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1	Kinetics of gluten protein-insolubilisation during pasta processing: decoupling between
2	time- and temperature-dependent effects.
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13	

14 Abstract

15

Durum wheat gluten proteins are essential for pasta quality. Glutenin polymers undergo 16 solubilization mechanisms during pasta processing. This study aims to investigate gluten 17 proteins insolubilisation kinetics during a resting period applied to extruded. The goal is to 18 investigate the contribution of time related recovery of large glutenin polymers and temperature 19 related formation of glutenin cross-linked aggregates in the pasta quality. Extruded pasta were 20 rested for 120 minutes at 20, 30 or 40°C prior drying at high temperature (90°C). Glutenins 21 22 insolubilisation induced by resting and drying was assessed from the SE-HPLC elution profiles of the SDS-soluble proteins from fresh, rested and dried pasta. Final pasta were characterized 23 for their organoleptic (color, surface roughness) and physical (diameter, cooking time, 24 viscoelasticity index) properties, before and after cooking. Pasta quality is discussed in relation 25 26 with the gluten network structure and the impact of resting time. Resting of freshly extruded pasta extrusion leads to spontaneous insolubilisations of glutenins by creation of weak 27 28 interactions. High temperature drying induces a strong drop of solubility of all gluten protein fractions by creation of covalent bonds, impacting equally rested and not rested pasta. Dry and 29 30 cooked pasta organoleptic and physical properties are not significantly impacted by a resting 31 time.

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32 1. Introduction

33

Durum wheat pasta is a traditional and world-wide consumed cereal food. Pasta structure relies 34 on physical and chemical interactions that are established in between starch and proteins during 35 pasta making. Pasta processing consists in a succession of several unit operations: hydration, 36 mixing, extrusion, and drying. Durum wheat semolina is first hydrated with a specific amount 37 of water and mixed in order to obtain crumble dough of wet agglomerates. The agglomerates 38 are structured into pasta by single screw extrusion at low temperature. Fresh pastas are 39 40 stabilized by drying, which can be either carried out at high (70-90°C) or low (40-55°C) temperature. Cooking, the final food preparation step before pasta eating, is assigned to the 41 42 consumer (Sicignano et al., 2015).

It is commonly accepted that the wheat components and their changes in structure during processing and cooking control pasta final organoleptic qualities. During the first mixing step, the wet agglomerates of semolina undergo shear deformation, that induces protein hydration and unfolding allowing for the formation of a continuous gluten network enclosing the starch granules (Guerrero et al., 2014).

Gluten in its hydrated form behaves like a viscoelastic cohesive mass stabilized by weak
hydrogen, ionic and hydrophobic bonds. Wheat gluten proteins (12 to 15% of pasta dry weight)
are constituted of monomeric gliadins and polymeric glutenins (Shewry & Halford, 2002). Both
are soluble in sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) buffer, fully for the former and partly for the latter.
Process temperature above 55°C impact gluten network structure by triggering the formation
of covalent links (Joubert et al., 2018; Lagrain et al., 2005; Lamacchia et al., 2007; Morel et al.,
2002; Singh & MacRitchie, 2004; Wagner et al., 2011; Weegels & Hamer, 1998).

55

When pasta extrusion is conducted above 50°C, it causes a marked decrease in the solubility of 56 salt-soluble proteins fractions (albumin, globulin). Above 96°C, extrusion results in a dramatic 57 increase of the SDS-insoluble protein fraction (Dexter and Matsuo, 1977; Ummadi et al., 1995). 58 59 The impact of pasta drying temperature on gluten proteins aggregation and solubility loss in SDS buffer has been extensively studied. Above 55°C for glutenins and 70°C for gliadins, 60 proteins initiate disulfide/sulphydryl exchange reactions. Above 90°C, glutenin and gliadin 61 crosslink together through new disulfide bonds (Dexter and Matsuo, 1977; Morel et al., 2000; 62 Wagner et al., 2011). When reticulated during drying, the gluten protein network allows pasta 63 to resist to starch swelling mechanisms that are promoted by the final cooking stage and 64 65 promote a firmer texture and a better surface aspect of cooked pasta (Cubadda et al., 2007;

- Lamacchia et al., 2007; Matsuo & Irvine, 1970). Viscoelastic index of cooked pasta correlates
 well with native semolina gluten protein content and with gluten network ability to resist to
- 68 mechanical stresses (Baiano & Del Nobile, 2006). When compared to low temperature drying,
- 69 high or very high temperature drying diagrams.

