

2 **Production of functional pasta with low phenylalanine based on potato and**
3 **tapioca starches**

4
5 **Short Title: Pasta for phenylketonuria patients**

6
7 Alireza Rezaei ^a, Mania Salehifar ^{a*}, and Vajiheh Fadaei Noghani ^a

8 ^a Department of Food Science and Technology, Shahr-e-Qods Branch, Islamic Azad University,
9 Tehran, Islamic Republic of Iran.

10 *** Corresponding author; e-mail: salehhifarmania@yahoo.com, Tel/Fax: (+98)2146896000**

11
12 **ABSTRACT**

13 Phenylketonuria (PKU) is a genetic disorder necessitating a low-protein and phenylalanine diet.
14 This study aimed to explore the feasibility of producing a low-protein pasta using potato and
15 tapioca starches. The pasta formulation substituted semolina flour with a blend of potato and
16 tapioca starches. Date kernel fiber and xanthan gum were incorporated as prebiotic compounds
17 and texture enhancers, respectively. Physicochemical (moisture, fat, total ash, protein,
18 phenylalanine, cooking loss, cooking time, color indexes, and hardness) and sensory properties
19 (texture, flavor, color, and overall acceptability) were evaluated and compared against the control
20 sample (based on semolina flour). The results demonstrated no significant alteration in moisture
21 and fat content upon substitution, but a significant decrease in ash and protein content ($p < 0.05$).
22 Consequently, phenylalanine levels decreased from 530.58 mg/100 g in the control sample to
23 24.49-26.60 mg/100 g in the pasta. Replacing flour with starches increased cooking loss, reduced
24 cooking time, and diminished pasta hardness compared to the control ($p < 0.05$). The pasta exhibited
25 higher L^* and lower a^* and b^* values than the control. Sensory evaluation revealed that the pasta
26 containing 35% potato starch and 40% tapioca starch attained the highest scores, indicating its
27 favorable acceptability. Overall, this study suggests that the combination of potato and tapioca
28 starches, along with date kernel fiber and xanthan gum, enables the production of and low-protein
29 pasta suitable for PKU patients.

30 **Keywords:** Date kernel fiber, Low-protein pasta, Phenylketonuria, Potato starch, Tapioca starch.

31 **1. INTRODUCTION**

32 Pasta is one of the most popular and common staple foods in the human diet, with convenient
33 consumption, favorable organoleptic characteristics and high nutritional value. Pasta contains

34 digestible carbohydrate and has little fat. In addition, pasta has low price and its shelf life is long.
35 The main ingredients of pasta formulation are durum wheat flour (semolina) and water (Bresciani,
36 Pagani et al. 2022).

37 Phenylketonuria (PKU) is a genetic disorder caused by the deficiency of the phenylalanine
38 hydroxylase enzyme. This enzyme causes the conversion of phenylalanine to tyrosine, and the
39 lack of this enzyme causes an increase in the accumulation of phenylalanine in the blood and brain
40 (MacDonald, Van Wegberg et al. 2020). PKU can lead to severe neurological problems such as
41 irreversible mental disability if not controlled. The complications of this disease can be prevented
42 by severely limiting protein-containing foods and consuming food products with low
43 phenylalanine content (McWhorter, Ndugga-Kabuye et al. 2022).

44 Pasta cooking quality is influenced by protein content, with gluten being crucial for elasticity and
45 chewability. Gluten-free pastas can be made using an appropriate ratio of proteins, hydrocolloids,
46 and water. Research focuses on developing gluten-free products using non-wheat flours, dairy
47 products, and emulsifiers to improve structure, mouth feel, acceptability, and shelf-life. However,
48 issues include the absence of gluten and achieving acceptable quality without traditional wheat
49 ingredients (Ungureanu-Iuga, Dimian et al. 2020, Gasparre and Rosell 2023). To develop gluten-
50 free pasta, polymer ingredients such as starches and hydrocolloids are needed to imitate the
51 viscoelastic behavior of gluten in the product batter and create a favorable texture, mouth feel and
52 acceptability (Zoghi, Mirmahdi et al. 2021, Zhang, Zhang et al. 2022). Xanthan gum is one of the
53 most widely used hydrocolloids for the development of gluten-free or gluten-reduced products
54 (Palavecino, Bustos et al. 2017). Potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) is an excellent source of
55 carbohydrates and its starch content is about 75-80% based on dry weight (Dupuis and Liu 2019).
56 The unique features of potato starch compared to cereal starches include the longer chain length
57 of amylopectin and amylose, greater granular size and purity, ability to exchange specific cations
58 with an effect on viscosity behavior, presence of phosphate ester groups on amylopectin, and the
59 formation of a strong viscoelastic gel. These unique features determine the sensory attributes and
60 quality of gluten-free pastas (Raj, Dalal et al. 2020). Tapioca or cassava starch is a gluten-free
61 product that has favorable characteristics for application in the food industry. This starch has a
62 high availability and low price, and it controls or changes the characteristics of foods such as
63 appearance, texture, consistency, and storage stability (Reddy, Kimi et al. 2016).

64 The substitution of wheat flour with starch in gluten-free products can reduce fiber and nutrient
65 intake. To enhance the nutritional value of these products, various sources of dietary fiber and
66 nutritional compounds are used, with fruits and vegetables being crucial sources of dietary fiber
67 (Zhang, Dongye et al. 2023). Dietary fibers are among the prebiotic compounds, and are
68 indigestible and have various health benefits, especially the regulation of human intestinal activity.
69 So, recently attention has been directed towards the development of prebiotic products (Abedinia,
70 Alimohammadi et al. 2021). Date fruit belongs to *Arecaceae* family, and is native to tropical and
71 subtropical regions (Hussain, Farooq et al. 2020). Date consist of pulp and kernel, and the kernels
72 make up 5% to 15% of the total weight of fruit. Date kernel is the most important waste of date
73 processing factories, and is rich in fat, protein and dietary fiber (Alharbi, Raman et al. 2021). The
74 functional characteristics of date kernels have been found to consist of 22.5–80.2% dietary fibre,
75 3.1–7.1% moisture, 2.3–6.4% protein, 5.0–13.2 fat, and 0.9–1.8% ash. Due to their high dietary
76 fibre content, date seeds have a significant nutritional value and may be used to manufacture dishes
77 high in fibre and as dietary supplements. Date seeds have a high dietary fibre content since they
78 are generated in huge quantities as a waste product (Samea and Zidan 2019).

79 In this research, for the production of functional pasta with reduced protein and phenylalanine,
80 wheat flour was replaced with different levels of potato (PS) and tapioca starches (TS), and xanthan
81 gum and date kernel fiber (DKF) were used as texture improver and prebiotic agent, respectively,
82 and the effect of starches on the physicochemical properties, cooking quality, sensory
83 characteristics and protein and phenylalanine content of the produced pastas were evaluated.

