

1 **Potential beneficial effect of hydrothermal treatment of starches from various**
2 **sources on *in vitro* digestion**

3
4
5
6
7 **Raquel Selma-Gracia^{ab}, José Moisés Laparra^b, Claudia Monika Haros^{a*}**

8
9 ^aInstitute of Agrochemistry and Food Technology (IATA-CSIC), Av. Agustín Escardino 7
10 Parque Científico, 46980 Paterna-Valencia, Spain

11 ^bMolecular Immunonutrition Group. Nutrition Precision in Cancer Unit. Madrid Institute for
12 Advanced Studies in Food (IMDEA Food), Madrid, Spain

13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24 *Corresponding author. Mailing address: Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Technology
25 (IATA-CSIC), Av. Agustín Escardino 7, Parque Científico, 46980 Paterna-Valencia, Spain.
26 Phone: +34 96 390 00 22, Fax: +34 96 363 63 01, E-mail: cmharos@iata.csic.es

27 **ABSTRACT**

28 Starches from various botanic origins (maize, quinoa, wheat, potato and rice) were
29 studied. The thermal and pasting properties and their connection with enzyme digestibility
30 were evaluated. Various hydrothermal treatments were applied, taking the starch physical
31 parameters into account, in order to obtain partial and total gelatinisation of the starch
32 structure and determine its influence on enzymatic action. Onset and pasting temperatures
33 of the gelatinisation and pasting processes, respectively, followed the same order in the
34 cereal starches (rice > maize > wheat > quinoa). These results were accompanied by an
35 opposite trend in the percentage of raw starch hydrolysis, with quinoa reaching a level
36 more than 2-fold higher than that of raw maize starch in *in vitro* digestion kinetics. Other
37 technological parameters, such as high peak viscosity or low breakdown, also reflected
38 modifications in the quinoa starch structure which were related to improved digestibility.
39 However, starch from potato, the only tuber, displayed different characteristics from those
40 of cereal starch, showing greater resistance to digestion. When the starches were
41 pretreated, digestibility increased in all of them compared to their raw counterparts, with
42 the pretreated quinoa and wheat starches showing greater susceptibility to modification of
43 their structure. Although the hydrothermally pretreated maize and rice starches reached
44 about 75% of the hydrolysis index of the corresponding gelatinised starches, raw quinoa
45 had a similar hydrolysis index and quinoa obtained a higher value for total starch
46 hydrolysed. Thus, quinoa starch could be potentially beneficial in the design of more
47 digestible formulations for patients with metabolic disorders such as glycogen storage
48 disease, among others.

49

50

51 **Keywords:** Glycogen storage disease, Maize starch, Thermal and pasting properties, *In*
52 *vitro* digestion, Quinoa starch

53 **1. Introduction**

54 In recent years, glucose homeostasis has been an important focus of research owing to its
55 physiological involvement in metabolic diseases such as diabetes, obesity and glycogen
56 storage disease (GSD) (Ludwig, 2002; Weinstein, Steuerwald, De Souza & Derks, 2018).
57 Consequently, several investigations have focused on studying the glycaemic index (GI) of
58 foods and applying various strategies to modify starch digestibility and glucose release in
59 order to manage glucose homeostasis and try to obtain optimal metabolic control (Li,
60 Gidley & Dhital, 2019; Laparra & Haros, 2018).

61 The degree of starch gelatinisation is an important determinant for the rate of starch
62 hydrolysis *in vitro* and for the metabolic response *in vivo* (Holm, Lundquist, Björck,
63 Eliasson & Asp, 1988). Many food processing operations involve alteration of starch
64 structure through thermal treatment, which leads to the starch becoming partially or
65 completely gelatinised, depending on the final product (Delcour et al., 2010). The effects of
66 thermal treatment on the morphological and crystalline structure of starch granules include
67 important changes in physico-chemical properties (Ahmadi-Abhari et al., 2013). These
68 changes in starch structure take place in pasting and gelatinisation processes, with
69 swelling and gradual loss of crystallinity until there is total disruption of the starch granule
70 (Horstmann, Lynch & Arendt, 2017). The nature of these structural changes depends on
71 the starch source, composition, structure and isolation process, and therefore every starch
72 has a different digestibility (Ratnayake & Jackson, 2007; Waigh, Gidley, Komanshek &
73 Donald, 2000; Haros, Blaszcak, Perez, Sadowska & Rosell, 2006). However, techno-
74 functional parameters can provide information about the crystalline structure of starch and
75 its digestibility (Srichuwong, Sunarti, Mishima, Isono & Hisamatsu, 2005a).

