

## Effect of different binding agents on the cooking quality of glutinous rice-based pasta.

C. Lalmuanpuia\*, Baljit Singh, Savita Sharma and Eram S Rao

Corresponding author\*: C. Lalmuanpuia

Department of Food Science and Technology,

Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, Punjab, India -141004

Author affiliation:

Department of Food Science and Technology,

Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, Punjab, India -141004

### Abstract

A variation in the level of xanthan gum (0.5-2.5 %), vital gluten (2-10 %) and pre-gelatinized flour(10-50 %) was used to study the effect of these different binding agents on the quality characteristics of low amylose rice-based pasta. The pasta samples produced were assessed for their cooking quality which includes minimum cooking time, water absorption, swelling volume, and gruel solid loss. Increasing the level of xanthan gum resulted in increased water absorption and swelling volume while the gruel solid loss decreases. Increasing the content of vital gluten resulted in pasta with lower water absorption, swelling volume, and gruel solid loss. The content of pre-gelatinized flour had an inverse relationship with the water absorption and swelling volume and a non-linear effect on the gruel solid loss. Evaluation of cooking quality suggests that the use of different additives improves the cooking quality of the low amylose rice-based pasta by decreasing the gruel solid losses in cooking water, enhancing the water absorption and swelling volume due to their binding properties. The obtained results from the study suggested the use of 2 % of xanthan gum, 4 % of vital gluten and 30 % of pre-gelatinized flour for preparation of low amylose rice-based pasta with a good cooking and sensory quality.

### Keywords

Pasta, glutinous rice, pre-gelatinized flour, xanthan gum.

### Introduction

Pasta is gaining popularity around the world due to its convenience, ease of preparation and desirable taste properties. Conventionally, high-quality pasta is prepared from durum wheat semolina and they possess a good texture, firm structure, resist surface disintegration and low gruel solid loss (Liu et al., 1996). This is because gluten protein in wheat flour plays a major role in contributing to the cooking performance and texture of cooked pasta and its absence in non-wheat pasta results in technological and quality problems.

However, there have been demands of pasta from other cereals like rice due to its attractive white color, hypo-allergenicity, and bland taste. Various efforts had been made to produce non-wheat pasta that is almost comparable to wheat pasta. However, the non-wheat pasta currently available in the market still could not meet the consumer demands in terms of acceptability (Marti & Pagani, 2013). Variety of binders had been used to replace the role of gluten in non-wheat cereals to prepare gluten free pasta. Supplementing the right quantity of proteins, hydrocolloids, pre-gelatinized flour, and moisture can help accomplish the desired quality attributes (Larrosa et al., 2013).

The first attempt in this direction exploited the characteristic phenomena of starch retrogradation. Pre-gelatinized starch obtained by heating and cooling formed a rigid network of retrograded starch that can be used as an alternative to gluten networking (Cabrera-Chávez et al., 2012; Mariotti et al., 2011). Hydrocolloids such as xanthan gum, carboxymethyl cellulose, alginates, locust bean gum and guar gum aiding gelling, thickening, hydration properties and texture improvement (Gallagher et al. 2004). They can be used to substitute the role of gluten and play an essential part in development of non-wheat pasta (Sozer 2009). Due to its ability to bind water and their viscoelastic properties, gums mimic the properties of gluten to form the elastic texture of pasta.

Reduced amylose/glutinous starch based noodles like the Udon noodles had been commonly consumed in Japan and Korea. These noodles have a soft texture with a firm surface (Nagao 1996). The desirable attributes include high paste viscosity and breakdown, high swelling power of starch and low gelatinization temperature which are associated with reduced amylose contents (Endo et al., 1988; Crosbie 1991; Panozzo and McCormick 1993).

The current work was proposed with the aim to improve the quality of pasta produced from low amylose rice by studying their cooking quality and sensory characteristics. To fulfil this objective, the following studies were made: i) the relationship between glutinous rice flour and different binders and quality features of cooked pasta was analyzed; ii) the accurate quantity of binders required to obtain a high-quality gluten-free pasta from low amylose rice was established based on the response from cooking quality and sensory analysis.