84

85 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

86 **2.1. MATERIALS**

87 Semolina flour was prepared from Zar Flour of Karaj (Iran). Potato and tapioca starches were
88 also purchased from Stage Company (Iran). Xanthan gum, β -carotene and date kernel fiber were
89 purchased from Provisco Company (Germany), Merck Company (Germany) and Flavinea
90 Company (Iran), respectively. The chemical composition of semolina flour, PS, TS and DKF used
91 in this research was determined using the AACC standard method (AACC 2000) and their values
92 are listed in Table 2. All the chemicals used for the tests were also purchased from Merck
93 (Germany).

94

95

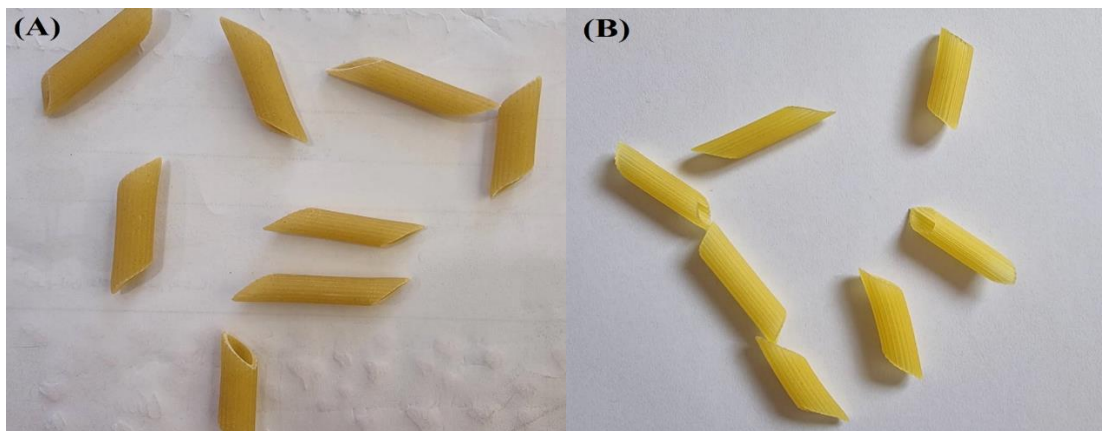
96 2.2. Preparation of pasta treatments

97 The formulation of the control pasta (*penne*) was as follows: 76% semolina flour, 1% DKF,
98 0.015% β -carotene, and 23.985% water. In the formulation of low-protein pastas, the combination
99 of different levels of PS and TS (Table 1) completely replaced semolina flour. Xanthan gum (1%)
100 was used as a texture improver. To prepare pasta treatments, dry ingredients were first mixed
101 together in a mixer (Anselmo, Italy) for 3 min. β -carotene was dissolved in the formulation water
102 and gradually added to the dry ingredients and stirred for 20 min. The resulting mixture was
103 extruded (La Monferrina Model P6, Roma, Italy) has an 8 mm x 3.4 mm cylinder-shaped diameter
104 at 45°C and under pressure of 0.6 mm Hg. During the extrusion process, the temperature of the
105 batter taken out of the mold was subjected to a flow of water at 20°C so that the pasta doesn't stick
106 together and doesn't losses its shape. The produced pastas were collected in a basket and placed
107 in a dryer for 24 h at a variable range of 20-80°C until they were completely dry and their moisture
108 content was less than 12%. After cooling, the produced pastas were packed in polypropylene bags
109 and kept at 18°C. Figure 1 shows the samples prepared for this study.

110 **Table 1.** The formulations of pasta treatments (g/100 g dry basis) with constant amounts of β -
111 Carotene, DKF, semolina flour (0.015, 1, and 75%, respectively) and water (in the amount to form
112 a dough).

Treatments	PS	TS	Xanthan gum
T0 (control)	-	-	-
T1	75	-	1
T2	65	10	1
T3	55	20	1
T4	45	30	1
T5	35	40	1
T6	25	50	1
T7	15	60	1
T8	-	75	1

113 DKF: date kernel fiber, PS: potato starch, TS: tapioca starch.



114 **Figure 1.** Pasta treatments (A) control; (B) pasta containing 35% PS+40% TS.
115

116 **2.3. Analysis of physicochemical properties of pasta**

117 2.3.1. Proximate and physicochemical analysis

118 Moisture, fat, total ash and protein content of pastas were determined using the AOAC standard
119 method (44-16, 30-01, 44-15, and 12-46, respectively) (AACC 2000). The cooking loss values of
120 the **pasta samples** were measured using the Iranian national standard method number 213 by
121 **dividing pastas weight after by before of cooking**. The color analysis of the **raw pastas** was done
122 through three indexes of L* (bright), a* (red/green) and b* (yellow/blue) and using a colorimeter
123 (Hunterlab, America) (Milde, Chigal et al. 2020). The hardness of the cooked pastas was **measured**
124 using a Brookfield CT3 texture analyzer (England) with a cylindrical probe (35 mm) and the test
125 of single compression. Compression up to 80% of the initial thickness of the pasta was done by
126 the device probe at a speed of 1 mm/s, and the force required for this work was reported as N
127 (Piwińska, Wyrwisz et al. 2016).

128

129 2.3.2. Measurement of phenylalanine

130 To measure the phenylalanine content of raw pastas, an HPLC device (Waters, America)
131 equipped with a UV detector and RP-C18 column with particle size of 5 μm , and dimensions of
132 150 mm \times 39 mm was used. Initially, the sample (0.5 g) was mixed with 6 M HCl (8 mL) and after
133 airing, the resulting mixture was hydrolyzed in an oven for 22 h at a temperature of 110 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The
134 obtained hydrolyzates were first centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 min, neutralized by NaOH 3M
135 and then injected into HPLC device in a volume of 20 μL . The mobile phase consisted of a mixture
136 of acetonitrile and phosphate buffer (pH = 3.5) in a ratio of 98 to 2, and its flow rate was set at 0.8
137 mL/min (Yaseen and Shouk 2011).

138

139 **2.4. Sensory evaluation of pasta**

140 The sensory evaluation of the cooked pasta was done using 10 trained panelists and according to
141 the 7-point Hedonic test (7= excellent sample and 1=very bad sample), and the panelists rated the
142 texture, flavor, color and overall acceptability of the pasta treatments. Preparation of pastas for
143 sensory evaluation was done by heating sample (50 g) in boiling water (250 mL) with 2% salt
144 **according to Table 4, for each sample separately and was evaluated by the panelists** (Shogren,
145 Hareland et al. 2006).