76 The digestibility of starch is an important parameter that affects the severity and clinical
77 manifestations of GSD and other diseases. GSD is a metabolic disorder that affects
78 glycogen metabolism, in which the main clinical manifestation is fasting hypoglycaemia

79 (Weinstein et al., 2018). Since 1984, ingestion of uncooked maize starch (raw) has been
80 used to prevent a fall in glucose concentration overnight in individuals with type I or III
81 GSD (Chen, Cornblath & Sidbury, 1984). However, the relatively short duration of glucose
82 availability from this dietary source still represents a major disadvantage with regard to the
83 long-term outcome and quality of life of this special group. Also, raw maize starch intake is
84 associated with injurious gastrointestinal symptoms such as abdominal cramps or bloating,
85 which could be partly responsible for colonic fermentation of unused starch (Lee &
86 Leonard, 1995). Some other starches (i.e., potato, rice, tapioca and arrowroot) have been
87 tested in GSD patients, but these starches displayed significant differences, producing a
88 worse glycaemic response than maize starch (Sidbury, Chen & Roe, 1986). In recent
89 years, controlled heat-moisture processing of a high-amylopectin-containing maize starch
90 was shown to be effective in improving maintenance of glucose concentrations, while
91 gastrointestinal symptoms were reduced (Correia et al., 2008). However, not everyone can
92 afford modified starch and many people depend on alternatives that are cheaper and that
93 are easily available. In this connection, the inclusion of “ancient grains” (such as amaranth,
94 quinoa or chia) in cereal bread formulations has been shown in the *in vitro* test to have an
95 effect in delaying glucose release while extending its absorption (Brennan, Menard,
96 Roudaut & Brennan, 2012; Laparra et al., 2018). Furthermore, these effects were
97 accompanied by increased expression of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor
98 (PPAR)-gamma, suggesting an improved insulin resistance that could lead to a significant
99 decrease in glycolysis metabolism in an animal model (Laparra et al., 2018). Thus, starch
100 from ancient grains could have a different digestibility that could help to maintain
101 normoglycaemia longer than standard maize starch.

102 In view of the above, this study aimed to analyse thermal and pasting properties of
103 starches from various sources – maize, wheat, potato, rice and quinoa – and evaluated the
104 effect of a controlled heat-moisture process – which took their physical parameters into

105 account – on their *in vitro* digestibility. The results were compared with those of the raw (as
106 negative control) and gelatinised (as positive control) starches with the purpose of
107 developing foods/beverages with specific characteristics for people with glucose
108 metabolism disorders.

109

110 **2. Materials and methods**

111 *2.1. Materials and reagents*

112 Commercial maize starch was provided by ACH Food Companies (Argo, USA). Potato
113 starch (C*Gel 300) was purchased from Cargill (Minneapolis, USA). Wheat starch (Natilor)
114 from Chamtor (Pomacle, France). Rice starch (S7260) from Sigma-Aldrich, Belgium. Red
115 quinoa starch was obtained from real Bolivian quinoa (Organic red Quinoa Real©,
116 ANAPQUI (La Paz, Bolivia) in the laboratory by wet-milling (Ballester-Sánchez, Gil,
117 Fernández-Espinar & Haros, 2019). The amylose content of starches was determined
118 using enzymatic assay kits and procedures outlined by Megazyme (Megazyme
119 International Ireland Ltd., Wicklow, Ireland). Enzymes were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich:
120 α -amylase (EC 3.2.1.1, A3176-1MU, USA, 16 U/mg), amyloglucosidase from *Aspergillus*
121 *niger* (EC 3.2.1.3, 10115, Switzerland, 60.1 U/mg) and pepsin (EC 3.4.23.1, P7000, UK,
122 480 U/mg).

123

124 *2.2. Pasting properties*

125 To prepare the samples, 3.5 g of starches were weighted and 25 mL of distilled water was
126 added. Pasting properties of the starches were measured using a Rapid Visco Analyser
127 (RVA-4, Newport Scientific, Warriewood, Australia), according to AACC method 76-21.01
128 (1999). Pasting temperature (P_{temp}), peak time (P_{time}), peak viscosity (PV), hot paste

129 viscosity (HPV), cool paste viscosity (CPV), breakdown (PV-HPV) and setback (CPV-HPV)
130 were recorded. The experiments were performed in triplicate.

