

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Distribution of bioactive compounds in maize fractions obtained in two different types of large scale milling processes.

This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1651809> since 2018-01-19T09:22:57Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1016/j.jcs.2017.08.006

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

Title: Distribution of bioactive compounds in maize fractions obtained in two different types of large scale milling processes.

Authors:

Massimo Blandino¹, Michela Alfieri², Debora Giordano¹, Francesca Vanara¹, Rita Redaelli².

Affiliation:

¹ Università di Torino, Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali e Alimentari, Largo P. Braccini 2, 10095 Grugliasco (TO), Italy.

² Consiglio per la ricerca in agricoltura e l'analisi dell'economia agraria. CREA-MAC, via Stezzano 24, 24126 Bergamo, Italy

*Corresponding author: Massimo Blandino

Phone +39 011 6708895, massimo.blandino@unito.it

Abstract

1 Maize kernels contain different bioactive compounds that are important for human
2 health. The aim of this study was to analyze the distribution of the bioactive
3 compounds in maize fractions derived from two industrial dry-milling processes,
4 characterized by a dry-degermination (DD) system and a tempering-degermination
5 (TD) system.

6 The bioactive compounds in maize resulted unevenly distributed in the milling
7 fractions of the kernel. By-products such as the germ and the animal feed flour, had
8 higher total antioxidant capacity (TAC), total polyphenol content (TPC) and total
9 dietary fibre content (TDF) than the whole grains, while xanthophyll and resistant
10 starch resulted to be higher in the fractions derived from the vitreous endosperm. The
11 germ fraction showed also the highest folate content. Results also showed that the
12 type of degermination process influences the bioactive compound contents in the
13 milling fraction, in accordance to the effectiveness of the germ and bran removal from
14 the endosperm fractions. In particular, the animal feed flour obtained by means of
15 TD system resulted in an higher TAC, TPC and TDF than the same fraction obtained
16 by means of the DD system. Conversely, the extraction rate do not affect the
17 recovery of bioactive components in particular fractions.

18

19 **KEYWORDS:** maize dry-milling, total antioxidant capacity, polyphenols, xanthophylls

20

21 ABBREVIATIONS

22 ABTS, 2,2'-azino-bis/3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulphonic acid; ANOVA, analysis of
23 variance; DD, dry degermination; DM, dry matter; FAE, folic acid equivalents; FTL,
24 floating test; LE, lutein equivalents; RS, resistant starch; TAE, tannic acid equivalent;

25 TAC, total antioxidant capacity; TD, tempering-degermination; TDF, total dietary
26 fibre; TE, Trolox equivalents; TME, total milling energy; TPC, total polyphenol
27 content; TW, test weight; XPC, xanthophyll content.

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is one of the world's leading crops, along with rice and wheat. In
31 2014 the estimated world maize production was 1037 millions of tonnes, 8 of which
32 were produced in Italy (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations,
33 2017). Most of the maize produced throughout the world is used for animal feeds, but
34 this cereal is part of the staple diet of more than 200 million people in Latin America,
35 Asia and Africa, and is used for the preparation of traditional foods, such as tortillas,
36 arepas, couscous and porridge (Rooney and Serna-Saldivar, 2003). Furthermore, the
37 consumption of this crop for food has also recently increased in developed countries,
38 since it is used as an ingredient for breakfast products, snacks, dietetic products and,
39 in particular, for gluten-free foods, whose consumption is rising. From a nutritional
40 point of view, maize is a good source of starch, proteins and lipids, but it also
41 contains different bioactive compounds that are important for human health (Nuss
42 and Tanumihardjo, 2010). The most important groups of bioactive compounds found
43 in whole maize grains are polyphenols, carotenoids, vitamins and dietary fibre.

44 The global action of all antioxidant substances present in a raw material is generally
45 expressed as total antioxidant capacity (TAC). Increasing evidence suggests that the
46 consumption of food characterized by a high content of antioxidants might have
47 effects on the prevention of various oxidative stress-associated diseases, such as
48 cancer and cardiovascular diseases (Adom and Liu, 2002). Maize has been reported
49 to have the highest TAC among different cereal grains, including rice, oat and wheat
50 (Adom and Liu, 2002). The antioxidant activity of maize is mainly related to the
51 presence of high concentrations of polyphenols. Other compounds that play
52 important role as antioxidants are carotenoids, which are responsible for the yellow-
53 orange colour of maize (Kurilich and Juvik, 1999). In particular, xanthophylls, the

54 oxygenated hydrocarbon derivatives of carotens, have shown a potential role in the
55 protection against age-related macular degeneration (Botella-Pavía and Rodríguez-
56 Concepción, 2006).

57 Maize-derived food products could also be a source of vitamins. Folates are a group
58 of water-soluble vitamins that are characterized by a biological activity similar to folic
59 acid; an insufficient folate intake is usually associated with a large number of health
60 disorders and with an increased risk of neural tube defects in the developing foetus
61 (Wald et al., 1996).

62 Dietary fibre includes cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin, inulin, resistant starch (RS) and
63 other constituents, and plays a beneficial role in the maintenance of gut health and in
64 the control of body weight and cholesterol levels (Liu, 2007). RS has been defined as
65 a starch that cannot be digested in the small intestine, and which passes to the colon
66 where it is fermented by the microflora (Perera et al., 2010). The physiological effects
67 of RS include improved glycemic response and colon health, lower calorie intake,
68 modulated fat metabolism and the prevention of cardiovascular diseases (Liu, 2007).

69 The consumption of whole cereal grains allows the synergistic effect of these
70 biologically active compounds to be taken advantage of (Liu, 2007).

71 Milling processes transform cereals into more palatable and shelf-stable food
72 ingredients, but they could result in the loss of most of the nutritional compounds.

73 The way in which maize is processed and consumed varies greatly from country to
74 country. Dry-milling is the main milling procedure adopted in the maize food chain,
75 and it produces refined endosperm products with various particle sizes, and other by-
76 products. Different dry-milling approaches could be applied, mainly according to the
77 degermination system (Kent and Evers, 1994; Eckhoff, 2004):

- 78 - In dry-degermination (DD) systems, maize grains are broken by an impact
79 degerminator, which works at a storage moisture content of 13-15%; the grain
80 components are then separated by sifting and progressively ground into
81 fractions of various particle size through further repeated milling and sifting
82 steps;
- 83 - In tempering-degermination (TD) systems, maize grains are initially tempered
84 to a moisture content of 18-22%, in order to facilitate the separation of the
85 germ, pericarp and endosperm by means of a Beall type conic degerminator,
86 using kernel-to-kernel shear.