## **Materials and methods**

### **Raw materials**

A local variety of low amylose rice (*kawn glawn gbuhban*) from Mizoram was procured through Krishi Vigyan Kendra (KVK), Mizoram, India. The rice grain was grounded to flour using a hammer mill fitted with a sieve 1.5 mm. Xanthan gum was purchased from Thames Chemicals (SDFine Chemicals Limited), Ludhiana, Punjab. Vital gluten (VG) was purchased from a local market, Ludhiana, Punjab, India.

### **Preparation of Pre-gelatinized Flour (PGF)**

Rice grains were soaked in water to a moisture content of about 40%. The soaked grains were kept on a cheesecloth and steamed at 85 °C for 45 minutes (Cai and Diosady 1993) and then dried in a hot air oven at 50 °C. The dried pre-gelatinized rice grains were ground using a hammer mill fitted with a sieve 1.5 mm.

### **Preparation of pasta**

Low amylose rice flour was mixed with various levels of binding agents viz. xanthan gum, vital gluten and pre-gelatinized flour as seen in table 1. Extrusion was performed using a cold extruder (Model: Dolly, La Monferina, Asti, Italy). Weighed and mixed low amylose rice flour and binding agents were placed into the pasta mixer and approximately 35 ml water was added slowly. Mixing was done in the mixer for about 10 minutes to properly distribute the water in the flour particles. The dough mixture was then extruded through the die in shell shape and cut to a uniform size with a cutter connected to the die. The pasta produced were dried in a hot air oven at 50 ± 0 °C for 3 hours. The dried pasta were cooled and packed in high-density polyethylene bags until analysis.

**Table 1:** Levels of different binding agents used for the preparation of pasta.

Binding agent	Level %
Xanthan gum	0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 2.5
Vital gluten	2, 4, 6, 8, 10
Pre-gelatinized flour	10, 20, 30, 40, 50

**Determination of product**

**responses Cooking quality**

To find out the minimum cooking time (MCT), 10 grams of the pasta samples were cooked in 100 ml of boiling distilled water. MCT corresponds to the cooking time required for disappearance of the starch central core of the pasta after pressing them between two glass slides. The swelling volume and gruel solid loss were evaluated at MCT in triplicates. Swelling volume was measured by the volume increase of the pasta before and after cooking. Water absorption was measured as the increase in weight of the pasta after cooking and was expressed as percent weight gain with respect to the weight of uncooked pasta. Gruel solid loss was calculated from the remaining solids obtained after drying up of the cooking water in a hot air oven at 100°C (Bonomi et al., 2012).

**Evaluation of overall acceptability**

The cooked pasta was evaluated for sensory analysis by semi-trained panel of 10 judges using 9 points hedonic scale in terms of overall acceptability (Larmond 1977) from like extremely (9) to dislike extremely (1). Five samples were presented at a time to the judges in plates.

**Statistical analysis**

Data related to the cooking quality of the pasta samples prepared with various levels of binding agents were statistically evaluated by analysis of variance using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS Inc., Chicago) software version 20. Tukey’s tests were used to determine the difference among means at the level of 0.05.

**Results and discussions**

Glutinous rice based pasta prepared by mixing low amylose rice flour with various levels of binding agents viz. xanthan gum (0.5-2.5 %), vital gluten (2-6 %) and pre-gelatinized flour (10-50 %) are shown in figure 1.



**Fig.1:Pictureofglutinousricepasta preparedwithdifferentbinders.**

Determination of cooking quality is a basic test in checking the quality of pasta. During cooking, various changes occur in pasta due to the effect of the heat and water uptake which results in starch gelatinization, the formation of protein network, increase in pasta weight and volume and release of soluble organic matters in the cooking water.

Gruel solid loss in cooking water and swelling volume are two crucial factors determining the quality of pasta. Excessive loss of gruel solids in cooking water is undesirable as it indicates high solubilization, low cooking tolerance and sticky mouthfeel. The extent of swelling volume is directly proportional to the water holding capacity. Low swelling volume results in hard coarse pasta while excessive swelling results in soft texture of the pasta.

**Effect of level of Xanthan gum on cooking quality of the pasta**

Supplementation of xanthan gum at different levels (0.5 - 2.5) to pasta formulation does not cause any significant differences in the optimum cooking time as all the pasta samples were cooked within 8 minutes. However, they cause significant differences ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) in water absorption, swelling volume, and cooking losses. With an increase in the level of xanthan gum (0.5 – 2.5), the water absorption and swelling volume increase significantly as shown in table 2. This is due to the hydrophilic nature of gums which resulted in increased hydration properties. Thus enhances water absorption and swelling ability (Yalcin and Basman 2008).

