

# Modeling the gelatinization-melting transition of the starch-water system in pulses (lentil, bean and chickpea)

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1 2	Modeling the gelatinization-melting transition of the
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18	Keywords
19	Starch, Gelatinization, Melting, DSC, Modeling, Pulses

## 20 Abstract

21 Cooking-induced conversion of starch, the major carbohydrate in pulses, is crucial for the 22 digestibility of the seed. The gelatinization-melting transition of lentil, bean and chickpea 23 starches was studied using Differential Scanning Calorimetry at different temperatures (T values ranged from 20 to 160 °C) and water contents (X from 0.2 to 3 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db). 24 25 Gelatinization and melting endotherms were successfully modeled as two desummed Gaussian 26 functions. This modeling enabled to generate the degree of starch conversion for any T and X 27 conditions, a valuable indicator that could be used in predictive cooking models. As previously 28 reported for melting, the temperature of gelatinization was found to depend on moisture in a 29 way that can be modeled using the Flory-Huggins equation. The results suggest that starch 30 undergoes melting transition irrespective of water content. The similar starch conversion 31 diagram for the three pulses suggest that starches have similar thermal behavior.

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33

## 34 Highlights

- 35 ➤ Overlapping gelatinization and melting peaks from DSC thermogram are desummed.
- 36  $\succ$  Heat flow is successfully modeled as two Gaussian functions depending on *T* and *X*.

 $37 \ge$  Starch undergoes melting transition regardless of its water content.

38  $\succ$   $T_{\rm G}$ , like  $T_{\rm M}$ , is a function of water content modeled using the Flory-Huggins equation.

39  $\succ$  The starch conversion diagram is similar in lentil, bean and chickpea.

# 41 Abbreviations

DSC	Differential Scanning Calorimetry
FWHM	Full Width at Half Maximum
G	First endotherm of gelatinization
М	Melting endotherm
R	Gas constant (J mol <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> )
RMSE	Root-mean-square error
Т	Temperature (°C)
$T_i$	Temperature at maximum peak <i>i</i> (°C)
X	Water content of starch flour (kg kg <sup>-1</sup> dry basis)

# Greek symbols

$oldsymbol{eta}_i$	Dimensionless area of peak <i>i</i>
$eta_{\!$	Dimensionless area of peak G in excess water
$\Delta h_{i,0}$	Change in molar enthalpy of gelatinization $(i = G)$ or melting $(i = M)$ per
	repeating unit (J mol <sup>-1</sup> )
$\Delta T_i$	Parameter related to the width of peak $i$ (°C)
$\Delta T_{i,0}$	Parameter related to the width of peak $i$ when water content is zero (°C)
$\Delta T_{i,\infty}$	Parameter related to the width of peak $i$ in excess water (°C)
$\zeta_{\rm G}$	Correlation parameter used to calculate $oldsymbol{eta}_{ m G}$
V <sub>g</sub>	Molar volume of repeating unit (m <sup>3</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> )

$V_w$	Molar volume of water (m <sup>3</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> )
τ	Degree of starch conversion
¢	Heat flow (W)
$\overline{arphi}$	Normalized dimensionless heat flow
$\phi$	Volume fraction of water in starch-water mixture $(m^3 m^{-3})$
$\chi_i$	Flory interaction parameter for <i>i</i> transition ( $i = M$ or G)

44 1. Introduction

45 Pulses are the edible seeds from plant family Leguminosae (also called Fabacae). Hundreds 46 of varieties are grown worldwide, especially in India (Hoover, Hughes, Chung & Liu, 2010). 47 The FAO declared 2016 the International Year of Pulses (IYP) to promote pulses because of 48 their potential to make food production systems more sustainable. Indeed, pulse crops provide 49 a sustainable source of nitrogen (Crews & Peoples, 2004) which enhances soil fertility. They 50 reduce water use and increase agricultural productivity (Gan et al., 2015). In many developing 51 countries, pulses are already part of human and animal consumption, particularly because of 52 their high protein content, 15-30 % db (Hoover et al., 2010). In addition, pulses contain 40-53 70 % db of carbohydrates, including starch (20-50 % db) and dietary fibers (15-30 % db) 54 (Hoover et al., 2010; Tosh & Yada, 2010; Hall, Hillen & Garden Robison, 2017). Health 55 organizations now recommend pulses in all human diets for nutritional and environmental 56 reasons (Margier et al., 2018). However, their consumption can cause digestive problems due 57 to the presence of anti-nutritional factors and limited knowledge about cooking procedures 58 (Coffigniez et al., 2018a; Coffigniez et al., 2018b; Coffigniez et al., 2019). In humans, the 59 digestive enzymes have difficulty hydrolyzing native starch, the main component of pulse 60 seeds, because of its crystalline and granular structure. In raw pulses, the resistant starch 61 content is high (Hoover et al., 2010). Therefore, heat treatment is required to increase the 62 proportion of rapidly digestible starch and improve digestibility. Giraldo Toro et al. (2015) observed a strong correlation between the gelatinization rate and the digestibility of plantain 63 64 starch flour. They postulated that the cooking process does not influence the final digestibility 65 of plantain starch if the gelatinization rate is sufficient. Therefore, starch digestibility entirely 66 depends on temperature and water content. We realized that the nutritional quality of cooked 67 pulses could be monitored by modeling the degree of starch conversion (Briffaz, Bohuon, 68 Méot, Dornier & Mestres, 2014). Phase diagrams of starch-water systems have already been

