Document downloaded from:

http://hdl.handle.net/10251/38948

This paper must be cited as:

Ivorra Martínez, E.; Verdú Amat, S.; Sánchez Salmerón, AJ.; Barat Baviera, JM.; Grau Meló, R. (2014). Continuous monitoring of bread dough fermentation using a 3D vision Structured Light technique. Journal of Food Engineering. 130:8-13. doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2013.12.031.



The final publication is available at

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2013.12.031

Copyright Elsevier

Continuous monitoring of bread dough fermentation using a 3D vision Structured Light technique Eugenio Ivorra², Samuel Verdú^{1*}, Antonio J. Sánchez², Jose M. Barat¹, Raúl Grau¹

¹Departamento de Tecnología de Alimentos. Universidad Politècnica de València,
7 Spain.

²Departamento de Ingeniería de Sistemas y Automática, Universidad Politècnica de
València, Spain

10

11 Abstract

The aim of this work was to monitor the fermentation phase of bread-making using a 12 13 3D vision system based on Structured Light (SL). The evolution of the dough was studied employing 10 wheat flours with non-physicochemical and rheological 14 differences. However, differences in dough behaviours during fermentation were found 15 16 based on SL method parameters. When the variation of the total transversal area was related to the maximum height at each fermentation time a set of peaks and valleys 17 appeared. These sets are directly related to the fermentation capacity. Specifically, a 18 19 lower number of peaks, during the main fermentation time (100 minutes), are related to wheat flours with high fermentation capacity. Consequently, the proposed SL 20 Technique could be used as a method to check the fermentation capacity of wheat flours 21 22 according to their fermentation behaviour.

23

24 **Keywords**: Structured light, monitoring, fermentation, bread, behaviour.

1. Introduction

Several important factors affect productivity in the bread industry due to the modifications of wheat flour properties and behaviour during the bread-making process. Some of them are: the cultivation method, wheat variety, phytohealth products, environmental factors, climatic conditions, plagues, store kernel alterations and milling, etc., all of which result in changes in flour composition (Cocchia et al., 2005). Therefore, it is important to develop methods to study wheat flour properties and process phases to decide the best use for each batch of raw materials, and in turn to modify the process parameters when necessary. Fermentation of the dough is an important phase in the bread-making process which affects parameters in the final product, such as texture, palatability and general quality. This is an important temperature-dependent phase, in which the yeasts metabolism of transforms assimilable carbohydrates and amino acids into carbon dioxide and ethyl alcohol as the principal end products (Birch et al., 2013). Gluten plays a crucial role in creating the dough structure and baking the bread. It affects the stability of the dough and bread volume by forming the skeleton of wheat dough which combines the remaining ingredients and additives within the dough (Barak et al., 2013). The oxidation of cysteine amino acids from gluten proteins (gliadines and glutenines) by tiol groups generates a viscoelastic network which is capable of retaining carbon dioxide from which the gas cells develop. The growth of gas cells depends on the cell size and the dough composition (flour, water and other ingredients). Several compounds are known to exert a stabilizing influence and retard unwanted phenomena such as coalescence (Gan et al., 1995). As a result, dough composition and yeast activity are manifested in dough bubble sizes and dough volume expansion.

Recently, empirical and physicochemical techniques have been used to characterize the different phases of the bread-making process (Dobraszczyk & Morgenstern, 2003), the majority of them based on destructive analysis. In particular, the fermentation phase has been extensively studied from different points of view by

non-destructive various techniques (Lassoued et al., 2007). All of them are aimed at obtaining information about the implicated fermentation and baking parameters, thereby explaining the process phenomena and improving knowledge as well as control over the final product. The evolution of parameters such as dough volume, density and gas cell sizes are important control variables, since their behaviour will have an important influence on the quality of the final product.

Image analysis is an important tool in the characterization of the bread-making process, which has been demonstrated to be an important research and industrial application (Calderón-Domínguez et al., 2008). Different techniques and methods based on multiple principles have been used to acquire and analyse images obtained during the process. Some examples are: Confocal laser scanning microscopy (Jekle 2011, Upadhyay et al. 2012), et al., magnetic resonance (Franci & Serša., 2011) and methods based on 2D (Pour-Damanab et al., 2011).