146

147

148 2.5. Statistical analysis of data

149 The results of the experiments were analyzed to investigate the significant difference between
150 the data through one-way analysis of variance using SPSS 22.0 software. Duncan's multi-range
151 test was used to compare the mean of the treatments at the 95% probability level.

152 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

154 3.1. Chemical composition of pasta

155 The results of examining the chemical composition of pasta (**Table 3**) showed that the amounts
156 of moisture, ash, fat and protein of pasta treatments were in the range of 10.31-10.83%, 0.61-
157 0.72%, 1.10-1.14%, and 0.94-11.13%, respectively. Substitution of semolina flour in pasta
158 formulation with the combination of starches, DKF and xanthan gum didn't have a significant
159 effect on the moisture and fat content of produced pastas, but significantly reduced the amounts of
160 ash and protein ($p < 0.05$). The **decrease** in the ash content of pasta is probably because the amount
161 of total ash in PS (0.23%) and TS (0.12%) is less than that of semolina flour (0.74%). The lower
162 protein content of PS (0.17%), TS (0.14%) and DKF (2.23%) compared to semolina flour (13.62%)
163 is also the reason for reducing the protein content of pasta with flour replacement. Yaseen and
164 Shouk (Yaseen and Shouk 2011) also reported that due to the lower **ash**, fat and protein content of
165 corn starch compared to semolina flour, increasing the replacement of flour caused a significant
166 decrease in ash, fat and protein content of the pasta. Similarly with these results, Mossadegh et al.
167 (Mossadegh, Tavakoli et al. 2018) and Crizel et al. (Crizel, Rios et al. 2015) observed that the
168 addition of potato fibre and orange fibre to the pasta formulation didn't significantly change the
169 fat content of the samples, however reduced the protein content.

170

171 **Table 2.** The chemical composition of semolina flour, PS, TS and DKF used in this research.

Composition	Semolina flour	PS	TS	DKF
Moisture (%)	11.83 ± 0.37 ^c	12.65 ± 0.19 ^b	13.93 ± 0.22 ^a	6.92 ± 0.16 ^d
Fat (%)	1.16 ± 0.03 ^c	1.28 ± 0.01 ^b	0.41 ± 0.03 ^d	3.14 ± 0.05 ^a
Protein (%)	13.62 ± 0.09 ^a	0.14 ± 0.02 ^c	0.17 ± 0.04 ^c	2.23 ± 0.05 ^b
Carbohydrate (%)	57.80 ± 0.41 ^d	85.52 ± 0.47 ^a	83.44 ± 0.50 ^b	79.94 ± 0.38 ^c
Total ash (%)	0.74 ± 0.03 ^b	0.12 ± 0.02 ^d	0.23 ± 0.02 ^c	1.02 ± 0.05 ^a
Fiber (%)	3.46 ± 0.27 ^b	0.61 ± 0.08 ^c	0.36 ± 0.11 ^d	73.94 ± 0.46 ^a

172 Values represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different letters in each row represent significant difference at 5% level of
173 probability among samples. DKF: date kernel fiber, PS: potato starch, TS: tapioca starch.

174

175

176

177

178

Table 3. Chemical composition of pasta treatments.

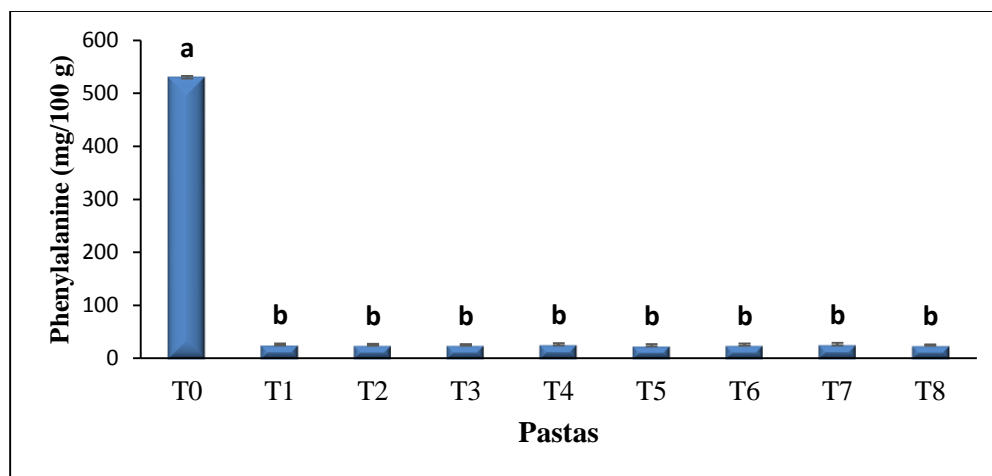
Treatments	Moisture (%)	Fat (%)	Total ash (%)	Protein (%)
T0 (control)	10.31 ± 0.37 ^a	1.10 ± 0.05 ^a	0.72 ± 0.01 ^a	11.13 ± 0.04 ^a
T1	10.83 ± 0.24 ^a	1.13 ± 0.03 ^a	0.64 ± 0.01 ^b	0.95 ± 0.07 ^b
T2	10.82 ± 0.30 ^a	1.12 ± 0.03 ^a	0.66 ± 0.02 ^b	1.01 ± 0.02 ^b
T3	10.81 ± 0.27 ^a	1.10 ± 0.04 ^a	0.62 ± 0.02 ^b	0.97 ± 0.05 ^b
T4	10.74 ± 0.19 ^a	1.14 ± 0.01 ^a	0.64 ± 0.03 ^b	1.00 ± 0.04 ^b
T5	10.62 ± 0.35 ^a	1.13 ± 0.03 ^a	0.64 ± 0.02 ^b	0.95 ± 0.06 ^b
T6	10.63 ± 0.14 ^a	1.13 ± 0.02 ^a	0.61 ± 0.04 ^b	0.94 ± 0.07 ^b
T7	10.60 ± 0.21 ^a	1.14 ± 0.02 ^a	0.63 ± 0.02 ^b	1.04 ± 0.08 ^b
T8	10.68 ± 0.28 ^a	1.12 ± 0.04 ^a	0.64 ± 0.01 ^b	0.99 ± 0.05 ^b

179 Values represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different letters in each column represent significant difference at 5% level of
 180 probability among samples.