investigated for different food products, for example, rice (Briffaz, Mestres, Matencio, Pons 69 & Dornier, 2013) and plantain (Giraldo Toro et al., 2015), but not pulses. Differential 70 71 Scanning Calorimetry (DSC) is widely used to investigate phase transitions of starch by 72 measuring the heat flow associated with the gelatinization and melting of starch granules 73 when heated. The The shape of the DSC thermogram depends on the starch water content. At 74 low water content, a biphasic endotherm is observed (Donovan, 1979). The two roughly 75 overlapping peaks were related to the order-disorder transition and the hydration of starch 76 crystallites, respectively (Donovan, 1979): G for gelatinization and M for melting (Donovan 77 & Mapes, 1980). In excess water, some authors associated the single apparent peak with the G 78 endotherm (Donovan, 1979), while others consider that the DSC signal could hide a small 79 peak M, which overlaps the dominant peak G (Blanshard, 1987; Tananuwong & Reid, 2004), 80 suggesting that starch undergoes both order-disorder transition and melting in excess water. 81 The aim of this study was to investigate gelatinization and melting transitions of starch-water 82 system using DSC to model a starch conversion diagram specific to pulses. This tool could be 83 applied to develop a predictive cooking model to improve the nutritional value of pulses. We 84 used a desummation procedure in an attempt to dissociate the gelatinization and melting 85 events. Three pulse varieties (lentil, bean and chickpea) were analyzed to compare the thermal 86 behavior of pulses with different physiochemical and morphological characteristics. These 87 three varieties are the most commonly eaten in France (Margier et al., 2018).

88

89 2. Materials and methods

90 2.1 Material

Green lentils (*L. culinaris*, var. Anicia), navy beans (*P. vulgaris*, var. Linex) and chickpeas
(*C. arietinum*, var. Elvar) were provided by Cibèle (Saint-Georges-Sur-Arnon, France), Cavac
(La Roche-sur-Yon, France) and Moulin Marion (Saint-Jean-sur-Veyle, France), respectively.

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94 The lentils were harvested in 2017 and the beans and chickpeas in 2018. All seeds were stored
95 in a vacuum pack at 7 °C until use.

#### 96 2.2 Starch extraction

97 Starch was first extracted from the pulses using dry fractionation. The lentil hulls were 98 removed from the seeds with dry abrasion using a DMS 500 huller (Electra, Poudenas, 99 France). Dehulled lentils were sieved through a 2 mm mesh screen to separate the hull 100 residues. Dry fractionation of chickpeas and beans was performed by Improve SAS (Dury, 101 France). The seeds were crushed at 700 rpm using a SM 300 cutting mill (Retsch GmbH, 102 Haan, Germany), equipped with a 8 mm sieve. The hulls were removed from the kernels 103 using a MZM 1-40 zigzag air classifier (Hosokawa Micron, Evry, France). The dehulled 104 pulses were ground into flour at different speeds (18 000 rpm for lentils and 20 000 rpm for 105 beans and chickpeas), using a high speed impact mill UPZ equipped with a pill mill 106 (Hosokawa Alpine, Augsburg, Germany). Starch and protein fractions from the resulting 107 flours were separated using an ATP air classifier (Hosokawa Alpine, Augsburg, Germany) at 108 6 500 rpm for lentils, 8 000 rpm for beans and 10 000 rpm for chickpeas. The coarse fraction 109 from lentils was ground and air classified once again to improve the fine fraction yield, 110 according to Tyler, Youngs & Sosulki (1981). The resulting coarse fractions from all pulses 111 were rich in starch but additional starch purification was performed using wet separation. 112 Coarse fractions were suspended in water and centrifuged at 5 000 rpm. The pellet was recovered, wet purified a second time and then dried at 45°C. All starch samples were stored 113 114 at 14 °C.

115 2.3 Water and total starch content

116 Water content of the starch sample was calculated on a wet basis by drying 5 g of each pulse 117 starch sample for 2 h at 132 °C ( $\pm$  2 °C) according to the standard method NF EN ISO 712

- 7 -

(2010). Total starch content was estimated using the enzymatic procedure according to Holm,
Björck, Drews & Asp (1986).