Recently, Joubert et al. (2018) indicated that the drying step of pasta making process is not the 70 71 only stage during which gluten protein can be insolubilized. When freshly extruded pasta is rested at ambient temperature after extrusion, gluten proteins tend to spontaneously 72 insolubilize. The largest fractions of glutenin polymers are more impacted than the smallest 73 74 fractions. Gliadin fractions are not impacted during the resting stage. The insolubilisation mechanisms of the glutenins fractions during resting at ambient temperature followed first order 75 76 kinetics. We aim to investigate the potential macroscopic differences in pasta characteristics 77 generated either by spontaneous insolubilisation reactions of gluten proteins at ambient 78 temperature in freshly extruded pasta or protein aggregation during drying step.

The objective of the present study is to investigate the impact of time during a resting period 79 80 after extrusion and during drving stage, on protein insolubilisation kinetics in extruded pasta. The resting period was conducted under different conditions of temperature (20-40°C) and 81 82 followed by a drying stage conducted under low (55°C) or high (90°C) temperatures. The 83 extraction of SDS-soluble and SDS-insoluble proteins and the analyze by size exclusion high performance liquid chromatography (SE-HPLC) allowed to describe the mechanisms of protein 84 reactions throughout the resting period and drying stage. The measured characteristics of dried 85 pasta (color, diameter, and cooking time) and cooked pasta (color, diameter, surface aspect, and 86 texture) were discussed in relation to the mechanisms of protein insolubilisation during pasta 87 making process, in order to evaluate the specific impact of the resting period. 88

89 90

91 **2. Material and methods**

92

93 2.1. Raw material

Industrial durum wheat semolina (Panzani, France) was used as raw material. Semolina was stored at 4°C. Semolina water content (13.87 (± 0.12) g water/100 g wet semolina) was determined according to AACC method 45-15.02. Semolina total nitrogen content was determined by Kjeldahl method, and the crude protein content (12.41 (± 0.26) g proteins/100 g dry semolina) was calculated according to TN-5.7 (AFNOR NF V03-050 method). Particle diameter distribution of semolina were measured by a laser particle size analyzer (Coulter 100 TMLS 230, Malvern, England). The median diameter (d_{50}) was of 270 (±1) µm. The diameter 101 span was $(d_{90}-d_{10})/d_{50} = 1.51$ (±0.42).

102

103 **2.2. Pasta making**

104 Semolina was transformed into pasta using a laboratory pasta making machine (AFREM-BASSANO, France, Abecassis et al., 1994). Semolina (7.0 kg) was weighed and introduced in 105 the mixer tank. The double water-jacket of the mixing tank temperature was maintained at 106 107 40°C. Tap water was added to obtain a final water content of 47.0 g water / 100 g dry matter. 108 Tap water was equilibrated to prior its spreading over the mixed semolina layer. Mixing was continued for 20 min, at atmospheric pressure. The wet agglomerates of semolina were extruded 109 110 at constant temperature (35°C) under vacuum (59 MPa). Fresh spaghettis were extruded 111 vertically from the die. Extrusion temperature and pressure were recorded along extrusion. 112 Pasta drying was conducted using a laboratory pasta drying machine (AFREM, France, Abecassis et al., 1989). Extruded fresh spaghettis were immediately placed in the dryer that was 113 114 previously equilibrated at 35°C and 88% relative humidity (RH). Pasta drying was conducted under low or high temperature conditions. The drying diagram at low temperature was: starting 115 116 condition at 35°C and 88% RH, 100 min to reach 55°C and 72% RH, 600 min at 55°C and 72% RH, and 150 min to reach 40°C and 70% RH. The high-temperature drying diagram was: 117 starting condition at 35°C and 88% RH, 60 min to reach 90°C and 86% RH, 60 min at 90°C 118 and 86% RH, 60 min to reach 90°C and 77% RH, 60 min at 90°C and 77% RH, and 60 min at 119 120 35°C and 70% RH.

To investigate the effect of a rest period between the extrusion and drying stages, freshly extruded pasta were rested in the dryer at 20, 30 or 40°C and 88% RH up to 120 minutes prior to the drying phase. It was verified that at the end of the resting time no weight loss had occurred.

Pasta samples were collected for SE-HPLC analysis immediately after the mixing and extrusion steps and after different resting and drying times. Samples were immediately frozen using liquid nitrogen and stored at -18°C. The frozen samples were freeze-dried, milled and kept under argon until characterization.