131

132 *2.3. Thermal properties*

133 Gelatinisation and retrogradation properties were determined using differential scanning
134 calorimetry (DSC) (Perkin-Elmer DSC-7, USA). Indium was used to calibrate the
135 calorimeter (enthalpy of fusion 28.45 J/g, melting point 156.6 °C). The procedure followed
136 was the method described by Haros et al. (2006), with slight modifications. Ten mg of
137 starch was weighed out and distilled water was added to obtain a water:starch ratio of 3:1
138 for each sample. The calorimeter scan conditions used were: 25 °C for 1 min and then
139 heating from 25 °C to 120 °C at 10 °C/min. Later, to analyse retrograded starch, the
140 samples were stored in refrigeration for a week and were ran under the same conditions (1
141 min - 25 °C; from 25 to 120°C at 10°C/min). The parameters recorded were: onset
142 temperature (T_o), peak temperature (T_p) conclusion temperature (T_c) and enthalpy of
143 gelatinisation and retrogradation transition (ΔH_G and ΔH_R), respectively. The experiments
144 were performed in triplicate.

145

146 *2.4. Preparation of samples for digestion*

147 Aliquots (100 mg) of the various starch samples were weighed into microcentrifuge tubes
148 and 1 mL of water was added. Raw starches were kept in unheated water for 5 minutes
149 and were considered the negative control. Pretreatment of the starches was chosen
150 according to their pasting and thermal parameters: maize (70 °C – 2 min), quinoa (60 °C –
151 1 min), wheat (60 °C – 1 min), potato (70 °C – 1 min) and rice (75 °C – 2 min). The
152 temperature selected for pretreatment depended on the T_p and T_c of the starch and was
153 such as to achieve partial gelatinisation while avoiding loss of total crystallisation. The

154 P_{temp} and P_{time} values determined previously were taken into account to avoid the
155 formation of paste. Gelatinised starches (GS) were kept in a water bath for 5 minutes at
156 100 °C as a positive control.

157

158 *2.5. In vitro starch digestion and GI estimation*

159 The rate of starch hydrolysis was evaluated according to the method described by Goñi,
160 Garcia-Alonso and Saura-Calixto (1997), with modifications. Briefly, 10 mL of HCl-KCl
161 buffer (pH 1.5) and 400 µL of a solution of pepsin in HCl-KCl buffer (0.1 g/mL) were added
162 to the starches and the samples were placed in a shaking water bath at 37 °C for 1 hour.
163 Afterwards, 19.6 mL of Tris-Maleate buffer (pH 6.9) and 1 mL of a solution containing α-
164 amylase in Tris-Maleate buffer (0.01 g/mL) were added and the samples were incubated in
165 the water bath for 2 hours. Aliquots were taken at intervals Aliquots were taken at intervals,
166 from 0 to 120 min (0, 20, 40, 60, 90,120 min), and then the enzyme was thermally
167 inactivated during 5 minutes at 100°C. After centrifugation (10,000 rpm/10 min), 500 µL of
168 the supernatant was taken from each sample. Then 1.5 mL of sodium acetate buffer (pH
169 4.75) and 60 µL of a solution of amyloglucosidase in sodium acetate buffer (88 mg/mL)
170 were added and the samples were incubated at 60 °C for 45 min. Glucose, area under the
171 curve (AUC) and hydrolysis index (HI) were determined according to Laparra et al. (2018).
172 Finally, GI was calculated using the equation $GI = 39.71 + 0.549HI$ (Zabidi & Aziz, 2009).
173 The hydrolysis kinetics was transformed from a cumulative curve into a linear curve by
174 plotting the reciprocal values of [% starch hydrolysis] and time (Sanz-Penella, Laparra &
175 Haros, 2014).

176

177 *2.6. Statistical analysis*

178 Multiple ANOVA and Fisher's least significant differences (LSD) were applied to establish
179 statistically significant differences in thermal and pasting properties. The Tukey test was
180 applied to analyse differences in the digestion values. The statistical analyses were
181 performed with Statgraphics Centurion XVI software, and the significance level was
182 established at $P < 0.05$.

183

184 **3. Results and discussion**

185 *3.1. Pasting and thermal properties of starches*

186 The determination of pasting parameters revealed differences between the starches, as
187 was expected (**Table 1**). P_{temp} provides an indication of the minimum temperature required
188 to cook the starch, which could be related to the degree of polymerisation (DP) of
189 amylopectin (Li & Zhu, 2017; Srichuwong, Curti, Austin, King, Lamothe & Gloria-
190 Hernandez, 2017; Srichuwong, Sunarti, Mishima, Isono & Hisamatsu, 2005b). This
191 parameter decreased following this order: rice > maize > potato ~ wheat > quinoa. Quinoa
192 and wheat are characterised by a higher proportion of short chains with a DP of 8–12,
193 whereas maize, rice and potato have a high DP of 12–18 (Srichuwong et al., 2017;
194 Srichuwong et al., 2005a). The higher proportion of shorter amylopectin chains could affect
195 the crystalline structure (Srichuwong et al., 2017), resulting in a soluble molecule that can
196 be easily digested as it has many end points onto which digestive enzymes can attach,
197 which could have a positive effect on the digestibility of raw starches.