87 The former process is generally employed for the production of maize meal and flour,
88 while the latter is considered the best one to produce flaking grits (Eckhoff, 2004) and
89 hominy grits, although further grinding and refining processes could be applied to
90 these products in order to obtain maize meal and flour. Flaking grits are mainly used
91 for the production of cornflakes, while medium and small hominy grits are used for
92 the production of snacks, breakfast cereals and alcoholic beverages (Kent and
93 Evers, 1994). Conversely, maize meal, which is characterized by a smaller particle
94 size than grits, is used for polenta and several leavened baked and fried products.
95 Finally, maize flour, which has a fine particle size, is used as an ingredient in many
96 baking formulations (Rooney and Serna-Saldivar, 2003). In both processes, the high
97 particle size fractions (maize meal or flaking grits) that can easily be refined and
98 reduced to a desired size, have a high economic value. Grits and meal are
99 essentially derived from the vitreous part of the endosperm, while the softer parts are
100 mainly broken down to flour, and kernel hardness is the main grain quality attribute
101 that influences the efficiency of the extraction yield in dry-milling processes. Grains
102 with high coarse/fine endosperm ratios result in higher flaking grit yields (Blandino et

103 al., 2013a). Conversely, the main by-products are the germ, which is generally
104 dispatched to the oil industry, and the animal feed flour, which is a mixture of
105 impurities, bran and a part of the mealy endosperm produced during the milling
106 process.

107 Several authors have investigated the distribution of bioactive compounds in the
108 milling fractions of wheat (Liyana-Pathirana and Shahidi, 2006), barley (Sullivan et
109 al., 2010) and rye (Gómez et al., 2009). However, only limited information is currently
110 available on the impact of milling processes on the bioactive content of maize
111 products and by-products (Kean et al., 2008; Locatelli and Berardo, 2014).

112 Considering the increasing use of maize milling derivatives for the production of
113 gluten-free foods for people affected by celiac disease, which may result in some
114 nutritional deficiencies, the aim of this study was to analyze the content of bioactive
115 compounds of maize fractions derived from two industrial dry-milling processes.
116 Moreover, the study considered the possible interaction between the extraction yield,
117 as influenced by maize kernel hardness, and the distribution of the bioactives in
118 different products and by-products of the milling processes.

119

120 **2. Material and methods**

121 *2.1 Maize samples*

122 The present study has analysed nine different commercial maize lots (Table 1),
123 cultivated from 2011 to 2013 in the same growing area (North West Italy, province of
124 Turin). All the maize lots were processed in an industrial mill: seven lots were
125 constituted by single hybrids, which were chosen among the ones commonly
126 processed in the industrial mill, while the remaining lots were a mixture of two or
127 three of these hybrids.

128

129 *2.2 Analysis of the kernel hardness and extraction yield of lots*

130 According to Blandino et al. (2013a), each lot was characterized for its kernel
131 hardness by determining the following parameters: test weight (TW), total milling
132 energy (TME), and floating test (FTL). Moreover, during the milling process the yield
133 of the large grits (sum of flaking and medium hominy grits obtained in the TD
134 process) was recorded and expressed as a percentage of processed grain weight.
135 The maize lots were then grouped as high (> 48%) or medium (44-48%) extraction
136 yield (Table 1), in order to evaluate the possible role of the extraction yield, related to
137 kernel hardness, on the distribution of the bioactive compounds in the milling
138 fractions.

139

140 *2.3 Maize milling processes and sampling*

141 All the maize lots were processed in an industrial mill by means of two separate dry-
142 milling lines based on different degermination processes.

143 The first process was based on a dry-milling technology, coupled to a dry-
144 degermination (DD) system (Figure 1). Maize kernels were cleaned through a dry
145 stoner, an intensive horizontal scourer and a vibrating aspirator, then they were sent
146 to the degermination plant, which was composed of three types of machines: an
147 impact degerminator (DGF-impact degerminator), plansichters and a gravity
148 separators (Ocrim, Cremona, Italy). The first machine broke down the kernels into
149 germ, bran and endosperm fractions, and all these fractions were successively
150 separated in the plansichter and gravity separator steps. The endosperm fraction
151 was then progressively refined through a series of passages in a grinding and
152 classification system, which was composed of roller mills, plansichters and flour
153 purifiers (Sangati, Padova, Italy), that allow to obtain maize flour and meal. These
154 additional grinding and classification steps led to a further separation of the maize
155 flours from the germ, bran and finer particle size endosperm fractions. Maize meal
156 and flour differ for their particle size as detailed in Table 2.

157 The second process was based on a dry-milling technology coupled to a tempering-
158 degermination (TD) system (Figure 2). The maize kernels were cleaned as reported
159 above and water was then added to increase the moisture content to approximately
160 20%, by adding 50-70 kg of water for each maize tonne, according to the moisture
161 content of the stored kernels. A Beall type degerminator (DGC/X conical
162 degerminator, Ocrim, Cremona, Italy) was then used to remove the bran and germ
163 through an abrasive action and the endosperm was broken into particles of various
164 sizes, as indicated in Table 2 (Kent and Evers, 1994). Finally, the endosperm
165 fractions were separated by means of plansichters and gravity separators (Ocrim,
166 Cremona, Italy).

167 In both processes, the main by-products were the germ and the animal feed flour, a
168 mixture of bran and a part of the mealy endosperm. The usual expected yield of
169 these by-products, in comparison to whole grain before cleaning, is 10% for the germ
170 and 35% for the animal feed flour.

171 Each maize lot (200 t) was simultaneously subjected to both processes for 40 h. A
172 total of 198 samples (11 milling fractions X 9 lots X 2 replications) were collected
173 including the whole grain before and after cleaning (2 fractions), and each product
174 and by-product obtained from DD (4 fractions) and TD milling (5 fractions) processes,
175 so that their sum represented the lot of origin. The sampled fractions are reported in
176 an oval shape in Figure 1 and 2. Samples were collected from the opening slits of the
177 milling plant, and the adopted sampling method was derived from European
178 Commission Regulation (EC) No. 401/2006. Considering that the industrial plant
179 mills an average 5 t/h of maize grains, a dynamic sampling procedure was set up in
180 which each aggregate sample was the result of a careful blending of 40 incremental
181 samples of 100 g each, collected over a period of 1 hour at regular intervals. A
182 sampling lasting 1 h was performed twice for each lot and each dry-milling process in
183 order to obtain two replications.

