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1 **A comparative study of gluten-free sprouts in the gluten-free**  
2 **breadmaking process**

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20 **Abstract**

21 The addition of sprouted grains and seeds to cereal products has been identified as one of the upcoming  
22 trends in recent market reports. In this study, seven types of sprouts (amaranth, brown millet, corn, lentil,  
23 lupin, pea, quinoa) were milled and characterised with respect to their compositional (starch, protein, fat, ash,  
24 fibre, moisture) and functional properties (water hydration properties). These sprouted flours were included  
25 in a gluten-free bread formulation at a level of 5% and the impact on dough (temperature-dependent rising  
26 behaviour, pasting and rheological properties) and bread quality parameters (volume, crumb structure and  
27 texture) was evaluated. Factors such as the method of germination and the botanical origin influenced the  
28 chemical composition of the applied raw material. The functional properties of the different malts and  
29 sprouts are affected by the chemical composition of the individual grains. The differences in functional  
30 properties were, in turn, found to affect the dough properties and the quality parameters of the baked gluten-  
31 free breads. However, statistical analysis showed no correlation between the various factors. Based on this,  
32 effects on dough and bread properties were hypothesised to be caused by a combination of multiple factors.  
33 All bread formulations containing sprouted flour had significantly improved bread quality parameters in  
34 comparison to the control (without sprouted flour). The addition of amaranth sprouted flour, however,  
35 resulted in the highest loaf volume and the softest breadcrumb, suggesting its potential for further  
36 investigations in further studies.

## 37 1. Introduction

38 The inclusion of sprouted grain into cereal products, for their claimed health benefits, has been named  
39 as one of the major trends by recent market reports [1]. Until recently the process of germination has  
40 been mainly used to produce fermentable extracts for brewing and distilling purposes. Today, however,  
41 it is also considered as a tool for the production of ingredients with an enhanced nutritional profile and  
42 health-promoting compounds [2]. Thus, sprouted grains and seeds have been promoted in recent  
43 literature for the improvement of the nutritional aspects of gluten-free bakery products, in particular  
44 breads [3, 4].

45 Gluten-free bread is one of the most consumed gluten-free goods by people who suffer from coeliac  
46 disease (CD), one of the most common food intolerances. The prevalence of CD is increasing and affects  
47 approximately 1% of the world population. The disease is triggered, in susceptible individuals, by the  
48 ingestion of gluten [5]. However, CD is not the only disease which is caused by gluten. Under the  
49 umbrella term “gluten-related disorders” many more diseases are found, which increases the number of  
50 people who must follow a gluten-free diet as part of a treatment [6]. Despite increasing research  
51 interest and the consequent improvement of gluten-free bread quality over the past number of  
52 decades, consumers remain unsatisfied with the quality. Gluten-free breads are still lacking in techno-  
53 functional properties and nutritional value [6].

54 Literature in the application and effects of sprouts on gluten-free bread quality is scarce. Nevertheless,  
55 published research has shown positive effects of malted oat and quinoa [7], malted sorghum [8] and  
56 germinated brown rice [9, 10] on gluten-free bread properties. The application of malted oats was  
57 reported to improve the volume, crumb structure and texture of gluten-free bread; however, quinoa  
58 malt was found to only add to the flavour and nutritional properties [7]. Sorghum malt was shown to  
59 reduce crumb hardness when used as a replacement for ungerminated sorghum flour (50:50; 100:50) in  
60 a gluten-free bread and to potentially improve the chemical composition [9]. Improved breadcrumb  
61 texture of gluten-free breads was reported to be influenced by the addition of germinated brown rice

62 flour, however, the germination time of the rice also had an effect. Flours produced with a prolonged  
63 germination time were shown to have a negative effect on the baked breads [9]. Germinated brown rice  
64 flour was further found to improve the nutritional quality of gluten-free bread [10]. The addition of  
65 germinated amaranth in a gluten-free cookie was also reported, which improved the nutritional value,  
66 based on an increased content of protein and total dietary fibre and level of antioxidant activity in  
67 comparison to raw amaranth flour [11].

68 Based on the aforementioned evidence of positive effects of germinated grains, the aim of this study  
69 was to investigate the gluten-free bread/making potential of sprouts including, amaranth, brown millet,  
70 quinoa, lupin, lentil, pea and corn. The suitability of these sprouts for application in a gluten-free system  
71 was evaluated and their effects on the composition and properties of dough and the final bread  
72 products were investigated. The results gained from this study are expected to contribute knowledge  
73 for improving gluten-free bread quality.

74

## 75 2. Experimental

### 76 2.1 Material and Methods

77 Potato starch was supplied by Emsland, Germany; pea protein isolate (min. 83% protein) by Roquette,  
78 France; pectin by Cp Kelco, Germany; sugar by Siucra Nordzucker, Ireland and salt by Glacia British Salt  
79 Limited, UK. Instant active dry Baker's yeast was obtained from Puratos, Belgium. Sprouts were  
80 purchased from Ziegler, Germany (Amaranth sprouts, Brown millet sprouts, Quinoa sprouts) and  
81 Keimkraft, Austria (Lupin sprouts, Lentil sprouts, Pea sprouts, Corn sprouts). All chemicals were supplied  
82 by Sigma-Aldrich, Arklow, Ireland.

### 83 2.2 Milling of germinated seeds and grains

84 Commercially purchased sprouted grains and seeds were milled using a Bühler Universla disc mill (Uzwil,  
85 Switzerland) with settings for a particle size of 250 µm. After milling samples were passed through a  
86 sieve with a pore size of 250 µm. Separated husks and larger particles were discarded.

### 87 2.3 Compositional analysis:

88 The total nitrogen content of the potato protein was analysed using the Kjeldahl method (MEBAK  
89 1.5.2.1). A nitrogen to protein conversion factor of 6.25 was used. Moisture content was determined  
90 according to AACC Method 44-15 A. The total available carbohydrate level of the milled samples was  
91 determined spectrophotometrically using an enzyme kit (K-TSTA) supplied by Megazyme, Ireland. The  
92 ash content was determined according to AACC Method 08-01.01. The lipid content was determined  
93 according to the Soxhlet-method (AACC Methods 30- 25.01) after acid hydrolysis. Total dietary fibre  
94 contents were determined according to the AOAC method 991.43 by Concept Life Sciences, UK.

### 95 2.4 Enzyme activity

96 The amylase activity of alpha (AACC Method 22-02.01. (K-CERA)) and beta amylase (K-BETA3) was  
97 determined using commercially available enzyme kits, supplied by Megazyme, Ireland. Protease activity  
98 was determined according to Brijs, Trogh [12], with slight modifications. Protease activity was extracted  
99 from 0.3g of milled sample in 0.05 M acetate buffer containing 2 mM-cysteine (pH 5.0) under shaking  
100 for 30 minutes at 5°C. The sample extract was assayed after centrifugation (10,000 g x 15 min at 4°C)

101 against 1.0% haemoglobin in 0.2 M sodium acetate buffer. Therefore 0.25 ml of haemoglobin  
102 solution and 0.4 ml of sample extract were mixed and incubated for 2.5 h at 40°C. The reaction was  
103 stopped by adding 0.4 ml of cold TCA (10% w/v). Subsequently, the tubes were centrifuged at 10,000 g  
104 for 10 minutes to remove precipitated proteins. A reaction blank was assayed for each flour by adding  
105 the stopping reagent prior to the incubation. The supernatants were analysed for free  $\alpha$ -amino  
106 nitrogen, using trinitrobenzene-sulfonic acid (TNBS) reagent (0.3%, w/v, in 0.2 M sodium phosphate  
107 buffer, pH 8.0). Absorption of samples and reaction blanks was measured at 340 nm against distilled  
108 water.

