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1 Extrusion Induced Low-Order Starch Matrices: 2 EnzymicHydrolysis and Structure

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19 **Abstract**

20 Waxy, normal and high-amylose maize starches were extruded with water as sole plasticizer to
21 achieve low-order starch matrices. Of the three starches, we found that only high-amylose extrudate
22 showed lower digestion rate/extent than starches cooked in excess water. The ordered structure of
23 high-amylose starches in cooked and extruded forms was similar, as judged by NMR, XRD and DSC
24 techniques, but enzyme resistance was much greater for extruded forms. Size exclusion
25 chromatography suggested that longer chains were involved in enzyme resistance. We propose that
26 the local molecular density of packing of amylose chains can control the digestion kinetics rather
27 than just crystallinity, with the principle being that density sufficient to either prevent/limit binding
28 and/or slow down catalysis can be achieved by dense amorphous packing.

29

30 *Keywords:* high-amylose starch, extrusion, in vitro digestion, enzyme-resistant starch, local molecular
31 density

32

33 **Abbreviations**

34 CP/MAS, cross-polarized magic angle spinning; DSC, differential scanning calorimetry/calorimeter;
35 G50, Gelose 50; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; LOS, log of slope; NMS, normal maize
36 starch; SEC, size exclusion chromatography; SEM, scanning electron microscope; WMS, waxy maize
37 starch; XRD, X-ray diffractometry/diffractometer.

38

39 1. Introduction

40 As a major macronutrient in human diets, starch is converted to glucose by the mammalian enzyme
41 system (i.e., α -amylases and mucosal α -glucosidases) and absorbed in the small intestine, and often
42 provides more than 50% of total caloric intake (Nishida, Uauy, Kumanyika, & Shetty, 2004). Fast
43 digestion of starch-containing foods may contribute to general chronic diseases in people such as type
44 II diabetes, obesity, and cardiovascular disease. In contrast, starch with slow digestion rate has been
45 proposed to control glycemic response and insulin secretion, and (partially) passes to the large
46 intestine as resistant starch where it functions as a carbon source to stimulate bacterial fermentation,
47 producing metabolites such as short-chain fatty acids (Englyst & Cummings, 1985). In order to
48 eliminate complex intrinsic host factors and individual diversity, resistant starch is most commonly
49 measured by *in vitro* methods that simulate *in vivo* conditions of starch digestion and referred to as
50 'enzyme-resistant starch (ERS)' (to distinguish it from true RS which is defined as the amount of
51 starch that escapes digestion in the small intestine and therefore passes to the large
52 intestine) (Chanvrier, Uthayakumaran, Appelqvist, Gidley, Gilbert, & Lopez-Rubio,
53 2007), particularly to elucidate structure-digestibility relationships for starch-containing food.

54

55 While rapidly, slowly digestible and resistant starch fractions in the current classification suggested
56 by Englyst and Cummings (1985) have been widely used, recent evidence suggests that ERS can be
57 better expressed as a kinetic phenomenon rather than a thermodynamically defined entity
58 (Butterworth, Warren, Grassby, Patel, & Ellis, 2012; Htoon, Shrestha, Flanagan, Lopez-Rubio, Bird,
59 Gilbert, et al., 2009; Zhang, Dhital, & Gidley, 2013). For example, potato starch granules (a
60 'resistant' starch) are not completely resistant to hydrolysis when subjected to higher enzyme
61 concentrations, although the digestion rate is slow (Warren, Zhang, Waltzer, Gidley, & Dhital,
62 2015). The presence of amorphous material in enzyme-resistant fractions also confirms that the
63 resistance is not simply based on a specific crystalline structure that is completely undigested

64 (Lopez-Rubio, Flanagan, Shrestha, Gidley, & Gilbert, 2008). Kinetic analysis of digestion is a
65 powerful tool to understand heterogeneous reactions between complex starch substrates and enzymes.
66 There are two types of rate-limiting steps which can determine enzymic digestion kinetics: (i) enzyme
67 access/binding limited by physical barriers (e.g., intact plant tissues, whole grains and complex food
68 products); (ii) enzyme catalysis limited by starch structural features, such as chemically modified
69 starch, and crystalline/ordered forms such as retrograded starch and starch-lipid complexes. The ERS
70 classification based on mechanisms to achieve lower digestion rate/extent has been recently
71 reviewed (Dhital, Warren, Butterworth, Ellis, & Gidley, 2015; Zhang, Dhital, & Gidley,
72 2015). Although it has been generally accepted that crystallinity plays a major role in determining
73 ERS in the absence of non-starch physical barriers, recent evidence has shown that apparent
74 crystallinity of native starches is not directly linked with the percentage of ERS obtained after
75 extrusion (Chanvrier, Uthayakumaran, Appelqvist, Gidley, Gilbert, & Lopez-Rubio, 2007; Htoon, et
76 al., 2009; Shrestha, Ng, Lopez-Rubio, Blazek, Gilbert, & Gidley, 2010). Htoon, et al. (2009) reported
77 that highly amorphous extruded high-amylose maize starches could deliver high ERS contents *in*
78 *vitro*. Even for native starch granules, crystallinity alone cannot explain their relative resistance to
79 digestion (Zhang, Ao, & Hamaker, 2006). Therefore, there should be additional mechanisms involved
80 in the formation of enzyme-resistant fractions apart from crystallinity. We hypothesise that the local
81 molecular density of starch chains, in both native and processed starches, can control the digestion
82 rate and extent. Although crystallinity is one way to achieve local molecular density, it appears that
83 non- or weakly- crystalline chains can also pack in an equally enzyme-resistant form, the details of
84 which are currently poorly understood.

85

86 Extrusion is a common commercial processing technique for starch-based foods such as pasta and
87 breakfast cereals. The main advantages of extrusion processing include the ability to handle viscous
88 polymers in the presence of plasticizer (normally water in food use). Similarly, the combination of a

89 high temperature with a large amount of mechanical energy input during a short time period can be
90 used to promote structural changes of starch such as gelatinization, melting, degradation and
91 fragmentation (Lai & Kokini, 1991). Generally, molecular, supramolecular and granular structures
92 are disrupted by thermal (barrel temperature), humidity (plasticizer content) and energy input (e.g.,
93 screw speed, feeding rate, die size and screw configuration) during extrusion cooking, each of which
94 could be expected to increase the accessibility of degrading enzymes to starch polymers in extruded
95 products. The intense shear regime within the extruder can cleave α -(1 \rightarrow 4), α -(1 \rightarrow 6)-bonds as well
96 as starch ordered structures such as crystallites and double helices. Amylopectin (highly branched
97 large molecule) is degraded to a larger extent than the essentially linear and lower molecular
98 weight amylose, and the degradation of amylopectin mainly occurs in the outer branch chains (Liu,
99 Halley, & Gilbert, 2010). The larger molecules of amylopectin together with high branching density
100 and short branch length are associated with higher susceptibility to shear degradation (Liu, Halley, &
101 Gilbert, 2010). Fragmentation of starch during extrusion depends on the operating conditions of the
102 extruder such as screw speed, temperature, and moisture content as well as the type of starch used.