184 The whole grain and hominy grit samples were ground using a ZM 200 Ultra
185 Centrifugal Mill (Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany). A second milling step was
186 performed for all the samples using a CT 193 Cyclotec™, in order to obtain a fine
187 and homogeneous particle size (<250 µm) and to improve the complete extraction of
188 bioactive compounds. The samples were stored at -25°C until the analyses were
189 performed, with the exception of an aliquot of each sample, which was stored at 4°C
190 before the RS analysis.

191

192 2.4 Chemical analyses

193 *2.4.1 Analysis of the moisture*

194 The moisture content, determined in order to express the results on a dry matter
195 (DM) basis, was obtained using a Sartorius MA30 thermo-balance (Sartorius AG,
196 Goettingen, Germany).

197

198 *2.4.2 Analysis of the total antioxidant capacity (TAC)*

199 TAC was determined by means of a direct method (ABTS assay), as described by
200 Alfieri et al. (2014). TAC was expressed as mmol of Trolox equivalents (TE)/kg DM
201 by means of a Trolox-dose response curve.

202

203 *2.4.3 Analysis of the total polyphenol content (TPC)*

204 TPC was determined on methanol extracts by means of the Folin-Ciocalteu
205 colorimetric method (Blandino et al., 2013b). The results were expressed as mg
206 tannic acid equivalents (TAE)/kg DM.

207

208 *2.4.4 Analysis of the xanthophyll content (XPC)*

209 XPC was determined according to the AOAC Method 970.64 (1974), with
210 spectrophotometric determination at 470 nm. The results were expressed as mg of
211 lutein equivalents (LE)/kg DM.

212

213 *2.4.5 Analysis of the total dietary fibre (TDF)*

214 TDF was measured using the Megazyme total dietary fibre analysis kit (AOAC
215 Method 985.29 (Prosky et al., 1985) - Megazyme International, Wicklow, Ireland).
216 The results were expressed as g/100 g DM (%).

217

218 *2.4.6 Analysis of the resistant starch (RS)*

219 The RS content of uncooked maize fractions was measured using the Megazyme
220 resistant starch kit (AOAC Method 2002.02; McCleary and Monaghan, 2002),
221 checking that the standard error was $\leq 5\%$. The analysis was not carried out on pre-
222 cleaned whole grain samples and on germ samples. The results were expressed as
223 g/100 g DM (%).

224

225 *2.4.7 Analysis of the total folate content*

226 The total folate content was determined on the maize samples, obtained by means of
227 the DD system, taken from lot no. 8 (Pioneer 3245, 2011 growing season). The total
228 folate content was determined through a microbiological assay according to the
229 AOAC Method 2004.05 (DeVries et al., 2005), with a few modifications, as reported
230 by Giordano et al. (2016a). The amount of folate in each sample was determined
231 through a comparison with calibration curves of folic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Luis,
232 Missouri). The results were expressed as ng folic acid equivalents (FAE)/g DM.

233

234 *2.5 Statistical analysis*

235 The normal distribution and homogeneity of variances were verified by performing
236 the Kolmogorov–Smirnov normality test and the Levene test, respectively. Rank

237 transformation of the data, relative to the total folate content, was performed, since
238 the previous assumptions had not been verified.

239 One-way analysis of the variance (ANOVA) was applied in order to compare the
240 bioactive compound contents in different milling fractions obtained through the two
241 dry-milling processes. The maize extraction yield of the lots, grouped as medium or
242 high, was set as a further factor for the TAC, TPC, XPC, TDF and RS. Multiple
243 comparison tests were performed, using the Ryan-Einot-Gabriel-Welsh F (REGW-F)
244 test.

245 Simple correlation coefficients were obtained through Pearson's two-tailed test for all
246 the compared bioactive compounds, relative to each another, by joining the data sets
247 that referred to different maize lots.

248 SPSS for Windows statistical package, Version 21.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA)
249 was used for the statistical analyses.

250

251 **3. Results and Discussion**

252 *3.1 Extraction yield and kernel hardness*

253 The extraction yield of the compared maize lots was found to be positively related to
254 the kernel hardness measured as TW, TME or FLT (Table 1). As expected, the lots
255 characterized by a high extraction yield resulted in greater values of TW (on average
256 80.4 vs 77.5 kg/hl) and TME (1849 vs 1631 J), whereas a lower FLT (2420 vs 2713),
257 than the ones characterized by a medium extraction yield.

258 As far as the effect on bioactive compounds is concerned, a slightly higher TAC was
259 observed in high extraction yield lots ($P=0.038$), while no differences were reported
260 for any of the other bioactives analyzed (Table 3). Moreover, no significant interaction
261 was observed between the milling fractions of the compared dry-milling processes
262 and the extraction yields, for any of the considered bioactive compounds. Thus,
263 although the physical and chemical properties associated to kernel hardness in the
264 considered maize lots led to different extraction yields, the results underline that this
265 factor did not influence the distribution of the bioactive compounds in the maize
266 milling fractions.

267

268 *3.2 Antioxidant compound distribution in the maize milling fractions*

269 Both phenolic compounds and xanthophylls act as antioxidant compounds in cereal
270 grains (Adom and Liu, 2002; Nuss and Tanumihardjo, 2010). In the present study, no
271 significant difference was observed between the grain before and after the cleaning
272 step for both TAC, TPC and XPC (Table 3). Thus, impurities and broken kernels
273 removed through the cleaning step and collected into the animal feed flour contributed
274 little to the bioactive content of the latter fraction.

275 The germ fraction on average had more than double TAC and TPC than the whole
276 grain; no significant difference was observed for these parameters when the germ
277 fractions obtained from the two different degermination processes were compared.
278 After the germ, the second milling fraction with the highest TAC and TPC was the
279 animal feed flour. The animal feed flour fraction obtained through the TD system
280 showed a higher TAC (+52%) and TPC (+55%) than the same by-product obtained
281 through the DD system. As far as the TPC content is concerned, the germ fraction
282 showed a significantly higher content (+44%) than the animal feed flour fraction in the
283 DD system, while no significant difference was observed between these by-products
284 in the TD system.