The structured-light method is another imaging technique. It is based on the projection of a pattern of light on a sample and the calculation of 3D dimensions from the deformation of the pattern using a camera (Verdú et al., 2013). This technique permits the monitoring of continuous processes and could be applied on-line. Accordingly, the aim of this work was to monitor bread dough fermentation of different wheat flour samples with a developed computer vision based on Structured Light, in order to obtain useful information about the process and characterize the response of the raw material.

2. Material & methods

2.1 . Dough preparation and fermentation process

Ten different doughs were made employing the following percentages: 56% wheat flour, 35% water, 2% sunflower oil, 2% commercial pressed yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*), 4% white sugar and 1.5% NaCl. All doughs were made using the same procedure but employing ten different batches of wheat flours which were obtained from a local factory. Wheat flour moisture, gluten, falling number and rheological parameters were determined according to the methods of the International Association for Cereal Science and Technology (ICC) and protein content by the Kjeldahl Method.Table 1 lists the average and standard deviation of the parameters valuated.

Table 1. Average and standard deviation of protein, alveograph parameters (P=maximum pressure (mm), L=extensibility (mm); W=strength (J^{-4}), falling number, moisture, gluten and dry-gluten for the 10 batches of wheat flour employed.

Р	97	± 2
L	104	± 3
W	373	± 12
P/L	0,93	± 0,03
Falling number	413	± 6
Moisture (%)	14,28	± 0,24
Wet Gluten (%)	31,23	± 0,25
Dry gluten (%)	13,51	± 0,11

The doughs were made by combining all ingredients in a food mixer (Thermomix® TM31, Vorwerk, Germany) according to the following procedure. In the first step, liquid components (water and oil), sugar and NaCl were mixed for 4 minutes at 37 °C. The pressed yeast was added in the next step and mixed at the same temperature for 30 seconds. Finally, the flour was added and mixed with the rest of the ingredients using a special bread dough mixing program which provides homogeneous dough. Then, 450 g of dough was placed in the metal mould (8x8x30cm)for fermentation. This process was carried out in a chamber with controlled humidity and temperature (KBF720, Binder, Tuttlingen, Germany), where a 3D Structured Light (SL) device was developed and calibrated. The conditions of the fermentation process were 37 °C and 90 % of RH. The samples were fermented until the dough lost its stability and size, when growth depletion occurred. For each dough, four replicates were used.

2.2. Fermentation monitoring by "Structured Light" method (SL)

2.3. A 3D vision system was designed specifically to monitor fermentation. This vision system was composed of structured light and a camera. The structured light was generated employing a red lineal laser (Lasiris SNF 410, Coherent Inc. Santa Clara, California (USA)) and the network graycamera, with index protection of 67 (IP67), for the image acquisition (In-Sight 5100, Cognex, Boston, Massachusetts (USA)), both of them were installed inside the fermentation chamber (Fig, 1).

The laser had an angle β of 0.65 radians (Fig 1) which in combination with the resolution of the camera (640x480) and its distance from the sample give a Z resolution of $1.4*10^4$ m and X resolution of $2.1*10^4$ m. This configuration was established to achieve a working range of 0.1 m in the X axis and of 0.08m in the Z axis.

The camera worked with an acquisition rate of 1 fps due to the long period of time for the test performed (around 2 hours) but it can work at up to 60fps.

Calibration of the equipment was realized by taking 10 regularly distributed points in 3D in the laser projection plane (Trobina *et al.*, 1995). Using these points with known 3D coordinates and their correspondent points in the image, a homography transformation was calculated (Zhang *et al.*, 2000).

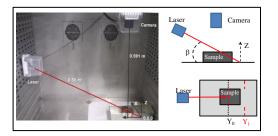


Figure 1. Developed 3D vision system installed in the fermentation chamber and schematic 3D vision system.

2.4. SL method information extraction

The laser points projected on the image were extracted following these steps: first, the image was segmented using Otsu's global threshold (Otsu *et al.*, 1979), then the image was filtered removing non connected pixels with an area lower than 100px and finally, row coordinates were calculated by weight mean. This weight mean value was calculated for each column using the intensity value in order to get subpixel precision. The 3D coordinates were then calculated using the homography from these pixel coordinates. The last step was to apply a rotation matrix to them in order to make the z axis normal to the surface as can be seen in the reference coordinate system of Fig. 1.