198 The peak viscosity (PV) parameter indicates the water-binding capacity of starch (Haros et
199 al., 2006). The high PV of potato could possibly be explained, at least partly, by the high
200 content of phosphate ester groups in the amylopectin in this tuber, resulting in repulsion
201 between molecules (Waterschoot, Gomand, Fierens, & Delcour, 2015). Among the
202 cereals, higher PV values were recorded for wheat and quinoa than for maize and rice.
203 These results agree with the conclusions arrived at by Gomand, Lamberts, Visser and

204 Delcour (2010), who attributed an increase in swelling to short amylopectin chains,
205 whereas long chains prevented this transition. The high viscosity value obtained during the
206 heating process suggests a high water absorption capacity, which has been correlated
207 with a lower resistance to enzymatic digestion (Reddy, Pramila & Haripriya, 2015). This
208 behaviour could be interesting when formulating foods with specific glycaemic indexes.
209 The breakdown parameter (PV–HPV) can give information about stability under heating
210 conditions. Potato starch showed a very high value, displaying a structural fragility that
211 could lead to easier destruction of the structure when it is cooked (Haros et al., 2006).
212 Notably, the rice and quinoa starches exhibited a lower breakdown value than maize
213 starch, which suggests a better preserved structure, favouring a lower peak glucose
214 concentration and a slower rate of fall than with conventional maize starch.

215 During cooling, an important parameter to consider is retrogradation, which is the tendency
216 to restructuration and can be measured through the setback parameter (CPV–HPV).
217 Wheat and potato showed the highest setback viscosities, indicating a low resistance to
218 retrogradation and, as a result, a higher rearrangement. The formation of double helices in
219 this rapid process of restructuration is mainly attributed to amylose, which possesses a
220 larger flexible structure than amylopectin (Van Soest et al., 1994). However, the lack of
221 differences in the setback values of the maize and quinoa starches, despite the amylose
222 content determined for maize (amylose 22%) and quinoa (amylose 7%) (data not shown),
223 suggests that other starch characteristics are involved in the retrogradation process.

224 The gelatinisation parameters were determined by DSC analysis (**Table 2**). Onset
225 temperature (T_o) showed the same trend as P_{temp} : rice > maize > potato > wheat > quinoa,
226 as was expected. This relationship between gelatinisation and pasting temperatures was
227 also confirmed previously by other researchers (Li, Wang & Zhu, 2016). Low values in
228 starch gelatinisation and pasting processes might suggest a less crystalline structure,
229 which could result in higher enzymatic susceptibility (Lin, Zhang, Zhang & Wei, 2017;

230 Srichuwong et al., 2017). The gelatinisation enthalpy (ΔH_G) varied from 10 to 12 J/g,
231 except in the case of potato, which had a value of 16 J/g, demonstrating that higher energy
232 was required to disrupt the crystalline structure. The resistance produced by potato may
233 be interpreted as high crystallinity, which could interfere with the accessibility of the
234 enzyme (Shi, Gao & Liu, 2018). Retrogradation parameters were measured after 7 days at
235 4 °C, and quinoa starch presented the highest resistance to retrogradation of amylopectin
236 (Table 2). In long-term retrogradation, amylopectin is mainly responsible for reorganisation
237 of structure (Van Soest et al., 1994). The presence of short chains in quinoa might
238 contribute to a less compacted starch structure, leading to a starch with low retrogradation,
239 which could be displayed as better digestibility (Lin et al., 2017; Srichuwong et al., 2017).
240 On the other hand, the consumption of retrograded starches may be beneficial for health,
241 owing to the lower depletion of total digestible starch than gelatinised starch (Chung, Lim &
242 Lim, 2006). Moreover, rearrangement of the crystalline structure could hinder α -amylase
243 action and trigger a slow rate of intestinal digestion, which could be reflected in a lower
244 glucose concentration peak *in vivo*.

245

246 3.2. *In vitro starch digestion and GI estimation*

247 In this study, the hydrolysis percentages of various common starches were compared with
248 that of raw maize starch (**Table 3**). The digestion method used has been proved suitable
249 for establishing variations in susceptibility to enzyme interaction depending on structural
250 differences between the samples considered (Rosin, Lajolo & Menezes, 2002; Sanz-
251 Penella et al., 2014).