## 109 2.5 Sugars

110 Sugar levels (glucose and fructose) of dough and bread crumb were analysed with an Agilent 1260 high  
111 performance liquid chromatography system (HPLC) with a Sugar-Pak column (Waters, Cork, Ireland)  
112 coupled to a refractive index detector (RID) at 40°C. The sugars were extracted with distilled water for 20  
113 min shaking and then centrifugated at 3000g for 10 minutes. HPLC analysis was performed at 80°C column  
114 temperature with 0.0001 M CaEDTA (HPLC-grade) at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min.

115

## 116 **2.6 Flour hydration properties**

117 Flour hydration properties were analysed according to Cornejo and Rosell [9]. The water holding  
118 capacity (WHC) was determined by mixing 1.000g +/- 0.001g of milled sample with distilled water (10  
119 ml) and holding at room temperature for 24 h. Supernatant was discarded carefully by the use a 100ml  
120 pipette, not touching the pellet of sediment. WHC was expressed as grams of water retained per grams  
121 of sample. For the determination of the swelling power (SP) 1.000g +/- 0.001g of sample were placed in  
122 a graduated cylinder and mixed with distilled water (10ml). The sample was kept at room temperature  
123 for 24 h and swelling power was calculated by dividing the total volume of swollen sample by the  
124 original weight of flour. The water-binding capacity (WBC) was measured similar to the WHC with the  
125 addition of a centrifugal step (2000 g for 10 min).

## 126 **2.7 Dough analysis**

### 127 **2.7.1 Pasting properties**

128 The pasting behaviour of dough formulations with different sprouts (dry mix, excluding yeast) was  
129 measured using a Rapid Visco Analyzer (RVA Super 3 Rapid Visco Analyser Newport Scientific,  
130 Warriewood, Australia). Each blend (3.0 g) was mixed with 25 ml of distilled water in a container,  
131 heated at a rate of 0.2 °C/s from 50 °C to 95 °C, maintained at 95 °C for 162 s, cooled at the rate of 0.2  
132 °C/s to 50 °C, and held for 120 s at 50 °C before the test ended.

133



134 2.7.2 Dough frequency test

135 Rheological measurements of dough samples (prepared as in section 2.8, excluding yeast) containing  
136 the different sprouts were carried out by using a Rheometer Physica MCR 301 (Anton Paar GmbH,  
137 Germany) equipped with serrated parallel plate geometry (diameter 50 mm, gap 1 mm). Dough samples  
138 were placed between the plates of the rheometer. Samples were left to rest for 5 min after loading  
139 prior to the performance of a frequency sweep test at 25°C from 100 Hz to 0.1 Hz within a linear  
140 viscoelastic range. Data obtained were complex viscosity ( $G^*$ ) and damping factor ( $\tan \delta$ ).

141 2.7.3 Time- and temperature-dependent rising behaviour of dough

142 The measurements were conducted according to Horstmann et al., [13] using an Anton Paar MCR  
143 rheometer with the TruStrain™ option. 3g of dough sample (including yeast) were loaded into a stainless-  
144 steel cylinder with the height of 33 mm and the inner diameter of 25 mm. To mimic the proofing  
145 properties the temperature was set at 30°C for 45 min with a constant normal force of  $FN = 0.0$  to ensure  
146 permanent contact between sample and upper plate. For determination of the oven spring and the  
147 determination of yeast activity during the baking process, the temperature was increased to 90°C with a  
148 heat rate of 4°C / min. Recorded and calculated parameters were the max height [mm], which is the  
149 maximum height the dough reached during the measurement. Further the slope [mm/min] during the  
150 fermentation process (Slope FP) and then during the baking process (Slope BP) for determination of yeast  
151 activity and dough performance was determined. Also, the max height temperature (TMH) [°C] was  
152 recorded.

153

## 154 2.8 Bread making procedure

155 Bread samples were produced based on a simple recipe (80% water, 5% sprouted flour, 2% pea protein,  
156 2% pectin, 2% salt, 4% sugar, 2% yeast, based on potato starch weight). For the pre-fermentation, yeast  
157 was suspended in warm water (25°C) and regenerated for a period of 10 min. Mixing was carried out  
158 with a k-beater (Kenwood, Havant, UK) at low disk speed (level 1 of 6) for 1 minute in a Kenwood Major  
159 Titanium kmm 020 Mixer (Kenwood, Havant, UK). After that, the dough was scraped down from the  
160 bowl walls and a further mixing of 2 minutes at higher disk speed (level 2 of 6) was carried out. The  
161 batter was scaled to 300 g in 9 baking tins of 16,5 cm x 11 cm x 7 cm and placed in a proofer for 45  
162 minutes at 30°C and 85% relative humidity (RH). The dough samples were then baked for 45 min at  
163 220°C top and 220°C bottom heat in a deck oven, previously steamed with 0.7 L of water. The breads  
164 were cooled for 2 hours prior to analysis.

## 165 2.9 Bread analysis

166 The specific volume of the bread was determined by use of a Vol-scan apparatus (Stable Micro System,  
167 UK). The specific volume is calculated on the basis of loaf volume and weight. An image analysis system  
168 (Calibre Control International Ltd., UK) was used to analyse the breadcrumb structure chosen  
169 parameters were the cell diameter and the number of cells per slice area. Crumb firmness was analysed  
170 using a Texture Profile Analyser (TA-XT2i, Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, England) with a 25 kg load  
171 cell, which compresses the breadcrumb with a 20 mm aluminium cylindrical probe. Bread samples were  
172 cut in 20 mm slices and analysed with a test speed of 5 mm/s and a trigger force of 20 g, compressing  
173 the middle of the breadcrumb to 10 mm. The measurement with the various parameters was conducted  
174 on the baking day and 24h after baking to monitor the staling process. The colour values of breadcrumb  
175 samples were measured using the CIE L\* a\* b\* colour system, where L\* is an indicator for lightness, a\*  
176 is redness, and b\* is yellowness. The analysis was performed using a Colorimeter CR-400 (Konica  
177 Minolta, Osaka, Japan). The colorimetric parameters L\*, a\* and b\* were referred to CIE standard  
178 illuminant D65.

## 179 2.10 Statistical analysis

180 All measurements were performed at least in triplicate. The significance of the results was analysed  
181 using One Way ANOVA (R version 3.0.1). The level of significance was determined at  $p < 0.05$ .

### 182 3. Results and Discussion

#### 183 3.1 Chemical composition

184 The germination process of seeds and grains has considerable influence on the final chemical composition  
185 of the raw material. Parameters such as time and temperature of the germination are crucial factors  
186 during this process [14]. In addition, the milling and sieving of the sprouted material can further alter this  
187 composition. Husks of seeds which are mainly fibres are more difficult to process than the kernel itself  
188 and are often sift out. This concentrates the amounts of other components such as starch, protein and  
189 fat in the milled flour in comparison to the whole seed or grain. Commercially purchased sprouts of  
190 amaranth, brown millet, quinoa, lupin, lentil, pea and corn were milled and sifted through a sieve with a  
191 250  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size for the use as flour in gluten-free baking. The different flours milled from the various  
192 sprouts will be referred to as SF (sprout flour). Their chemical composition is listed in Table 1. Based on  
193 the differences in botanical origin, modified germination regimes and the milling processes, significant  
194 differences between the sprouts were found.