## 120 2.4 Differential scanning calorimetry

Thermal transitions associated with starch gelatinization and melting were determined using a 121 122 DSC 8500 instrument (Perkin Elmer, Norwalk, USA) calibrated with indium as standard. 123 Starch flour was weighed in stainless steel pans and deionized water was added using a 124 micropipette. The amount of water was adjusted to obtain a water content X ranging from 0.2 to 3 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db (kg water/kg dry starch), to study starch samples from low to excess moisture 125 126 conditions. The total weight of each sample was approximately 40 mg. The pans were hermetically sealed and allowed to stabilize at 14 °C between 5h and 24h before analysis, 127 128 depending on the water content of the sample. The pans were then heated from 20 °C to 129 160 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min, with an empty sealed pan as reference. First, 14 different water contents were performed for lentil, as presented in Table 1. Since some resulting heat flows 130 131 were similar, the number of moisture conditions has been reduced to 10 and 13 for bean and chickpea, respectively. For lentil and chickpea, at  $X = 0.2 \text{ kg kg}^{-1}$  db the temperature at the 132 end of starch conversion exceeded 160 °C. To prevent damage to the pan due to the 133 134 increasing pressure inside, the maximum temperature of heating could not exceed 160°C 135 under the experimental conditions of the study. Therefore, the corresponding DSC 136 thermograms were not analyzed. All measurements were duplicated. In total, 28, 20 and 26 137 samples were measured for lentil, bean and chickpea flour, respectively. A blank thermogram 138 (empty pans in reference and sample ovens) was recorded daily. The heat flow (mW) of 139 sample pans minus the variation of heat flow of the blank during heating was recorded using 140 the Pyris Thermal Analysis Software (Perkin Elmer, Norwalk, USA).

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samples analyzed with DSC from 20 °C to 160 °C.

$X(\mathrm{kg}\mathrm{kg}^{-1}\mathrm{db})$	Lentil	Bean	Chickpea
0.2	nd	×	nd
0.3	×	_	×
0.4	×	×	×
0.5	×	×	×
0.6	×	×	×
0.8	×	×	×
1.0	×	×	×
1.2	×	_	_
1.5	×	×	×
1.6	×	_	×
1.8	×	×	×
2.0	×	×	×
2.5	×	_	×
3.0	×	×	×

144 145 ×: measured in duplicate

-: not tested

nd: incomplete signal detected by DSC at  $T \le 160 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ 

146

147 2.5 Starch conversion diagram modeling

148 DSC thermograms plot heat flow ( $\phi$ ) as a function of temperature (*T*). In excess water, a 149 single endotherm is observed at low temperature and commonly assigned to the gelatinization 150 process (G) (Donovan, 1979). With decreasing water content, a second endotherm appears at 151 higher temperature. It was described as the melting (M) of starch granules (Donovan, 1979). 152 The two roughly overlapping peaks were desummed as a function of *T* and *X*. The degree of 153 starch conversion was calculated using the model and represented as a diagram.

154 2.5.1 Modeling the DSC peaks

155 DSC thermogram data (q versus T) were analyzed using a desummation procedure with two

156 Gaussian functions illustrated in Fig. 1. First, a baseline was subtracted from the heat flow to

157 simplify the process of curve fitting. The resulting heat flow was non-dimensionalized and 158 multiplied by 1000, to avoid low parameter values by increasing the scale. Lastly, each 159 dimensionless value for heat flow ( $\overline{\varphi}$ ) was fitted in relation to the sum of two peaks (*i* = G or 160 M) as follows:

161 
$$\overline{\varphi} = \sum_{i=G,M} \frac{\beta_i}{\Delta T_i \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T - T_i}{\Delta T_i}\right)^2\right)$$
(1)

where  $T_i$  (°C) is the temperature at maximum peak *i*;  $\Delta T_i$  (°C) controls the width of the peak *i* and is related to the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the peak *i* according to  $2\sqrt{2\ln(2)} \times \Delta T_i = \text{FWHM}; \beta_i$  is the dimensionless area of peak *i*. Therefore:

165 
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \overline{\varphi} = \beta_G + \beta_M = 1$$
(2)

## 166 Parameters from Eq. (1) depend on the water content X in the starch-water mixture.



Figure 1. Graphical explanation of the desummation procedure: (a) a baseline (--) was defined
for each DSC thermogram (solid line); (b) heat flow obtained after subtraction of the baseline;

(c) heat flow obtained after non-dimensionalization and multiplication by 1000; (d) the
dimensionless heat flow (solid line) was modeled as a bi-Gaussan function (--) showing
desummed G (-.-) and M (···) endotherms.