252 Significant differences ($p < 0.05$) were found in the total (%) starch hydrolysed (TSH₁₂₀) as
253 a function of the sample considered. Native potato presented the lowest value compared
254 to any other raw starch studied. This is supported by previous studies, which indicate that

255 the lack of peripheral channels in potato starch granules inhibits the penetration of α -
256 amylase, whereas the presence of superficial pores, such as in maize starch, could enable
257 enzymatic action (Dhital, Shrestha & Gidley, 2010; Lehmann & Robin, 2007). Moreover,
258 the smaller specific surface area of large granules in potato starch compared to the others
259 cereals may difficult the access and attachment of enzyme (Lehmann et al., 2007;
260 Srichuwong et al., 2005a). As indicated at Fig 1, rice and maize starches had similar
261 hydrolysis, wheat achieved greater hydrolysis and quinoa presented the highest hydrolysis
262 value, reaching around 70% hydrolysis, which is curious, considering that it was uncooked
263 starch. These results are in good agreement with Srichuwong et al., (2017), who
264 investigated starches obtained by various isolation processes and reported a similar trend
265 in hydrolysis relating to short amylopectin chains, but without giving other digestion
266 parameters. It is highlighted that the amylose content in cereals is generally about 15-30 %
267 (Waterschoot et al., 2015) which is corroborated by our cereals starches (maize, 22%;
268 rice, 21%; wheat, 25%). Nevertheless, quinoa presented only about 7% of amylose which
269 could influence in the high digestibility displayed. The lower presence of amylose reported
270 could favour the digestibility due to a higher amylose content has been associated with
271 reduced susceptibility to enzymatic hydrolysis (Chung, Liu, Lee, & Wei, 2011).

272 In order to determine whether the various sources of starch released the same amount of
273 glucose during digestion, the area under the curve (AUC) and hydrolysis index (HI) were
274 calculated (Table 3). The analyses revealed that the raw starches obtained from quinoa
275 and wheat had significantly higher AUC values than the raw starch obtained from maize. It
276 is important to remember here that major differences would be determined by the
277 structural fragility and short amylopectin proportion, as indicated above. When the various
278 raw starches were tested after thermal processing at 100 °C (GS), there were no
279 significant differences in GI values except for potato GS, which continued to have the

280 lowest GI, owing to the lack of digestibility, as was also observed previously (Shi et al.,
281 2018).

282 After analysing the raw starches (as negative controls) and the gelatinised starches (as
283 positive controls), the effect of the hydrothermal treatment was investigated, taking into
284 account the effect of the pasting and thermal properties on the enzymatic hydrolysis of
285 starch, in order to develop food with specific characteristics. The degree of gelatinisation
286 has been reported as one of the main rate-limiting factors in the binding of enzymes to
287 starch for digestion of starches (Wang et al., 2019). The treatment was applied to attain
288 partial gelatinisation of starch in order to evaluate to what extent alterations in starch
289 structure caused by heat-moisture processing affect its digestibility. The pretreatment
290 temperature was selected on the basis of the parameters shown in Tables 1 and 2. The
291 thermal pretreatment of maize and rice starches led to a higher hydrolysis rate than in the
292 case of their raw counterparts, as was observed by Chung et al. (2006) in waxy rice starch
293 subjected to various thermal treatments. Pretreatment of the maize and rice starches,
294 consisting of the application of 70 °C (maize) and 75 °C (rice) for 2 minutes, led to an HI
295 that was approximately 75% of the HI of the corresponding gelatinised starches. However,
296 the pretreated maize did not hydrolyse totally and did not exceed the hydrolysis values of
297 the raw quinoa. A similar tendency was observed by Ahmadi-Abhari et al. (2013), who
298 reported that wheat starch began to lose crystallinity, and consequently starch digestibility
299 improved, but total hydrolysis was not achieved. In the current investigation, pretreated
300 wheat starch began to lose crystallinity and thus improved its digestibility and reached HI
301 values similar to those obtained for pretreated quinoa starch. The higher hydrolysis
302 observed in the pretreatment of wheat and quinoa in comparison with maize and rice could
303 be due to their low T_p and high PV values, which suggest greater susceptibility to
304 disintegration of their structure (Li et al., 2016).

305 Data from the hydrolysis parameters were transformed according to Lineweaver-Burk's
306 model in order to obtain approximate values of the kinetic parameters of starch digestion,
307 helping to gain insight into the potential physiological effects (Sanz-Penella et al., 2014).
308 Although the raw quinoa and wheat starches had higher slopes (Table 3), they were
309 accompanied by high hydrolysis, which means that a lower dose would be required. This
310 would help to reduce the digestive inconveniences resulting from the consumption of high
311 amounts of raw maize starch. Furthermore, although the slope values calculated for both
312 raw and gelatinised quinoa starch were similar, the values for gelatinised maize were
313 significantly higher than those of the raw counterpart.