195 Total starch contents showed significant differences between the various sprouts. Corn SF contained the  
196 highest amount of total starch (76.47g/100g), which was about 40% higher than found in the other  
197 sprouts. The significantly lowest value was found in lupin SF with a content of 22.02g/100g. Analysed  
198 sugars showed the significantly highest amount of di-saccharides in lupin SF. The significantly lowest  
199 amount was found in brown millet SF. This flour also contained the lowest concentration of fructose,  
200 while lupin SF contained the highest amount. Differences were observed in the glucose contents, with  
201 quinoa SF having the highest content. Pea SF contained the lowest amount of glucose. Overall only small  
202 quantities of the free sugars were found. However, significantly different amounts can influence the  
203 fermentation process of the dough. The more sugars are available the more the yeast can metabolise,  
204 and the more  $\text{CO}_2$  is produced [15]. A higher production of  $\text{CO}_2$  in conjunction with the supporting dough  
205 viscosity can increase the specific volume of a gluten-free model bread [13]. Protein analysis showed that  
206 lupin SF had the highest protein content (43.08g/100g), which was 25% higher than the second highest

207 protein content determined in lentil SF. A high protein content in lupin SF was expected, since lupin seeds  
208 contain already high amounts (> 30g/100g) of protein [16]. The lowest amount of protein was found in  
209 corn SF. Similar low values for ungerminated corn flour have been recently reported in another gluten-  
210 free study [17]. The highest fibre content was found in lupin SF while the significant lowest fibre content  
211 was found in lentil SF. The addition of fibre rich ingredients can help to improve the nutritional profile of  
212 gluten-free breads. However, fibres can absorb up to 10 times their own weight of water [18]. Thus, the  
213 application of high fibre containing ingredients can affect the baking performance of the fragile gluten-  
214 free system. Significant differences in the composition of the various sprouts was also found in the fat  
215 content. The fat content ranged from 1.25 g/100g to 8.01 g/100g, with pea SF having the lowest and lupin  
216 SF the highest content. Lipids can affect the gelatinisation properties of starch through complex formation  
217 with amylose during heating [19]. A limiting effect of starch swelling by lipids was reported to result in a  
218 softer breadcrumb or weakened crumb, depending on the amount added [20]. Such an effect was  
219 discussed in a previous study performed on the application of different starches in a gluten-free model  
220 system [21]. The addition of minerals (ash), in the natural amounts in which they occur in raw materials,  
221 to the authors' knowledge, does not influence the bread making process or the structure of the final  
222 bread. However, ingredients rich in mineral contents offer the potential to improve the nutritional profile  
223 of products which are lacking minerals, such as gluten-free breads [2]. The highest content of ash was  
224 found in amaranth SF (3.77 g/100g) followed by brown miller SF (3.19g /100g). No significant differences  
225 between quinoa SF, lupin SF., lentil SF and pea SF were found (approx. 2.60g/100g). The significantly  
226 lowest content was found in corn SF which was lower than 1%. The moisture content of the various SF  
227 showed significant differences. The highest content was determined in lentil SF, while the lowest amount  
228 was found in quinoa SF. Differences in the moisture content are often influenced by the drying procedure  
229 after germination [14].

230 The germination of seeds or grains activates enzymes by metabolic processes [22]. Enzyme activities of  
231 raw material have significant effects on dough and final bread properties [23]. In wheat breads barley  
232 malt flour is added in small amounts (0.1 - 0.8 %) to improve baking properties and improve loaf volume

233 and structure [18]. However, high amounts of barley malt flour can cause liquefaction of the dough,  
234 leading to a detrimental result. In gluten-free systems, a controlled level of enzymatic activity can either  
235 positively or negatively affect the baking properties [8]. Based on the previously observed positive and  
236 negative effects of enzymes in the aforementioned studies, their activities in the different SFs was  
237 determined. Protease activity showed significant differences, amaranth SF the highest (8.65 U/g) and pea  
238 SF the lowest activity (0.82U/g). No activity was recorded in lentil SF and corn SF. This can be used to  
239 promote gluten relaxation in wheat-based systems. However, excessive protease activity has been  
240 reported to destroy the gluten network producing a viscous system or even a liquid batter [18, 24, 25].

241 The cleaving of complex sugars to simple sugars by amylases is a crucial process which can affect the  
242 baking process drastically. Generated glucose and fructose can be metabolised by yeast into CO<sub>2</sub> and  
243 ethanol and expand gas cells [13]. Amylases can further retard the retrogradation process of starch in  
244 bread and hence delay staling [26]. Alpha-amylase activity was only found in corn SF, with a high activity  
245 (12.55 U/g). The analysis of beta-amylase activity showed only low but significantly different levels  
246 between the SF. The significantly highest activity was found in lupin SF (0.61 U/g) and the lowest activity  
247 in SF produced from brown millet (0.04 U/g). No activity was recorded for quinoa SF. No lipase activity  
248 was detected in any of the SFs (data not shown). This lower enzymatic activity of the selected sprouts  
249 enables their use in higher concentrations than, for example, barley malt, while not causing a deleterious  
250 liquefaction effect. Use of higher amounts of SF used in gluten-free formulation could, therefore, improve  
251 the nutritional profile.

### 252 3.2 Flour hydration properties

253 Based on differences in chemical composition in SF, such as in fibre and its potential to absorb and  
254 affect baking properties, the hydration properties of the SFs were determined. Parameters analysed for  
255 the hydration properties were the water holding capacity (WHC), swelling power (SP) and the water  
256 binding capacity (WBC) as described by Cornejo and Rosell [9]. The WHC determines the amount of  
257 water was retained by the sample without being subjected to any stress. The highest amount of water  
258 retained by lupin SF, which was nearly twice as high as the other SFs (Table 6-1). Brown millet SF

259 retained the least amount of water. Similar trends were found for the SP, which is defined as the  
260 volume gained after hydration of the sample. Also, here lupin SF was found to have the highest SP,  
261 while brown millet SF showed the lowest SP. The WBC of a sample is defined similar to the WHC, with  
262 the exception that it is determined after low-speed centrifugation [10]. Lupin SF was found to retain the  
263 highest amount of water after centrifugal stress in comparison to the remaining SFs. No significant  
264 differences between other SFs were found. The assumption that the total fibre content is the main  
265 contributor to the WHC was ruled out, since lupin SF and brown millet SF have the highest fibre  
266 contents but low WHC. This was explained by the different types of fibres which were found. Lupin SF  
267 contains 16.8% insoluble fibre, while brown millet SF contains 3.3%. The remaining 10.8% are soluble  
268 and hypothesised to be discarded with the supernatant and hence less water could be retained. This  
269 hypothesis is strengthened by the finding that corn SF, being the second lowest water retaining SF, also  
270 contained only a low amount of insoluble fibre content. Similar results were also found by Wang, Rosell  
271 [27], who analysed the effect of fibres on wheat dough, the authors found that carob fibre which was  
272 rich in insoluble fibre increased the water absorption more than inulin, which was rich in soluble fibre.  
273 Also, factors like hydroxyl groups, ionic charge, chain length and molecular weight can influence the  
274 water hydration properties and are mainly linked to the source of origin [27-29]. However, not only the  
275 soluble and insoluble parts of fibre affect the water hydration properties of a SF. The protein content  
276 also plays a significant role in the hydration properties of a raw material [30].

277

278 3.3 Pasting properties of dough formulations:

279 The analysis of pasting properties using a rapid visco analyser was conducted on the dough formulation,  
280 excluding yeast. Results of the viscosity profiles during applied shear and a range of temperature are  
281 shown in Table 2. Dough formulations containing SF showed a reduced viscosity profile in comparison to  
282 the control. Viscosity reducing effects were also reported in literature [7-9]. Apart from the viscosity  
283 reducing effect of SF addition, significant differences between the applied SF on the viscosity profiles  
284 were found.

285 Analysis of the reached peak viscosities showed significant differences. The highest peak viscosities after  
286 the control formulation was found in the doughs containing quinoa SF. The significantly lowest value  
287 was found in samples containing brown millet SF. The peak viscosity is usually described as the  
288 maximum swelling of the starch granules before bursting [31]. In a dough formulation, it can refer to the  
289 entire system and factors such as protein denaturation, hydrocolloid and fibre swelling, and the  
290 enzymatic activity must be considered. These factors can also further affect pasting parameters such as  
291 the breakdown viscosity. The breakdown viscosity has been described as an indicator for the breaking of  
292 granules upon heating after the maximum swelling at the peak viscosity [32]. Hence in a dough  
293 formulation, it can be used as an indicator for the stability of the system, and ability to withstand heat  
294 and mechanical shear conditions. The highest breakdown viscosity was found for the control and the  
295 formulations containing brown millet SF and pea SF. The most stable dough system with the significantly  
296 lowest breakdown viscosity was that containing corn SF addition.