181

182 3.2. Phenylalanine content of pasta

183 PKU is a genetic disease caused by the deficiency of the phenylalanine hydroxylase enzyme,
 184 which converts phenylalanine to tyrosine. This disease causes severe neurological complications
 185 including irreversible mental disability (MacDonald, Van Wegberg et al. 2020). Therefore, the
 186 level of protein and phenylalanine in the food of these patients is very vital and important. The
 187 results of the **examination** the phenylalanine content of pasta (Figure 2) showed that the pasta
 188 based on semolina flour (control) had the highest level of phenylalanine (530.58 mg/100 g **dry**
 189 **matter**), and the complete replacement of wheat flour in the pasta formulation with different levels
 190 of PS and TS caused a significant decrease in the amount of phenylalanine in the produced low-
 191 protein pastas (p<0.05). However, there was no significant difference between the phenylalanine
 192 content of different pasta treatments containing starches, and the phenylalanine content of these
 193 treatments were in the range of 24.49-26.60 mg/100 g **dry matter**. The lower phenylalanine content
 194 of the pasta compared to the control sample is due to the much lower protein content of PS and TS
 195 compared to semolina flour. In this regard, Özboy (2002) stated that the starches contain very low
 196 amounts of protein and phenylalanine and are therefore suitable for developing bakery products
 197 for PKU patients. Yaseen et al. (Yaseen, Abd-El-Hafeez et al. 2011) reported that with the increase
 198 of corn starch level in Egyptian bread formulation, the phenylalanine content of the samples
 199 significantly decreased. Aghadadashzadeh Eslahi & Shams (Aghadadashzadeh Eslahi and Shams
 200 2019) also showed in agreement with the results of this research that with the increase in the
 201 replacement level of modified corn and tapioca starch in toast breads, their phenylalanine content
 202 decreased significantly.



203
 204 **Figure 2.** Phenylalanine content (mg/100 g) of pastas. Bars represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different
 205 letters on the bars indicate significant difference at 5% level of probability among samples.
 206

207 3.3. Cooking loss of pastas

208 The cooking process is a key process in determining the desired quality of pasta. During the
 209 cooking process of pasta and as a result of the application of heat and water absorption, various
 210 reactions occur, including starch gelatinization, protein swelling, and increase in volume and
 211 weight of pasta. Cooking loss indicates the exit of solid materials during the pasta cooking process
 212 and is a main indicator that is widely used to show the overall performance of the cooking, and
 213 indicates the resistance to decomposition during pasta cooking (Larrosa, Lorenzo et al. 2016).
 214 During cooking, less solids are extracted from the pasta, the higher the quality of the cooked pasta
 215 (Del Nobile, Baiano et al. 2005). The cooking loss values of the pastas were measured and the
 216 results are given in Table 4. The pasta based on semolina flour (control) had the lowest amount of
 217 cooking loss, and the replacement of flour with the combination of PS and TS caused a significant
 218 increase in the cooking loss percentage of the low-protein and pastas (p<0.05). However, there
 219 was no statistically significant difference between the cooking loss values of the pastas containing
 220 starches, and the cooking loss values of these treatments were in the range of 8.10-8.59%. The
 221 research has shown that flours with low protein and gluten-free have higher water absorption and
 222 more cooking loss due to the absence of gluten network, because gluten reduces the absorption of
 223 water by starch granules and prevents their leakage by preserving various compounds such as
 224 gelatinized starches, carbohydrates and proteins (Yahyavi, Kamali Roustae et al. 2020). Hosseini
 225 and Ardestani (Hosseini and Ardestani 2015) found protein reduction to be related to increase
 226 cooking loss of pasta with protein removal. Overall, in gluten-free pasta, starch polymers are

227 effectively trapped in the matrix due to the absence of gluten, and the cooking loss of these
228 products is higher compared to conventional pasta (Marti and Pagani 2013, Cui, Zhao et al. 2020).
229 The maximum acceptable limit for pasta cooking loss is 10%, and cooking loss values less than
230 10% indicate good pasta quality (Bouasla, Wójtowicz et al. 2017). Since the cooking loss values
231 of all pastas produced in this research were less than 10%, so these treatments had good quality.
232 Hydrocolloids such as xanthan gum help create a stronger network in gluten-free products, which
233 traps starch granules and reduces cooking loss (Milde, Chigal et al. 2020). In the present study,
234 due to the use of xanthan gum in the pasta formulations as a texture improver, **part** of the increased
235 cooking loss due to the replacement of semolina flour with starches was compensated. Yaseen and
236 Shouk (Yaseen and Shouk 2011) reported that the cooking loss of control pasta was 10.6%, and
237 with the increase in the replacement of wheat flour with corn starch in the **pastas**, the cooking loss
238 increased and at the level of 70% replacement, the cooking loss reached 22.0%. Tao et al. (Tao,
239 Wang et al. 2020) also found that with the increase in the level of potato starch from 5% to 30%
240 in the noodle formulation, the cooking loss of the noodles increased.

241

242 **3.4. Cooking time of pastas**

243 During the cooking process of pasta in water, water absorption and starch granules gelatinization
244 occurs. As a result of applying heat, the gluten is denatured at the same time as starch is gelatinized.
245 However, gluten still **retains** a part of its water absorption ability (Palavecino, Bustos et al. 2017).
246 The best and most appropriate cooking time is when a large number of starch granules have
247 become gelatinized. The presence of gluten increases the cooking time of pastas by affecting the
248 temperature of starch gelatinization (Hosseini and Ardestani 2015). Cooking time is generally a
249 test that indicates the time required to cook pastas in boiling water and ready to eat (Milde, Chigal
250 et al. 2020). The results of examining the cooking time of pasta (Table 4) showed that pasta based
251 on semolina flour (control) had the longest cooking time (10.21 min), and the replacement of flour
252 with the combination of PS and TS led to a significant reduction in the cooking time of low-protein
253 pastas ($p < 0.05$). By increasing the percentage of PS in the formulation, a decrease in the cooking
254 time of the pasta was observed ($p < 0.05$). The lowest cooking time was for the treatment containing
255 75% PS (7.93 min), but there was no significant difference between this treatment and the pasta
256 containing 65% PS+10% TS (8.04 min). The most effective factor in the effect of starches on the
257 pasta cooking time is the pasting temperature, and starches with a higher pasting temperature have

258 a higher resistance to the swelling and breaking of starch granules and increase the cooking time
 259 (Sonia et al., 2019). The research has shown that the pasting temperature of PS (67.9 °C) is lower
 260 than that of TS (71.6 °C) (Park, Kim et al. 2009, Sharma, Oberoi et al. 2009). Therefore, with the
 261 increase of PS in pasta formulation, a greater decrease in the cooking time of the produced pastas
 262 was observed. Adding hydrocolloids can increase the cooking time of pasta because hydrocolloids
 263 limit the moisture content of the product and delay the swelling of starch granules (Kaur, Singh et
 264 al. 2002). Sonia et al. (Sonia, Julianti et al. 2019) observed that adding xanthan gum increased the
 265 cooking time of gluten-free pasta. Chillo et al. (Chillo, Laverse et al. 2007) reported that the
 266 addition of pre-gelatinized corn starch and CMC to spaghetti reduced the cooking time by 3.5
 267 times in samples based on amaranth flour compared to samples based on semolina flour. In this
 268 research, the reduction of cooking time was attributed to the absence of gluten in **pastas** without
 269 wheat flour. In fact, it seems that the absence of the gluten network facilitates the diffusion of
 270 water through the product matrix and reduces the time required for water to reach the center of the
 271 product during the cooking process.