314 Collectively, these structural changes in quinoa starch may help to maintain glucose
315 concentrations for a longer time and lead to a less rapid rate of fall than in the case of
316 maize starch. Notably, although there are many studies on differences in the techno-
317 functional characteristics of starches and their digestibility, it is not clear how these
318 differences would relate to the rate or efficiency of hydrolysis by pancreatic amylase.

319

320 **4. Conclusions**

321 To sum up, from this study it can be concluded that it may be possible to modify
322 digestibility by controlling starch properties through variations in temperature or cooking
323 time, which could be useful when designing GI-specific formulations for impaired glucose
324 metabolism. Maize and rice starches showed similar technological characteristics, which
325 were concordant with the lack of differences in digestion. Potato starch showed high
326 resistance to digestibility, whereas quinoa and wheat were more susceptible to enzymatic
327 attack. Furthermore, pasting and thermal parameters for quinoa starch indicated structural
328 changes at granule and molecular level that were reflected in its digestibility. Raw maize
329 starch has been used for years by patients with glycogen storage disease despite the short

330 duration of its effect and the gastrointestinal problems associated with it. Raw quinoa
331 starch could offer a promising potential for extending normoglycaemia in these patients.
332 The results indicate the starches and their pretreatment, taking into account their physico-
333 chemical characteristics, could be a potential useful dietary source for patients who have
334 an altered glucose metabolism. Knowing these parameters and how enzymatic
335 susceptibility is affected is essential to a better understanding of the changes in starch
336 structure which could be applied to develop specific formulations. This proposal gives
337 information in order to develop simple formulations with cereals/pseudocereals/tubers flours
338 to control the starch digestibility. Taking into account their behaviour according the source,
339 composition, grade of crystallinity and/or structure in the food matrices to control the
340 glucose homeostasis. However, this is a preliminary study which could open the door to
341 future investigations designed to attain a better understanding of the physiological effects
342 *in vivo*.

343

344 **Acknowledgements**

345 This work was financially supported by grants QuiSalhis-Food (AGL2016-75687-C2-1-R)
346 from the Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities (MICIU) and CYTED, LA ValSe-
347 Food (119RT0S67). The contract given to R. Selma-Gracia as part of LINCE
348 (PROMETEO/2017/189) by the Generalitat Valenciana (Spain) is gratefully acknowledged.

349

350 **References**

351 AACC (1999). *General pasting method for wheat or rye flour or starch using the Rapid*
352 *Visco Analyser. International Approved Methods of Analysis (11th ed.), method 76–21.01.*
353 St Paul, MN, USA: AACC International.

354 Ahmadi-Abhari, S., Woortman, A. J. J., Oudhuis, A.A.C.M., Hamer, R. J., & Loos, K.
355 (2013). The influence of amylose-LPC complex formation on the susceptibility of wheat
356 starch to amylase. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 97(2), 436–440.
357 doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.04.095.

358 Ballester-Sánchez, J., Gil, J. V., Fernández-Espinar, M. T., & Haros, C. M. (2019). Quinoa
359 wet-milling: Effect of steeping conditions on starch recovery and quality. *Food*
360 *Hydrocolloids*, 89, 837–843. <https://doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2018.11.053>.

361 Brennan, M. A., Menard, C., Roudaut, G., & Brennan, C. S. (2012). Amaranth, millet and
362 buckwheat flours affect the physical properties of extruded breakfast cereals and
363 modulates their potential glycaemic impact. *Starch-Stärke*, 64(5), 392–398.
364 doi:10.1002/star.201100150

365 Chen, Y. T., Cornblath, M., & Sidbury, J. B. (1984). Cornstarch therapy in type-I glycogen-
366 storage disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 310(3), 171–175.
367 <https://doi:10.1056/nejm198401193100306>.

368 Chung, H. J., Lim, H. S., & Lim, S. T. (2006). Effect of partial gelatinization and
369 retrogradation on the enzymatic digestion of waxy rice starch. *Journal of Cereal Science*,
370 43(3), 353–359. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jcs.2005.12.001>.

371 Chung, H. J., Liu, Q. A., Lee, L., & Wei, D. (2011). Relationship between the structure,
372 physicochemical properties and *in vitro* digestibility of rice starches with different amylose
373 contents. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 25(5), 968–975. <https://doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2010.09.011>.