103

104 In the current study, we aim to understand the structural origins of enzyme resistance, especially
105 from (near) amorphous conformations using starch extrudates and cooked starches as model systems.
106 For this purpose, three maize starches with different amylose contents were extruded with water as a
107 sole plasticizer, and *in vitro* digestion kinetic profiles of starch extrudates were examined. On the
108 basis of the molecular and microscopic structures of initial extrudates and digestion remnants,
109 mechanisms of enzyme resistance from starch matrices with non- or low-order conformations are
110 discussed.

111

112 2. Materials and Methods

113 2.1 Materials

114 Three commercial starches, i.e., waxy (WMS), normal (NMS), and high-amylose (Gelose 50, G50)
115 maize starches, were used in this study. NMS was from New Zealand Starch Ltd., (Auckland, New
116 Zealand), and the other two starches were purchased from Ingredion Pty. Ltd., (Lane Cove, NSW,
117 Australia). The apparent amylose contents of WMS, NMS, and G50 were found to be 0.1%, 27.5%,
118 and 56.8%, respectively, using an iodine colorimetric method (Hoover & Ratnayake, 2001). Porcine
119 pancreatic α -amylase (A3176, activity 23 units/mg) and other chemicals were obtained from Sigma-
120 Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

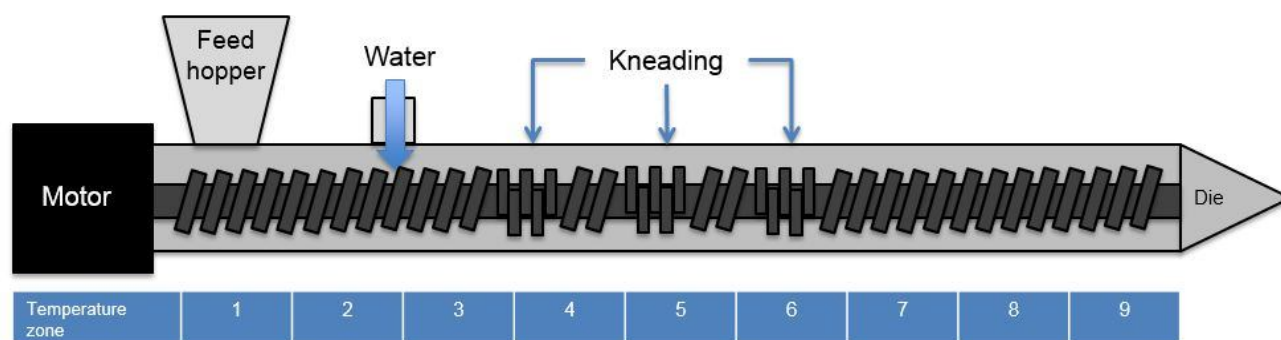
121

122 2.2 Extrusion Processing

123 The extrusion processing was performed on a Haake PolyLab co-rotating twin-screw extruder (Thermo
124 Fisher Scientific, Karlsruhe, Germany) equipped with a 3 mm diameter cylindrical die at a constant
125 feed rate of 0.4 kg/h. The screw diameter was 16 mm, and the length/ diameter ratio was 42:1.

126 The extruder configuration, temperature profile and interval assignment of the extruder barrel are
127 shown in Figure 1. For WMS and NMS, the barrel temperature profile was set at 105, 115, 125, 130,
128 130, 130, 130, 125, 120 (last barrel), and 105 (die block) °C, and the screw speed was set at 60 rpm,
129 and plasticizer (water) content was 35 wt%. In order to achieve gelatinization for the more thermally-
130 stable G50 starch, higher temperature profiles (105, 120, 135, 150, 150, 150, 150, 135, 120, and 105
131 °C), water content and screw speeds were used (45 wt% and 80 rpm for batch 1; 50 wt% and 60 rpm
132 for batch 2). All process parameters were automatically recorded by Haake PolySoft software (Thermo
133 Fisher Scientific, Karlsruhe, Germany). Samples were collected when a steady motor torque was
134 reached, then immediately frozen in a liquid nitrogen bath, freeze-dried to avoid any further
135 retrogradation, and ground using a cryogenic mill (Freezer/Miller 6850, Metuchen, NJ, USA) for
136 further digestion and structural analysis. In order to elucidate the particle size effect on digestion
137 properties, the NMS and G50 extrudates were segregated by size using seven screen sieves (size: 20,
138 32, 53, 75, 90, 125 and 150 μm , Labtechnics, Kilkenny, Australia) under gravity with mechanical

139 agitation using a sieve shaker (Labtechnics, Kilkenny, Australia).



140

141 Figure 1. Scheme of the extrusion system used in this study. (The barrel temperature profile for WMS

142 and NMS: 105, 115, 125, 130, 130, 130, 130, 125, 120 (last barrel), and 105 (die block) °C; the

143 temperature profile for the G50 starch: 105, 120, 135, 150, 150, 150, 150, 135, 120, and 105 °C)

144

145 **2.3 *In Vitro* Starch Digestion and First-Order Kinetics**

146 The *in vitro* starch digestion procedure was adapted from the method described by Butterworth,

147 Warren, Grassby, Patel, and Ellis (2012) with slight modifications. Starch extrudate (~50 mg, dry

148 basis) was incubated in 15 mL phosphate buffered saline (PBS) with 3.4 units α -amylase at 37°C with

149 constant mixing. For the control groups, starches were cooked at 100°C for 30 min in 15 mL PBS

150 buffer with constant mixing, and cooled down to 37 °C before adding the enzyme solution. At timed

151 intervals up to 120 min, 300 μ L of aliquot was mixed with 300 μ L of ice-cold sodium carbonate

152 solution (0.5 M) to stop the reaction, and centrifuged at 16,000 g for 5 min to remove undigested

153 starch. The concentration of maltose equivalent (reducing sugar) in the supernatant was determined

154 by the *para*-hydroxybenzoic acid hydrazide (PAHBAH) assay (H9882, Sigma) (Moretti & Thorson,

155 2008), and the maltose equivalent released (%) was calculated as follows.

156 maltose equivalent released (%) = $\frac{\text{total weight of equivalent maltose in supernatant}}{\text{dry weight of starch}} \times 100$ (1) **All**

157 **digestion results were expressed as means of triplicate measurements.** The undigested starch

158 residues collected as precipitates after centrifugation were washed twice with de-ionized water, then

159 freeze-dried for further microscopic and structural analysis. The reducing sugar profile or
 160 digestogram was then fitted to first-order equation (using log of slope (LOS) plots) for the starch
 161 digestion kinetics as follows (Butterworth, Warren, Grassby, Patel, & Ellis, 2012):

$$162 \quad \ln\left(\frac{dC}{dt}\right) = \ln(C_{\infty}k) - kt \quad (2)$$

163 where t is the digestion time (min), C is digested starch at incubation time t , C_{∞} is digestion at
 164 infinite time, and k is rate constant (min^{-1}). The plot of $\ln(dC/dt)$ against digestion time t is linear with
 165 a slope of $-k$, and the C_{∞} can be calculated from the intercept of the equation and slope k . The rate
 166 constant is a function of the fixed amylase and starch concentrations used in the digestion, and is
 167 therefore pseudo-first order. The physical structure of starches also plays an important role in
 168 determining the rate constant of starch digestion (Zhang, Dhital, & Gidley, 2013).