The sample was defined as a 3D curve composed of the 3D points which are between the known 3D points of the mould's borders. The following information about the growth of the samples during the fermentation was acquired from each image:

- Maximum height (H): The maximum Z value for the sample and its position.
- Transversal area (A): The integration of the Z values along the X direction of the sample.
- Arc correlation: A Pearson's correlation between a theoretical arc defined by two points (the two extreme sides of the sample along the X direction) and the radius (half the modulus of the vector between the two points of the arc) and the 3D curve of the sample.

Acquisition and data processing was carried out using a code developed in the Matlab computational environment (The Mathworks, Natick, Massachussets, USA).

3. Results & discussion

Dough volume expansion, in which CO_2 production is associated with yeast activity (Bajd & Serša, 2011), was characterized obtained employing from data the line method. Data structured were expressed as transversal area (A), the maximum height (H) at each time and the relationship between both (A/H). Figure 2, as an example, shows the evolution of the dough transversal area with the fermentation time. The X axis expresses the

thickness of the bread, the Y axis the fermentation time and the Z axis the height.

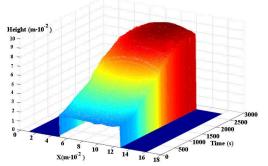


Figure 2. 3D representation of dough transversal area evolution with fermentation time.

Figure 3 shows the evolution of the transversal area, for the 10 doughs tested, with each fermentation time (until growth depletion occurred). Although the physicochemical analysis of the wheat flours used for making the doughs did not show any significant difference (Table 1), the times to reach the maximum transversal area were different for the doughs tested (Fig. 3). The maximum area value was $1758.7 \pm 189.2 \text{ mm}^2$, employing 187 minutes (dough number 10) and the lowest was 1027.2 ± 53.7 mm² employing 108 minutes (dough number 1) (Table 2). Similar behaviour was obtained when the maximum height at each fermentation time was compared (Table 2). When the data about area and height at 100 min were compared, statistical differences were observed (Table 2). The time of 100 min was the shortest time for a dough to reach its final fermentation and was similar to that employed by other authors as а fermentation time (Keskin et al., 2004; Bajd & Serša, 2011; Rizzello et al., 2012). Differences between doughs could be related to the level of starch damage, the influence of gluten proteins and the number of bubbles and their size (Faridi, 1990; Barrera et al.. 2013; Mills et al., 2003; Boyaci et al. 2004). The fraction of starch damage is a consequence of the kind and time of milling the wheat-kernels. It has an influence on the rheological and functional properties of dough (Faridi, 1990) since it is able to modify flow regimes, processing variables and swelling proprieties (Barrera et al., 2007). Excessive starch damage could overly hydrate the dough and permit

accelerated enzymatic action (Boyaciet al. 2004), thus it produces differences in the availability of yeast substrates and dough stability with time. On the other hand, climatic fluctuations (Daniel &Triboi, 2000) and levels of several fertilizer compounds such as nitrogen, sulphur and phosphorus (Altenbach et al., 2002) may affect the enzyme activity kinetics during wheat growth, thus disturbing an optimal ratio generation of subfractions of gluten proteins (gliadin and glutenin). Higher glutenin levels make the dough more elastic, thus giving the dough its property of resistance to extension, while higher gliadin content increases the extensibility of the dough (Barak et al., 2013). This ratio has a strong influence on the quality and technological proprieties of wheat flour (Radovanovic et al., 2002). However, the analysis of starch damage or gluten protein

composition requires specific techniques and devices that are not easy to carry out on a daily basis in the industry.

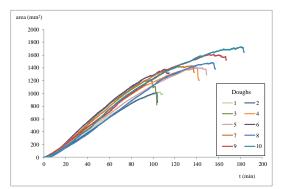


Figure 3. Evolution of the dough's transversal area with fermentation time (until growth depletion occurred).

Table 2. Transversal area and the maximum height of the tested doughs, at the end of each fermentation time (until no increase is observed) and at 100 minutes (time required for the dough which reached its final fermentation first).