- 129
- 130 2.3. Characterization of dried pasta

131 Diameters of dried spaghetti were manually determined using a caliper (Mituyo, CD-15DC).

132 For each product, 8 measurements were done on 8 spaghettis.

Color coordinates (L* brightness, a* redness, b* yellowness) of dried pasta were measured 133 using a reflectance colorimeter (Konica Minolta CR - 410, France) with daily light calibration 134 (D65). For each product, 40 g of dried spaghetti were cut (8 cm length) and positioned inside a 135 136 specific black box (14 x 10 cm) to form a homogenous layer of product (1.5 cm height). Colors 137 measurements were carried out in triplicate.

138

2.4. Cooking behavior of pasta 139

Pasta cooking was conducted in boiling water according to the French Standard NF ISO 7303. 140 141 Optimum cooking time for dried pasta was determined according to AACC Method 66-50.01. Pasta were cooked at the optimum cooking time + 1 minute. After cooking, spaghetti sample 142

143 was drained and rinsed with large amount of tap water. Pasta strands were kept under Petri 144 boxes at room temperature under saturated relative humidity conditions before characterization.

145

146 2.5. Characterization of cooked pasta

147 Water content of cooked pasta was determined in triplicate according to the approved AACC Method 45-15.02. Results are expressed in g water / 100 g dry matter. 148

149 Color characteristics (L*, a*, and b*) of cooked past was measured for each product. 40 g of cooked spaghetti were arranged inside the specific black box to form a homogenous layer of 150 product (2 cm height). Color was measured in triplicate. 151

Diameters of cooked spaghetti were manually determined using a caliper (Mituyo, CD-15DC). 152

153 For each product, 8 measurements were done on 8 spaghettis.

a

154 Surface roughness of cooked pasta was evaluated according to ISO 7304-1:2016. Cooked pasta were disposed on a white plate and compared to standardized pictures. A grade (1 to 8 scale) 155 was given by three different individuals after visual inspection. 156

157 Viscoelasticity and tensile strength of cooked pasta were measured using a texturometer TA-

158 XT Plus (Stable Micro Systems, UK). For viscoelasticity, a flat probe (SMS P/35) was used to

squeeze a 2 cm cooked spaghetti sample under 0.5 N for 40 sec, before stress relaxation (20 159

- 160 sec). Thickness values (mm) were measured: initial diameter (E), diameter after 40 sec under a
- 0.5N compression (e₁), and diameter after 20 sec of load release (e₂). Viscoelasticity index (IV) 161

162 was calculated using equation 1. For each product, five measurements were performed.

$$IV = \frac{(e_2 - e_1)/(E - e_1)}{(E - e_1)/E}$$
(Eq 1)

164

For tensile strength measurement cooked spaghettis were fixed to the tensile grips (A/SPR). The tensile test was performed at constant deformation rate (3 mm.s⁻¹) until pasta rupture. The strain and stress values were calculated considering the thinning of the sample diameter and constant sample volume between the grips (equations 2, 3).

169
$$Strain = \frac{L_t - L_0}{L_0} \times 100$$
 (Eq 2)
170
$$Stress = \frac{F_t}{\frac{\pi D_0^2 \times L_0}{4 \times L_t}}$$
 (Eq 3)

With L₀, sample length between the two jaws (mm); L_t, the same after time t of extension (mm);
D₀, initial sample diameter (mm); F_t, measured force at time t of extension (N). Rupture stress
(MPa) and strain (%) were recorded from the stress-strain curves at the breaking point. Stressstrain curves were plotted and elastic modulus was identified as being curves' slope. Four to
seven measurements were recorded for each product.

177 2.6. Gluten protein size distribution

178 SDS-soluble and SDS-insoluble proteins from freeze-dried and milled pasta samples were extracted and analyzed by size exclusion high performance liquid chromatography (SE-HPLC) 179 according to Morel et al. (2000). SDS-soluble protein (Fs) were extracted in sodium phosphate 180 buffer (pH 6.9) containing 1% SDS. SDS-insoluble proteins (F_i) were extracted by sonication 181 of the residue re-suspended in the previous buffer supplemented with dithioerytritol (20 mM). 182 Chromatogram of SDS-soluble proteins was divided into 5 fractions: SDS-soluble large 183 glutenin polymers (F_1); medium range glutenin polymers (F_2); ω -type sulfur-poor prolamins 184 (F₃); sulfur-rich α -, β - and y-gliadins (F₄); albumin and globulins (F₅). Areas from fractions F1 185 to F5 were expressed in % of the corresponding area from freshly extruded pasta, unless 186 otherwise noted. In percent of total protein, fractions F_1 to F_5 of the freshly extruded pasta 187 were: $5.7 \pm 1.1 \%$ (F₁); $26.7 \pm 2.1 \%$ (F₂); $8.6 \pm 0.2 \%$ (F₃); $37.0 \pm 1.5 \%$ (F₄) and $13.1 \pm 0.4 \%$ 188 $(F_5).$ 189

