewise, the content of the other
112 ingredients were increased somewhat in the doughs with less sugar. To obtain the right consistency of the
113 doughs with less sugar, it was also necessary to add somewhat more water to them.

114 **2.4. Mass and volume measurements**

115 The dough samples that were withdrawn from the freezer for proofing and baking were weighed using a
116 ± 0.01 g precision scale while frozen. The baked samples were weighed once more 1 hour after baking. At
117 that point, the volume of the buns was measured by rapeseed displacement according to the AACC's
118 Method 10-05 (2001). The results are presented as specific volume (cm^3/g).

119 **2.5. Texture analysis**

120 The bread texture was measured 1 hour after baking using a texture analyser Instron, 5542 (Instron,
121 Norwood, MA, US) with a cylindrical specimen of 20 mm diameter, a compressive strain of 40%, an
122 extension of 1.7 mm/sec, and a compressive load of 0.01N. The bread slices were approximately 1.5 cm
123 thick. Three buns of each treatment were kept in plastic bags at room temperature and their texture was
124 measured after 2 days using the same procedure just described.

125 **2.6. Macroscopic structure and 3D-micro-CT**

126 Vertical slices of the breads were photographed with a Nikon D70 camera (Nikon Nordic AB, Solna,
127 Sweden) to visualize the shape of the baked buns.

128 The macroscopic structure of the doughs was analysed by 3D-micro-CT using X-ray tomography
129 equipment (GE | phoenix V | xm 240, Wunstorf, Germany). The analysis included whole buns made from
130 both rye and sweet dough using three different processes: non-proofed, half-proofed, and fully proofed
131 before freezing. The samples were thawed for about 1 hour before the analyses. The images were taken at
132 45 µm resolution. These images were obtained during a fast cycle of 3 minutes and a longer one of about
133 21 minutes. The images were analysed with FIJI, ImageJ 1.47 (Maryland, US).

134 **2.7. Microstructural investigations of dough**

135 The microstructural analyses of the sweet and rye dough were carried out on the frozen dough. The frozen
136 doughs were prepared in a cryostat, Leica CM 1900 (Leica Ltd, Nussloch, Germany) at -15°C, sliced into
137 40-µm thick samples and put on objective glasses. The samples were air-fixed in 30% dry formaldehyde
138 for 1.5 hours and then stained. Akriflavine was used to stain the starch granules, Texas red® the protein,
139 and BODIPY® the fat. The microstructural analysis of the dough prepared in the ReoMixer was carried out
140 on both fresh and frozen stored dough prepared on two different occasions. A Leica TCS SP2 (Leica Ltd,
141 Heidelberg, Germany) confocal laser scanning microscope was used. The light source was an argon laser
142 with an emission maximum of 488 nm and a HeNe laser with an emission maximum of 594 nm. The emitted
143 signals were recorded in wavelength intervals of 502–550 nm (Akriflavine and BODIPY®) and 608–673
144 nm (Texas Red®). HCX APO water objectives with 20× and 63× magnification and numerical apertures of
145 0.5 and 0.90, respectively, were used.

146 The yeast cells were visualized using a LIVE/DEAD®BacLight™ viability kit containing CYTO®9 and
147 propidium iodide. CYTO®9 and propidiumjodid were detected in the wavelength intervals of 502–554
148 nm and 619–657nm, respectively, and an HCX PL APO CS objective with 63× magnification and
149 numerical aperture 1.20 was used.

150 **2.8. Chemicals used for microstructure staining**

151 Akriflavine (1g/l in ethanol) was used to stain the starch granules, Texas red®, Texas Red
152 sulfonychloride, (10g/l in water) the protein, and BODIPY®, BODIPY FL C16 (4,4- difluoro-5,7-
153 dimethyl-4-bara-3a,4a-diaza-s-inda-cene-3-hexadecanoic acid) (0.2g/l in methanol) the fat phase. The
154 yeast cells were visualized using a LIVE/DEAD®BacLight™ viability kit, where the Live cells is
155 stained with ingredient CYTO®9 (green) and dead cells is stained with propidium iodide (red). The dyes
156 were purchased from Invitrogen (Eugene, Oregon, USA).

157 **2.9. Image analysis**

158 To obtain a quantitative measure of the distribution of the gluten protein in the dough structure the
159 distribution of the area fraction of protein was determined with the images divided into $5 \times 5 = 25$ smaller
160 parts. The area fraction was determined on 10 different images of each dough using Matlab, (Mathworks®,
161 Natick, MA, US). This measurement of the distribution assumes that a structure with a well-distributed
162 protein network will have almost the same area fraction in all 25 parts, resulting in a narrow normal
163 distribution of the protein. When the protein is less homogeneously distributed the normal distribution will
164 be broader and there will be more parts with a very low fraction of protein.