The cooking loss decreased significantly with an increase in the level of xanthan gum. This is due to the fact that xanthan gum acts as a binder thus increasing its toughness, cooked resistance and do not allow leaching of starch particles. It resulted in increased elasticity due to an increase in number of polymers in the system and have a more marked effect than added protein in gluten-free pasta. The best level of xanthan gum addition in rice flour for preparation of pasta was reported to be 2.5% (Larossa et al 2013).

**Table 2: Effect of xanthan gum on the cooking quality of pasta**

Level of xanthan gum (%)	MCT (mins)	Water absorption (%)	Swelling volume (%)	GSL (%)	Overall Acceptability
0.5	8	131.4±3.5c	172.7±8.8d	3.1±.2a	5.83c±0.54
1	8	138.2±6.5bc	180.2±4.1cd	2.8±.3ab	6.64b±0.54
1.5	8	144.7±4.0 abc	186.5±3.1bc	2.4±.2b	7.64a±0.44
2	7.5	149.5±6.6 ab	193.2±5.1ab	1.9±.2c	7.75a±0.29
2.5	7.5	153.3±6.9a	200.6±8.4a	1.8±.3c	7.44a±0.39

**Effect of level of vital gluten on cooking quality of the pasta**

The effect of vital gluten on cooking quality is depicted in table 3. No significant difference was observed in cooking time of pasta supplemented with different levels (2-10) of vital gluten as all the pasta samples were cooked within 7:30 to 8 minutes. Addition of vital gluten seems to have a non-linear effect on the water absorption and swelling volume with an increase in the level of protein as shown in table 3. The water absorption and swelling volume increase up to 4% addition of vital gluten protein but seems to decrease with further increase in protein content. This indicates that the optimum level of gluten to form protein network is about 4%. Larossa et al. (2013) also reported that the optimum level of protein incorporation for the formulation of gluten-free pasta is 4.7%.

Delcours et al (2012) explained the importance of optimally cross-linked proteins which functions as a continuous framework contributing to the structure of the product. During cooking, the starch granules present in pasta absorb water, undergo swelling and gelatinization. At the same time protein components also polymerize into a continuous network. Thus making pasta into a mixed polymer system of starch and protein as main structuring agents. As the cooking proceeds, there is a competition for water binding for the respective processes of protein polymerization and starch swelling. If

there is an inadequate crosslinking of proteins, they form un-associated masses that lack the desired structure thereby forming network which is susceptible to high cooking losses, thus producing a soft and sticky textured pasta (Pagani et al. 1986, Resmini & Pagani 1983). On the other hand, excessive cross-linking of proteins leads to lack of resilience to cope with starch swelling, which is detrimental for the cooking quality of the pasta (Bruneel et al. 2010). Therefore, there should be an optimal degree of cross-linking of gluten proteins rather than maximal cross-linking of the gluten network. Optimum cross-linking of protein network traps the starch granules, and subsequently limits their swelling and leaching into the cooking water, which contributes to the firmness of the cooked pasta (Resmini and Pagani 1983, Vansteelant and Delcour 1998).

The gruel solid loss decreased from a percentage of 2.976 to 1.821 with 2 - 10 % addition of vital gluten. The gluten protein polymerizes to form a dense and continuous network which to some extent encapsulates the starch granules (Bruneel et al. 2010, Zweifel et al. 2003). The protein network does not allow leaching of starch particles in the cooking water which resulted in decrease gruel solid loss. At insufficient gluten concentration, the gluten network lacks compactness and elasticity, this leads to more granular swelling of starch and higher loss of soluble matter into the cooking water. On the other hand, excessive addition of gluten protein resulted in formation of a strong dough with hard texture and cause difficulty in handling and extrusion (Resmini and Pagani 1983). The optimum level of vital gluten required is determined by the quality of proteins in the raw material (Kovacs et al. 2004).