272 **Table 4.** Cooking loss and cooking time of pasta treatments.

Treatments	Cooking loss (%)	Cooking time (min)
T0 (control)	6.78 ± 0.40 ^b	10.21 ± 0.14 ^a
T1	8.59 ± 0.29 ^a	7.93 ± 0.09 ^f
T2	8.47 ± 0.38 ^a	8.04 ± 0.13 ^{ef}
T3	8.41 ± 0.26 ^a	8.25 ± 0.17 ^{de}
T4	8.23 ± 0.41 ^a	8.29 ± 0.10 ^d
T5	8.10 ± 0.24 ^a	8.35 ± 0.14 ^{cd}
T6	8.19 ± 0.31 ^a	8.40 ± 0.16 ^{cd}
T7	8.29 ± 0.46 ^a	8.56 ± 0.10 ^{bc}
T8	8.24 ± 0.33 ^a	8.70 ± 0.07 ^b

273 Values represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different letters in each column represent significant difference at 5% level of
 274 probability among samples.

275 3.5. Color of pasta

276
 277 The color of pasta is one of the important parameters in product quality evaluation. Color is a
 278 quality factor that affects consumer acceptance and product selection in the sale market (Xiong,
 279 Chen et al. 2022). The color of **raw** pastas was determined using Hunterlab device and the results
 280 are presented in Table 5. The control pasta had the lowest L* (68.38) and the highest a* (3.56) and
 281 b* (25.82), the color of low-protein and pasta containing PS and TS was brighter than the control
 282 sample and less **red and yellow**. However, there was no statistically significant difference between
 283 the color indexes of **pastas** containing starches, and the L*, a* and b* values of these pasta **samples**
 284 were in the range of 73.71-74.49, 0.76-0.86, and 20.30-20.79, respectively. The white color of PS

285 and TS is the reason for the increase in brightness of the color of gluten-free pastas compared to
 286 the control. DKF also has a relatively white color. The researchers suggested that the ideal values
 287 for the brightness index of the pasta color are greater than 60, and values less than 50 indicate the
 288 overall darkness of the pasta (Luo, Wang et al. 2020). In agreement with the results of the present
 289 study, Yaseen and Shouk (2011) also reported the lightening of the color of pasta with different
 290 levels of corn starch compared to the control, and in their research, the intensity of redness and
 291 yellowness of pasta containing corn starch was less than the control. The effect of xanthan gum in
 292 brightening and yellowing the color of gluten-free pasta was also observed in the research of Milde,
 293 Chigal et al. (2020).

294 **Table 5.** Color indexes of **raw pasta** treatments.

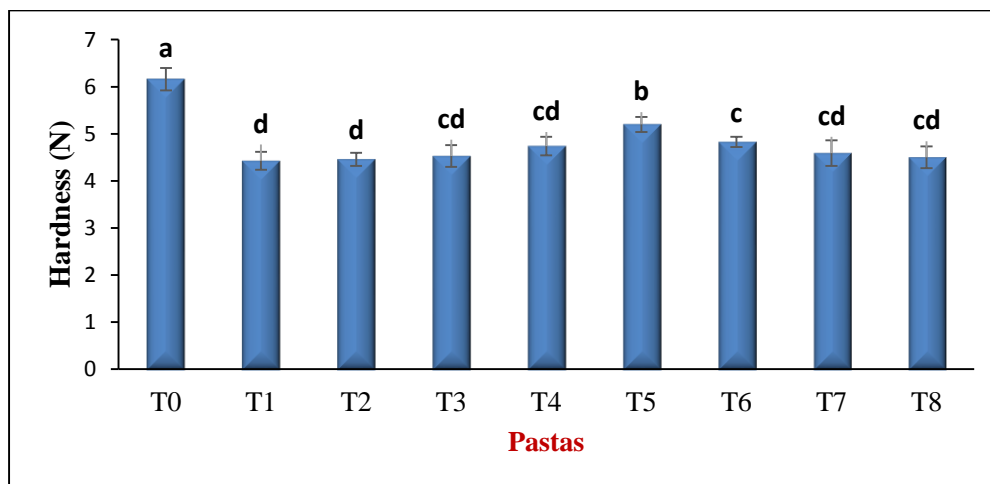
Treatments	L*	a*	b*
T0 (control)	68.38 ± 0.57 ^b	3.56 ± 0.13 ^a	25.82 ± 0.19 ^a
T1	74.49 ± 0.47 ^a	0.78 ± 0.04 ^b	20.46 ± 0.30 ^b
T2	74.17 ± 0.55 ^a	0.81 ± 0.11 ^b	20.56 ± 0.24 ^b
T3	74.22 ± 0.51 ^a	0.84 ± 0.08 ^b	20.41 ± 0.27 ^b
T4	73.96 ± 0.62 ^a	0.83 ± 0.05 ^b	20.79 ± 0.32 ^b
T5	73.71 ± 0.38 ^a	0.86 ± 0.09 ^b	20.75 ± 0.17 ^b
T6	74.04 ± 0.49 ^a	0.80 ± 0.07 ^b	20.47 ± 0.23 ^b
T7	73.85 ± 0.56 ^a	0.76 ± 0.13 ^b	20.59 ± 0.29 ^b
T8	73.96 ± 0.44 ^a	0.79 ± 0.05 ^b	20.30 ± 0.34 ^b

295 Values represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different letters in each column represent significant difference at 5% level of
 296 probability among samples.