165 **2.10. Statistics**

166 The specific volume and the Young's Modulus were presented as ranges with one standard deviation around
167 the mean. To assess the statistical significance of the differences between treatments, a one-way analysis
168 of variance (ANOVA) test was applied. The null hypothesis being that all treatment means are equal. For
169 all tested cases, (rye and sweet for specific volume, rye and sweet day 1 and 3 for Young's Modulus), the
170 ANOVA analysis lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis ($P < 10^{-3}$ in all cases) using Matlab,
171 (Mathworks®, Natick, MA, US).

172 **3. Results and Discussion**

173 **3.1. Effect of proofing conditions of frozen rye and sweet dough on volume and firmness of**
174 **bread**

175 Quality bread is often described as soft and voluminous. Decreased volume is one of the major quality
176 problems of using frozen dough, and the decrease occurs continuously during frozen storage (Eckardt,
177 Öhgren, Alp, Ekman, Åström, Chen, Swenson, Johansson and Langton, 2013).

178 In this study rye and sweet wheat flour breads made from fully and half pre-proofed dough were baked in
179 the oven either after thawing or complete proofing (samples B and C) or directly from the freezer (samples
180 B* and C*). These were compared with bread made from dough that was un-proofed before freezing and
181 thawed and proofed after frozen storage (sample A). The different proofing treatments of the dough are
182 shown in Table 2. Figure 1 shows the specific volumes of the rye and sweet breads made using different
183 proofing before and after frozen storage. The largest volume of the rye bread was obtained when the dough
184 was either allowed to proof fully after frozen storage (sample A) or was half-proofed before and half-
185 proofed after frozen storage (sample B). Dough fully proofed before frozen storage resulted in flatter buns
186 with a lower volume (samples C and C*). Somewhat higher volume was obtained when the buns were
187 allowed to thaw before baking (sample C). Buns half-proofed before freezing and baked without thawing
188 (sample B*) were higher than buns fully proofed before freezing (samples C and C*), but had the same low
189 total volume. Gabric, Ben Aissa, Le Bail, Monteau and Curic, 2011 also showed that an increased degree
190 of pre-proofing resulted in a reduced bread volume. There was a larger difference between the reference
191 (sample A, thawed and fully proofed after freeze storage) and the other samples that was proofed before
192 freeze storage (sample C, C*, B, B*) in sweet buns compared to the rye buns. The sweet bun that was frozen
193 and stored un-proofed (sample A) was the only sweet bun that was truly approved and did also significantly
194 differ from the other treatments in specific volume. The other sweet buns had much lower volume and a
195 pyramidal form, especially those that were allowed to thaw (sample C*) and half proof (sample B*) after
196 frozen storage (Figure 1). Different superscript letters in the figures indicate significantly different values
197 of the specific volume at $P < 10^{-3}$.

198 Texture quality measured by Young's Modulus (Table 3) was similar for both rye and sweet bread when
199 measured freshly baked directly after cooling except for the buns that had been stored as un-proofed dough
200 (sample A) that showed a significant softer crumb compared to the other treatments. However, there were
201 larger differences between the breads after storage in plastic bags at room temperature for 2 days. The
202 staling of the bread strongly depended on the processing conditions used. The Young's Modulus after 2
203 days was lowest in sample A for both rye and sweet bread. The sweet bread staled faster than the rye bread.
204 It is clear that bread that was pre-proofed before freezing (samples B and C) had a higher tendency to faster
205 staling than bread made from un-proofed dough before freezing. Of all the buns, those made from fully
206 proofed dough (sample C) staled fastest, as measured by texture firmness. These results were consistent
207 between rye and sweet bread. Different superscript letters in the columns indicate significantly different
208 values of the Young's Modulus at $P < 10^{-3}$.

209 **3.2. Structure formation of frozen rye and sweet doughs**

210 The doughs' structures were investigated on different levels to understand why the sweet breads decreased
211 more in volume and had a harder texture than the rye breads after frozen storage of the dough. The
212 macrostructure inside the dough was investigated using 3D-micro-CT (Figure 2a-b). Using this technique
213 cross-sections of the whole buns were visualized, with the dough shown in yellow and air bubbles in blue.
214 In Figure 2a-b the un-proofed rye and sweet doughs, respectively, are shown before baking. The difference
215 between them is clear already: the rye dough has more air bubbles more homogeneously distributed than
216 the sweet buns, and some regions of the sweet buns have no pores at all. The sweet buns also show a flatter
217 form, which may indicate that the bun collapsed during freezing or thawing.