169

170 **2.4 Separation of Soluble and Insoluble Fractions**

171 A starch sample (~50 mg, dry basis) was incubated in 15 mL water at 37 °C for 30 min with constant
 172 mixing. The suspension was then centrifuged at 4000 g for 10 min. The pellet (i.e., insoluble
 173 fraction) and the supernatant (i.e., soluble fraction) were frozen in a liquid nitrogen bath and dried
 174 using a freeze-dryer (VirTis Benchtop 4K, SP Industries, Inc., Warminster, PA),

175

176 **2.5 Microscopy**

177 Light microscopy was performed using an Olympus BX-61 light microscope (Tokyo, Japan) under
 178 bright or polarized field. The dried starch sample was suspended with glycerol and placed on the
 179 microscope slide before covering with a coverslip, and the images were recorded at 200X
 180 magnification. For scanning electron microscopy (SEM), the starch sample was sprayed onto a
 181 circular metal stub covered with a double-sided adhesive carbon tape, then coated with platinum by a
 182 sputter coater (Eiko IB3, Mito, Japan) for 3 min at 15 mA. The images were acquired using a Philips
 183 XL30 scanning electron microscope (Philips, Eindhoven, the Netherlands) under an accelerating

184 voltage of 5 kV.

185

186 **2.6 Differential Scanning Calorimetry**

187 To characterize the extent of starch transformation after extrusion or digestion, extrudates/digesta
188 were analyzed by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC, DSC 1, Mettler Toledo, Schwerzenbach,
189 Switzerland) following the method of B. Zhang, Huang, Luo, and Fu (2012). Starch samples (~5 mg)
190 were mixed with de-ionized water to a moisture content of 70%, and hermetically sealed in a
191 stainless steel pan. The scan was carried out from 20 to 180°C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min. The
192 enthalpy change (ΔH) as well as the melting (T_m) temperature was determined from the thermograms
193 by STARe software (Mettler Toledo, Schwerzenbach, Switzerland).

194

195 **2.7 Wide Angle X-Ray Diffractometry**

196 X-ray diffraction measurements were performed with an X'Pert Pro X-ray diffractometer (XRD)
197 (PANalytical, Almelo, the Netherlands) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA with Cu K α radiation (λ) at
198 0.15405 nm. The scanning region was set from 3 to 40° of the diffraction angle 2θ with a step interval
199 of 0.02° and a scan rate of 0.5°/min. The crystalline peak area and amorphous area were separated by
200 PeakFit software (Version 4.12, Sytstat Software Inc., San Jose, CA, USA) following the method of
201 Lopez-Rubio, Flanagan, Gilbert, and Gidley (2008). Relative crystallinity was calculated as the ratio
202 of the crystalline peak area to the total diffraction area.

203

204 **2.8 ^{13}C CP/MAS Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy**

205 Starch extrudates were analyzed by ^{13}C cross-polarized magic angle spinning (CP/MAS) nuclear
206 magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy before and after subsequent enzymic digestion, using a
207 Bruker MSL-300 spectrometer (Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA) at a frequency of 75.46 MHz.

208 Approximately 200 mg starch was packed in a 4-mm diameter, cylindrical, PSZ (partially stabilized

209 zirconium oxide) rotor with a Kel-F end cap. The rotor was spun at 5 kHz at the magic angle (54.7°).
210 The 90° pulse width of 5 μ s and a contact time of 1 ms were used for all starches with a recycle delay
211 of 3 s. The spectral width was 38 kHz, acquisition time 50 ms, time domain points 2 k, transform
212 size 4 k, and line broadening 20 Hz. At least 1000 scans were accumulated for each spectrum.
213 Spectral acquisition and interpretation methodology as described by Tan, Flanagan, Halley,
214 Whittaker, and Gidley (2007) were used to quantify the double helices, single helices, and
215 amorphous conformational features.

216

217 **2.9 Size Exclusion Chromatography**

218 The whole (fully branched) and debranched size distribution of starch molecules were analyzed by a
219 size exclusion chromatography (SEC) system (Agilent 1100, Agilent Technologies, Waldbronn,
220 Germany) equipped with a refractive index detector (RID-10A, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) following
221 the method of Cave, Seabrook, Gidley, and Gilbert (2009) and B. Zhang, Dhital, Flanagan, and
222 Gidley (2014) with minor modification. For fully branched size distribution, starch (2 mg) was
223 dissolved in 1 mL DMSO solution containing 0.5% (w/w) LiBr (DMSO/LiBr) at 80 °C in a
224 thermomixer (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) for 24 h. Samples were mixed well and centrifuged at
225 4000g for 10 min. Supernatant was transferred into a SEC vial then injected into the following series
226 of columns: precolumn, Gram30, and Gram3000 (PSS, Mainz, Germany). The injection volume was
227 100 μ L, the flow rate was 0.3 mL/min, and the temperature was 80 °C. For debranched size
228 distribution, starch (~ 4 mg) was dissolved in 1.5 mL DMSO/LiBr in the same way as that of the
229 fully branched samples. The dissolved starch was then precipitated using 6 mL absolute ethanol. The
230 recovered starch pellet was dissolved in 0.9 mL of warm deionized water in a boiling water bath for
231 15 min. After being cooled to room temperature, the starch dispersion was mixed with 5 μ L sodium
232 azide solution (40 mg/mL), 0.1 mL acetate buffer (0.1M, pH 3.5), and 2.5 μ L isoamylase (1000U/mL,
233 Megazyme, Co. Wicklow, Ireland), in sequence, and the debranching reaction was carried out at 37

234 °C for 3 h. The debranched starch dispersion was neutralized to pH ~7 dropwise with 0.1 M NaOH
235 solution, then heated in 80 °C water bath for 2 h to inactivate enzyme. Debranched samples were
236 freeze-dried and comprised ~6 mg/mL starch in DMSO/LiBr, and were injected into PSS Gram100
237 and 1000 columns following a pre-column. The injection volume was 100 μ L, the flow rate was 0.6
238 mL/min, and the temperature was 80 °C.

239

240 The molecular size distribution data were plotted as SEC weight distribution, $w(\log V_h)$ as a function
241 of the hydrodynamic radius (R_h /nm). For branched starch molecules, there is no unique
242 correspondence between size and molecule weight (Gilbert, Gidley, Hill, Kilz, Rolland-Sabate,
243 Stevenson, et al., 2010). For linear polymers of uniform geometry, the size and molecular weight (or
244 equivalently the degree of polymerization, DP) are uniquely related, and hence the size distribution
245 can be converted to a molecular weight distribution using the Mark-Houwink equation (Cave,
246 Seabrook, Gidley, & Gilbert, 2009; Clay & Gilbert, 1995). The Mark-Houwink parameters K and
247 α for linear starch polymers in DMSO/LiBr at 80 °C are 0.0150 mL/g and 0.743, respectively (Liu,
248 Halley, & Gilbert, 2010).

249

250 **2.10 Statistical Analysis**

251 Results were expressed as means of duplicate measurements unless otherwise specified. Analysis of
252 variance (ANOVA) was used to determine significance at $p < 0.05$ using Minitab 16 (Minitab Inc.,
253 State College, PA, USA), and correlation coefficients were determined using Microsoft Office Excel
254 2013.