190

191 2.7. Model fitting and statistical analysis

Apparent first order kinetic model (Eq. 4) was used to fit the solubility changes as a function of time observed during pasta resting and drying. Areas F_1 to F_5 from extracts Fs were considered, after their normalisation to the corresponding area obtained from the freshly extruded pasta sample.

$$y = y_0 + a(1 - e^{-bx})$$

(Eq. 4)

176

Where y_0 (=100) is the normalized F_i areas at t = 0 min. The calculated coefficients of the model 197 198 a and b are respectively related to the insolubilisation amplitude and characteristic reaction time (C_{Time}; 1/b). Coefficients were determined by least-square fitting using Excel 2016 solver 199 (Microsoft, Redmond, USA). Determination coefficients (R^2) and the sum of absolute 200 201 deviations between experimental and calculated values were considered to gauge the goodness of fit. Statistical analysis was carried out with XLSTAT (Addinsoft, NY, 2017) at 95% 202 confidence level by Student tests and p-value. The statistical significance of measured values 203 was verified using single factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test on replicated 204 205 data.

206

207

3. Results

209

210 **3.1. Impact of drying**

Impact on protein insolubilisation - Extruded pasta were dried at low (55°C) or high (90°C)
temperature. Solubility changes for each gluten protein fraction as a function of drying time
were quantified to follow protein insolubilisation dynamics (figure 1). Pasta drying promotes
gluten protein insolubilisation reactions.

Regardless of the drying temperature, non-linear solubility decreases of all SDS-soluble gluten protein fractions (F_1 to F_5) were observed and were successfully fitted using an exponential decay model, except for low molecular weight fractions (F_3 to F_5) that are only slightly impacted by the LT drying. Low temperature (LT) drying led to specific decreases of relative solubility depending on gluten protein fraction (figure 1). Fractions F_1 and F_2 underwent a fast ($C_{Time} =$ 12.2-50.0 min) and large (27.5-34.8%) loss of solubility. LT drying mainly impact the glutenin polymers fractions (F_1 and F_2).

222 High temperature (HT) drying was conducted into two phases: a heating phase from 35 to 88°C in 45 min, and a high temperature treatment phase at 90°C for 255 min. HT drying led to a 223 224 strong decrease of protein solubility, specific to each fraction (figure 1). During the heating phase, fractions F₁ and F₂ drops according to kinetic very similar to the one observed for LT 225 drying ($C_{\text{Time}} = 14.2-50.0 \text{ min}$) but of larger (52.0-50.0%) amplitude. For fractions F_3 , F_4 and 226 F_5 insolubilisation was slower ($C_{Time} > 50$ min) and less pronounced (8.0-30.0%). During the 227 high temperature phase (90°C), fractions F_1 and F_2 underwent an additional very fast ($C_{Time} =$ 228 5.0-11.9 min), and large (45.0-65.0%) insolubilisation process. Fractions F₃, F₄ and F₅ loss of 229 230 solubility was slower ($C_{\text{Time}} = 22.2-33.3 \text{ min}$) but more pronounced (38.0-55.0%) than during

the heating phase. HT drying amplifies gluten protein insolubilisation mechanisms. HT drying is known to increase the amount of SDS-insoluble proteins (De Stefanis and Sgrulletta, 1990; Petitot et al., 2009). Kinetic and thermal effects on high molecular weight gluten protein (F_1+F_2) insolubilisation mechanisms along drying have been depicted by a curve of protein solubility as a function of 'time*temperature' (figure 2). Regardless of drying temperature, protein solubility variations overlap for short duration.

237

Impact on pasta characteristics - As expected, drying temperature impacts pasta characteristics 238 239 (table 1). Compared to LT drying, HT drying had a significant impact on pasta color. HT drying significantly increased redness (a*) and decreased yellowness (b*) for both dried and cooked 240 pasta. On the other hand, opposite impacts of HT drying on brightness (L*) were observed for 241 dried pasta (L* increase) and cooked pasta (L* decrease). Compared to LT drying, HT drying 242 243 had a significant impact on pasta diameter, with a significant decrease for dried pasta and a significant increase for cooked pasta. Dried pasta cooking time was not impacted by drving 244 245 temperatures. Compared to LT drving, HT drving significantly improved cooked pasta surface aspect (from 6 to 8) and texture properties, with an increase of elastic modulus, breaking stress, 246 247 breaking strain, and viscoelasticity index. It is admitted that compared to LT, HT drying led to pasta characterized by a higher red hue due to Maillard reaction, a firmer texture and a better 248 surface aspect (Cubadda et al., 2007; Lamacchia et al., 2007). 249

251 **3.2.** Protein insolubilisation during resting of freshly extruded pasta

The impact of resting for 120 min at different temperatures (20, 30 or 40°C) on protein solubility and pasta characteristics was investigated. Soluble gluten proteins were quantified for time related to resting and HT drying.