298 3.5. Hardness of pasta

299 **Pasta's texture qualities are a crucial factor in determining whether or not customers will**
 300 **ultimately accept the product**, and it is mainly considered as the most important qualitative aspect
 301 of cooked pasta. **In terms of customers' perspectives**, high water absorption capacity, low cooking
 302 loss and favorable texture (high hardness and low viscosity) can be considered as high cooking
 303 quality (Luo, Wang et al. 2020, Zhang, Yu et al. 2023). The hardness of the **pastas were** examined
 304 using a texture analyzer, and the results are shown in Figure 3. The control sample had the highest
 305 hardness (6.16 N), and the hardness of low-protein and **cooked pastas** were significantly lower
 306 than the control (p<0.05). Among the different low-protein pastas, the treatment containing 35%
 307 PS+40% TS had the highest hardness. Overall, the hardness values of the **pastas** containing
 308 starches were in the range of 4.43-5.20 N. The gluten present in wheat flour creates a strong
 309 network in the **dough** and therefore the texture of the product containing gluten is desirable. So,
 310 by removing gluten from the pasta formulation, the texture of the final product becomes more
 311 fragile and its strength and hardness decrease (Yahyavi, Kamali Roustae et al. 2020). Hydrocolloids

312 are one of the most important additives used to improve the quality of gluten-free products, and
 313 due to their gelling properties, they have a positive effect on the texture of gluten-free pasta and
 314 improve the hardness of the texture (Chauhan, Saxena et al. 2017). In the present study, xanthan
 315 gum was used to compensate for some of the textural changes due to the removal of semolina flour
 316 and gluten. Jung and Yoon (Jung and Yoon 2017) also reported that the hardness of pastas
 317 containing different levels of buckwheat, acorn and mung bean starches was lower than the control
 318 pasta. Milde et al. (Milde, Chigal et al. 2020) also showed the improvement of the hardness and
 319 strength of gluten-free **pastas** based on corn flour and cassava starch due to the addition of xanthan
 320 gum. These researchers stated that the hydrophilic compounds of hydrocolloids react with proteins
 321 through ionic charges and improve the structure of pasta. Yaseen and Shouk (Yaseen and Shouk
 322 2011, Wang, Guo et al. 2022) found that incorporating high levels of corn starch into a low-protein
 323 pasta formulation resulted in a brittle batter prone to breakage.

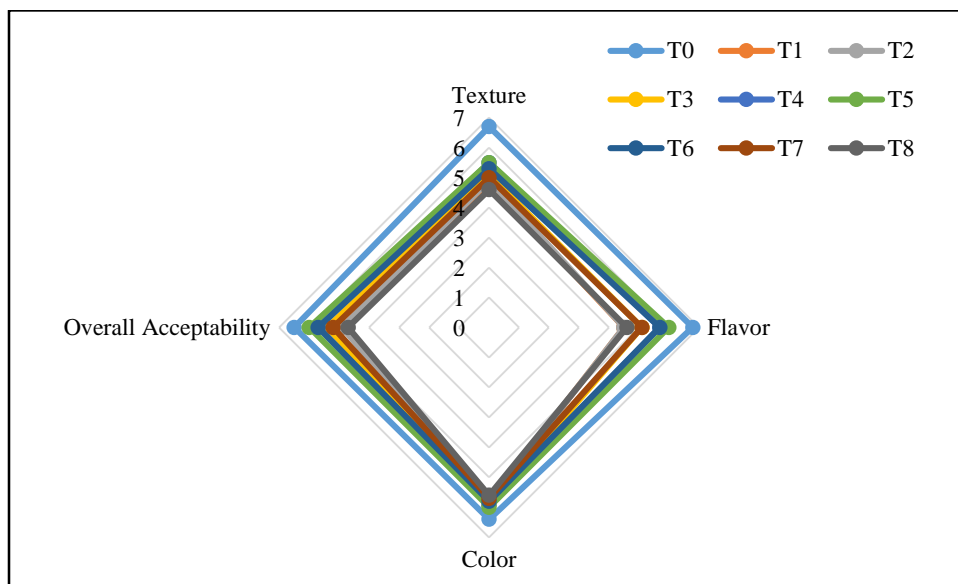


324
 325 **Figure 3.** Hardness values (N) of **pastas**. Bars represent mean (n=3) ± SD. Different letters on the
 326 bars indicate significant difference at 5% level of probability among samples.
 327

328 3.6. Sensory evaluation of pastas

329 The sensory characteristics of **cooked pastas**, including texture, flavor, color and overall
 330 acceptability, were evaluated using a 7-points Hedonic scales, and the results are shown in Figure
 331 4. The control sample got the highest sensory scores, because this sample is the common and
 332 commercial sample available in the market and its sensory characteristics are liked by consumers.
 333 Substitution of semolina flour in the formulation of gluten-free pastas with the combination of PS
 334 and TS caused a **decrease** in texture, flavor, color and overall acceptability scores of the produced
 335 pasta compared to the control (p<0.05). In terms of texture, flavor and overall acceptability, except

336 for the treatments containing 75% PS, 75% TS and the combination of 65% PS+10% TS, which
 337 received an average score, the other treatments had scored in the good to very good range. Despite
 338 the decrease in the color score of the pastas compared to the control, **according** to the results, the
 339 light color created in the pastas due to the replacement of wheat flour with the combination of PS
 340 and TS was desirable and acceptable to consumers. Among the different pastas, the pasta
 341 containing 35% PS+40% TS got the best overall acceptance score (6.00), and it was the best
 342 treatment in terms of sensory. Yaseen and Shouk (Yaseen and Shouk 2011) observed that by
 343 increasing the level of corn starch in the low protein pasta formulation, the sensory scores of the
 344 samples **decreased**, however, the substitution of corn starch up to 60% was sensory acceptable.
 345 Tao et al. (Tao, Wang et al. 2020) investigated the effect of different levels of PS on the sensory
 346 properties of noodles and reported that noodles containing PS had high and favorable sensory
 347 scores.



348
 349 **Figure 4.** Sensory characteristics of **cooked** pasta.
 350

351 4. CONCLUSIONS

352 The results of this research showed that replacing semolina flour with the combination of PS and
 353 TS significantly reduced the ash, protein and phenylalanine content of the pastas. The cooking
 354 properties of pastas was also affected by the substitution of wheat flour with the combination of
 355 starches, so that the cooking loss of low-protein pastas **were** higher than the control sample, but
 356 they have less cooking time. Increasing the level of PS in the formulation also caused a further
 357 decrease in cooking time. The color of low-protein and pastas was lighter than the control, but

358 their redness and yellowness was less. The replacement of wheat flour with the starches also made
359 the texture of the pastas softer compared to control. The results of this study indicated that by using
360 the combination of PS and TS instead of semolina flour, as well as xanthan gum and DKF, pasta
361 with low phenylalanine can be produced for patients with PKU, and the produced pastas are also
362 suitable and usable for celiac patients because they don't contain gluten. The best treatment in this
363 research was the pasta containing 35% PS+40% TS, which had the best texture and the highest
364 sensory scores.

365

366 REFERENCES

367 AACC (2000). "Approved Methods of the AACC American Association of Cereal Chemists, St
368 Paul, Minnesota, Method, 72-10." (1).

369 Abedinia, A., F. Alimohammadi, F. Teymori, N. Razgardani, M. R. Saeidi Asl, F. Ariffin, A.
370 Mohammadi Nafchi, N. Huda and J. Roslan (2021). "Characterization and cell viability of
371 probiotic/prebiotics film based on duck feet gelatin: a novel poultry gelatin as a suitable matrix for
372 probiotics." [Foods](#) **10**(8): 1761.