173 2.5.2 Peak temperatures

174 The Flory–Huggins equation (Flory, 1953) was used to describe the relation between  $T_i$  (i = G175 or M) and the volume fraction of the water ( $\phi$ ) in the starch-water mixture:

176 
$$\frac{1}{T_i} - \frac{1}{T_{i,0}} = \frac{R}{\Delta h_{i,0}} \frac{v_g}{v_w} \left( \phi - \chi_i \, \phi^2 \right)$$
(3)

Where  $\Delta h_{i,0}$  (J mol<sup>-1</sup>) is the change in the molar enthalpy of gelatinization (*i* = G) or melting 177 (i = M) per repeating unit (anhydroglucose);  $v_g / v_w$  is the ratio of the molar volume of the 178 repeating unit  $(v_g = 105.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{mol}^{-1})$  to the molar volume of the water 179  $(v_w = 18.1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1})$  and, therefore,  $v_g / v_w = 5.8$ ; R is the gas constant 180 (8.31 J mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>);  $T_{i,0}$  (K) is the gelatinization (*i* = G) or melting (*i* = M) temperature of the 181 pure polymer and  $\chi_i$  is the Flory interaction parameter. To calculate  $\phi$ , the density of water 182 was taken to be 1 000 kg m<sup>-3</sup> and the density of starch was attributed an average value of 183 1 500 kg m<sup>-3</sup> (Cruz-Orea et al., 2002). Therefore,  $\phi$  (m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>) was expressed as a function of 184 185 water content *X*:

186 
$$\frac{1}{\phi} = 1 + \frac{1}{1.5X}$$
 (4)

187 2.5.3 Peak widths

188 The width-related parameter  $\Delta T_i$  represents the fact that, within one sample at fixed water 189 content, starch granules have slightly various sizes and compositions. This leads to individual 190 variations in the gelatinization or melting temperature and so broad peaks on DSC 191 thermogram (Carlstedt, Wojtasz, Fyhr & Kocherbitov, 2015).  $\Delta T_i$  decreases as a function of 192 water content. An empirical relation was used to describe  $\Delta T_i$  as a function of X:

193 
$$\frac{\Delta T_i - \Delta T_{i,\infty}}{\Delta T_{i,0} - \Delta T_{i,\infty}} = \exp\left(-\frac{X}{\gamma_i}\right)$$
(5)

194 where  $\Delta T_{i,0}$  (°C) and  $\Delta T_{i,\infty}$  (°C) are the values for  $\Delta T_i$ , with zero and excess water contents, 195 respectively;  $\gamma_i$  is the rate parameter of decrease for the two correlations. For melting,  $\gamma_M$ 196 was not significantly different from 1. Its value was thus fixed at 1 to simplify the expression 197 of  $\Delta T_M$  with only 2 water-dependent variables.

## 198 2.5.4 Amplitude of the peak area

199 With increasing water content,  $\beta_{\rm G}$  increases and  $\beta_{\rm M}$  decreases as shown by Eq. (2). A simple 200 empirical equation was used to describe  $\beta_i$  as a function of *X*:

201 
$$\beta_{\rm G} = \beta_{\rm G,\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta_{\rm G}}{X}\right)$$
 (6a)

where  $\beta_{G_{\infty}}$  is the dimensionless area of peak G in excess water and  $\zeta_{G}$  is a parameter for the correlations.  $\beta_{M}$  was calculated with Eq. (2) and (6a):

204 
$$\beta_{\rm M} = 1 - \beta_{\rm G,\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta_{\rm G}}{X}\right)$$
 (6b)

# 205 2.5.5 Degree of starch conversion

The degree of starch conversion  $\tau$  was defined for any temperature *T* and water content *X* as the ratio between the enthalpy change calculated from the beginning of peak G to *T*, and the whole enthalpy change from the beginning of peak G to the end of peak M (Eq. (7a)). The integral of the sum of Gaussian functions is the sum of error functions (Eq. (7b)).

210 
$$\tau = \int_{0}^{T} \overline{\varphi}(T, X) / \int_{0}^{\infty} \overline{\varphi}(T, X)$$
(7a)

211 
$$\tau = \sum_{i=G,M} \beta_i \times \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(\frac{T - T_i}{\Delta T_i \sqrt{2}}\right) \right)$$
(7b)

Finally, isovalues lines of degree of starch conversion  $\tau$  were represented as a temperature *T* versus water content *X* diagram.

### 214 2.5.6 Parameters identification for modeling the starch conversion diagram

215 Two different procedures, referred to as sequential and overall identification methods, were 216 used and compared to identify the parameters. The sequential procedure consisted of two steps. The first step involved identifying the 6 so-called primary parameters  $(T_i, \Delta T_i \text{ and } \beta_i)$ 217 in the DSC peak desummation model, by fitting dimensionless heat flow thermograms to 218 219 Eq. (1) for each water content X. The second step involved identifying the 13 so-called secondary parameters  $(T_{i,0}, \Delta h_i, \chi_i, \Delta T_{i,\infty}, \Delta T_{i,0}, \gamma_G, \beta_{G_{\infty}}$  and  $\zeta_G$ ) used to described the 220 221 primary parameters as functions of X. They were identified by fitting primary parameters to 222 Eq. (3), (5) and (6a), respectively. The aim of the overall procedure was to identify the 13 223 secondary parameters at the same fitting session, by fitting all dimensionless heat flow 224 thermograms to the model combining Eq. (3), (5) and (6a) within Eq. (1). The curve fitting toolbox (Matlab software, version R2019b, The MathWorks Inc., Natick, USA) with the 225 226 Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm was used to identify all parameters.