297 The final viscosity is the viscosity reached after cooling. It is described as the reassociation of starch  
298 granules during cooling and is considered as an indicator for bread staling [33]. The highest final  
299 viscosity was reached by quinoa SF formulations, showing no significant differences from the control  
300 formulation. The lowest viscosity was found in doughs formulated with brown millet SF.

301 The low viscosity results determined for brown millet SF in comparison to the remaining SFs is  
302 hypothesised to be attributed to its chemical composition, which was earlier discussed and linked to its

303 low hydration properties. The overall decreasing viscosity results for most of the SFs cannot be limited  
304 to only one, but many factors. All the applied sprouts contain lipids, which were earlier described to  
305 build complexes with amylose, limiting starch swelling [20, 21]. Furthermore, the denaturation and  
306 source of protein were recently discussed as influencing the pasting properties of dough formulations  
307 [30]. In addition, the effect of enzymes must be taken into consideration, since a broad range of  
308 temperature during the measurement is applied, activating different enzymes [34]. These were found to  
309 decrease viscosity profiles by changing the molecular structure of starch through the breakdown of  
310 polymer chains [7, 9]. This breakdown reduced the ability to bind water and increased the viscosity. This  
311 has been demonstrated by previous studies using germinated flour [8], increasing the concentration of  
312 germinated flour [7] or by increasing the time of germination [9]. All of these approaches led to a higher  
313 enzyme activity in the analysed sample, decreasing its viscosity profile.

#### 314 3.4 Oscillatory viscosity

315 Visco-elastic properties are an important characteristic of dough in order to facilitate gas / air cell  
316 expansion [35]. The effect of the different SFs on the visco-elastic properties was measured and is  
317 shown in Figure 1. The complex viscosity and the damping factor of the dough (excluding yeast) were  
318 analysed. A decrease in complex viscosity over angular frequency was observed for all the dough  
319 samples. Similar findings were reported in a previous study applying different hydrocolloids to the  
320 gluten-free formulation [28]. However, doughs formulated with lentil SF, pea SF, lupin SF and corn SF  
321 showed higher viscosity values than the control. The analysis of the damping factor is an indicator of the  
322 viscoelastic behaviour. The dough samples prepared with the different SFs showed a higher viscous  
323 behaviour at lower rather than higher angular frequency. Different results for the control were reported  
324 in a previous study [28]. In this study the damping factor of the control (excluding sprouts) decreased  
325 (0.75 – 0.35) during increasing frequency (0.1 – to 10) but recovered to a small extent during the  
326 angular frequency from 10-100. In the previously reported study, the damping factor increased with  
327 increasing angular frequency from 0.5 to 0.88. The differences were explained by the change the  
328 amount of water added to the formulation and the addition of a protein source (pea protein). The



329 added protein was reported in a further study to decrease the damping factor of a gluten-free model  
330 system [30]. Furthermore, aside from the protein addition, in this study different sprouts were added to  
331 the formulation. These were found to have significantly different chemical compositions and water  
332 interacting properties. Despite their different properties, however, the addition of SF showed only  
333 significant differences at low angular frequency (angular frequency  $< 1$ ). This is hypothesised by low  
334 molecular interactions between the different chemical components and water interacting properties of  
335 the various SFs. At this stage of the measurement only the addition of amaranth SF showed a higher  
336 damping factor than the control, referring to a more viscous behaviour. The addition of the remaining  
337 SFs showed either no significant difference compared to the control (corn SF, brown millet SF, lentil SF)  
338 or a significantly lower damping factor (lupin SF, quinoa SF). Overall, these results are similar to the ones  
339 found in literature, showing the damping factor  $0.1 < \tan \delta < 1$  [28, 36-38].

#### 340 3.4 Time- and Temperature – dependent rising behaviour of dough:

341 The method of the rising behaviour of dough being dependent on time and temperature was described  
342 in a recent study [13]. This measurement was found to be a suitable alternative method for the analysis  
343 of gluten-free doughs. However, even though the CO<sub>2</sub> content is not recorded, the dough rise itself  
344 successfully correlated with the final bread properties of a gluten-free model system [13]. The method  
345 was described as a good indicator of yeast activity. Based on the different chemical compositions and  
346 enzyme activities of the various SFs their potential effect on yeast activity and related dough rise was  
347 analysed.

348 Rising behaviour of the doughs formulated with the different sprouts showed significant differences  
349 (Figure 2 / Table 3). The slope of dough rise during fermentation (Slope FP) is an indicator of how fast  
350 the dough rises. Doughs formulated with quinoa SF showed the fastest dough rise (0.192 mm/min). The  
351 slowest rise was determined in the control dough, which did not contain SF (0.126 mm/min). The lower  
352 performance of the control is likely due to a limitation of available sugars for yeast metabolism. In

353 comparison to the control dough, doughs containing SF, however, have more available sugars based on  
354 their chemical composition (Table 1).

355 An increase in the speed of dough rise was observed when the temperature increased and the slope of  
356 the “baking process” (Slope BP) was measured. An increase in temperature on a dough system has  
357 various effects: i) starch gelatinisation, ii) protein denaturation, iii) hydrocolloid gelling, iv) increased  
358 enzymatic and yeast activity and v) interactions and crosslinks between the aforementioned effects [41,  
359 42]. Thus, changes in dough rise during the baking process are mainly influenced by the chemical  
360 composition. The highest increase and the fastest dough rise was observed in doughs containing brown  
361 millet SF. The increase is hypothesised to be due to temperature-induced changes of the chemical  
362 components of the dough and their interactions, since no correlation to any one component was found.  
363 As observed in the rheological investigations, doughs containing brown millet SF showed a higher  
364 damping factor (viscous behaviour) in comparison to other doughs. A more viscous behaviour facilitates  
365 cell growth better than low damping factors (elastic behaviour) [30]. The lowest and even decreased  
366 dough rise rate was found in doughs formulated with lupin SF. The slope during baking was reduced by  
367 more than 50% in comparison to the slope during the fermentation process. This detrimental effect is  
368 assumed to be caused by the significantly higher protein and insoluble fibre content in lupin SF, in  
369 comparison to the other SFs. The higher amount of protein is understood to denature, build a strong  
370 dough network and increase dough viscosity. The increase of viscosity caused by an increase in protein  
371 content, resulting in an elastic rather than viscous behaviour, has been recently reported in a previous  
372 study by [30]. The remaining chemical components are further factors which are described to affect the  
373 dough rising behaviour and contributing to a rather high viscosity. The authors in this study assume that  
374 the chemical components compete with the starch for free water. Starch gelatinisation is described as a  
375 result of granule swelling during heating, increasing viscosity [43]. When the starch granules reach their  
376 maximum swelling capacity, they burst which results in a drop in viscosity [31]. The increase of viscosity  
377 caused by an increase in protein content, resulting in an elastic rather than viscous behaviour, has been  
378 recently reported in a previous study by [30]. The remaining chemical components are further factors

379 which are described to affect the dough rising behaviour and contributing to a rather high viscosity. The  
380 authors in this study assume that the chemical components compete with the starch for free water.  
381 Starch gelatinisation is described as a result of granule swelling during heating, increasing viscosity [43].  
382 When the starch granules reach their maximum swelling capacity, they burst which results in a drop in  
383 viscosity [31]. This granular bursting and related viscosity drop is hypothesised to be restrained by the  
384 competition with other chemical components such as fibre, protein. Also, the amount of lipids has to be  
385 considered, as lipids can coat the starch granules and interact with amylose restraining starch swelling  
386 [21]. Prevention of granular bursting would maintain the high viscosity in the dough system and could  
387 further restrain gas cell expansion.