255

256 **3. Results**

257 **3.1 *In Vitro* Starch Digestion**

258 *In vitro* digestion kinetic profiles of control (i.e., cooked starches) and experimental (i.e., starch
259 extrudates) groups were monitored by reducing sugar assay with a fixed α -amylase activity; results
260 are shown in Figure 2A. The digestion rate and extent of starch or starch-containing food are very
261 dependent on the enzyme type(s) and the concentration conditions used (Warren, Zhang, Waltzer,
262 Gidley, & Dhital, 2015). For example, α -amylase and amyloglucosidase act synergistically in the
263 production of glucose from granular starch digestion, whereas there is an antagonistic effect for
264 cooked starches (Zhang, Dhital, & Gidley, 2013). Therefore, this kinetic study used α -amylase alone
265 to investigate digestion rate/extent of starches in cooked or extrudate forms. In order to obtain a
266 logarithmic digestion curve and fit first-order kinetics, a selected α -amylase activity condition (3.4 unit
267 per 50 mg starch) was used to convert sufficient starch substrate to oligosaccharide products over the
268 time course, showing logarithmic curves for all starch samples (Butterworth, Warren, Grassby, Patel,
269 & Ellis, 2012; Warren, Zhang, Waltzer, Gidley, & Dhital, 2015). It should be noted that the
270 selected amylase activity is dependent on the physical nature of a starch substrate; for example, a
271 relatively higher amylase concentration is needed for native starches compared to cooked forms, and
272 also depends on the botanic origins (Butterworth, Warren, Grassby, Patel, & Ellis, 2012; Zhang,
273 Dhital, & Gidley, 2013).

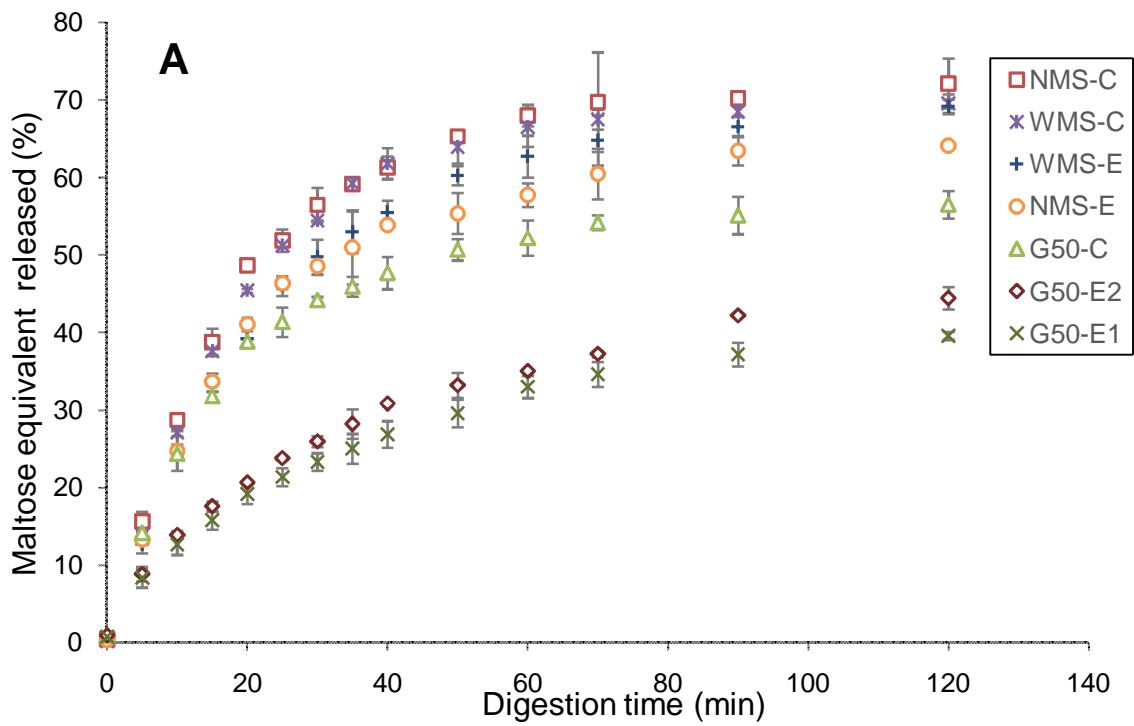
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275 LOS fitting analysis (shown in Supplementary Data Figure S1) was applied to the starch digestion
276 kinetic profiles to obtain first-order coefficients (k), showing that all digestion profiles can be
277 described by a single-phase pseudo-first order process ($R^2 > 0.90$). Single rate coefficients of starches in
278 cooked and extrudate forms and digestion extents after 2 h of digestion are summarized in Table 1.

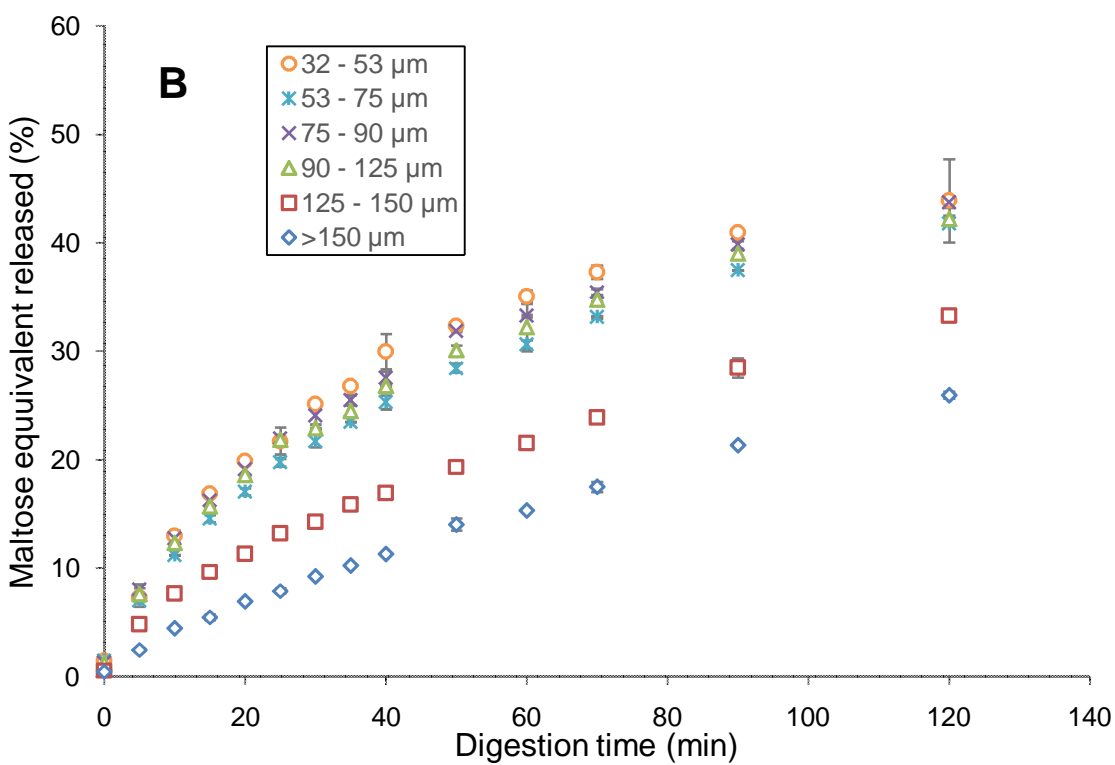
279 Comparison of the digestion rate and extent of WMS and NMS in cooked and
280 extrudate forms indicated that the digestion processes (digestogram and k values, Figure 2A and Table
281 1) are similar, although NMS extrudate has a slightly lower reducing sugar value after 2 h of
282 digestion (64.1% cf 69.1 - 72.2%), suggesting a role for amylose in reducing hydrolysis rates in