## 227 2.6 Statistical methods

The parameter values obtained from the two identification methods are given with a 95 % confidence level. The root-mean-square error (RMSE) was calculated between the dimensionless heat flow DSC thermograms (experimental data) and the dimensionless heat flows predicted by sequential and overall identification methods.

232

### 233 3. Results and Discussion

### 234 3.1 Starch characterization

The total starch content of starch flour was estimated at 95.2 % (*i.e.* kg starch/kg flour on a dry basis) for lentils, 96.8 % for beans and 92.1 % for chickpeas. Therefore, the thermal behavior of all starch flours was considered to be close to that of a pure starch-water mixture. The water content of starch flour was 12.2 % (*i.e.* kg water/kg flour) for lentils, 11.5 % for beans and 11.1 % for chickpeas.

240 3.2 Modeling the starch conversion diagram

## 241 *3.2.1 Modeling the DSC peaks*

242 The experimental DSC thermograms show that the thermal behavior of the starch-water 243 system is similar for the three pulses. The primary parameters identified using the 244 desummation procedure (Eq. (1)) are presented in Fig. 2 with dots. At water contents below  $2 \text{ kg kg}^{-1}$  db, the presence of a biphasic endotherm meant it was easy to identify the so-called 245 246 G and M peaks (Donovan & Mapes, 1980) and, therefore, the primary parameters. With 247 increasing water content, the DSC signal has a single peak (which may be followed by a small 248 shoulder that decreases in size), as reported for cereals, plantain and peas in the literature 249 (Donovan, 1979; Cruz-Orea, Pitsi, Jamée & Thoen, 2002; Tananuwong & Reid, 2004; Briffaz

250 et al., 2013; Giraldo Toro et al., 2015). According to Eq. (1), there are two possible mathematical interpretations for this shape. The first assumes that  $T_{\rm M}$  is higher than  $T_{\rm G}$  and 251  $\beta_{\rm G}$  is close to 1. The second assumes that  $T_{\rm M}$  and  $T_{\rm G}$  are close and that  $\beta_{\rm G}$  and  $\beta_{\rm M}$  are also 252 253 close. According to the second hypothesis, the melting transition makes a greater contribution 254 to starch conversion than suggested in the first hypothesis. As the RMSE of the two non-255 linear regressions were closed (data not shown), we chose the first hypothesis to identify the 256 primary parameters. Indeed, we do not yet fully understand the thermal transitions that appear 257 on the DSC thermogram. Many theories proposed in the literature describe starch changes 258 during gelatinization and melting. Donovan (1979) first suggested that swelling in the 259 amorphous region of starch granules in the presence of water causes the disruption of crystalline parts by "stripping" starch chains on the surface. If there is sufficient water, all 260 261 starch crystallites can be moisturized and melt cooperatively, resulting in a single peak on the 262 heat flow thermogram. If water is limited, the remaining low-hydrated crystallites melt at a 263 higher temperature, resulting in a biphasic endotherm. Evans & Haisman (1982) proposed that 264 the two peaks were due to the different crystallite stability. The granules with less stable 265 crystallites melt, which produces the first peak. This reduces the available water and, as a 266 result, the more stable crystallites that remain melt at a higher temperature. With increasing 267 water, the melting temperature decreases and, thus, the second peak shifts towards the first. 268 Numerous other theories have been proposed and were reported by Ratnayake & Jackson 269 (2007). In their study, they described starch gelatinization as a complex process that cannot be 270 reduced to order-disorder transition because it induces structural and morphological changes 271 in starch granules. They reported greater mobility of starch polymers and amylose molecules 272 due to water absorption in the amorphous regions. This mobility leads to the formation of new 273 intermolecular bonds, which occurs simultaneously to the so-called gelatinization process. 274 They also highlighted that DSC measurements were unable to provide this type of information

275 with regard to polymer structure at low temperature. In the present study, starch was thus 276 supposed to undergo gelatinization and melting according to one of the previous hypothesis. 277 Since the aim of the study was modeling the degree of starch conversion, we did not perform 278 further analysis of the starch morphology. To validate which hypothesis best describes the 279 starch conversion under the conditions of the study, complementary techniques should be 280 carry out, such as microscopy (Ratnayake & Jackson, 2007). For example, by combining the results from optical microscopy, X-ray scattering and DSC up to 100 °C, Carlstedt et al. 281 282 (2015) showed that G and M endotherms could be interpreted as a eutectic transition and a 283 liquidus line, respectively.