285 In the TD system, the products derived from the endosperm (small and medium
286 hominy grits and flaking grits) showed a significantly lower TAC (-53%) and TPC
287 (-61%) than the whole grain. No difference was observed between these three
288 products and the maize meal obtained through the DD system. Conversely, the
289 maize flour, which is characterized by a finer particle size, resulted in a higher TAC
290 and TPC, but did not differ significantly from the whole grain for either parameter.

291 The lowest XPC was observed in the germ fraction (on average 55% less than the
292 one observed in the whole grain), regardless of which milling process was employed.
293 Conversely, the XPC of the whole grain did not differ significantly from any of the
294 fractions mainly derived from the endosperm. In both processes, the animal feed
295 flour resulted in a significantly lower XPC than the whole grain and the endosperm
296 products.

297 Xanthophylls, which are predominantly made up of lutein and zeaxanthin, are the
298 main pigments responsible for the yellow-orange colour of maize grains and they
299 also play an important role as antioxidants. Other studies performed on botanical

300 grain fractions, have shown that lutein and zeaxanthin are mainly concentrated in the
301 germ of wheat, barley and oat, whereas they are concentrated in the endosperm and
302 aleurone layer of yellow maize (Ndolo and Beta, 2013). Similarly, Kean et al. (2008)
303 showed that carotenoids are concentrated more in maize flour than in bran.

304 A significant positive correlation was clearly observed between TPC and TAC ($r =$
305 0.945 , $P < 0.01$), thus confirming the results of previous studies performed on whole
306 grain maize samples (Žilić et al., 2012). Conversely, a strong negative correlation
307 was observed between XPC and TAC ($r = -0.734$, $P < 0.01$), in accordance with a
308 previous study conducted on maize inbred lines (Alfieri et al., 2014). In fact, other
309 components, such as polyphenols and tocopherols, may play a major role in the
310 antioxidant capacity of maize milling fractions (Kurilich and Juvik, 1999; Žilić et al.,
311 2012).

312

313 *3.3. TDF and RS distribution in the maize milling fractions*

314 The highest TDF content was observed in the animal feed flour and in the germ
315 fractions: about twice the content of the whole grain. As previously reported for both
316 TPC and TAC, the TDF content in the animal feed flour fraction, obtained by means
317 of the TD system, was significantly higher than the same fraction obtained from the
318 DD system (+17%). Moreover, the TDF content of the animal meal fraction was on
319 average 15% higher than the one observed in the germ fraction.

320 As expected, the TDF content of the endosperm fractions was much lower than that
321 of the whole grain (-66%), a result that is comparable with other studies performed on
322 maize (Rosin et al., 2002), wheat (Haskåa et al., 2008) and barley (Sullivan et al.,
323 2010) flour.

324 On average, RS was higher in the milling fractions derived from the endosperm.
325 Even though RS is generally considered to be one of the components that
326 contributes to TDF, its distribution in maize milling fractions follow the one of starch
327 (Nuss and Tanumihardjo, 2010). As far as the DD system is concerned, the maize
328 meal fraction, which mainly derived from the vitreous endosperm, contained more RS
329 than the maize flour derived from the flourey endosperm (1.5% vs 0.5%). The hominy
330 grit fractions obtained from the TD system resulted in an intermediate RS content
331 (1.1%), without any significant differences from the whole grain. In both processes,
332 the animal feed flour was characterized by the lowest RS content (on average 0.7%).

333

334 *3.4 Total folate distribution in the milling fractions obtained through the dry-milling* 335 *procedure coupled to the DD system*

336 The whole grain of the Pioneer 3245 hybrid showed a total folate content of 358 ng
337 FAE/g. Previous studies reported that whole maize contains about 280 ng/g folate,
338 and that this content is reduced by 64% after degerming (Hegedüs et al., 1985). This
339 is the first report that showed the distribution of folate in industrial maize milling
340 fractions obtained by means of a dry-degermination system (Figure 3). In accordance
341 with previous studies, the highest total folate content was observed in the germ
342 fraction (851 ng FAE/g), while lower concentrations were observed in the endosperm
343 fractions. The maize flour, which mainly derived from the flourey endosperm, was
344 characterized by a significant higher folate concentration (509 ng FAE/g) than the
345 maize meal (303 ng FAE/g), which mainly derived from the vitreous endosperm. The
346 total folate content of the animal feed flour (312 ng FAE/g) did not differ significantly
347 from the one observed in the whole kernel and in the maize meal.

348

349 *3.5. Influence of the dry-milling processes on the bioactive compound content of*
350 *maize fractions*

351 The results of the present study clearly show that the employment of a specific dry-
352 milling procedure influences the bioactive compound content of the milling fractions.
353 The most relevant results concerns the animal feed flour. The employment of a TD
354 system results in an animal feed flour characterized by a higher TAC, TPC and TDF
355 contents than the same fraction obtained by means of the DD system. In fact, as
356 also demonstrated by the bioactive compound contents of the endosperm products,
357 the two processes differ in their effectiveness in the removal of the bran and fine
358 endosperm fractions from the endosperm. In particular, the TD system was more
359 efficient than the DD system in separating bran and fine endosperm fractions, that
360 converge in the animal feed flour, from the vitreous endosperm. Thus, no difference
361 was observed in the grit fractions in function of their particle size for any of the
362 bioactives. Conversely, as far as the meal and flour fractions obtained by means of
363 the DD system are concerned, a negative relationship between the TPC, TAC and
364 folate contents and the particle size was observed. These results are in accordance
365 with previous studies that showed that the meal derived from the vitreous
366 endosperm portion is characterized by a lower fat content than the flour derived
367 mainly from the floury endosperm that surrounds the germ (Locatelli and Berardo,
368 2014; Vanara et al., 2009).

369

370 *3.6. Nutritional advantages of selected dry-milling fractions*

371 In agreement with previous studies performed on maize botanical fractions (Das and
372 Singh, 2015; Ndolo and Beta, 2013 and 2014), the analyses of the industrial maize
373 milling fractions clearly showed that the by-products, referred here as germ and

374 animal feed flour, could be valuable functional ingredients in terms of total antioxidant
375 capacity and total polyphenol, fibre and folate contents.