283 essentially non-ordered (Table 2) extrudatesamples. Compared to other cooked starches, cooked G50
284 starch shows slightly lower digestion rate and extent (0.0400 min^{-1} , 56.5%, respectively). However,
285 it was found thatthe digestion rate coefficient for two G50extrudatebatches (batch one, 0.0238 min^{-1} ;
286 batch two, 0.0244 min^{-1}) was ca. 2 times lower than that of WMS and NMS extrudates. In addition,
287 among extrudates from different initial amylose contents, high-amylose starch shows relatively
288 higher enzyme resistance towards amylase (yield of ERS at 2 h of digestion >40%), consistent with
289 previous reports (Chanvrier, Uthayakumaran, Appelqvist, Gidley, Gilbert, & Lopez-Rubio, 2007;
290 Htoon, et al., 2009).

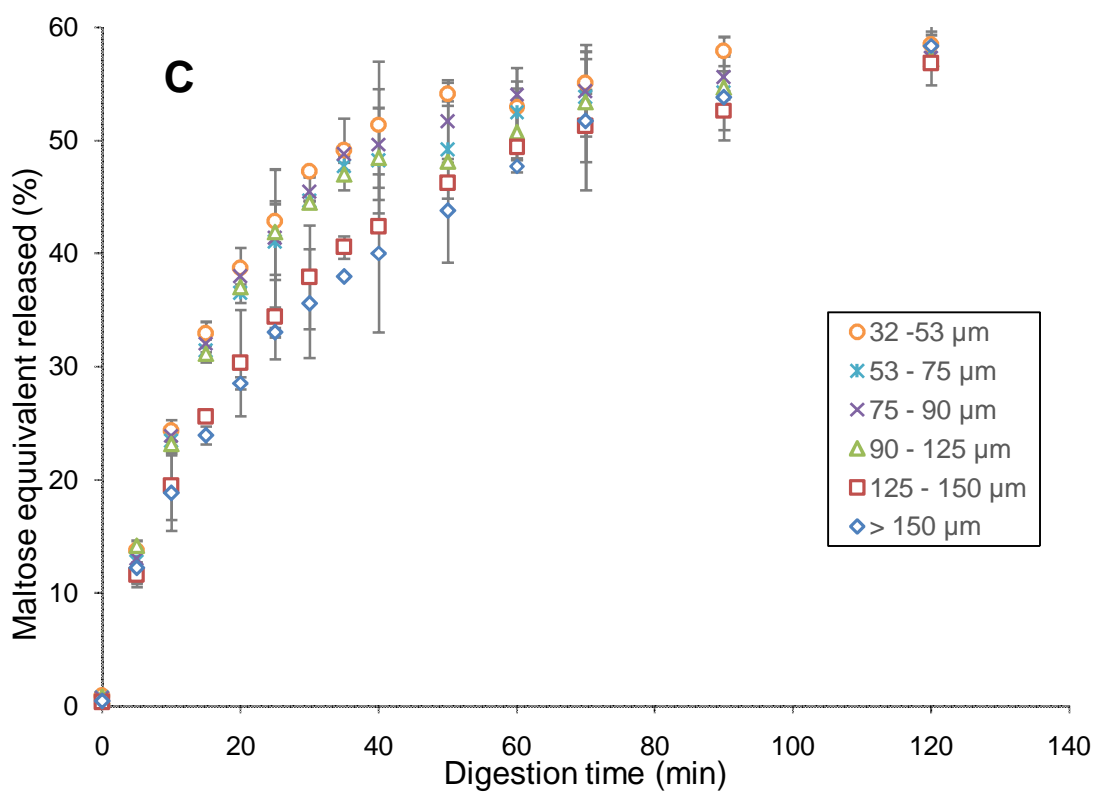
291
292 In order to elucidate the effect of particle size on enzymic susceptibility, NMS and G50 extrudates
293 were fractionated into various sizes by sieving, and analyzed for amylase digestion kinetics with
294 results presented in panels B and C of Figure 2. Small and medium size fractions (32 – 125 μm) did not
295 affect the digestion kinetic profiles much (digestogram and k values). As shown in Supplementary
296 Data Table S1, the majority (relative yields > ca. 85%) of extrudates were in the small and medium
297 size fractions, in agreement with their overall digestion kinetics. As the particle size increased, a
298 marked reduction in starch digestibility for the larger size particles (>125 μm) of both NMS and G50
299 extrudates was observed.



300



301



302
303

304 Figure 2. (A) Digestion kinetic profiles of waxy, normal and high-amylose maize starches subjected
 305 to cooking or extrusion processing. Digestion kinetic profiles of size fractionated extruded high-
 306 amylose (B) and normal (C) maize starches. (WMS, waxy maize starch; NMS, normal maize starch;
 307 G50, high-amylose maize starch; E, extrudate; C, cooked).

308 Table 1. Digestion rate coefficient (k , min^{-1}) and reducing sugar released extent after 2 h digestion of
 309 starches in cooked and extrudate forms.^A (WMS, waxy maize starch; NMS, normal maize starch; G50,
 310 high-amylose maize starch; E, extrudate; C, cooked)