388 The differences in dough rise rates over the various stages of fermentation and baking leads to further  
389 significant differences in the maximum height (maxH). Doughs containing brown millet SF, quinoa SF,  
390 amaranth SF, corn SF and lentil SF reached a higher maxH than the control. However, the highest maxH  
391 was reached by doughs containing quinoa SF and brown millet SF. The addition of pea SF and lupin SF  
392 had a decreasing effect on the maxH, where lupin SF showed the significantly lowest maxH. The low  
393 maxH for lupin SF is linked to the slow dough rise during the baking stage. The dough rise is affected by  
394 available nutrients for the yeast to metabolise, but also by the viscosity of the dough system [13]. The  
395 compositional analysis of the SFs showed significant differences in their compositions. This suggests that  
396 there are many influencing factors as discussed for the differences observed in dough rise rates. Based  
397 on the complexity of the gluten-free formulation, many influencing factors were found which makes it  
398 difficult to draw significant correlations between the chemical constituents of the SFs and the dough  
399 rising properties.

#### 400 3.5 Baked bread properties:

401 Baked breads formulated with the various SFs showed different results. Figure 6-3 gives an overview of  
402 the cross section and whole loaf of the baked breads. Except for brown millet SF all breads showed an  
403 even crumb texture without any large holes. The hole in brown millet SF is assumed to be caused by the

404 low hydration properties which allow more water to evaporate during the early stages of baking and  
405 weakens the dough. The combination of the two is assumed to cause a coalition of crumb cells under  
406 the crust, which is formed very early in the baking process and thus not allowing the evaporated water  
407 to escape. Furthermore, differences in colour, volume and crumb structure were observed. The  
408 quantitative differences of the various parameters are shown in Table 6-4. The addition of amaranth SF  
409 to the gluten-free formulation increased the specific volume giving the highest value, of 3.01 ml/g.  
410 Lupin SF was found to decrease the specific volume and showed the lowest value of 2.29 ml/g. Overall it  
411 was observed that the addition of SFs increased the specific volume in comparison to the control. Only  
412 lupin SF decreased the specific volume. Lentil SF-containing breads showed no significant difference to  
413 the control bread. Mixed results for the addition of germinated flours are also reported in literature. A  
414 positive effect on specific volume was reported for the addition of germinated brown rice flour in a  
415 gluten-free bread [9]. No influence was reported for the addition of germinated quinoa flour [7].  
416 However, germinated oat flour applied in the same study was found to increase the specific volume.  
417 The authors correlated this result with the higher alpha-amylase activity in oat malt, causing a drop in  
418 viscosity of the dough, which allowed greater gas cell expansion. Similar findings were observed for the  
419 addition of germinated rice flour in comparison to ungerminated rice flour [9]. In this study, however,  
420 except in corn SF, no alpha-amylase activity was detected (Table 1). Furthermore, corn SF-formulated  
421 bread did not show the highest specific volume. This suggests that other factors play a key role in the  
422 baking process. It was not possible to establish correlations between dough properties and final bread  
423 results. The authors hypothesise that this is caused by complex and multiple interactions related to the  
424 chemical composition. The interactions are assumed to be the result of temperature changes during  
425 baking, which cannot be completely mimicked in the dough analyses performed. Nevertheless, the  
426 authors consider fibre and protein content to be major key factors. These were found to be significantly  
427 high in lupin SF, leading to high water hydration properties. These were further understood to cause a  
428 lower damping factor and a higher viscosity, indicating a more elastic dough in comparison to the  
429 remaining sprouts. The elastic dough is assumed to restrain gas cell expansion during fermentation,

430 leading to smaller bread volume. This was demonstrated in the dough rise measurement of the various  
431 dough formulations (Figure 2, Table 3). Similar findings were observed in previous studies [13, 28, 30].  
432 Restrained gas cell expansion was confirmed by the results generated during breadcrumb analysis. The  
433 greatest cell diameter was measured in breads formulated with amaranth SF, while the smallest  
434 diameter was found in breads containing lupin SF and lentil SF. The diameter of cells, however, is not  
435 only influenced by the restrained gas cell expansion, but also the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> produced during  
436 fermentation. The different chemical composition of the SF provides the yeast with different amounts  
437 of nutrients for fermentation. In general, higher amounts of simple sugars lead to a greater production  
438 of CO<sub>2</sub>, which ultimately leads to a greater cell diameter [13]. However, in this study, no link between  
439 available sugars and cell diameter could be established. The authors assume that the diverse enzyme  
440 activities provide further amounts of sugars for the yeast to metabolise. The additional sugars are  
441 fermented and increase the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> produced, which in turn increases gas cell expansion. In  
442 addition to the cell diameter, the number of cells must be considered when links to the specific volume  
443 are established. However, the number of cells did not show significant variation amongst the baked  
444 breads. Thus, it is not surprising that amaranth SF-containing breads showed the least cells per area and  
445 lupin SF and lentil SF. The application of amaranth SF, brown millet SF, quinoa SF and pea SF showed an  
446 increase in cell size compared to the control, while the remaining SFs produced either decreased the cell  
447 diameter or showed no significant difference. An increasing and decreasing effect on cell diameter was  
448 also recently reported by the addition of germinated oat and quinoa flour, respectively [7]. A greater  
449 specific volume provides more surface area and hence facilitates water evaporation, leading to an  
450 increase in bake loss [13, 30]. In this study, however, no significant differences between the bake loss of  
451 the baked breads were found. This is assumed to be caused by the variation in water hydration  
452 properties, being able to bind dissimilar amounts of water to the dough system. A higher amount of  
453 water in the dough system can lead to a softening of the breadcrumb [44]. Bread texture is an  
454 important quality parameter for consumer acceptance [45]. The hardness of bread after baking is  
455 influenced by the retrogradation process of amylose and amylopectin [44]. Furthermore, it was recently

456 found that the number of cells per area and cell diameter also influence the breadcrumb hardness [13].  
457 The authors hypothesised, that a higher cell diameter decreases the number of cell walls compressed by  
458 a measuring probe, leading to a softer breadcrumb. The hardness values of the baked breads showed  
459 significantly different results. Breads baked with amaranth SF, quinoa SF and pea SF showed a lower  
460 hardness in comparison to the control. The remaining SFs increased the hardness. An increase in  
461 hardness over time is defined as the staling process. During this process, water migrates from crumb to  
462 crust and recrystallization of starch proceeds, which alters the bread texture [44]. The crumb hardness  
463 of all the baked breads increased after 24h. However, after 24 h the crumb hardness of the various  
464 breads differed and did not correlated with that which was measured on the baking day, indicating  
465 differences in staling rates. Breads formulated with brown millet SF, pea SF and the control bread  
466 showed the significantly highest hardness values. The softest breadcrumb however, was found for  
467 breads formulated with amaranth SF. These results are within the range of hardness values previously  
468 reported for this model bread system [28, 30]. A decreasing effect on hardness, by the addition of  
469 germinated sorghum flour, was recently reported by Phattanakulkaewmorie et al.,[8]. The authors  
470 analysed the effect of different amounts of germinated sorghum flour on gluten-free bread properties.  
471 Another study also found a decreasing effect on bread hardness by the addition of germinated brown  
472 rice flour [9]. The authors found that a longer germination time leads to degradation of starch by alpha-  
473 amylase resulting thinner cell walls of the gluten-free breads. The effect of other enzyme activities and  
474 their effect on bread staling have been recently discussed. Lipase activity was described to alter the  
475 polarity of lipids which results in cell wall strengthen allowing greater gas cell explanation [46, 47].  
476 However, in this study, no lipase activity was found in the analysed sprouts (data not shown).  
477 Proteolytic activities of germinated flours were reported to reduce crumb hardness in gluten-free bread  
478 [24]. However, the study also stated that the impact strongly depends on the applied matrix. Hence it is  
479 assumed, that the differences in chemical composition of the applied sprouts in this study created such  
480 aforementioned matrices. This assumption is based on the generated results showing no correlation  
481 between protease activity and crumb hardness. The hardness and staling process can be further

482 affected by other factors. Such factors could be the aforementioned formation of lipid-amylose  
483 complexes, protein-starch and or starch–hydrocolloid interactions [28].