376 The increase in maize production for food, together with the relative high germ
377 percentage in the maize kernel, could provide a good source for the expanded use of
378 maize germ for food production, as a valuable alternative to the oil extraction
379 process. Dry-heat treatments could be used to obtain full-fat maize germ
380 characterized by a high nutritional value and storage stability suitable for food
381 purposes (Giordano et al., 2016b). Conversely, the presence of high concentrations
382 of contaminants, such as mycotoxins (Vanara et al., 2009), makes the animal feed
383 flour unsuitable for food production.

384 As far as the endosperm products are concerned, the maize flour showed the highest
385 TAC, TPC and total folate content, although the TDF and XPC were similar to those
386 of other endosperm derived fractions. Thus, this product is the one that should be
387 most valued as a functional ingredient through the milling of maize genotypes
388 naturally rich in bioactive and antioxidant compounds. At the same time, the highest
389 XPC and RS contents were observed in the maize meal and in the grit fractions. The
390 distribution of these compounds was found to be moderately influenced by the milling
391 operations, and their contents resulted to be similar or even slightly higher than those
392 of the whole kernels. Thus, the nutritional advantages of the use of maize cultivars
393 particularly rich in these bioactives would not be negatively restricted by the
394 employed milling system.

395

396 **2. Conclusions**

397 This study confirms that, in the same way as in other cereals, bioactive compounds
398 are unevenly distributed in the industrial milling fractions of maize grains. The
399 distribution of the bioactive compounds is primarily related to the class of nutrient and
400 to the milling fraction, although the difference among the fractions derived from the
401 endosperm appears to be moderate. The bioactive compound content of different
402 fractions also results related to the type of milling process employed, according to its
403 effectiveness in the removal of the germ and bran residuals from degerminated
404 endosperm fractions. On the contrary, the extraction yield, which is related to the
405 kernel hardness, does not seem to affect the bioactive content to any great extent.

406 The effect of cooking, extrusion or other food processing steps on the bioactive
407 compound contents in maize milling fractions could be of interest for future
408 researches, to obtain a holistic evaluation of the functional role of these ingredients
409 that are largely used to produce gluten-free food.

410

411

412 **4 Acknowledgements**

413 The authors would like to thank Valentina Scarpino, Alessandra Gazzola, Matteo
414 Calcagno, Amedeo Reyneri (University of Torino), Alessandro Peila, Ugo Peila
415 (Molino Peila Spa, Valperga, To, Italy), Carlo Ferrero and Andrea Pilati (CAPAC
416 Consorzio Agricolo Piemontese per Agroforniture e Cereali Soc. Coop. Agr., Torino,
417 Italy) for their precious help and cooperation in the laboratory and field work.

418 The research has been conducted thanks to the financial support of Regione
419 Piemonte (Rural Development Programme F.E.A.R.S. 2007/2013), as a part of the
420 ALIM AIS project.

421

422 **5 References**

- 423 Adom, K.K., Liu, R.H., 2002. Antioxidant activity of grains. *Journal of Agricultural and*
424 *Food Chemistry* 50, 6182-6187.
- 425 Alfieri, M., Hidalgo, A., Berardo, N., Redaelli R., 2014. Carotenoid composition and
426 heterotic effect in selected Italian maize germplasm. *Journal of Cereal Science*
427 59, 181-188.
- 428 AOAC, 1974. Carotenes and Xanthophylls in Dried Plant Materials and Mixed Feeds:
429 Spectrophotometric Method. AOAC Official Methods, 970.64.
- 430 Blandino, M., Sacco, D., Reyneri, A., 2013a. Prediction of the dry-milling
431 performance of maize hybrids through hardness-associated properties.
432 *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* 93, 1356-1364.
- 433 Blandino, M., Sovrani, V., Marinaccio, F., Reyneri, A., Rolle, L., Giacosa, S.,
434 Locatelli, M., Bordiga, M., Travaglia, F., Coisson, J.D., 2013b. Nutritional and
435 technological quality of bread enriched with an intermediated pearled wheat
436 fraction. *Food Chemistry* 141, 3, 2549–2557.
- 437 Botella-Pavía, P., Rodríguez-Concepción, M., 2006. Carotenoid biotechnology in
438 plants for nutritionally improved foods. *Physiologia Plantarum* 126, 369-381.
- 439 Das, A.K., Singh, V., 2015. Antioxidative free and bound phenolic constituents in
440 pericarp, germ and endosperm of Indian dent (*Zea mays* var. *indentata*) and
441 flint (*Zea mays* var. *indurata*) maize. *Journal of Functional Foods* 13, 363-374.
- 442 DeVries, J.W., Rader, J.L., Keagy, P.M., Hudson, C.A., Angyal, G., Arcot, J., Castelli,
443 M., Doreanu, N., Hudson, C., Lawrence, P., Martin, J., Peace, R., Rosner, L.,
444 Strandler, H.S., Szpylka, J., van den Berg, H., Wo, C., Wurz, C., 2005.
445 Microbiological assay-trienzyme procedure for total folates in cereals and
446 cereal foods: collaborative study. *Journal of AOAC International* 88, 5-15.

447 Eckhoff, S.R., 2004. MAIZE\Dry milling. In: Wrigley, C., Walker, C., Corke, H., (Eds.),
448 Encyclopedia of Grain Science, 1st ed. Elsevier, Oxford, UK, pp. 216-225.

449 European Commission, 2006. Commission Regulation (EC) No. 401/2006, of 23
450 February 2006 laying down the methods of sampling and analysis for the
451 official control of the levels of mycotoxins in foodstuffs. Official Journal of the
452 European Union L70, 49, 12-34.

453 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2017. FAOSTAT Statistical
454 Database. Available at faostat3.fao.org/home/E. Accessed May 8, 2017.

455 Giordano, D., Reyneri, A., Blandino, M., 2016a. Folate distribution in barley
456 (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), common wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and durum wheat
457 (*Triticum turgidum* durum Desf.) pearled fractions. Journal of the Science of
458 Food and Agriculture 96, 1709-1715.

459 Giordano, D., Vanara, F., Reyneri, A., Blandino, M., 2016b. Effect of dry-heat
460 treatments on the nutritional value of maize germ. International Journal of
461 Food Science and Technology 51, 2468-2473.