218 Figure 2c (rye) and 2d (sweet) shows the microstructure of the lamellas in the dough and the distribution
219 of the gluten protein (red) in relation to the starch granules (green). The rye dough has a well-distributed
220 gluten protein network that surrounds the wheat starch granules, while the protein in the sweet dough is

221 more often distributed in lumps that are not as connected as in the rye dough. We do not know whether the
222 sweet dough forms this gluten microstructure when it is fresh or during frozen storage.

223 Another difference between the rye and sweet doughs, other than the difference in sugar content, is that the
224 sweet dough contains more fat. In Figure 2e-f the protein networks are shown in red and the fat in green.
225 We see here again the well-distributed protein-gluten-protein network in the rye dough and the less
226 homogeneously distributed gluten-protein network in the sweet dough. The sweet dough has much more
227 fat than the rye dough, but the fat seems well-distributed in both doughs and in domains of similar sizes.
228 Thus, it seems either that fat is more easily distributed in dough than gluten or that its distribution is less
229 likely to change during frozen storage.

230 An important aspect of working with frozen dough, whether pre-proofed or not, is estimating the condition
231 of the yeast. Frozen rye and sweet dough were therefore examined using the fluorescent dye LIVE/DEAD,
232 which distinguishes between living and dead cells. In Figure 2g-h living cells are shown as green spheres
233 and dead cells as red. Cells that are green with a red spot inside are assumed to be not yet dead, but in poor
234 condition. Clearly, more living cells remain in the sweet dough (about 50%) than in the rye (about 10%)
235 after frozen storage, which seems logical since the yeast has more food in the sweet dough and the sugar
236 may protect the yeast. The smaller volume of the sweet buns is therefore not due to the yeast. However, the
237 degeneration of the yeast in the freezer is a contributing cause to the generally lower volume of bread baked
238 from frozen stored dough than bread baked from fresh dough. We also found that the longer the frozen
239 storage, the more live yeast cells die or deteriorate. After analysis at different intervals during frozen
240 storage, most of yeast cells were found to have died early in the frozen storage. In fresh sweet dough about
241 80% of yeast cells are living, but after 2 weeks of freezing the proportion of living cells drops to about 60%.

242 **3.3. Effect of kneading, sugar content, and frozen storage on dough microstructures**

243 To better understand why the volume of sweet bread decreases more than that of rye after frozen storage as
244 dough, we investigated the effects of sugar content and kneading time on the distribution of the gluten

245 structure. In Figure 3a, the wheat granules are shown in green and the gluten in orange on 12 different
246 doughs varying in sugar content and kneading time. The dough containing 1.0, 44, and 96g/kg sugar
247 contained the same proportions of other ingredients as the sweet dough described in the previous sections.
248 The reference dough (ref) contained only wheat flour and water and no sugar. Figure 3a shows that longer
249 kneading time with the same sugar content produced a more developed gluten network. This is in accord
250 with earlier studies by Calderón-Dominguez et al. (2003) and Tlapale-Valdivia et al. (2010). We can also
251 see that given the same kneading time, the gluten network is best distributed in doughs with the lowest
252 sugar content and least homogeneous with the highest sugar concentration. Most clear is the difference in
253 gluten distribution at different sugar contents at the kneading times defined as close to optimal, i.e. the ones
254 framed in red in Figure 3a. Figure 3a also shows poor distribution of gluten at high sugar contents may be
255 compensated for by longer kneading.

256 To obtain a more quantitative measurement of the distribution of the gluten protein, a calculation of the
257 area fraction was performed on the images divided into 5×5 squares. The distribution is shown as the
258 relative intensity (0-80%) versus area fraction (0-1). When gluten proteins are well distributed the
259 distribution will be narrowly and normally distributed, i.e. the distribution of gluten protein and starch are
260 roughly equal in the 25 squares. When the gluten distribution is less homogeneous, many squares show a
261 low proportion of protein resulting in a broader distribution on the left (low fraction of protein) in the
262 diagrams in Figure 3a. These results show by the shift to the left of the distribution that values of the protein
263 area fraction are lower with higher sugar content.