255 Impact on protein solubility in SDS buffer – Resting led to specific solubility decrease of protein 256 fractions F_1 and F_2 (figure 3) while fractions F_3 , F_4 and F_5 were slightly impacted (data not shown). Resting decreased the extractability of protein in SDS buffer by about 6 to 10% as the 257 258 temperature rose from 20 to 40°C. In accordance with Joubert et al. (2018), only glutenin polymers were impacted, and large polymers from fraction F₁ reacted faster than those from 259 fraction F₂, suggesting that solubility loss resulted from an increase in the size of glutenin 260 polymers. The rate of protein solubility loss roughly followed a first order kinetics, but a 16 261 minutes delay 16 min was noticed for samples rested at 20°C, before any significant drop. 262 Increase in temperature fasten solubility drop. An activation energy of 26.7 ± 7.2 kJ/moles was 263 determined from an Arrhenius plot of the fitted rate constants. The value is far from the E_a value 264

250

of 75 to 95 kJ/moles reported for gliadin solubility loss beyond 100°C (Lagrain, 2011) or from the activation enthalpy calculated for the oxidation of the unique thiol of bovine serum albumin thiol (54-59 kJ/moles) (Bonanata et al., 2017). It approximates the E_a value of 30-40 kJ/moles measured by single-molecule force clamp spectroscopy for protein disulfide bond reduction by free thiol (Liang, 2011). Protein disulfide bond reshuffling, mediated by thiol/disulfide exchanges would account for glutenin polymers solubility loss.

271

3.3. Impact of pasta resting on protein crosslinking during drying and on pasta qualityattributes

Extruded pasta were sequentially submitted to a resting period (at 30°C for 120 minutes) and
an HT drying (90°C). Soluble gluten proteins were quantified along resting and drying stages
in order to follow protein solubility variations (figure 3a, 3b).

Impact on protein insolubilisation - Resting impacted the kinetic of gluten protein solubility loss kinetics induced by HT drying but not the total amplitude of the phenomenon. During the early drying phase (from 35 to 88°C for 45 min) and compared to non-rested pasta, protein solubility loss remained modest: levels of soluble proteins from rested and non-rested pasta turned out to be equivalent at the end of the first drying step. Further HT drying at 90°C induced large protein solubility loss, regarding all wheat protein classes and in a way similar to the one observed for non-rested pasta (figure 1c-1d).

Impact on pasta characteristics - Compared to non-rested pasta, a resting period before HT drying had significant light impacts on color properties of pasta (table 1). A resting time (120 min) significantly increased dried and cooked pasta yellowness (b*) and redness (a*), and cooked pasta brightness (L*). Resting time also induced a light decrease of dried pasta diameter, but did not significantly change cooked pasta diameter. Resting time did not significantly impact cooking time and texture properties of cooked pasta.

290 291

292 **4. Discussion**

293

294 4.1. Gluten proteins insolubilisation upon high temperature treatment

HT drying is a driving unit operation of changes of protein structure upon pasta processing.Thermal treatment during HT drying induces a strong drop of solubility of all gluten protein

- 297 fractions. Glutenins (F_1 and F_2) show a stronger loss of solubility (95%) compared to gliadin
- and cytoplasmic proteins (46-65%). HT drying leads to rapid and strong specific gluten proteins

insolubilisation. HT drying induces the insolubilisation of 95% of the glutenins, 60% of the
gliadins and 40% of the cytoplasmic proteins. Compared to gliadins, higher molecular weight
glutenins are highly sensitive to HT treatments. HT drying allows very fast insolubilisation
mechanisms, with characteristic times lower than 14 min for the glutenin fractions.