484 The addition of the various SF further affected the colour values of the bread crumbs (Figure 3). For the  
485 evaluation of the changes in colour of the breadcrumb, the CIE-L\*a\*b\* system was applied. The addition  
486 of amaranth, brown millet and quinoa sprouts reduced the L\* value, which indicates a darker crumb.  
487 Lupin, lentil and pea sprouts, however, increased the L\* value. The addition of corn sprouts showed no  
488 effect on the L\* value compared to the control breadcrumb. Similar values have been reported by the  
489 addition of germinated brown rice flour [9]. They were further stated to be similar to those values  
490 reported for commercial gluten-free bread [48]. Detected a\* and b\* values of the bread crumbs baked  
491 with the different sprouts indicated an increase in yellow colour in comparison to the control. While the  
492 study by Matos and Rosell [48] showed colour intensity changes due to germination time, in this study  
493 the main factor affecting colour change is attributed to the raw material applied.

#### 494 4. Conclusion

495 In this study the effect of sprouted flour from different plants (amaranth, brown millet, corn, lentil,  
496 lupin, pea and quinoa) on a gluten-free dough and bread formulation was compared. The flours of the  
497 commercially purchased sprouts showed significant differences in their chemical composition. The low  
498 enzyme activity of the sprouted flours allowed their application in the gluten-free formulation at a  
499 concentration of 5 % w/w. The differences in composition were further found to influence the flour  
500 hydration properties, which in turn affected dough properties. Sprouted flour of lupin showed the  
501 highest flour hydration properties which were assumed to be caused by the specific chemical  
502 composition, high in fibre and protein. The high-water binding capacity was further postulated to be  
503 related to the higher viscosity and a more elastic behaviour in comparison to the remaining sprouted  
504 flours. Doughs with more elastic behaviour were found to have a reduced dough rise, due to restrained  
505 gas cell expansion. The decreased gas cell expansion lead to smaller breads with a denser texture.  
506 However, the hardest breadcrumb was found in breads formulated with brown millet sprouted flour,

507 which showed the lowest hydration properties. Hence, statistical analysis revealed no correlation  
508 between the chemical composition and the dough and bread properties. Thus, as discussed, this  
509 suggests the influence of more than one single factor, such as starch gelatinisation, protein  
510 denaturation, hydrocolloid / fibre gelling, enzymatic activity and their chemical interactions. Despite the  
511 various influencing factors, all the baked formulations containing the sprouted flours resulted in bread-  
512 like products and improved quality parameters in comparison to the control (no sprouted flour). The  
513 addition of amaranth sprouted flour increased the specific volume of baked breads significantly. It  
514 further reduced the crumb hardness. The chemical composition of amaranth was also suggested, based  
515 on its protein and ash/ mineral content to improve the nutritional value of gluten-free bread. This study  
516 demonstrated the successful application of gluten-free sprouted flours in a gluten-free bread system  
517 with the potential to increase the nutritional value of gluten-free breads.

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#### 522 Compliance with ethical standards

523 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

524 **Compliance with ethics requirements** This article does not contain any studies with human or animal  
525 subjects.

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626

627

628 **Table 1** Chemical composition and hydration properties of the different sprouted flours.

	<b>Amaranth sprouts</b>	<b>Brown millet sprouts</b>	<b>Quinoa sprouts</b>	<b>Lupin sprouts</b>	<b>Lentil sprouts</b>	<b>Pea sprouts</b>	<b>Corn sprouts</b>
<b>Composition [g/100g]</b>							
<b>Total Starch</b>	56.76 ± 4.16 <sup>b</sup>	57.56 ± 0.33 <sup>b</sup>	58.52 ± 1.54 <sup>b</sup>	22.02 ± 0.04 <sup>c</sup>	50.45 ± 4.26 <sup>b</sup>	56.23 ± 3.64 <sup>b</sup>	76.47 ± 4.64 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Di-Saccharides</b>	1.16 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.87 ± 0.02 <sup>d</sup>	1.15 ± 0.00 <sup>c</sup>	3.29 ± 0.09 <sup>a</sup>	1.99 ± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	2.06 ± 0.11 <sup>b</sup>	1.10 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Glucose</b>	0.95 ± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.28 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	1.15 ± 0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.113 ± 0.008 <sup>e</sup>	0.206 ± 0.011 <sup>d</sup>	0.033 ± 0.013 <sup>f</sup>	0.197 ± 0.02 <sup>d</sup>
<b>Fructose</b>	0.121 ± 0.003 <sup>d</sup>	0.043 ± 0.004 <sup>f</sup>	0.162 ± 0.018 <sup>c</sup>	0.263 ± 0.003 <sup>a</sup>	0.090 ± 0.006 <sup>e</sup>	0.162 ± 0.009 <sup>c</sup>	0.192 ± 0.013 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Protein</b>	9.89±0.21 <sup>f</sup>	10.86±0.22 <sup>e</sup>	16.00±0.05 <sup>d</sup>	43.08±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	28.08±0.06 <sup>b</sup>	26.17±0.04 <sup>c</sup>	5.64±0.03 <sup>g</sup>
<b>Fibre<sup>1</sup></b>	5.5 <sup>e</sup>	14.1 <sup>b</sup>	6.5 <sup>c</sup>	17.4 <sup>a</sup>	3.1 <sup>g</sup>	5.7 <sup>d</sup>	3.6 <sup>f</sup>
<b>Soluble<sup>1</sup></b>	< 0.1	10.8	< 0.1	0.6	< 0.1	< 0.1	< 0.1
<b>Insoluble<sup>1</sup></b>	5.5	3.3	6.5	16.8	3.18	5.7	3.6

<b>Fat</b>	7.13 ± 0.20 <sup>a</sup>	4.29 ± 0.12 <sup>b</sup>	6.74 ± 0.81 <sup>a</sup>	8.01 ± 0.91 <sup>a</sup>	1.47 ± 0.11 <sup>c</sup>	1.26 ± 0.13 <sup>c</sup>	2.52 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Ash</b>	3.77 ± 0.14 <sup>a</sup>	3.19 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>	2.59 ± 0.06 <sup>c</sup>	2.61 ± 0.14 <sup>c</sup>	2.66 ± 0.16 <sup>c</sup>	2.63 ± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	0.63 ± 0.07 <sup>d</sup>
<b>Moisture</b>	11.29±0.20 <sup>d</sup>	11.17±0.06 <sup>d</sup>	10.97±0.14 <sup>d</sup>	12.04±0.06 <sup>c</sup>	13.25±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	12.70±0.27 <sup>b</sup>	13.03±0.10 <sup>ab</sup>
	<b>Amaranth sprouts</b>	<b>Brown millet sprouts</b>	<b>Quinoa sprouts</b>	<b>Lupin sprouts</b>	<b>Lentil sprouts</b>	<b>Pea sprouts</b>	<b>Corn sprouts</b>

#### Enzyme activity

<b>α-amylase</b> [U/g]	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	n.d. <sup>b</sup>	12.55 ± 2.93 <sup>a</sup>
<b>β-amylase</b> [U/g]	0.10±0.00 <sup>cd</sup>	0.04±0.00 <sup>de</sup>	n.d. <sup>e</sup>	0.61±0.08 <sup>a</sup>	0.19±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.07±0.01 <sup>de</sup>	0.18±0.00 <sup>bc</sup>
<b>Protease Activity</b> [U/g]	8.65±0.37 <sup>a</sup>	4.82±0.50 <sup>b</sup>	7.67±0.52 <sup>a</sup>	7.70±1.92 <sup>a</sup>	n.d. <sup>c</sup>	0.82±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	n.d. <sup>c</sup>
<b>Hydration properties</b>							
<b>Swelling Power</b> [ml/g]	3.24±0.24 <sup>bc</sup>	2.45± 0.06 <sup>d</sup>	2.87±0.13 <sup>cd</sup>	6.00±0.13 <sup>a</sup>	3.29±0.23 <sup>bc</sup>	3.49±0.08 <sup>b</sup>	2.87±0.13 <sup>cd</sup>

**Water Holding****Capacity**

[g/g]