## 284 3.2.2 Parameters identification from the sequential method

The identification of primary parameters shows that the temperature of gelatinization (Fig. 2a) and melting (Fig. 2b), the width (Fig. 2c and 2d) and the relative area (Fig. 2e) of each peak depend on the starch water content. This phenomenon has been observed by many authors (Donovan, 1979; Evans & Haisman, 1982; Cruz-Orea et al., 2002; Tananuwong & Reid, 2004; Briffaz et al., 2013). These trends are modeled with the 13 secondary parameters obtained from the sequential identification method and presented in Table 2.

For all studied pulses, the Flory-Huggins equation provides a satisfactory description of the relation between  $T_{\rm M}$  and  $\phi$  (Fig. 2b). Overall, the corresponding secondary parameters obtained using the sequential identification method (Table 2) are in the same order as those found in previous studies. We found  $T_{\rm M,0}$  values ranging from 227.6 ± 25.0 °C to  $307.8 \pm 37.5$  °C,  $\Delta h_{\rm M,0}$  values from  $16.4 \pm 8.7$  kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> to  $23.8 \pm 4.4$  kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and  $\chi_{\rm M}$  values from  $0.62 \pm 0.05$  to  $0.65 \pm 0.3$  depending on pulse species. Previous studies, focusing mainly on cereals and potato starches, reported  $T_{\rm M,0}$  values ranging from 167 °C to 258 °C,  $\Delta h_{\rm M0}$  values from 12.6 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> to 54.4 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> and  $\chi_M$  values from 0.48 to 0.51 (Donovan, 1979; Donovan & Mapes, 1980; Farhat & Blanshard, 1997; Cruz-Orea et al., 2002; Habeych, Guo van Soest, van der Goot & Boom, 2009; van der Sman & Meinders, 2011).

301 Donovan (1979) reported that the maximum for the G endotherm was always observed at 66 °C for potato starches with  $\phi$  ranging from 0.28 to 0.81. Our results show that  $T_{\rm G}$  can 302 303 indeed be considered constant around 66 °C when the water content is sufficient (i.e.  $X > 0.7 \text{ kg kg}^{-1} \text{ db}; \phi > 0.5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ ). An isothermal temperature of gelatinization has also 304 been reported by Carlstedt et al. (2015) for the same range of water content. However,  $T_{\rm G}$ 305 306 increases at a lower water content for all pulses (Fig. 2a). This observation is consistent with 307 the results presented by Evans & Haisman (1982). They reported a constant initial temperature of gelatinization for water content above 0.6 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db and a steep increase in 308 309 temperature with a decreasing water content. Thus, given the range of water contents under study,  $T_{\rm G}$  can be plotted as a function of  $\phi$  according to the Flory-Huggins equation with a 310 good fitting result (Fig. 2a). The secondary parameters obtained using the sequential 311 identification method (Table 2) differ from those previously reported for peak M.  $T_{\rm G,0}$  is 312 lower than  $T_{M,0}$  and  $\Delta h_{G,0}$  is higher than  $\Delta h_{M,0}$ . 313

The width of G and M endotherms ( $\Delta T_{G}$  and  $\Delta T_{M}$ ) decreases with water content (Fig. 2c and 1d), as reported in previous studies (Donovan, 1979; Tananuwong & Reid, 2004). The  $\beta_{G}$ value shows that gelatinization becomes the predominant thermic event (*i.e.*  $\beta_{G} \ge 0.5$ ) when the water content exceeds 1 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db for all pulses (Fig. 2e). Blanshard (1987) suggested that G and M endotherms merged at high water content, resulting in a single apparent peak. Tananuwong & Reid (2004) confirmed this hypothesis using instrumental and mathematical

deconvolution procedures. Sequentially-determined  $eta_{G_{\infty}}$  is associated with a high confidence 320 interval (Table 2). Therefore, the melting in excess water (*i.e.*  $\beta_{G_{\infty}} < 1$ ) cannot be confirmed 321 here by simply considering the results of the sequential method. However, the trailing 322 shoulder after the peak G at  $X = 2 \text{ kg kg}^{-1}$  db for all pulses seems to support this hypothesis. 323 The same also applies to some extent at  $X = 3 \text{ kg kg}^{-1}$  db for lentil and bean. This can be seen 324 325 in Fig. 3a, 4a and 5a, which represent predicted dimensionless heat flows calculated with 326 sequentially-determined secondary parameters in comparison with experimental 327 dimensionless heat flows for lentil, bean and chickpea, respectively. The RMSE between 328 experimental and predicted dimensionless heat flows were calculated for each sample tested 329 (Fig. 3a, 4a and 5a).