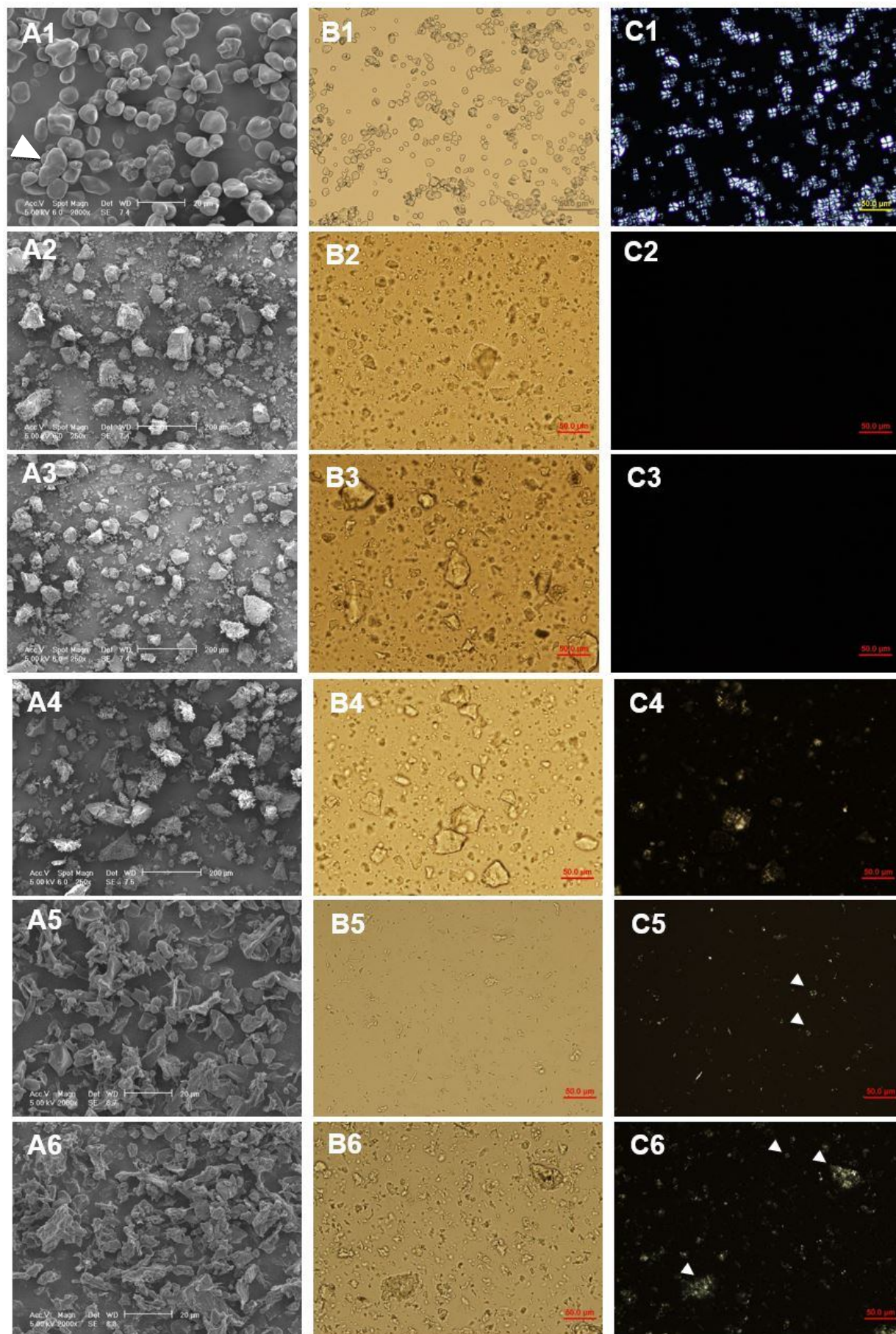
sample	$k(\text{min}^{-1})$	Reducing sugar released (%)
WMS-C	0.0481	72.2(3.2) a
NMS-C	0.0447	69.6(1.2) a
G50-C	0.0400	56.5(1.8) c
WMS-E	0.0403	69.1(1.0) a
NMS-E	0.0408	64.1(0.3) b
G50-E1	0.0238	42.7(0.5) d
G50-E2	0.0244	44.5(1.4) d

323 ^AMeans (standard deviations) from three measurements. Values in the column with different letters
 324 are significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

326 3.2 Microscopic Structure of Extruded Starches and Their Digestion Residues

327 Electron and light micrographs of extruded starches and residues/fragments after 2 h of digestion are
 328 shown in Figure 3. The G50 starch granules before extrusion (Figure 3 A1 and B1) show spherical or
 329 occasional elongated rod (arrow in Figure 3 A1) shapes with apparently unimodal particle size
 330 distribution ranging from 5 to 20 μm as reported previously for maize starch granules of similar
 331 amylose content (Jiang, Horner, Pepper, Blanco, Campbell, & Jane, 2010). Under polarized light,
 332 native G50 starch granules show characteristic birefringence with clear Maltese crosses centered at
 333 the hilum (Figure 3 C1). From SEM and light microscopy (Figure 3 A2 – A4, B2 – B4), extrusion
 334 and cryo-milling resulted in both fragmentation and aggregation with a wide size distribution ranging
 335 from 10 to 200 μm . Although the WMS and NMS extrudates show condensed and irregularly-shaped
 336 surface structures under SEM, they could be partly dissolved in water or PBS buffer quickly (from
 337 experimental observations). No birefringence can be detected from WMS and NMS extrudates (Figure

338 3 C2 – C3), suggesting that complete gelatinization is induced by extrusion. In contrast, extruded G50
339 starches show a low level of birefringence and distorted Maltese crosses (Figure 3 C4), indicating that
340 the current extrusion conditions did not completely disrupt the ordered structure. A number of
341 different extrusion conditions (e.g. maximum temperatures from 130°C to 150°C) and water contents
342 (from 35 % to 50 %) were evaluated, but none were able to produce G50 extrudates lacking any
343 birefringence. Complete melting of high-amylose starches by extrusion in the presence of non-
344 aqueous plasticizers or solvents is possible (Xie, Flanagan, Li, Sangwan, Truss, Halley, et al., 2014),
345 but for this study we limited ourselves to water as the only plasticiser of relevance to food processing.
346 The **observed** structure of G50 extrudates (Figure 3 A4) is similar to WMS and NMS extrudates
347 (Figure 3 A2-3), but was constrained from swelling extensively in water or buffer **even after enzyme**
348 **treatment** (Figure 3 B6) unlike WMS or NMS extrudates. By the end of the 2h digestion process, a
349 marked reduction in particle size was observed compared to the initial G50 starches in cooked or
350 extrudate form, as shown in panels A5 – A6 and B5 – B6 of Figure 3. Most digestion residues were
351 present as smaller particles with a similar size of around 10 µm, along with a few large aggregates.
352 Under polarized light, relatively lower levels of birefringence and some clear Maltese crosses can be
353 identified from digesta of cooked or extruded G50 starches (Figure 3 C5 – C6), indicating that the
354 digestion remnants were composed of G50 granules tightly embedded in a starch matrix (extrudate)
355 or residual granules with incomplete disruption of internal organization during extrusion or cooking.
356



357

358

359 Figure 3. Micrographs (A, scanning electron micrographs; B and C, light micrographs under bright
 360 field and polarized light respectively) of extruded starches (1: native G50 starch; 2, 3, 4: extruded
 361 waxy, normal, and high-amylose maize starches respectively) and their 2 h digestion residues from
 362 cooked G50 (5) and extruded G50 (6) starches. Arrows show an elongated granule (A1)
 363 and representative Maltese crosses of starch granules (C5, C6).

364

365 3.3 Molecular Order and Crystallinity Before and After Digestion

366 The molecular order (i.e., helical content) and crystallinity level of starch extrudates before and after
 367 enzymic hydrolysis were quantified by solid-state NMR spectroscopy and XRD respectively, as
 368 shown in Figure 4 and Table 2. The melting (peak) temperature and enthalpy determined by DSC for
 369 different starch samples after extrusion and after 2 h of digestion, are summarized in Table 2.