**Table 3** Effect of vital gluten on cooking quality of pasta

Level of vital gluten (%)	MCT	Water absorption (%)	Swelling volume (%)	GSL (%)	Overall Acceptability
2	8	141.4 ± 5.2a	167.1 ± 3.2 a	2.9 ± .2a	5.86c ± 0.34
4	8	142.1 ± 7.9a	168.1 ± 2.4a	2.7 ± .1ab	6.64b ± 0.24
6	8	135.4 ± 6.7 ab	158.2 ± 1.1b	2.5 ± .3b	7.93a ± 0.31
8	8	131.4 ± 8.7 ab	154.3 ± 4.3 b	2.1 ± .1c	7.58 <sup>a</sup> ± 0.20
10	8	123.7 ± 2.2b	147.2 ± 2.7 c	1.8 ± .2c	7.92 <sup>a</sup> ± 0.24

**Effect of level of pre-gelatinized flour on cooking quality of the pasta**

Some variations existed but no clear trend was observed in the cooking quality and hydration properties of pasta supplemented with different levels of pregelatinized flour as shown in table 4. The obtained results are in contrast with most of the studies which utilized pregelatinized starch for improving the quality of gluten-free pasta due to the formation of rigid network based on retrograded starch (Cabrera-Chavez et al., 2012; Marti & Pagani, 2013).

This could only be explained by the nature of starch used to produce pre-gelatinized flour. In contrast to the previously reported investigation that implies the utilization of regular rice flour containing 20-30% of amylose for the preparation of pre-gelatinized flour the present investigation explores the potential of low amylose rice flour for the production of the same.

Amylose is responsible for creating the three-dimensional network based on retrograded starch by forming a strong linkage of starch chains on the junction zones (Mestre et al., 1988).

**Table 4** Effect of pre-gelatinized flour on cooking quality of pasta

Level of pre-gelatinized flour (%)	MCT	Water absorption (%)	Swelling volume (%)	GSL (%)	Overall Acceptability
10	7	110.2 ± 4.1a	144.2 ± 5.9a	3.4 ± .1ab	4.53 <sup>d</sup> ± 0.24
20	7	87.9 ± 16.2ab	130.9 ± 5.3b	3.0 ± .2b	5.78 <sup>c</sup> ± 0.44
30	7	87.3 ± 15.4 ab	128.1 ± 8.3b	3.3 ± .1ab	6.29 <sup>a</sup> ± 0.16
40	7	85.7 ± 14.6b	120.8 ± 7.5b	3.5 ± .3ab	5.44 <sup>b</sup> ± 0.34

50	7	85.1±6.4b	118.2±6.5b	3.6±.3a	5.05 <sup>c</sup> ± 0.33
----	---	-----------	------------	---------	--------------------------

## Conclusion

Development of pasta from non-wheat flours is a major technological challenge due to the absence of network forming gluten protein. Xanthan gum, vital gluten, and pregelatinized flour are binders commonly used in foods. Xanthan gum and vital gluten improved the cooking quality due to lower cooking loss and better firm texture development. The starch in the surface of pasta appears to be held more tightly with the addition of different binders. Cooking loss and texture are major attributes for determining the quality of noodles, it appears that the use of these different binders improves the cooking quality of pasta and plays an important role in overall quality. The use of xanthan gum gave a comparable quality attribute as vital gluten. Therefore, xanthan gum can be used on non-wheat flours to prepare gluten free pasta. On the other hand, pregelatinized flour prepared from low amylose rice does not impart a noteworthy enhancement of the cooking quality and organoleptic profile of the resultant pasta. This is due to the inability of low amylose rice starch to form a network of retrograded starch.