303 We proposed a phenomenological model to describe the changes in protein solubility during pasta resting and drying (figure 5). Water elimination during pasta drying leads to a significant 304 305 reduction of pasta diameter. The generated mechanical stress could induce compaction of wheat components. The protein chains get closer and could generate additional interactions. Each 306 307 additional bond involving glutenins reduces their solubility. The behaviour of gluten proteins under HT has been extensively studied (Icard-Vernière & Feillet, 1999; Lamacchia et al., 2007; 308 Lagrain et al., 2005; Petitot, 2009; Wagner et al., 2011; Zweifel et al., 2003). It is well 309 established that heating glutenins above 55°C and gliadins above 70°C allows 310 311 disulphide/sulfhydryl exchange reactions and the creation of new disulfide bonds. A LT thermal treatment (55°C) of glutenins leads to the creation of intra-chains and inter-chains disulfide 312 313 bonds, as indicated by the superposed curves when plotted according to "time*temperature" axis (figure 2). LT drying reinforces to a certain extent pasta protein network. A HT thermal 314 315 treatment (90°C) allows the creation of numerous disulfide bonds between proteins, thus inducing high levels of insolubilisation. Sulfur-rich α -, β - and y-gliadins (F₄) contain cysteine 316 residues (6 cysteines for α -type and 8 cysteines for γ -type) located at highly conserved positions 317 318 and all involved in intrachain disulfide bonds. Their quaternary structure might not be altered during mixing and extruding stages. Thiol groups of cysteine residues might not be exposed 319 320 and are less able to create disulfide bonds.

We hypothesized that glutenin insolubilisation upon resting of extruded pasta could be due to 321 322 the creation of weak interactions (figure 5). After a thermal treatment during HT drying, proteins insolubilisation rates for rested pasta are not significantly different from those of not 323 324 rested pasta. The creation of disulfide bonds during thermal treatment drives gluten protein insolubilisation and the influence of weak interactions established during resting is then not 325 significant. HT drying cycle homogenizes the level of SDS-extractible proteins by forcing the 326 327 insolubilisation and creating large protein aggregates. La Gatta et al. (2017) suggested that the architecture and size of protein aggregates created during drying depend on the nature and 328 329 proportion of the various classes of proteins. The hypothesis was made that supramolecular 330 structures derived from gluten protein aggregation could emerge during pasta drying and their 331 assembling occurs hierarchically. Due to gluten complexity, it is not always possible to predict the formation of supramolecular polymeric structures. 332

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4.2. Exchange reaction SS-SH during resting after extrusion at various temperatures

The water content of fresh extruded pasta is high enough (30% wet basis) to allow molecular mobility of protein chains. During pasta extrusion, compression and shear forces would unfold glutenin polymers facilitating their alignment and hydrophobic and H-bond pairing. Such type of weak interactions, even if maintained after sample freeze-drying are going to be disrupted during extraction in the SDS-buffer used here. Only irreversible changes involving covalent bonds like peptide- or disulfide-bonds will be detected.

341 In this work it was found that resting at 20 to 40°C of freshly extruded pasta coincided with a 342 slight but significant glutenin polymers solubility loss. Polymers of the largest molecular weight (F_1) reacted more readily than glutenin from F_2 . In less than 15 min, F_1 area decreased by 33% 343 against a drop of 16.4% in 26.9 min for the smaller glutenin polymers F₂. An increase in resting 344 345 temperature (between 20 to 40°C) hastens the reaction from 30.3 min (20°C) to 11.3 min (30°C) and 7.02 min (40°C). The corresponding activation energy ($E_a=26.4 \pm 7.2$ kJ/moles) lacks of 346 accuracy and additional experiments would be needed to consolidate it. Nevertheless, it remains 347 far from the E_a value reported for the gliadin solubility loss observed during pasta drying 348 (Lagrain, 2011). It is compatible with the activation energy needed to promote disulfide bond 349 350 reshuffling by thiol/disulfide exchange, which ranges between 30-40 kJ/moles (Liang, 2011). After extrusion, stress relaxation of stretched glutenin polymers would drive this disulfide 351 352 reshuffling. The reaction also occurs when extruded pasta are directly placed into the 353 temperature monitored drying chamber. It accounts for the modest drop in glutenin polymers 354 observed at the beginning of LT drying. Because during this step temperature remains below 60°C, no further protein solubility loss induced by additional disulfide crosslinking was 355 356 observed. Indeed, it is well established that heating glutenins above 55°C and gliadins above 357 70°C allows for the disulphide/sulfhydryl exchange reactions that promote the creation of new 358 disulfide bonds (Lagrain, 2011).