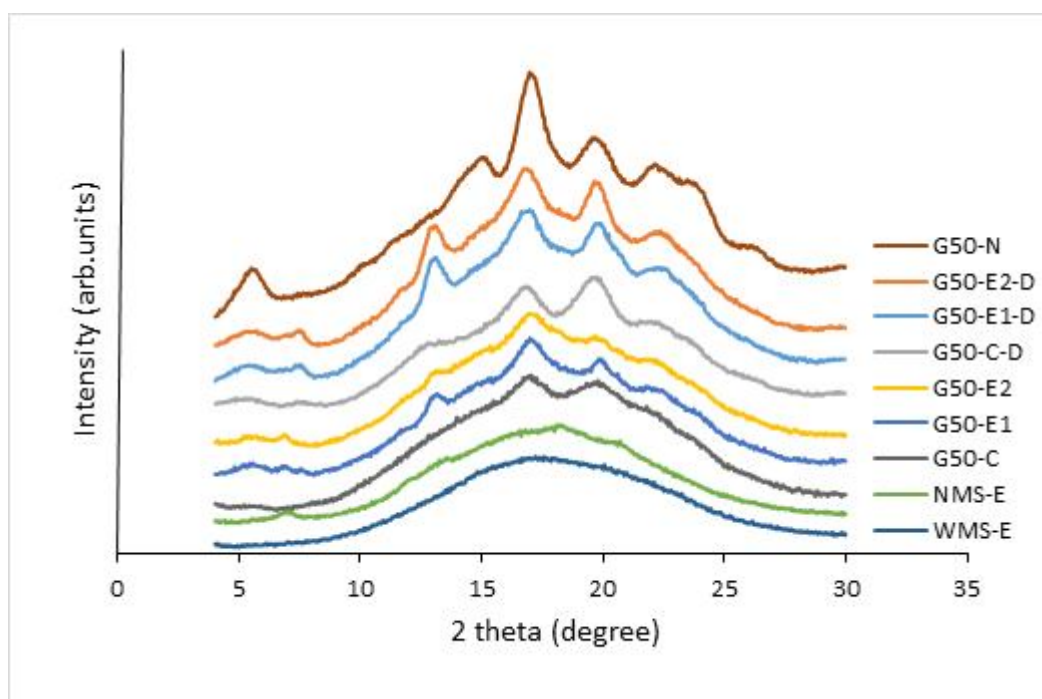
370 Extrusion processing under the selected condition leads to the almost complete gelatinization of waxy
 371 and normal maize starches, as shown by <5% A-type double helices and <1% crystallinity (Table 2)
 372 as well as DSC thermograms without any endothermic peak up to 180°C (data not
 373 shown) consistent with the absence of birefringence in Figure 3 C2-3. As observed in Figure 4A,
 374 native high-amylose G50 starch displays a typical B-type diffraction pattern with major peaks at ~5,
 375 14, 17, 22 and 24°2θ, and a clear peak at ~20°2θ is ascribed to V-type single helices (Cheetham &
 376 Tao, 1998). However, V-type polymorph does not always imply a fatty acid complexed with amylose
 377 molecules (Godet, Buleon, Tran, & Colonna, 1993), and this formation is favored under high-shear
 378 extrusion conditions as reported elsewhere (Lopez-Rubio, Htoon, & Gilbert, 2007). After processing,
 379 the G50 extrudate shows mostly B-type polymorph with some clear evidence for V-type peaks (e.g.,
 380 at ~8, 13, 20°2θ, see Figure 4A) and about 50% reduction of B-type double helix and crystallinity
 381 levels (Table 2), compared to the original native form. The DSC thermograms for extruded G50
 382 starches had a broad endothermic peak ranging from 113 to 130°C and peaking at around 120°C. In
 383 addition, the enthalpy of this peak was very low and not significantly different from batch one to

384 batch two (between 1.5 and 1.9 J/g), which could be attributed to the melting of retrograded amylose
385 formed during extrusion.

386

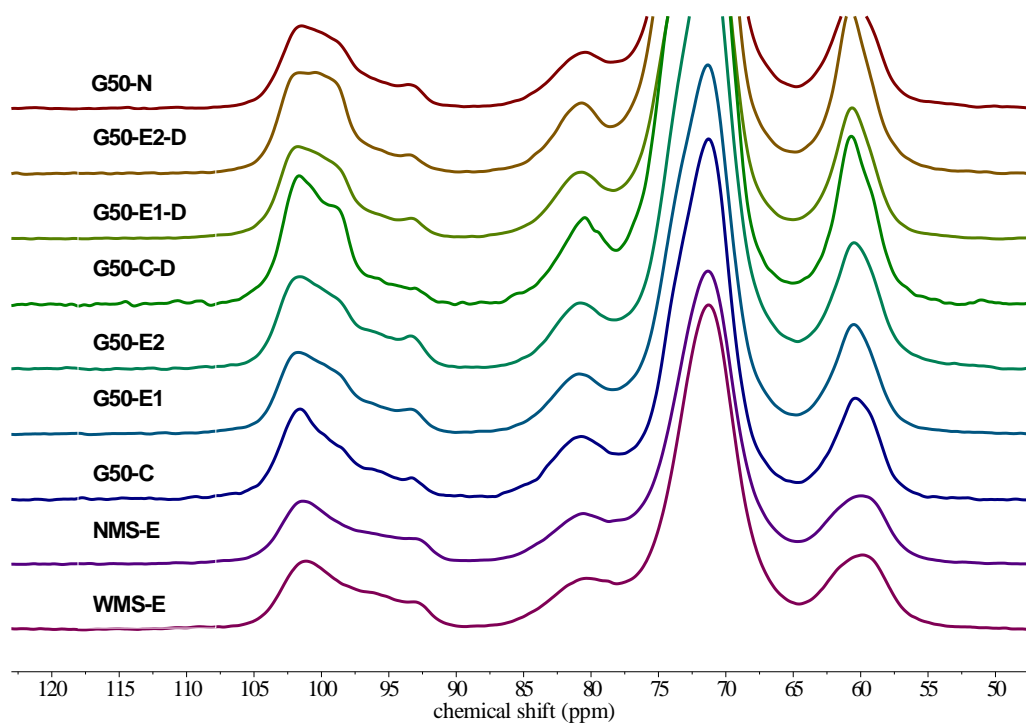
387 The digestion residues of G50 starches in cooked and extrudate forms also show a mixture of B- and
388 V- type polymorphs from X-ray diffractograms (Figure 4A). Similar to the corresponding extrudate
389 samples, only B-type double helices were detected from NMR spectroscopy (Figure 4B), presumably
390 because of some random coil-like amylose molecules without any inclusion formed during extrusion
391 as described previously (Godet, Buleon, Tran, & Colonna, 1993). The levels of molecular and
392 crystalline order were slightly higher for the ERS residues (~17% double helix and ~17%
393 crystallinity) than for the starting extruded G50 starches (9-12% double helix and 11-14%
394 crystallinity). The enzyme resistant B-type ordered helical structure could be from either accumulated
395 or newly formed double helices during the time course of digestion (Cairns, Sun, Morris, & Ring,
396 1995). Lopez-Rubio, Flanagan, Shrestha, Gidley, and Gilbert (2008) suggested that partly degraded
397 shorter amylose chains show high mobility, and can self-assemble into more enzyme resistant double
398 helices during digestion. However, it is noteworthy that the molecular order and crystallinity levels
399 of the digesta were close to the corresponding native G50 starch as shown in Table 2, showing that
400 still more than 80% of the 2h digestion residue fraction is amorphous. The melting temperature and
401 enthalpy of the digestion residues were slightly lower compared to starting G50 extrudates, probably
402 due to partial degradation of double helices by α -amylase.

403



404

405 Figure 4A. X-ray diffractograms of extruded starches and their 2 h digestion residues (WMS, waxy
 406 maize starch; NMS, normal maize starch; G50, high-amylose maize starch; E, extrudate; N, native;
 407 C, cooked; D, 2 h digestion residue).



408

409 Figure 4B. Stacked plot of ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of starches, normalized at 84ppm. The C-1
 410 peak at 93-107 ppm is particularly sensitive to molecular order.