2.94±0.08<sup>b</sup>1.83± 0.16<sup>d</sup>2.56±0.31<sup>bc</sup>5.42±0.21<sup>a</sup>2.81±0.26<sup>b</sup>2.91±0.15<sup>b</sup>2.24±0.07<sup>cd</sup>**Water Binding****Capacity**

[g/g]

1.51±0.01<sup>b</sup>1.45±0.17<sup>b</sup>1.45±0.17<sup>b</sup>2.54±0.07<sup>a</sup>1.42±0.03<sup>b</sup>1.39±0.07<sup>b</sup>1.48±0.03<sup>b</sup>

629 Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different ( $\geq 3$  = One-way ANOVA;  $\geq 2$  = t-Test,  $p < 0.05$ ). n.d. = not detected

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630 <sup>1</sup> analysed by external laboratory (Concept life sciences, Cambridgeshire, UK)

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**Table 2** Pasting properties of the different formulations including the sprouted flours

	<b>Peak 1 [cP]</b>	<b>Breakdown [cP]</b>	<b>Final Visc [cP]</b>
<b>Amaranth sprouts</b>	558.0 ± 91.0 <sup>abc</sup>	19.4 ± 6.8 <sup>abc</sup>	847. ± 102.0 <sup>bc</sup>
<b>Brown millet sprouts</b>	308.5 ± 55.8 <sup>d</sup>	31.5 ± 5.0 <sup>a</sup>	416.0 ± 79.2 <sup>d</sup>
<b>Corn sprouts</b>	518 ± 5.66 <sup>c</sup>	7.5 ± 2.12 <sup>c</sup>	781.0 ± 14.4 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Lentil sprouts</b>	641.3 ± 30.7 <sup>abc</sup>	24.4 ± 5.1 <sup>ab</sup>	970.3 ± 47.1 <sup>abc</sup>
<b>Lupin sprouts</b>	621.7 ± 28.8 <sup>abc</sup>	12.3 ± 6.9 <sup>bc</sup>	965.0 ± 23.9 <sup>abc</sup>
<b>Pea sprouts</b>	637 ± 354 <sup>abc</sup>	609 ± 10.61 <sup>a</sup>	937.0 ± 7.07 <sup>abc</sup>
<b>Quinoa sprouts</b>	665.0 ± 43.6 <sup>ab</sup>	26.6 ± 3.8 <sup>ab</sup>	1020.4 ± 48.4 <sup>ab</sup>
<b>Control</b>	731.4 ± 16.2 <sup>a</sup>	33.7 ± 3.2 <sup>a</sup>	1083.7 ± 16.8 <sup>a</sup>

632 Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different ( $\geq 3$  = One-way ANOVA;  $\geq 2$  = t-Test,  $p <$ 

633 0.05). n.d. = not detected

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635 **Table 3** Time- and Temperature dependent rising parameters of the different dough formulations

	<b>SlopeFP</b> <b>[mm/min]</b>	<b>SlopeBP</b> <b>[mm/min]</b>	<b>MaxH</b> <b>[mm]</b>	<b>TMH</b> <b>[°C]</b>
<b>Amaranth sprouts</b>	0.156±0.006 <sup>abc</sup>	0.456±0.015 <sup>a</sup>	17.24±0.76 <sup>ab</sup>	76.50
<b>Brown millet sprouts</b>	0.156±0.004 <sup>abc</sup>	0.510±0.032 <sup>a</sup>	18.19±1.04 <sup>a</sup>	89.90
<b>Quinoa sprouts</b>	0.192±0.006 <sup>a</sup>	0.426±0.101 <sup>a</sup>	18.26± 1.28 <sup>a</sup>	86.20
<b>Lupin sprouts</b>	0.168±0.017 <sup>ab</sup>	0.072±0.003 <sup>b</sup>	12.63±0.58 <sup>d</sup>	74.10
<b>Lentil sprouts</b>	0.144±0.01 <sup>bc</sup>	0.426±0.027 <sup>a</sup>	15.91±1.04 <sup>abc</sup>	79.10
<b>Pea sprouts</b>	0.174±0.017 <sup>ab</sup>	0.198±0.073 <sup>b</sup>	14.28±1.16 <sup>cd</sup>	80.40
<b>Corn sprouts</b>	0.170±0.0197 <sup>ab</sup>	0.411±0.055 <sup>a</sup>	17.82±1.03 <sup>ab</sup>	80.40
<b>Control</b>	0.126±0.015 <sup>c</sup>	0.390±0.079 <sup>a</sup>	15.10±0.93 <sup>bcd</sup>	74.95

636 Means in the same column with different letters are significantly different ( $\geq 3$  = One-way ANOVA;  $\geq 2$  0 =t-Test,  $p <$

637 0.05). n.d. = not detected

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	<b>Amaranth sprouts</b>	<b>Brown millet sprouts</b>	<b>Quinoa sprouts</b>	<b>Lupin sprouts</b>	<b>Lentil sprouts</b>	<b>Pea sprouts</b>	<b>Corn sprouts</b>	<b>Control</b>
Specific Volume [ml/g]	3.01±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	2.77±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	2.71±0.10 <sup>abc</sup>	2.29±0.13 <sup>d</sup>	2.39±0.13 <sup>cd</sup>	2.98±0.17 <sup>ab</sup>	2.66±0.14 <sup>bc</sup>	2.42±0.11 <sup>cd</sup>
Bake loss [%]	18.25±0.65	18.02±0.52	17.25±0.57	16.88±0.44	16.90±0.41	18.21±0.69	17.66±0.39	16.88±0.38
<b>Crumb structure</b>								
Number of Cells [-]	2384.3±133.2	2181.9±183.8	2387.1±171.7	2351.5±122.6	2412.5±110.8	2341.1±225.2	2327.8 ±140.1	2534.3±124.7
Number of Cells / Slice Area [-]	0.43±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	0.49±0.03 <sup>abc</sup>	0.45±0.04 <sup>bc</sup>	0.56±0.08 <sup>ab</sup>	0.59±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.45±0.02 <sup>bc</sup>	0.49±0.02 <sup>abc</sup>	0.51±0.03 <sup>abc</sup>
Average Cell Diameter [mm]	3.53±0.29 <sup>a</sup>	3.24±0.45 <sup>ab</sup>	2.95±0.31 <sup>abc</sup>	2.15±0.36 <sup>cd</sup>	1.86±0.14 <sup>d</sup>	2.75±0.28 <sup>abc</sup>	2.43±0.20 <sup>bcd</sup>	2.54±0.22 <sup>bcd</sup>
<b>Crumb texture</b>								
Hardness (0h) [N]	3.50±0.58 <sup>d</sup>	8.46±0.85 <sup>a</sup>	4.53±0.42 <sup>cd</sup>	7.02±0.75 <sup>ab</sup>	7.27±0.71 <sup>ab</sup>	4.69±0.62 <sup>cd</sup>	6.86±0.65 <sup>ab</sup>	5.77±0.69 <sup>bc</sup>
Hardness (24h) [N]	9.01±0.93 <sup>c</sup>	19.48±2.12 <sup>a</sup>	12.18±1.49 <sup>bc</sup>	16.68±2.34 <sup>ab</sup>	16.45±1.57 <sup>ab</sup>	18.39±2.99 <sup>a</sup>	14.28±1.37 <sup>abc</sup>	17.95±2.57 <sup>a</sup>