359

360 4.3. Gluten proteins insolubilisation kinetic during resting at 30°C and HT drying

Resting extruded pasta leads to a specific loss of solubility of gluten protein fractions. Glutenins F₁ and F₂ show a stronger loss of solubility (16.4-33.0%) compared to gliadins F₃ and F₄ (3.24-7.65%) and cytoplasmic proteins F₅ (7.73%). High molecular weight glutenins (F₁) show the strongest (33%) and the fastest (C_{Times} = 11.3 min) loss of solubility during the first 60 minutes of rest. Low molecular weight glutenins (F₂) have a smaller (16.4%) and slower (C_{Times} = 26.9 min) loss of solubility upon resting. During resting, they become able to build weak interactions

between adjacent chains (figure 4), thus leading to a loss of solubility. This kinetic insolubilisation of glutenins during resting occurs spontaneously, without mechanical nor thermal stress. The water content of fresh extruded pasta is high (30% wet basis) enough to allow molecular mobility of the protein chains. Glutenins insolubilisation during resting could be due to the creation of hydrophobic interactions between adjacent chains, to form larger aggregates. A slight increase of resting temperature (from 20 to 30°C) speeds up glutenins (F₁ and F₂) and gliadins (F₃ and F₄) spontaneous insolubilisation (table 1).

An increase of rest temperature might favor molecular mobility of protein chain in fresh pasta and increase probability of efficient interactions. The contribution of covalent disulfide bonds during resting is less probable, as their creation is driven by temperature higher than 55°C for glutenins and higher than 70°C for gliadins (Icard-Vernière & Feillet, 1999; Wagner et al., 2011).

Gliadins (F_3 and F_4) and cytoplasmic proteins (F_5) are seldomly impacted by a resting period. 379 They experience very small losses of solubility and low insolubilisation rates during resting. 380 The sulfur-poor ω -type gliadins (F₃) show small losses of solubility while sulfur-rich α -, β - and 381 y-gliadins (F_4) and cytoplasmic proteins (F_5), experience no loss of solubility. These low 382 383 molecular weight proteins are less likely to unfold during mixing and extruding stages. 384 Compared to glutenins, their open surface could be smaller, giving them few opportunities to create inter-protein weak interactions and to insolubilize during resting (figure 4). Creation of 385 386 additional intra-gliadins weak interactions does not impact their solubility. The apparent loss of solubility of cytoplasmic protein (F₅) might be induced by a linkage of proteins to other 387 388 components of semolina.

The spontaneous insolubilisation potential of gluten proteins upon resting may be linked to durum wheat variety and gluten protein qualities (Joubert et al., 2018). A high glutenin/gliadin ratio might be related to a strong capacity of spontaneous insolubilisation, as glutenins F_1 are able to insolubilize during the resting period. It has been shown that pasta quality increases as low molecular weight glutenins show a greater number of cysteines available for interactions with other glutenins (Lee et al., 1999).

395

396 4.4. Impact of a resting time on pasta quality

Cooked pasta quality is not significantly impacted by resting, regardless of resting temperature
and time (table 1). HT drying confers identical texture qualities to rested and not rested pasta.
Gluten protein changes and additional weak interactions created during resting time do not have

is much lower compared to covalent bonds set up during drying. Dry pasta color and texture is
not impacted by a resting time before drying. Resting does not significantly impact enzyme
activity in fresh pasta, thus does not allow color changes.

404 405

406 5. Conclusion

407

Pasta resting after extrusion leads to gluten protein insolubilisation reactions by creation of weak interactions. This spontaneous insolubilisation follows a first order kinetics and impacts more glutenins compared to gliadins and cytoplasmic proteins. HT drying induces a strong drop of solubility of all gluten protein fractions by creation of covalent bonds, impacting equally rested and not rested pasta. Covalent bonds created during drying have a higher contribution to cooked pasta quality compared to weak interactions established during resting time.