_	Until the end of fermentation time									At 100 min									
Dough	Final time (Ft) (min)			Transversal area (A) (mm²)			MaximumHeight (H) (mm)				Transvers (n	MaximumHeight (H) (mm)							
1	108	±	2	а	1027.2	±	53.7	а	44.5	±	0.1	а	921.5 [±]	46.7	а	46.3	±	0.1	а
2	106	±	4	а	1055.6	±	75.5	a	46.2	±	0.1	а	924.2 ±	12.9	а	40.9	±	0.2	а
3	100	±	4	а	1228.7	±	32.3	ab	56.1	±	0.2	b	1171.1 [±]	47.7	bc	52.9	±	0.2	cd
4	138	±	3	С	1402.7	±	68.4	bc	61.8	±	0.1	bc	1106.9 ±	74.0	abc	47.9	±	0.1	bcd
5	142	±	5	cd	1420.5	±	147.8	bc	62.6	±	0.5	bc	1021.3 ±	142.1	abc	46.7	±	0.5	abc
6	123	±	17	bc	1432.5	±	133.7	bc	64.0	±	0.1	bc	1214.9 [±]	74.8	с	54.3	±	0.1	d
7	133	±	4	b	1439.0	±	83.2	bc	62.6	±	0.2	bc	1167.9 [±]	85.9	bc	51.7	±	0.2	bcd
8	155	±	1	de	1498.8	±	190.8	C	67.0	±	0.8	cd	999.6 ±	109.1	ab	46.0	±	0.5	ab
9	159	±	3	e	1629.6	±	45.8	cd	72.8	±	0.2	d	1107.3 ±	95.0	abc	51.6	±	0.2	bcd
10	187	±	8	f	1758.7	±	189.2	d	74.7	±	0.7	d	1129.4 ±	131.1	bc	50.5	±	0.5	bcd

When the ratio between total transversal area and maximum height increase $(\Delta A/\Delta H)$ at each fermentation time was calculated, no stable evolution was observed (Fig. 4). The instability was related with the different velocity that *A* and *H* had. In order to check this instability, the correlation between the arc described by the laser light when it is projected onto the dough surface (Fig. 4) and the theoretical arc was used. As it is possible to observe in figure 4, an example of two doughs (left dough 2 and

right dough 9), in which the evolution of the ratio $\Delta A/\Delta H$ and R^2 of Pearson are drawn, peaks and valleys could be identified (between broken lines). Peaks were considered when data from R^2 change their derivative sign from positive to negative (derivative cero value) and the function value is equal or higher than the previous peak. R^2 of Pearson and $\Delta A/\Delta H$ had an inverse tendency with time. When $\Delta A/\Delta H$ decreased, because the higher velocity of *H* changes, \mathbb{R}^2 increased, evolving the shape of the dough surface to a theoretical arc. Inverse behaviour could be obtained when the *A* velocity was higher.

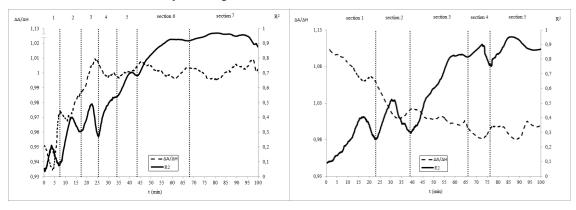


Figure 4. Evolution with fermentation time (100 minutes) of the ratio between transversal area (A) and the height (H) increase $(\Delta A/\Delta H)$ (broken line) and the arc correlation (continuous line) for dough number 9 (right) and 2 (left).

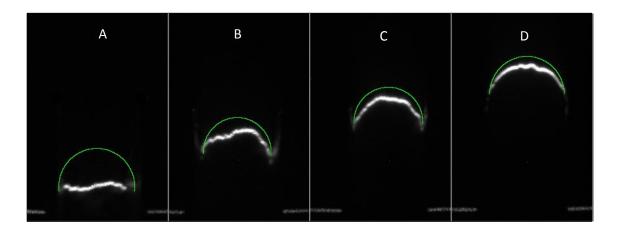


Figure 5. Laser light projected onto the dough versus fermentation time (A: 5 min, B: 30 min, C: 60 min, D : 100 min) and the theoretical arc (green line).