373 Aghadadashzadeh Eslahi, N. and A. Shams (2019). "Possibility of production of low protein toast
374 bread (with low phenylalanine) using modified corn and tapioca starches using of formulation
375 method." Thesis for MS.C degree in food industry science and engineering, Azad University,
376 Medicinal Science Branch.

377 Alharbi, K. L., J. Raman and H.-J. Shin (2021). "Date fruit and seed in nutricosmetics." [Cosmetics](#)
378 **8**(3): 59.

379 Bouasla, A., A. Wójtowicz and M. N. Zidoune (2017). "Gluten-free precooked rice pasta enriched
380 with legumes flours: Physical properties, texture, sensory attributes and microstructure." [Lwt](#) **75**:
381 569-577.

382 Bresciani, A., M. A. Pagani and A. Marti (2022). "Pasta-making process: a narrative review on the
383 relation between process variables and pasta quality." [Foods](#) **11**(3): 256.

384 Chauhan, A., D. Saxena and S. Singh (2017). "Effect of hydrocolloids on microstructure, texture
385 and quality characteristics of gluten-free pasta." [J. Food Meas. Charact.](#) **11**: 1188-1195.

386 Chillo, S., J. Laverse, P. Falcone and M. A. Del Nobile (2007). "Effect of carboxymethylcellulose
387 and pregelatinized corn starch on the quality of amaranthus spaghetti." [J. Food Eng.](#) **83**(4): 492-
388 500.

389 Crizel, T. d. M., A. d. O. Rios, R. C. S. Thys and S. H. Flôres (2015). "Effects of orange by-product
390 fiber incorporation on the functional and technological properties of pasta." [Food Sci. Technol.](#)
391 **35**: 546-551.

392 Cui, G., K. Zhao, K. You, Z. Gao, T. Kakuchi, B. Feng and Q. Duan (2020). "Synthesis and
393 characterization of phenylboronic acid-containing polymer for glucose-triggered drug delivery+."
394 [Sci. Technol. Adv. Matr.](#) **21**(1): 1-10.

395 Del Nobile, M. A., A. Baiano, A. Conte and G. Mocci (2005). "Influence of protein content on
396 spaghetti cooking quality." [J. Cer. Sci.](#) **41**(3): 347-356.

397 Dupuis, J. H. and Q. Liu (2019). "Potato starch: A review of physicochemical, functional and
398 nutritional properties." [A. J. Pot. Res.](#) **96**(2): 127-138.

399 Gasparre, N. and C. M. Rosell (2023). "Wheat gluten: A functional protein still challenging to
400 replace in gluten-free cereal-based foods." [Cer. Chem.](#) **100**(2): 243-255.

401 Hosseini, S. E. and F. Ardestani (2015). "Improvement of qualitative, rheological and sensory
402 properties of spaghetti produced from wheat flour by using gluten." [Inno. Food Technol.](#) **3**(1): 59-
403 67.

404 Hussain, M. I., M. Farooq and Q. A. Syed (2020). "Nutritional and biological characteristics of the
405 date palm fruit (*Phoenix dactylifera* L.)—A review." [Food Biosci.](#) **34**: 100509.

406 Jung, J. H. and H. H. Yoon (2017). "Textural properties of gluten-free rice pasta prepared
407 employing various starches." [K. J. Food cook. Sci.](#) **33**(1): 28-36.

408 Kaur, L., N. Singh and N. S. Sodhi (2002). "Some properties of potatoes and their starches II.
409 Morphological, thermal and rheological properties of starches." [Food Chem](#) **79**(2): 183-192.

410 Larrosa, V., G. Lorenzo, N. Zaritzky and A. Califano (2016). "Improvement of the texture and
411 quality of cooked gluten-free pasta." [LWT](#) **70**: 96-103.

412 Luo, Y., Q. Wang and Y. Zhang (2020). "Biopolymer-based nanotechnology approaches to deliver
413 bioactive compounds for food applications: A perspective on the past, present, and future." [J. Agri.](#)
414 [Food Chem.](#) **68**(46): 12993-13000.

415 MacDonald, A., A. Van Wegberg, K. Ahring, S. Beblo, A. Bélanger-Quintana, A. Burlina, J.
416 Campistol, T. Coşkun, F. Feillet and M. Gizewska (2020). "PKU dietary handbook to accompany
417 PKU guidelines." [Orp. J. R. Dise.](#) **15**(1): 1-21.

418 Marti, A. and M. A. Pagani (2013). "What can play the role of gluten in gluten free pasta?" [Trends](#)
419 [Food Sci.](#) **31**(1): 63-71.

420 McWhorter, N., M. K. Ndugga-Kabuye, M. Puurunen and S. L. Ernst (2022). "Complications of
421 the Low Phenylalanine Diet for Patients with Phenylketonuria and the Benefits of Increased
422 Natural Protein." [Nutri.](#) **14**(23): 4960.

423 Milde, L. B., P. S. Chigal, J. E. Olivera and K. G. González (2020). "Incorporation of xanthan gum
424 to gluten-free pasta with cassava starch. Physical, textural and sensory attributes." [LWT](#) **131**:
425 109674.

426 Mossadegh, Y., M. Tavakoli, L. Kamali Roosta, Z. Khoshkho and M. Soltani (2018). "Production
427 of pasta enriched with potato fiber and Donalilla salina algae powder and its physical, chemical
428 and sensory properties." [Food Sci. Ind.](#) **90**(16): 87-99.

429 Palavecino, P. M., M. C. Bustos, M. B. Heinzmann Alabí, M. S. Nicolazzi, M. C. Penci and P. D.
430 Ribotta (2017). "Effect of ingredients on the quality of gluten-free sorghum pasta." [J. Food Sci.](#)
431 **82**(9): 2085-2093.

432 Park, E. Y., H. N. Kim, J. Y. Kim and S. T. Lim (2009). "Pasting properties of potato starch and
433 waxy maize starch mixtures." [Starch-Stärke](#) **61**(6): 352-357.

434 Piwińska, M., J. Wyrwicz, M. A. Kurek and A. Wierzbicka (2016). "Effect of drying methods on
435 the physical properties of durum wheat pasta." [CyTA-J. Food](#) **14**(4): 523-528.

436 Raj, N., N. Dalal, V. Bisht and U. Dhakar (2020). "Potato starch: novel ingredient for food
437 industry." [Int. J. Cur. Micro.Appl. Sci.](#) **9**(1): 1718-1724.