## References

- AACC (2000) *Approved Methods of American Association of Cereal Chemists*, 10th edn. American Association of Cereal Chemists Inc, St. Paul.
- Bonomi F, D'Egidio MG, Iametti S, Marengo M, Marti A, Pagani MA, & Ragg EM. (2012). Structure–quality relationship in commercial pasta: A molecular glimpse. *Food Chemistry* 135(2):348-355.
- Bruneel C, Pareyt B, Brijs K, Delcour JA (2010). The impact of the protein network on the pasting and cooking properties of dry pasta products. *Food Chemistry* 120: 371–78.
- Cabrera-Chavez F, Calderon de la Barca AM, Islas-Rubio AR, Marti A, Marengo M, Pagani MA. (2012). Molecular rearrangements in extrusion processes for the production of amaranth-enriched, gluten-free rice pasta. *LWT- Food Science and Technology* 47(2), 421-426.
- Cai W and Diosady LL. (1993). Model for gelatinization of wheat starch in a twin-screw extruder. *Journal of Food Science* 58:872–875.
- Crosbie GB. (1991). The Relationship between Starch Swelling Properties, Paste Viscosity and Boiled Noodle Quality in Wheat Flours'. *Journal of Cereal Science* 13:145-150.
- Delcour JA, Joye IJ, Pareyt B, Wilderjans E, Brijs K, Lagrain B. (2012). Wheat gluten functionality as a quality determinant in cereal-based food products. *Annu Rev Food Sci Technol* 3:469–92.
- Endo S, Karobe S and Nagao S. (1988). Factors affecting gelatinization properties of starch. *Nippon Shokuhin Kogyo Gakkaishi* 35: 7–14.
- Gallagher E, Gormley TR and Arendt EK. (2004). Recent advances in the formulation of gluten-free cereal-based products. *Trends in Food Science and Technology* 15:143–152.
- Kovacs MIP, Fu BX, Woods SM, Khan K. (2004). Thermal stability of wheat gluten protein: its effect on dough properties and noodle texture. *Journal of Cereal Science* 39:9–19.
- Lamacchia, C, Camarca A, Picascia S, Di Luccia A, and Ginafrani C. (2014). Cereal based gluten free food: How to reconcile nutritional and technological properties of wheat proteins with safety for celiac disease patients. *Nutrients* 6: 575–590.
- Larmond E. (1977). Laboratory methods for sensory evaluation of foods, Publication No. 1637, Department of Agriculture, Ottawa, pp. 17–22.

- Larrosa V, Lorenzo G, Zaritzky N. and Califano A. (2013). Optimization of rheological properties of gluten-free pasta dough using mixture design. *Journal of Cereal Science*, 57(3):520-526.
- Liu, C.-  
Y., Shepherd, K., & Rathjen, A. 1996. Improvement of durum wheat pasta making and bread making qualities. *Cereal Chemistry*, 73(2), 155-166.
- Mariotti M, Iametti S, Cappa C, Rasmussen P and Lucisano M. (2011). Characterisation of gluten-free pasta through conventional and innovative methods: evaluation of the uncooked products. *Journal of Cereal Science* 53 (3):319-327.
- Marti A and Pagani M A. (2013). What can play the role of gluten in gluten free pasta? *Trends in Food Science & Technology* 31(1): 63-71.
- Mestres C, Colonna P and Buleon A. (1988). Characteristics of starch networks within rice flour noodles and mung bean starch vermicelli. *Journal of Food Science* 53:1809-1812.
- Mirhosseini H, Rashid FA, Amid BT, Cheong KW, Kazemi M and Zulkurnain M. (2015). Effect of partial replacement of corn flour with durian seed flour and pumpkin flour on cooking yield, texture properties, and sensory attributes of gluten free pasta. *LWT - Food Science and Technology* 63: 184-190.
- Nagao S. (1996). Processing technology of noodle products in Japan. In J. E. Kruger, R. B. Matsuo, & J. W. Dick (Eds.), *Pasta and noodle technology*. St Paul, MN: American Association of Cereal Chemists pp. 169-194.
- Pagani MA, Gallant DJ, Bouchet B and Resmini P. (1986). Ultrastructure of cooked spaghetti. *Food Microstructure*. 5: 111-129.
- Panozzo JF and McCormick KM. (1993). The rapid viscoanalyser as a method of testing for noodle quality in a wheat breeding programme. *Journal of Cereal Science* 17:25-32.
- Resmini P, Pagani MA. (1983). Ultrastructure studies of pasta. A review. *Food Microstructure* 2: 1-12.
- Sozer N. (2009). Rheological properties of rice pasta dough supplemented with proteins and gums. *Food Hydrocolloid* 23:849-855.
- Vansteelant J, Delcour JA. (1998). Physical behavior of durum wheat starch (*Triticum durum*) during industrial pasta processing. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry* 46:2499-2503.
- Yalcin S, Basman A. (2008). Effect of gelatinization level, gum and transglutaminase on the quality characteristics of rice noodles. *International Journal of Food Science and Technology* 43:1637-1644.
- Zweifel C, Handschin S, Escher F, Conde-Petit B. (2003). Influence of high-temperature drying on structural and textural properties of durum wheat pasta. *Cereal Chemistry*. 80: 159-67.