The recount of the number of peaks at 100 min (NP_{100}) (Table 4) showed how this number is related to dough evolution and could be used to discern the final behaviour of doughs (Fig. 6). In doughs which did not have an important variation in their transversal area between 100 min and their final fermentation time (first doughs), the number of peaks did not increased, reaching their highest number of peaks. On the other hand, doughs which increased their transversal area also increased their number of peaks (Table 4). The failure of the

gluten-network films separating some bubbles has been implicated in the correct gas retention and therefore in the instability of the foam structure of bread (Gan et al., 1995), which could produce variations in the dough's evolution with time. Therefore, this could be the reason that a reorganization or non-uniform distribution of bubbles could lead to total or partial collapse of the dough (Wang et al., 2011), making changes in the shape of doughs which could be related to the peaks and vallevs.

According to this result, employing SL technique it is possible to characterize the

wheat flours according to their fermentation capacity.

Dough		NI	D ₁₀₀		NP_{f}				
-				de	, ab				
1	7.5	±	0	ue	8	±	1		
2	8.5	±	1.4	e	8.5	±	1	ab	
3	7	±	0.7	cd	7	±	0	а	
4	6	±	0.7	bc	7.5	±	1	ab	
5	6	±	0.7	bc	8	±	1	ab	
6	6	±	0	bc	7.5	±	1	ab	
7	6	±	0.7	bc	9.5	±	1	b	
8	4.5	±	0.7	а	7	±	1	а	
9	5	±	0	ab	8.5	±	1	ab	
10	4.5	±	0.7	а	9	±	1	ab	

Table 4. Number of peaks at 100 min (NP_{100}) and at final fermentation time (NP_f)

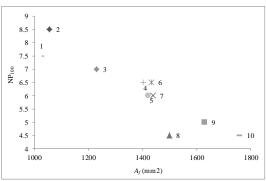


Figure 6. Ratio between the transversal area (A_{100}) and the number of peaks at 100 minutes (NP_{100}) related to the transversal area at the end of each fermentation time (A_f) for the ten doughs tested.

4. Conclusion

The study demonstrated that the Structured Light method (SL) can provide useful information about the behaviour of dough during fermentation. The monitoring of the fermentation of dough showed that wheat flours with similar moisture, protein, gluten, dry-gluten, falling number and alveograph parameters have different fermentation capacities. The peaks and valleys that take place during fermentation time, when the variation of the total transversal area is related to the maximum height or with R^2 of Pearson (obtained when the curvature described by the laser light is adjusted to a theoretical arc when it is projected onto the dough surface), are directly related with the fermentation capacity. A lower number of peaks during

the main fermentation time (100 minutes) is related to wheat flours with high fermentation capacity. Hence the described technique could be used to check the fermentation capacity of wheat flours according to their fermentation behaviour.

5. Acknowledgements

We wish to thank the Polytechnic University of Valencia and Generalitat Valenciana for the financial support they provided through the PAID-05-011-2870 and GVPRE/2008/170 Projects, respectively.

6. References

Altenbach, S.B., Du Pont ,F.M., Kothari, K.M., Chan, R., Johnson ,E.L. & Lieu, D. (2003). Temperature, Water and Fertilizer Influence the Timing of Key Events During Grain Development in a US Spring Wheat. *Journal of Cereal Science*, *37*, 9–20.

Bajd, F. & Serša, I. (2011). Continuous monitoring of dough fermentation and bread baking by magnetic resonance microscopy. *Magnetic Resonance Imaging*, 29(3), 434-442.

Barak, S., Mudgil, D. & Khatkar, B.S. (2013). Relationship of gliadin and glutenin proteins with dough rheology, flour pasting and bread making performance of wheat varieties. *Food Science and Technology*, *51*, 211-217.

Barrera, G. N., Pérez, G. T., Ribotta, P. D. & León, A. E. (2007). Influence of damaged starch on cookie and breadmaking quality. *Europe Food Research Technology*, 225, 1–7.

Barrera, G.N., Bustos M.C, Iturriaga, L, Flores, S.K., León, A.E. & Ribotta P.D. (2013). Effect of damaged starch on the rheological properties of wheat starch suspensions. *Journal of Food Engineering*, *116(1)*, 233-239.