438 Reddy, C. K., L. Kimi and S. Haripriya (2016). "Variety difference in molecular structure,
439 functional properties, phytochemical content and antioxidant capacity of pigmented rice." [J. Food](#)
440 [Meas. Charact](#) **10**: 605-613.

441 Samea, R. R. A. and N. S. Zidan (2019). "Nutritional and sensory evaluation of biscuit prepared
442 using palm date kernels and olive seeds powders." [J. Sp. Educ. Technol](#) **14**: 322-339.

443 Sharma, R., D. Oberoi, D. Sogi and B. Gill (2009). "Effect of sugar and gums on the pasting
444 properties of cassava starch." [J. Food Proc. Pres.](#) **33**(3): 401-414.

445 Shogren, R., G. Hareland and Y. Wu (2006). "Sensory evaluation and composition of spaghetti
446 fortified with soy flour." [J. Food Sci.](#) **71**(6): S428-S432.

447 Sonia, S., E. Julianti and R. Ridwansyah (2019). "The characteristic of Taro flour based pasta with
448 addition of modified starch and hydrocolloids." [Ind. Food Nutr. Prog.](#) **16**(1): 27-35.

449 Tao, C., K. Wang, X. Liu and E. Gou (2020). "Effects of potato starch on the properties of wheat
450 dough and the quality of fresh noodles." [CyTA-J. Food](#) **18**(1): 427-434.

451 Ungureanu-Iuga, M., M. Dimian and S. Mironeasa (2020). "Development and quality evaluation
452 of gluten-free pasta with grape peels and whey powders." [LWT](#) **130**: 109714.

453 Wang, Q., Q. Guo, W. Niu, L. Wu, W. Gong, S. Yan, K. Nishinari and M. Zhao (2022). "The pH-
454 responsive phase separation of type-A gelatin and dextran characterized with static multiple light
455 scattering (S-MLS)." [Food Hydro.](#) **127**: 107503.

456 Xiong, J., F. Chen, J. Zhang, W. Ao, X. Zhou, H. Yang, Z. Wu, L. Wu, C. Wang and Y. Qiu
457 (2022). "Occurrence of aflatoxin M1 in three types of milk from Xinjiang, China, and the risk of
458 exposure for milk consumers in different age-sex groups." [Foods](#) **11**(23): 3922.

459 Yahyavi, M., L. Kamali Roustae, M. H. Azizi and M. Amini (2020). "Evaluation of the Effect and
460 Comparison of Die type, Flour type and Drying Temperature on Technological Characteristics and
461 Quality of Pasta." [J. Food Sci. Technol. \(IRN\)](#) **17**(102): 103-115.

462 Yaseen, A. and A. E. H. Shouk (2011). "Low phenylalanine pasta." [Int. J. Nutr. Metabol.](#) **3**(10):
463 128-135.

464 Yaseen, A. A., A. Abd-El-Hafeez and A. Shouk (2011). "Low phenylalanine Egyptian shamy
465 bread." [Pol. J. Food Nutr. Sci.](#) **61**(4).

466 Zhang, S., Z. Dongye, L. Wang, Z. Li, M. Kang, Y. Qian, X. Cheng, Y. Ren and C. Chen (2023).
467 "Influence of environmental pH on the interaction properties of WP-EGCG non-covalent
468 nanocomplexes." [J. Sci. Food Agr.](#) **103**(11): 5364-5375.

469 Zhang, T., S. Yu, Y. Pan, H. Li, X. Liu and J. Cao (2023). "Properties of texturized protein and
470 performance of different protein sources in the extrusion process: A review." [Food Res. Int.:](#)
471 113588.

472 Zhang, Y., S. Zhang, X. Yang, W. Wang, X. Liu, H. Wang and H. Zhang (2022). "Enhancing the
473 fermentation performance of frozen dough by ultrasonication: Effect of starch hierarchical
474 structures." [J. Cer. Sci.](#) **106**: 103500.

475 Zoghi, A., R. S. Mirmahdi and M. Mohammadi (2021). "The role of hydrocolloids in the
476 development of gluten-free cereal-based products for coeliac patients: a review." [Int. J. Food Sci.](#)
477 [Technol.](#) **56**(7): 3138-3147.

478
479
480
481

482

تولید پاستای عملگرا با فنیل آلانین کم بر پایه نشاسته سیب زمینی و تاپیوکا

483

484

علیرضا رضایی، مانیا صالحی فر، و وجیه فدایی نوغانی

485

چکیده

486 فنیل کتونوری (PKU) یک اختلال ژنتیکی است که نیاز به رژیم غذایی کم پروتئین و فنیل آلانین دارد. این مطالعه با هدف
487 بررسی امکان سنجی تولید پاستای عملگرا کم پروتئین با استفاده از نشاسته سیب زمینی و تاپیوکا انجام شد. در فرمول
488 پاستا، آرد سمولینا با مخلوطی از نشاسته سیب زمینی و تاپیوکا جایگزین شد. فیبر هسته خرما و صمغ زانتان به ترتیب به
489 عنوان ترکیبات پری بیوتیک و تقویت کننده بافت ترکیب شدند. خواص فیزیکیوشیمیایی (رطوبت، چربی، خاکستر کل،
490 پروتئین، فنیل آلانین، از دست دادن پخت، زمان پخت، شاخص های رنگ و سختی) و ویژگی های حسی (بافت، طعم، رنگ
491 و مقبولیت کلی) با نمونه کنترل (بر اساس آرد سمولینا) مقایسه شدند. نتایج نشان داد که تغییر معنی داری در رطوبت و
492 محتوای چربی پس از جایگزینی مشاهده نشد، اما کاهش معنی داری در محتوای خاکستر و پروتئین مشاهده شد ($p < 0/05$).
493 در نتیجه، سطح فنیل آلانین از 530.58 میلی گرم در 100 گرم در نمونه شاهد به 26.60-24.49 میلی گرم در 100 گرم در
494 پاستا عملگرا کاهش یافت. جایگزینی آرد با نشاسته باعث افزایش تلفات پخت، کاهش زمان پخت و کاهش سختی پاستا
495 نسبت به شاهد شد ($p < 0/05$). پاستا حاصله L^* بالاتر و مقادیر a^* و b^* کمتری نسبت به شاهد نشان داد. ارزیابی حسی
496 نشان داد که پاستا حاوی 35 درصد نشاسته سیب زمینی و 40 درصد نشاسته تاپیوکا بالاترین امتیاز را به دست آورد که
497 نشان دهنده مقبولیت آن است. به طور کلی، این مطالعه نشان می دهد که ترکیب نشاسته سیب زمینی و تاپیوکا، همراه با
498 فیبر هسته خرما و صمغ زانتان، تولید پاستا عملگرا و کم پروتئین مناسب برای بیماران PKU را امکان پذیر می کند.
499

500

501