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Products	Brightness	Redness	Yellowness	Diameter	Cooking	Surface	Elastic	Rupture	Rupture	Viscoelasticity
	L*	a*	b*		time	aspect	modulus	stress	strain	index
	(N/A)	(N/A)	(N/A)	(mm)	(min)	(N/A)	(MPa)	(Pa)	(N/A)	(N/A)
Pasta directly dried at low temperature										
Dried pasta	54.1 ±0.1 ^b	$2.39\pm\!0.03^{b}$	$42.4 \pm 0.1^{\text{ b}}$	1.48 ± 0.04 a	10	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cooked pasta	$79.8\pm\!0.9^{d}$	-0.533 ± 0.049 d	38.3 ± 0.3 d	$2.68 \pm 0.01 ^{\rm d}$	N/A	6	86.8 ± 8.0^{a}	153 ± 10^{b}	1.68 ±0.21 ^b	8.63 ± 0.53 b
Pasta directly dried at high temperature										
Dried pasta	56.0 ±0.3 °	3.43 ± 0.14 a	41.9 ±0.2 °	1.53 ±0.02 °	10	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cooked pasta	71.5 ±0.6 °	$0.203 \ {\pm} 0.047 \ ^{a}$	33.8 ± 0.3 c	2.38 ± 0.04 °	N/A	8	121.6 ± 6.4 b	271 ± 38^{a}	2.44 ± 0.32 a	14.4 ± 1.0^{a}
Pasta rested for 120 min at 20°C before drying at high temperature										
Dried pasta	55.2 ±0.1ª	3.88 ± 0.02 a	39.9 ±0.1 ª	1.50 ±0.03 °	11	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cooked pasta	81.7 ± 1.4 b	0.707 ± 0.076 °	38.0 ± 0.5 °	2.15 ±0.07 b	N/A	8	159.4 ±9.8 °	$342\pm\!\!67^{\ a}$	$2.05 \pm 0.36^{\rm a}$	14.4 ± 1.1 a
Pasta rested for 120 min at 30°C before drying at high temperature										
Dried pasta	55.5 ± 1.7^{a}	$5.36\pm\!\!0.53^{b}$	43.8 ± 0.7 b	1.47 ±0.02 ^b	10	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cooked pasta	$76.3~{\pm}4.6^{\mathrm{b}}$	$0.803\pm\!0.290^{\rm c}$		$2.50 \pm 0.04^{\text{ d}}$	N/A	8	113.2 ± 7.0 b	295 ± 44^{a}	2.62 ± 0.42^{a}	13.0 ± 1.7 a
Pasta rested for 120 min at 40°C before drying at high temperature										
Dried pasta	54.9 ±0.8 ª	4.29 ± 0.57 a	41.6 ±1.4 ª	1.47 ±0.03 a	11	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
Cooked pasta	74.9 ± 5.1 °	0.988 ± 0.459 °	35.9 ±0.3 °	2.36 ± 0.09 d	N/A	8	121.6 ±8.9 ^b	263 ± 63 a	2.09 ± 0.38 a	12.4 ± 0.5 b

Table 1: Characteristics of dried pasta and cooked pasta produced by HT drying, LT drying, or coupling resting phase (for 120 min at different temperature 20, 30 or 40°C) and HT drying.

Rheological measurement and cooking times were carried out in triplicates. Eight measurements were made for color, diameter and surface aspect. N/A: Not applicable.

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Figure 1: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for the different wheat gluten protein fractions (F_1 to F_5) in pasta as a function of drying time during LT drying (a-b) or HT drying (c-d). *When not displayed (a;b), error bars (relative standard deviation) overlap.*

Figure 2: Evolution of relative contents of soluble glutenin fractions in pasta as a function of drying time*drying temperature during low temperature drying (LT) or high temperature drying (HT). *Error bar (relative standard deviation; not displayed) overlap.*

Figure 3: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for the different wheat gluten protein fractions F_1 and F_2 in pasta as a function of time during resting at different temperatures (at 20, 30, or 40°C). *Error bars (relative standard deviation; not displayed) overlap.*

Figure 4: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for durum wheat glutenin in pasta as a function of time during successive resting phase at 30°C (0 to 120 min) and HT drying (120 to 420 min). *Error bars feature the relative standard deviation*.

Figure 5: Mechanistic model of insolubilisation of wheat gluten proteins upon resting and upon high or low temperature drying in pasta.



Figure 1: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for the different wheat gluten protein fractions (F_1 to F_5) in pasta as a function of drying time during LT drying (a-b) or HT drying (c-d). *When not displayed (a;b), error bars (relative standard deviation) overlap.*



Figure 2: Evolution of relative contents of soluble glutenin fractions in pasta as a function of drying time*drying temperature during low temperature drying (LT) or high temperature drying (HT). *Error bar (relative standard deviation; not displayed) overlap.*



Figure 3: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for the different wheat gluten protein fractions F_1 and F_2 in pasta as a function of time during resting at different temperatures (at 20, 30, or 40°C). *Error bars (relative standard deviation; not displayed) overlap.*



Figure 4: Evolution of relative contents of soluble proteins for durum wheat glutenin in pasta as a function of time during successive resting phase at 30°C (0 to 120 min) and HT drying (120 to 420 min). *Error bars feature the relative standard deviation*.



Figure 5: Mechanistic model of insolubilisation of wheat gluten proteins upon resting and upon high or low temperature drying in pasta.

Highlights

- Gluten protein insolubilisation upon resting follows a first order kinetics.
- High resting temperatures lead to higher levels of protein insolubilisation.
- Resting enables covalent bonds creation through SS-SH exchange reactions.
- High temperature drying has a higher impact on pasta qualities compared to resting.
- Proteins insolubilisation has no significant impact on cooked pasta properties.

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