Birch Anja N., Petersen Mikael A., Arneborg N. & Hansen Åse S. (2013). Influence of commercial baker's yeasts on bread aroma profiles. *Food Research International*, *52*, 160–166.

Boyacı I.H., Williams, P.C. & Köksel, H. (2004). A rapid method for the estimation

of damaged starch in wheat flours. *Journal* of Cereal Science, 39(1), 139-145.

Calderón-Domínguez, G.J., Chanona-Pérez, A.L. Ramos-Cruz, A.I., López-Lara, A.D., Tlapale-Valdivia, G.F. & Gutiérrez-López. (2008). Fractal and image analysis of Mexican sweet bread bubble distribution; influence of fermentation and mixing time. G.M. Campbell, M. Scanlon, L. Pyle, K. Niranjan (Eds.), Bubbles in food 2: Novelty, health and luxury American. Association of Cereal Chemists, St. Paul, MN, USA.

Cocchia, M., , Corbellinib M, Focaa,G., Lucisanoc, M., Paganic, M. A., Lorenzo T. & Alessandro, U. (2005). Classification of bread wheat flours in different quality categories by awavelet-based feature selection/classification algorithm on NIR spectra. *Analytica Chimica Acta, 544*, 100– 107.

Daniel, C. & Triboi, E. (2000). Effects of Temperature and Nitrogen Nutrition on the Grain Composition of Winter Wheat: Effects on Gliadin Content and Composition. *Journal of Cereal Science*, 32(1), 45-56.

Dobraszczyk, B.J. & Morgenstern, M.P. (2003). Rheology and the breadmaking process. *Journal of Cereal Science*, *38*(*3*), 229-245.

Faridi, H. & Faubion, J.M. (1990). Dough rheology and baked product texture. Information Systems Division, National Agricultural Library (United States of America).

Gan, Z., Ellis, P.R. & Schofield, J.D. (1995). Gas Cell Stabilisation and Gas Retention in Wheat Bread Dough. *Journal of Cereal Science*, *21*(*3*), 215-230.

Jekle, M. & Becker, T. (2011). Dough microstructure: Novel analysis by quantification using confocal laser scanning microscopy. *Food Research International*, 44(4), 984-991.

Keskin S. O..Sumnu G. Sahi S. (2004). Bread baking in halogen lamp–microwave combination oven. *Food Research International*, 37, 489–49.

Lassoued N, Babin P, Della Valle G, Devaux MF, Reguerre AL. (2007). Granulometry of bread crumb grain: contributions of 2D and 3D image analysis at different scale. *Food Research International.*, 40, 1087–97. Mills, E. N. C., Wilde, P. J., L. Salt, J. & Skeggs, P. (2003). Bubble formation and stabilization in bread dough. *Food Bioproducts Process*, *81*, 189-193.

Pour-Damanab A.R. S, Jafary A. & Rafiee Sh. (2011). Monitoring the dynamic density of dough during fermentation using digital imaging method. *Journal of Food Engineering*, 107(1), 8-13.

Radovanovic, N., Cloutier, S., Brown, D., Humphreys, D. G., & Lukow, O. M. (2002). Genetic variance for gluten strength contributed by high molecular weight glutenin proteins. *Cereal Chemistry*, *79*(6), 843–849.

Rizzello, C.G., Coda, R., .Mazzacan, F., Minervini, D. & Gobbetti, M. (2012). Micronized by-products from debranned durum wheat and sourdough fermentationenhanced the nutritional.textural and sensory features of bread. *Food Research International, 46*, 304–313.

Upadhyay, R., Debjani, G. & Mehra, A. (2012). Characterization of bread dough: Rheological properties and microstructure Original Research Article. *Journal of Food Engineering*, *109*(*1*), 104-113.

Verdú, S., Ivorra, E., J. Sánchez, A., Girón, J., Barat, J.M. & Grau, R. (2013). Comparison of TOF and SL techniques for in-line measurement of food item volume using animal and vegetable tissues. *Food Control*, 33(1), 221-226.

Wang, S., Austin, P. & Bell, S. It's a maze: The pore structure of bread crumbs. *Journal of Cereal Science*, *54*, 203-210.