462 Gómez, M., Pardo, J., Oliete, B., Caballero, P.A., 2009. Effect of the milling process
463 on quality characteristics of rye flour. Journal of the Science of Food and
464 Agriculture 89, 470-476.

465 Haskåa, L., Nymana, M., Anderssonb, R., 2008. Distribution and characterization of
466 fructan in wheat milling fractions. Journal of Cereal Science 48, 768-774.

467 Hegedüs, M., Pedersen, B., Eggum, B.O., 1985. The influence of milling on the
468 nutritive value of flour from cereal grains. 7. Vitamins and tryptophan. Plant
469 Foods for Human Nutrition 35, 175-180.

470 Kean, E.G., Hamaker, B.R., Ferruzzi, M.G., 2008. Carotenoid bioaccessibility from
471 whole grain and degermed maize meal products. *Journal of Agricultural and*
472 *Food Chemistry* 56, 9918-9926.

473 Kent, N.L., Evers, A.D., 1994. *Kent's technology of cereals*, 4th ed., Pergamon Press,
474 Oxford, UK.

475 Kurilich, A.C., Juvik, J.A., 1999. Quantification of carotenoid and tocopherol
476 antioxidants in *Zea mays*. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 47,
477 1948-1955.

478 Liu, R.H., 2007. Whole grain phytochemicals and health. *Journal of Cereal Science*
479 46, 207-219.

480 Liyana-Pathirana, C.M., Shahidi, F., 2006. Antioxidant properties of commercial soft
481 and hard winter wheats (*Triticum aestivum* L.) and their milling fractions.
482 *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* 86, 477-485.

483 Locatelli, S., Berardo, N., 2014. Chemical composition and phytosterols profile of
484 degermed maize products derived from wet and dry milling. *Maydica* 59, 261-
485 266.

486 McCleary, B.V., Monaghan, D.A., 2002. Measurement of resistant starch. *Journal of*
487 *AOAC International* 85(3), 665-675.

488 Ndolo, V.U., Beta, T., 2013. Distribution of carotenoids in endosperm, germ, and
489 aleurone fractions of cereal grain kernels. *Food Chemistry* 139, 663-671.

490 Ndolo, V.U., Beta, T., 2014. Comparative studies on composition and distribution of
491 phenolic acids in cereal grain botanical fractions. *Cereal Chemistry* 91, 522-
492 530.

493 Nuss, E.T., Tanumihardjo, S.A., 2010. Maize: a paramount staple crop in the context
494 of global nutrition. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety*
495 9, 417-436.

496 Perera, A., Meda, V., Tyler, R.T., 2010. Resistant starch: a review of analytical
497 protocols for determining resistant starch and of factors affecting the resistant
498 starch content of foods. *Food Research International* 43, 1959-1974.

499 Prosky, L., Asp, N.G., Furda, I., DeVries, J.W., Schweizer, T.F., Harland, B.F., 1985.
500 Determination of total dietary fiber in foods and food products: collaborative
501 study. *J. Assoc Off Anal Chem.* 68(4), 677-679.

502 Rooney, L.W., Serna-Saldivar, S.O., 2003. Food use of whole corn and dry-milled
503 fraction. In: White, P.J., Johnson, L.A. (Eds.), *Corn: Chemistry and*
504 *Technology*, 2nd Edition. American Association of Cereal Chemists, Saint Paul,
505 MN, USA, pp. 495-535.

506 Rosin, P.M., Lajolo, F.M., Menezes, E.W., 2002. Measurement and characterization
507 of dietary starches. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis* 15, 367-377.

508 Sullivan, P., O'Flaherty, J., Brunton, N., Gee, V.L., Arendt, E., Gallagher, E., 2010.
509 Chemical composition and microstructure of milled barley fractions. *European*
510 *Food Research and Technology* 230, 579-595.

511 Vanara F., Reyneri A., Blandino M., 2009. Fate of fumonisin B₁ in the processing of
512 whole maize kernels during dry-milling. *Food Control* 20, 235-238.

513 Wald, N.J., Hackshaw, A.D., Stone, R., Sourial, N.A., 1996. Blood folic acid and
514 vitamin B12 in relation to neural tube defects. *British Journal of Obstetrics and*
515 *Gynaecology* 103, 319-324.

516 Žilić, S., Serpen, A., Akıllıoğlu, G., Gökmen, V., Vančetović, J., 2012. Phenolic
517 compounds, carotenoids, anthocyanins and antioxidant capacity of colored

518 maize (*Zea mays* L.) kernels. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry
519 60,1224-1231.
520

521 **TABLES**

522

523 **Table. 1.**

524 Maize lots processed in the industrial mill, ranked according to their flaking and medium hominy grit yields.

Lot	Growing season	Hybrid	Kernel hardness ^a			Extraction yield ^b	
			TW (kg/hl)	TME (J)	FLT	(%)	Type
1	2013	Pioneer P1758	75.6	1405	3096	45	medium
2	2011	DKC 6795	77.6	1711	2665	45	medium
3	2013	Pioneer P1547	76.6	1516	2623	46	medium
4	2013	Mixture Pioneer 3245, P1543 and DKC6795	77.9	1723	2560	46	medium
5	2012	Pioneer P1547	79.7	1801	2619	46	medium
6	2012	Mixture Pioneer P1543 and P1547	80.1	1819	2442	49	high
7	2011	Pioneer P1543	80.2	1834	2463	49	high
8	2011	Pioneer 3245	79.9	1859	2393	53	high
9	2012	Pioneer 3245	81.3	1882	2380	56	high

525

526 ^a kernel hardness: TW = test weight, TME = total milling energy, FLT = floating test.

527

528 ^b extraction yield: sum of the flaking grits and the medium hominy grits expressed as a percentage of the processed grain weight.

529 **Table. 2.**

530 Particle size and expected extraction yield for maize fractions obtained through different dry-milling processes in the studied
531 industrial mill.

Dry-milling process ^a	Milling fractions	Particle size		Expected extraction yield ^b (%)
		(μm)	(mesh)	
DD	germ			10
	animal feed flour			35
	maize flour	< 350	> 45	5
	maize meal	350 - 800	20 - 45	50
TD	germ			10
	animal feed flour			35
	small hominy grits	1500 - 2500	8 - 14	10
	medium hominy grits	2500 - 4000	5 - 8	25
	flaking grits	> 4000	< 5	20

532 ^a dry-milling process: DD, dry-degermination system; TD, tempering-degermination system.