374 Correia, C. E., Bhattacharya, K., Lee, P. J., Shuster, J. J., Theriaque, D. W., Shankar, M.
375 N., Smit G.P.A., Weinstein, D. A. (2008). Use of modified cornstarch therapy to extend
376 fasting in glycogen storage disease types Ia and Ib. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*,
377 88(5), 1272–1276. <https://doi:10.3945/ajcn.2008.26352>.

378 Delcour, J. A., Bruneel, C., Derde, L. J., Gomand, S. V., Pareyt, B., Putseys, J. A., . . . et al
379 (2010). Fate of starch in food processing: From raw materials to final food products.

380 *Annual Review of Food Science and Technology*, 1, 87–111.
381 doi:10.1146/annurev.food.102308.124211.

382 Dhital, S., Shrestha, A. K., & Gidley, M. J. (2010). Relationship between granule size and
383 *in vitro* digestibility of maize and potato starches. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 82(2), 480–488.
384 <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2010.05.018>.

385 Gomand, S. V., Lamberts, L., Visser, R. G. F., & Delcour, J. A. (2010). Physicochemical
386 properties of potato and cassava starches and their mutants in relation to their structural
387 properties. *Food Hydrocolloids*, 24(4), 424–433. <https://doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2009.11.009>.

388 Goñi, I., Garcia-Alonso, A., & Saura-Calixto, F. (1997). A starch hydrolysis procedure to
389 estimate glycemic index. *Nutrition Research*, 17(3), 427–437. [https://doi:10.1016/s0271-](https://doi:10.1016/s0271-5317(97)00010-9)
390 [5317\(97\)00010-9](https://doi:10.1016/s0271-5317(97)00010-9).

391 Haros, M., Blaszczyk, W., Perez, O. E., Sadowska, J., & Rosell, C. M. (2006). Effect of
392 ground corn steeping on starch properties. *European Food Research and Technology*,
393 222(1–2), 194–200. <https://doi:10.1007/s00217-005-0102-2>.

394 Holm, J., Lundquist, I., Björck, I., Eliasson, A. C., & Asp, N. G. (1988). Degree of starch
395 gelatinization, digestion rate of starch *in vitro*, and metabolic response in rats. *American*
396 *Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 47(6), 1010–1016.

397 Horstmann, S., Lynch, K. M., & Arendt, E. K. (2017). Starch characteristics linked to
398 gluten-free products. *Foods*, 6(4), 21. doi:10.3390/foods6040029.

399 Laparra, J. M., & Haros, M. (2018). Inclusion of whole flour from Latin-American crops into
400 bread formulations as substitute of wheat delays glucose release and uptake. *Plant Foods*
401 *for Human Nutrition*, 73(1), 13–17. <https://doi:10.1007/s11130-018-0653-6>.

402 Lee, P. J., & Leonard, J. V. (1995). The hepatic glycogen storage diseases – problems
403 beyond childhood. *Journal of Inherited Metabolic Disease*, 18(4), 462–472.
404 <https://doi:10.1007/bf00710057>.

405 Lehmann, U., & Robin, F. (2007). Slowly digestible starch - its structure and health

406 implications: a review. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 18(7), 346–355.
407 <https://doi:10.1016/j.tifs.2007.02.009>.

408 Li, H., Gidley, M. J., & Dhital, S. (2019). High-amylose starches to bridge the "Fiber gap":
409 Development, structure, and nutritional functionality. *Comprehensive Reviews in Food*
410 *Science and Food Safety*, 18(2), 362–379. <https://doi:10.1111/1541-4337.12416>.

411 Li, G., Wang, S., & Zhu, F. (2016). Physicochemical properties of quinoa starch.
412 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 137, 328–338. <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2015.10.064>.

413 Li, G., & Zhu, F. (2017). Amylopectin molecular structure in relation to physicochemical
414 properties of quinoa starch. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 164, 396–402.
415 <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2017.02.014>.

416 Lin, L., Zhang, Q., Zhang, L., & Wei, C. (2017). Evaluation of the molecular structural
417 parameters of normal rice starch and their relationships with its thermal and digestion
418 properties. *Molecules*, 22(9), 1526. <https://doi:10.3390/molecules22091526>.

419 Ludwig, D. S. (2002). The glycemic index - Physiological mechanisms relating to obesity,
420 diabetes, and cardiovascular disease. *Jama-Journal of the American Medical Association*,
421 287(18), 2414–2423. <https://doi:10.1001/jama.287.18.2414>.

422 Ratnayake, W. S., & Jackson, D. S. (2007). A new insight into the gelatinization process of
423 native starches. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 67(4) 511–529.
424 <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2006.06.025>.