## 330 3.2.3 Parameter identification from overall method

331 The 13 secondary parameters obtained using the overall identification method are presented in Table 2. Confidence intervals at 95 % are lower than those from the sequential method 332 333 (Table 2), which leads to more precise modeling. The predicted dimensionless heat flows 334 calculated with the secondary parameters obtained using the overall identification method are 335 plotted in Fig. 3b, 4b and 5b with the associated RMSE between experimental and predicted 336 dimensionless heat flows. These results are quite close to the predicted heat flows obtained using the sequential method (Fig. 3a, 4a and 5a) for lower water content ( $X \le 2 \text{ kg kg}^{-1} \text{ db}$ ), 337 338 with similar RMSE. The significant difference between the two methods is the position and contribution of peak M for water contents above 2 kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db. This is clearly shown by the 339 value of  $eta_{{}_{\mathrm{G},\infty}}$ , which is significantly lower than that identified using the sequential method 340 (Table 2) for all pulses. We found  $\beta_{G,\infty} = 0.61 \pm 0.01$  for lentil,  $0.49 \pm 0.01$  for bean and 341  $0.66 \pm 0.02$  for chickpea with the overall identification method. This indicates that melting is 342

important for starch conversion in excess water, even if the DSC signal has a single peak. Our results are similar to the desummation curves presented by Tananuwong & Reid (2004) for potato, pea and normal and waxy corn starches, who postulated that the M endotherm is gradually incorporated into the predominant G endotherm. Their study shows a relative peak area of G and M endotherms which is also very similar to Fig. 2e. The desummation results obtained from the overall identification method confirms that G and M endotherms can be merged in one peak in excess water conditions.

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For chickpea and bean, when all the water contents analyzed are considered together, the predictions for the dimensionless heat flows are slightly more precise with the overall method (0.34% and 0.45% errors on predicted values, respectively) compared to the sequential method (0.50% and 0.52% errors on predicted values, respectively). For lentil, the two methods are equally precise (0.28%), as expected when comparing Fig. 3a and 3b.



Figure 2. Primary parameters of the Gaussian functions modeled as a function of volume fraction of water  $\phi$  or as a function of water content *X* for lentil, bean and chickpea starches. Primary parameters (dots) were obtained using the desummation procedure and fitted to Eq. (3) (a,b), Eq. (5) (c,d) and Eq. (6a) (e), respectively (solid lines). Results from the overall identification method (--) were later added for comparison, but were not fitted directly from the primary parameters.

363 Table 2. Secondary parameters obtained using the sequential (S) and overall (O) identification method for lentil, bean and chickpea starches

364 (mean values ± 95 % confidence interval). The values were used to calculate the degree of starch conversion  $\tau = \sum_{i=G,M} \beta_i \times \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{T - T_i}{\Delta T_i \sqrt{2}} \right) \right)$ 

		<i>T</i> <sub>G,0</sub> (°C)	<i>T</i> <sub>M,0</sub> (°C)	$\Delta h_{\rm G,0}$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\Delta h_{\rm M,0}$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\chi_{ m G}$	$\chi_{ m M}$	$\Delta T_{ m G,0}$ (°C)	$\Delta T_{\mathrm{M},0}$ (°C)	Δ <i>T</i> <sub>G,∞</sub> (°C)	∆ <i>T</i> <sub>M,∞</sub> (°C)	$\gamma_{ m G}$	$eta_{\!\scriptscriptstyle{\mathrm{G}}\!\!\!\infty}$	$\zeta_{ m G}$
Lentil	S	142.5 ±9.6	260.1 ±19.5	$30.5 \pm 3.8$	19.8 ±2.0	0.71 ±0.02	0.62 ±0.03	13.99 ±6.17	19.14 ±2.42	3.99 ±0.97	4.51 ±1.45	0.47 ±0.33	1.00 ±0.16	0.69 ±0.21
	0	121.6 ±1.6	233.1 ±2.5	$40.9 \pm 1.0$	24.3 ±0.4	0.69 ±0.01	$0.52 \pm 0.01$	12.64 ±0.78	$18.15 \pm 0.37$	3.37 ±0.05	6.79 ±0.13	$0.61 \pm 0.04$	$0.61 \pm 0.01$	$0.36 \pm 0.02$
Bean	S	137.1 ±17.1	$227.6 \pm 25.0$	32.4 ±8.1	23.8 ±4.4	$0.75 \pm 0.04$	$0.62 \pm 0.05$	24.61 ±14.24	13.49 ±1.95	5.03 ±1.14	3.92 ±1.11	$0.38 \pm 0.27$	$0.98 \pm 0.14$	0.56 ±0.19
	0	158.5 ±4.3	192.1 ±1.8	26.3 ±0.9	36.8 ±0.9	0.74 ±0.01	0.36 ±0.01	43.21 ±4.49	9.79 ±0.28	4.37 ±0.06	8.62 ±0.12	0.31 ±0.01	0.49 ±0.01	0.13 ±0.02
Chickpea	S	$170 \pm 14.4$	307.8 ±37.2	24.3 ±3.3	16.4 ±8.7	$0.73 \pm 0.02$	$0.65 \pm 0.03$	20.64 ±11.53	13.89 ±1.92	3.63 ±0.77	3.63 ±1.06	$0.34 \pm 0.20$	1.01 ±0.12	0.61 ±0.16
	0	150.9 ±3.3	265.4 ±3.0	28.9 ±0.9	$20.4 \pm 0.4$	$0.72 \pm 0.01$	0.55 ±0.01	31.88 ±4.79	12.50 ±0.38	3.21 ±0.05	7.18 ±0.16	0.29 ±0.02	$0.56 \pm 0.02$	0.28 ±0.02