533 ^b extraction yield expressed as a percentage of the whole grain weight.

534

535 **Table. 3.**

536 Total antioxidant capacity (TAC), total polyphenol content (TPC), xanthophyll content (XPC), total dietary fibre (TDF) and resistant
 537 starch (RS) content in the milling fractions obtained from lots with different extraction yields and through different dry milling
 538 processes.

Factor	Dry milling process ^a	Source of Variation	TAC (mmol TE/kg)	TPC (mg/kg TAE)	XPC (mg/kg)	TDF (%)	RS (%)
Milling fraction		whole grain pre-cleaning	11.2 cd	1051.5 c	14.3 ab	11.0 c	nd ^d
		whole grain post-cleaning	11.2 cd	1046.7 c	14.4 a	10.8 c	1.0 b
	DD	germ	23.2 a	2096.5 a	6.5 d	23.0 b	nd
		animal feed flour	13.1 c	1452.9 b	11.2 bcd	24.1 b	0.8 c
		maize flour	9.4 d	793.2 cd	16.2 a	3.2 d	0.5 d
		maize meal	4.5 e	577.2 de	16.3 a	4.8 d	1.5 a
	TD	germ	25.6 a	2412.4 a	6.4 d	21.5 b	nd
		animal feed flour	19.9 b	2250.4 a	8.4 cd	28.1 a	0.6 cd
		small hominy grits	6.2 e	528.5 de	18.8 a	3.6 d	1.2 b
		medium hominy grits	4.9 e	398.3 de	16.8 a	3.5 d	1.0 b
		flaking grits	4.7 e	305.1 e	18.1 a	3.2 d	1.1 b
		P (F)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
		sem ^c	3.3	300.9	5.1	3.6	0.3
	Extraction yield ^b	Medium	11.7 b	1204.6 a	13.7 a	12.5 a	1.0 a
High		12.4 a	1129.7 a	13.5 a	11.9 a	1.0 a	
P (F)		0.038	0.135	0.901	0.248	0.860	
sem ^c		3.0	272.2	4.6	3.3	0.2	
Milling fraction X extraction yield	P (F)	0.474	0.090	0.996	0.786	0.218	

539

540 Means followed by different letters are significantly different (the level of significance is shown in the table). The reported milling fraction values are based on 9 lots, while the
541 grit yield values are based on 5 and 4 lots for low and high yields, respectively. See Table 1 for details on the maize lots.

542 ^a dry milling process: DD, dry-degermination system; TD, tempering-degermination system.

543 ^b extraction yield, expressed as a percentage of the processed grain weight. Medium = sum of flaking grits and medium hominy grits < 48% of wholegrain; high = sum of
544 flaking grits and medium hominy grits > 48% of wholegrain.

545 ^c sem = standard error of the means

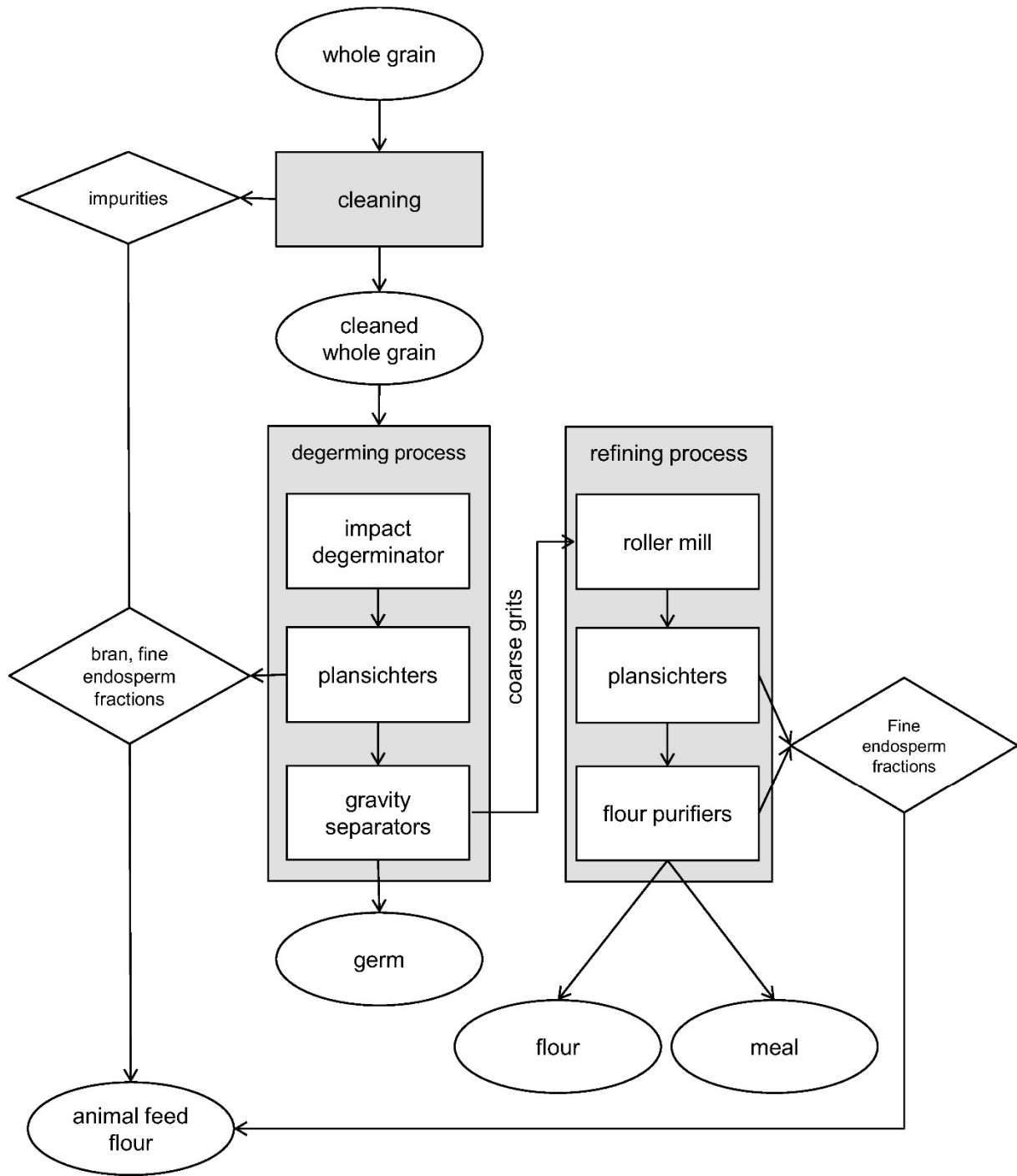
546 ^d nd: not determined.