264 The gluten network distribution is also influenced by frozen storage. In Figure 3b, the microstructure after
265 different kneading times of the reference dough is shown before and after 6 weeks of frozen storage. The
266 fresh reference dough has a very well-distributed gluten network, but that becomes less homogeneous after
267 frozen storage when large areas without gluten appear. Part of the explanation of why the quality of sweet
268 bread is more negatively influenced by freezing than non-sweet bread is likely that the higher sugar content
269 causes additional coarseness.

270 **3.4. Impact of water and ice**

271 Understanding how the water content behaves during freezing and frozen storage is probably the key to
272 understanding the different final textures of various breads. Since the water exists first as a liquid and then
273 as ice states, it will shift during freezing and thawing, with accompanying changes in the number and size
274 of ice crystals in proportion to the volume of free movable water. Ideally, the dough should contain as
275 much non-frozen water as possible, which can be achieved by adding substances that lower its freezing
276 point or by distributing the water in such small confined areas that it will not freeze (Chen, Swenson, Van
277 der Meulen and Villman, 2013). This study showed that staling was faster in breads that were frozen and
278 stored as proofed dough than in breads from dough frozen and stored un-proofed. This may be because
279 pre-proofed dough contains more large voids in which large ice crystals can form than un-proofed dough.
280 One reason why dough retains more water during frozen storage than bread at room temperature is that
281 the dough has a greater number of small pores in which the water can remain either un-frozen or in small
282 crystals even after long-term frozen storage (Chen et al., 2013).

283 **3.5. The influence of water and ice on the dough structure and components**

284 Extra-cellular ice crystals destroy the yeast and the gluten structure, while moving water during all parts
285 of the process results in either less retained water or poorly distributed water in the dough or the bread. It
286 is generally recommended to use as low freezing temperature as possible to speed freezing and avoid the
287 formation of ice crystals or at least make them as small as possible. However, dough is an exception to
288 this general rule because it contains yeast, which is a living organism. There is a risk in quick freezing
289 that water will not be transported out of the yeast cell quickly enough, which increases the risk of ice
290 crystals forming within the cells.

291 Degeneration of gluten results, as would be expected, in less gluten in the dough and higher gluten
292 content is known to decrease the rate of staling (Callejo, Gil, Rodríguez and Ruiz, 1999). Therefore,
293 reducing degeneration of (or retaining) gluten content would be expected to reduce staling. In general,

294 bread made from dough stored proofed in the freezer had both lower volume and a harder crumb than that
295 stored un-proofed. One reason for this is that the proofed dough buns partially collapsed during frozen
296 storage. The results of this study showing more collapse with longer proofing times before frozen storage
297 is consistent with earlier studies by Lucas et al. (2010). This collapse of the bubble structure may be
298 attributable to the underdevelopment of the gluten network, which was also the case for the sweet breads.
299 However, the rye dough was also affected during the frozen storage. This study showed that the gluten
300 network contracts during frozen storage, as shown by others who have noted that gluten is degraded by
301 depolymerisation during freezing (Wang, Chen Mohanad, Xu, Ning, Xu, Wu, Yang, Jin and Xu, 2014).
302 Increasing the concentration of gluten is a well-known method of strengthening the gluten network, while
303 changing and prolonging the mixing and kneading time are less common. Enzymes are also now available
304 on the market to facilitate the linkage of gluten to form long elastic threads.

305 Adding substances to lower the freezing point keeps the water in an un-frozen state for a longer time, but
306 these substances can influence the texture by affecting the distribution of gluten, as was shown in this
307 study by the addition of sugar. Another way to keep the water in the product during frozen storage is to
308 bind it to highly water-absorbing substances such as fibres. We saw that the staling rate was lower in the
309 rye breads than in the sweet breads. The high content of arabinoxylan in the rye bread had a positive
310 effect on retarding the rate of staling (Rakha et al., 2010).

311 **4. Conclusions**

312 Bread from both rye and sweet doughs had larger volume if they were baked from frozen stored un-proofed
313 dough compared to frozen stored proofed dough. In addition, sweet breads baked from pre-proofed frozen
314 stored dough were pyramidal shaped. Staling was also significantly higher for bread that was stored as fully
315 proofed dough in the freezer.

316 The importance shown in this study was the different demands on doughs arising with increasing sugar
317 content:

318 • The higher the content of sugar in the dough, the longer kneading time is necessary to obtain a
319 well-distributed and homogeneous gluten network.

320 • Frozen storage involves contraction of the gluten network resulting in a less well-distributed
321 gluten structure.

322 Thus, increasing the kneading time of the dough, especially for the sweet dough, might help to improve the
323 quality of bread made from frozen dough.

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329

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