 $\phi$ : volume fraction of water (m<sup>3</sup> m<sup>-3</sup>)

X: water content (kg kg<sup>-1</sup> db)

 $\gamma_{\rm M}$  is fixed at 1.

 $\beta_{\rm M} = 1 - \beta_{\rm G}$ 



Figure 3. DSC thermograms of lentil starch at different water contents *X*: experimental (dots) and predicted (solid lines) dimensionless heat flows, predicted G (--) and M (···) endotherms. Predicted data were obtained using the sequential (a) and overall (b) identification method. RMSE were calculated between experimental and predicted dimensionless heat flows for the different water contents.



Figure 4. DSC thermograms of bean starch at different water contents *X*: experimental (dots) and predicted (solid lines) dimensionless heat flows, predicted G (--) and M (···) endotherms. Predicted data were obtained using the sequential (a) and overall (b) identification method. RMSE were calculated between experimental and predicted dimensionless heat flows for the different water contents.



Figure 5. DSC thermograms of chickpea starch at different water contents X: experimental (dots) and predicted (solid lines) dimensionless heat flows, predicted G (--) and M (...) endotherms. Predicted data were obtained using the sequential (a) and overall (b) identification method. RMSE were calculated between experimental and predicted dimensionless heat flows for the different water contents.

## 391 3.2.4 Starch conversion diagram

392 For lentil, the modeled diagrams of starch conversion obtained using the sequential and 393 overall identification methods are similar (Fig. 6a). This is consistent with the similar results 394 obtained from both methods, as discussed previously. For bean and chickpea (Fig. 6b and 6c), 395 the two identification methods lead to different starch conversion diagrams when  $\tau$ 396 approaches 0. With the sequential method, the temperature at the beginning of gelatinization (*line 1* in Fig. 6) increases with water content when X > 1.5 kg kg<sup>-1</sup>. The overall method 397 398 seems to reduce side effects in excess water, by giving a constant temperature at the 399 beginning of gelatinization when X > 1.5 kg kg<sup>-1</sup>. For the three pulses, the starch conversion 400 diagram obtained using the overall identification method thus appears to be more accurate. 401 Moreover, isovalue lines of starch conversion degree defined three areas (native, partially gelatinized and fully gelatinized starch) which are consistent with the scanning electron 402 403 microscopy images presented by Ratnayake & Jackson (2007) on various cereal and tuber 404 starches.

405 Lentil, bean and chickpea have similar starch conversion diagrams as shown in Fig. 7,
406 suggesting that starches have similar thermal behavior. Further analysis could be performed
407 with other varieties in order to confirm this trend in all pulses.



Figure 6. Modeled starch conversion diagram of lentil (a), bean (b) and chickpea (c) starchwater mixture (temperature *T* versus water content *X* and isovalue lines of degree of starch conversion  $\tau$ ) obtained with the sequential (black line) or overall (grey line) identification method. Three states can be distinguished: native state (below line 1:  $\tau$  0), partially gelatinized state (area between lines 1 and 2:  $0 < \tau < 1$ ) and fully gelatinized state (beyond line 2:  $\tau$  1).





Figure 7. Comparison of modeled starch conversion diagram of the three pulses' starch–water mixtures (temperature T versus water content X and isovalue lines of degree of starch conversion 7) obtained with the overall identification method.

## 422 4. Conclusion

423 The method of desummation and modeling of DSC heat flow thermograms presented in this 424 study improves our understanding of the starch conversion process in various T and X425 conditions. The temperature of gelatinization can be modeled as a function of water content 426 according to the Flory-Huggins theory, as found previously for the temperature of melting. 427 The primary parameters suggest that starch undergoes melting transition regardless of water 428 content. As the water content increases, G and M endotherms overlap, producing a single 429 peak in the DSC heat flow thermogram. Both identification methods can predict the heat flow 430 of starch conversion precisely at various values for T and X. The overall identification method 431 generates a more precise degree of starch conversion, which can be integrated into a water 432 transfer model to improve the cooking process for these pulses. In addition, the results suggest 433 that the thermal behavior of lentil, bean and chickpea starches is similar despite their varietal 434 differences. Thus, a common approach could be considered to optimize the nutritional value 435 of all pulses.

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