547

548 **FIGURES**

549 **Figure 1.**

550 Flow diagram of the dry-milling process with a dry-degermination (DD) system.



551

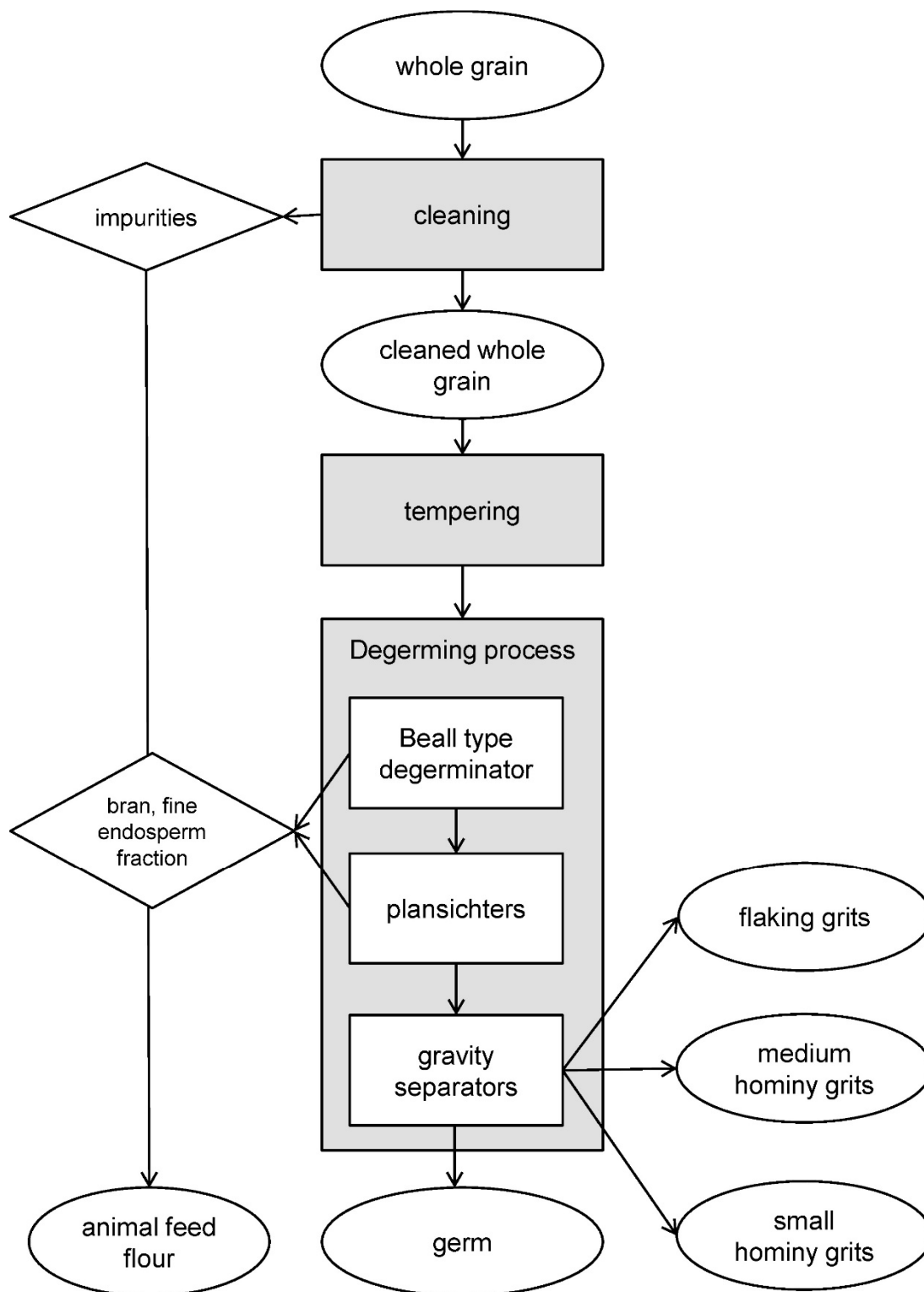
552 The raw materials, products and by-products collected and analysed in the study are
553 reported in the oval shape.

554

555

556 **Figure 2.**

557 Flow diagram of the dry-milling process with a tempering-degerming (TD) system.



558

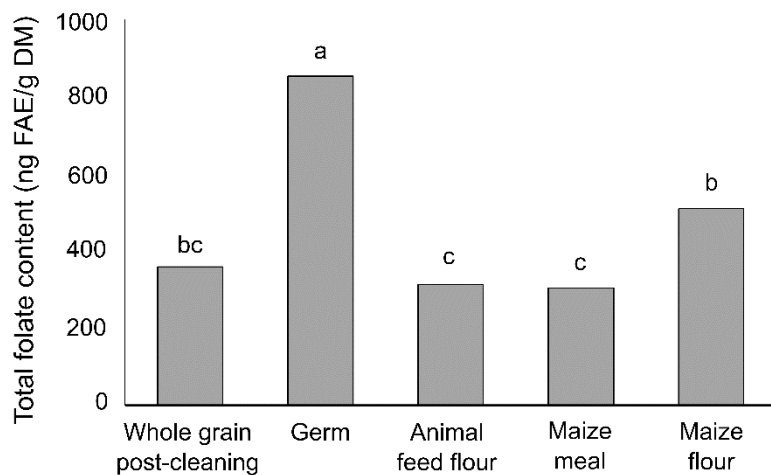
559 The raw materials, products and by-products collected and analysed in the study are
560 reported in the oval shape.

561

562

563 **Figure 3.**

564 Average folate contents in the maize milling fraction obtained from the DD system.



565

566 Values with different letters differ significantly ($P < 0.001$).

567 The reported data are based on lot n°8 (Pioneer 3245 hybrid as specified in Table 1).

568

569