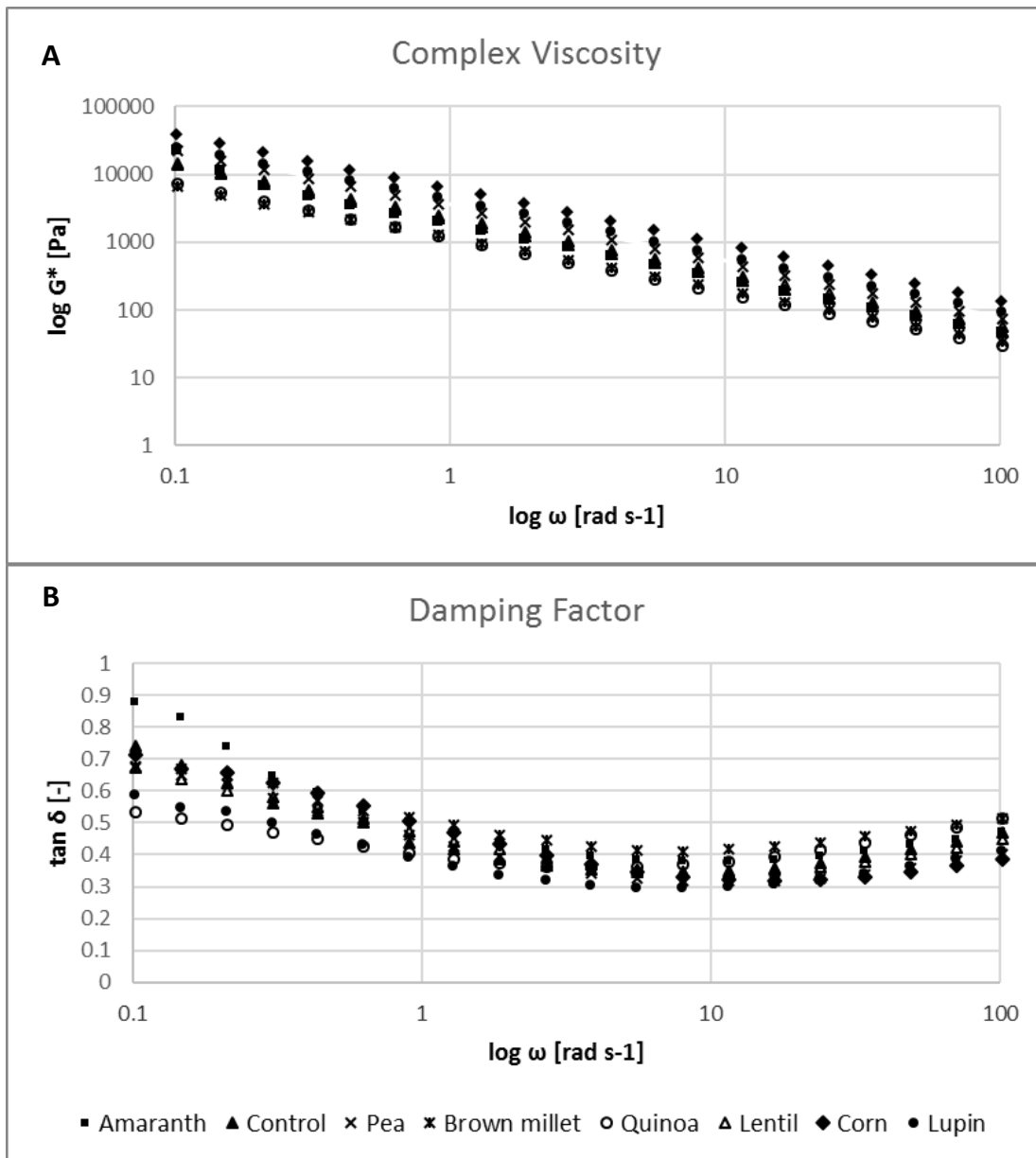
**Colour**

L*-value	56.5±2.2 <sup>cd</sup>	55.8±2.0 <sup>d</sup>	58.0±2.8 <sup>bcd</sup>	63.9±2.1 <sup>ab</sup>	63.9±1.6 <sup>abc</sup>	67.6±3.9 <sup>a</sup>	62.5±2.6 <sup>abcd</sup>	62.9±3.2 <sup>abcd</sup>
a*-value	-0.4±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	0.6±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	-0.5±0.16 <sup>b</sup>	-1.8±0.07 <sup>f</sup>	-0.6±0.05 <sup>bc</sup>	-1.0±0.11 <sup>d</sup>	-1.5±0.12 <sup>e</sup>	-0.8±0.09 <sup>cd</sup>
b*-value	9.52±0.86 <sup>b</sup>	12.64±0.78 <sup>b</sup>	9.18±0.87 <sup>b</sup>	11.98±0.83 <sup>b</sup>	8.85±0.78 <sup>b</sup>	10.17±1.04 <sup>b</sup>	8.03±0.72 <sup>b</sup>	5.70±0.56 <sup>a</sup>

Means in the same row with different letters are significantly different ( $\geq 3$  = One-way ANOVA;  $\geq 2$  = t-Test,  $p < 0.05$ ).

639 **Table 4** Results of bread parameters baked with the different sprouted flours

640 **Figure 1** Rheological properties of different dough formulation, containing the different sprouted flours

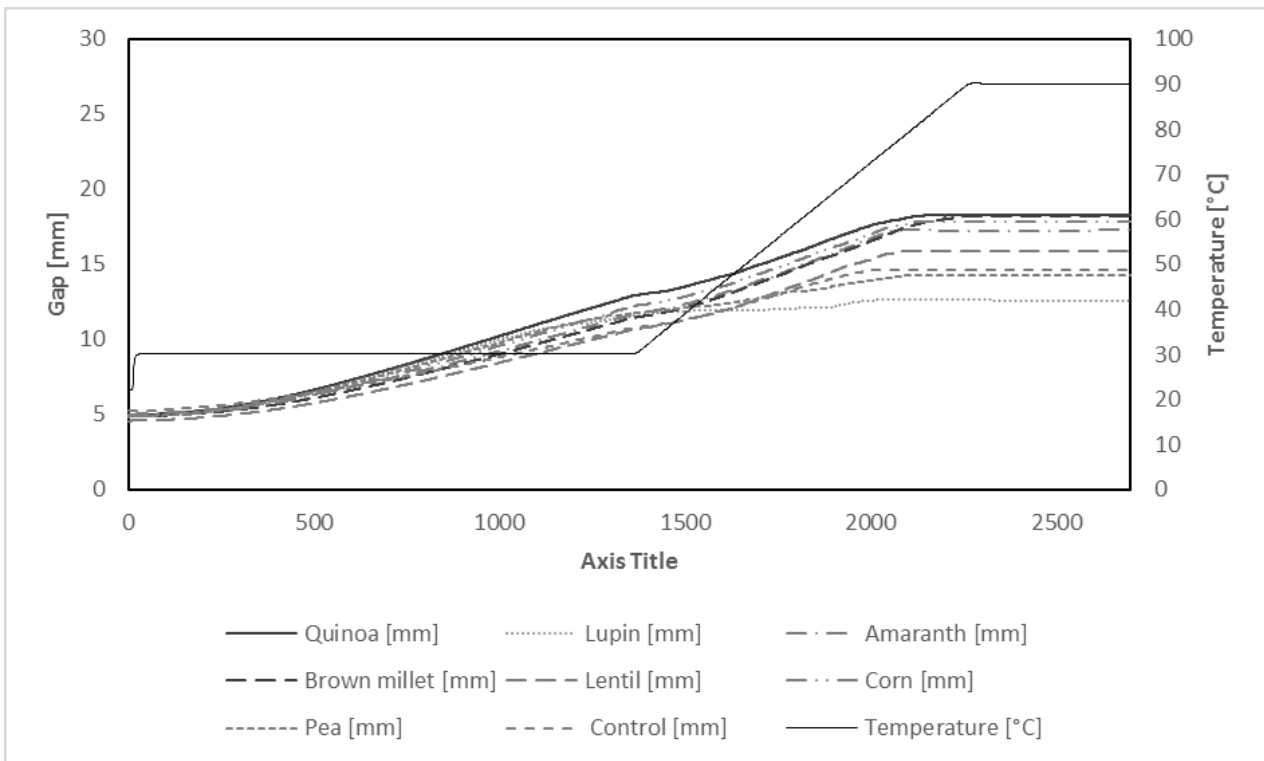


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644 **Figure 2** Time- and Temperature dependent dough rising



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