425 Reddy, C. K., Pramila, S., & Haripriya, S. (2015). Pasting, textural and thermal properties
426 of resistant starch prepared from potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) starch using pullulanase
427 enzyme. *Journal of Food Science and Technology-Mysore*, 52(3), 1594–1601.
428 <https://doi:10.1007/s13197-013-1151-3>.

429 Rosin, P. M., Lajolo, F. M., & Menezes, E. W. (2002). Measurement and characterization
430 of dietary starches. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*, 15(4), 367–377.
431 <https://doi:10.1006/jfca.2002.1084>

432 Sanz-Penella, J. M., Laparra, J. M., & Haros, M. (2014). Impact of α -amylase during
433 breadmaking on *in vitro* kinetics of starch hydrolysis and glycaemic index of enriched
434 bread with bran. *Plant Foods for Human Nutrition*, 69(3), 216–221.
435 <https://doi:10.1007/s11130-014-0436-7>.

436 Shi, M., Gao, Q., & Liu, Y. (2018). Corn, potato, and wrinkled pea starches with heat-
437 moisture treatment: Structure and digestibility. *Cereal Chemistry*, 95(5), 603–614.
438 <https://doi:10.1002/cche.10068>.

439 Sidbury, J. B., Chen, Y. T., & Roe, C. R. (1986). The role of raw starches in the treatment
440 of type-I glycogenosis. *Archives of Internal Medicine*, 146(2), 370–373.
441 <https://doi:10.1001/archinte.146.2.370>.

442 Srichuwong, S., Curti, D., Austin, S., King, R., Lamothe, L., & Gloria-Hernandez, H. (2017).
443 Physicochemical properties and starch digestibility of whole grain sorghums, millet, quinoa
444 and amaranth flours, as affected by starch and non-starch constituents. *Food Chemistry*,
445 233, 1–10. <https://doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2017.04.019>.

446 Srichuwong, S., Sunarti, T. C., Mishima, T., Isono, N., & Hisamatsu, M. (2005a). Starches
447 from different botanical sources I: Contribution of amylopectin fine structure to thermal
448 properties and enzyme digestibility. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 60(4), 529–538.
449 <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2005.03.004>.

450 Srichuwong, S., Sunarti, T. C., Mishima, T., Isono, N., & Hisamatsu, M. (2005b). Starches
451 from different botanical sources II: Contribution of starch structure to swelling and pasting
452 properties. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 62(1), 25–34.
453 <https://doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2005.07.003>.

454 Van Soest, J. J. G., de Wit, D., Tournois, H., & Vliegthart, J. F. G. (1994).
455 Retrogradation of potato starch as studied by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy.
456 *Starch-Stärke*, 46(12), 453–457. <https://doi:10.1002/star.19940461202>.

457 Waigh, T. A., Gidley, M. J., Komanshek, B. U., & Donald, A. M. (2000). The phase

458 transformations in starch during gelatinisation: a liquid crystalline approach. *Carbohydrate*
459 *Research*, 328(2), 165–176. [https://doi:10.1016/s0008-6215\(00\)00098-7](https://doi:10.1016/s0008-6215(00)00098-7).

460 Wang, Y., Chao, C., Huang, H., Wang, S., Wang, S., Wang, S., & Copeland, L. (2019).
461 Revisiting mechanisms underlying digestion of starches. *Journal of Agricultural and Food*
462 *Chemistry*, 67(29), 8212–8226. doi:10.1021/acs.jafc.9b02615

463 Waterschoot, J., Gomand, S. V., Fierens, E., & Delcour, J. A. (2015). Production,
464 structure, physicochemical and functional properties of maize, cassava, wheat, potato and
465 rice starches. *Starch-Starke*, 67(1–2), 14–29. <https://doi:10.1002/star.201300238>.

466 Weinstein, D. A., Steuerwald, U., De Souza, C. F. M., & Derks, T. G. J. (2018). Inborn
467 errors of metabolism with hypoglycemia glycogen storage diseases and inherited disorders
468 of gluconeogenesis. *Pediatric Clinics of North America*, 65(2), 247–265.
469 <https://doi:10.1016/j.pcl.2017.11.005>.

470 Zabidi, M. A., & Aziz, N. A. A. (2009). *In vitro* starch hydrolysis and estimated glycaemic
471 index of bread substituted with different percentage of chempedak (*Artocarpus integer*)
472 seed flour. *Food Chemistry*, 117(1), 64–68. <https://doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.03.077>.

473 **Figure caption**

474

475 **Figure 1:** Hydrolysis of raw starches. Symbols: - - -, maize starch; ———, quinoa starch;

476 ———, wheat starch; - - -, rice starch;, potato starch.