411 Table 2. Molecular order, crystallinity and thermal properties of extruded starches and 2 h digestion
 412 residues.^A (WMS, waxy maize starch; NMS, normal maize starch; G50, high-amylose maize starch;
 413 E, extrudate; N, native; C, cooked; D, 2 h digestion residue)
 414

sample	¹³ C NMR		XRD		DSC	
	double helix (%)	single helix (%)	A-or B-type	V-type	<i>T_m</i> (°C)	ΔH (J/g)
WMS-E	4	0	<1	0	-	-
NMS-E	5	1	<1	3	-	-
G50-E1	12	0	14	3	118.8(0.7) b	1.9(0.1)bc
G50-E2	9	0	11	4	122.3(0.9) a	1.5(0.2) c
G50-N	22	5	26	3	79.8(0.3) e	9.8(0.4) a
G50-C	5	2	9	3	ND ^B	ND ^B
G50-C-D	21	0	14	8	102.5(0.3) d	2.7(0.2) b
G50-E1-D	17	0	17	8	115.1(0.7) c	1.3(0.1) c
G50-E2-D	16	0	17	6	115.6(0.6) c	1.2(0.1) c

415 ^A XRD and NMR calculations are within SD of 2%. Means \pm standard deviations from at least two
 416 measurements. Values in the same column with different letters are significantly different at $p <$
 417 0.05. *T_m* and ΔH are melting temperature and enthalpy change, respectively.

418 ^B Not determined.

419

420 3.4 Molecular Size Distributions

421 The molecular size distributions of enzymatically debranched and fully branched starch polymers
 422 were characterized using SEC. All SEC weight distributions were normalized to yield the same
 423 height of the highest peak to bring out detailed features and to facilitate qualitative comparison and
 424 interpretation, and are presented in Figures 5 and 6. Typical chain length distributions
 425 of debranched starch molecules (e.g., native G50 starch, Figure 5 A) shows bimodal peaks
 426 representing amylopectin branches (single-lamella, peak $R_h \sim 1.5$ nm or DP ~ 16 ; trans-lamella, R_h
 427 peak ~ 2.5 nm, DP ~ 50) and amylose branches ($R_h \sim 5 - 80$ nm, DP $\sim 100 - 10000$) (Wang, Hasjim,
 428 Wu, Henry, & Gilbert, 2014; Zhang, Dhital, Flanagan, & Gidley, 2014). The branched SEC weight
 429 distribution of native G50 starch (see Figure 5 E) exhibits two distinct peaks for amylose and
 430 amylopectin molecules separated at $R_h \sim 200$ nm. It is noteworthy that shear degradation of dissolved
 431 starch molecules in DMSO/LiBr happens during SEC separation, especially for amylopectin which is

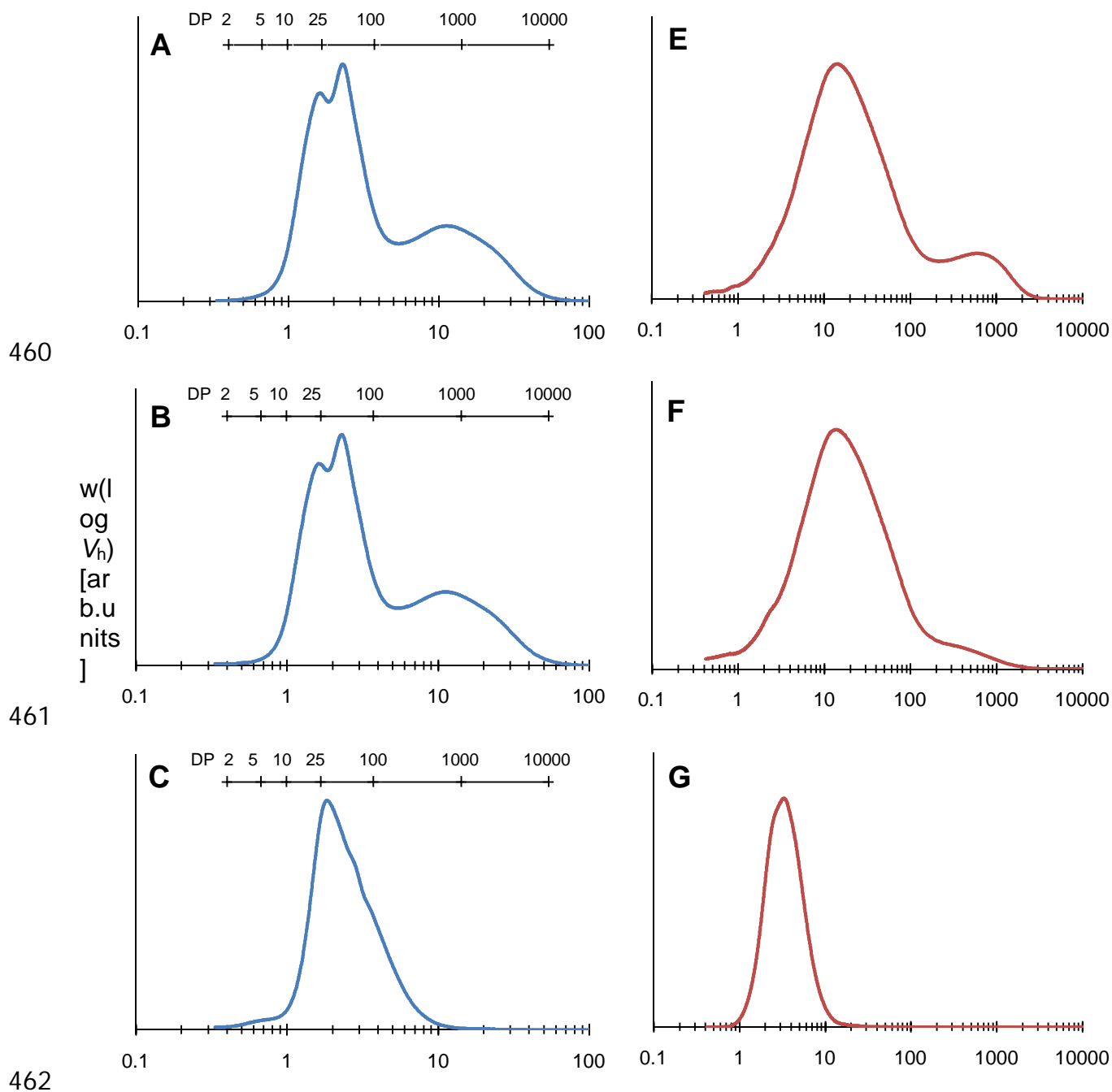
432 sufficiently degraded to a smaller size to result in overestimation of the amylose peak (Gidley,
433 Hanashiro, Hani, Hill, Huber, Jane, et al., 2010). The fully branched SEC distribution of extruded
434 G50 starch (Figure 5 F) shows a unimodal peak with a large reduction in amylopectin size.
435 Degradation during extrusion preferentially operates on the large molecular size and highly branched
436 primary structure of amylopectin, whereas whole amylose molecules could be largely retained (Liu,
437 Halley, & Gilbert, 2010). The mechanical/shear force induced by extrusion processing is believed to
438 randomly cleave glycosidic bonds in branches of amylopectin, but with more pronounced action
439 adjacent to rigid crystallites in granular starches (Li, Hasjim, Xie, Halley, & Gilbert, 2014). This is
440 consistent with the lack of qualitative difference in the debranched chain length distributions
441 between native and extruded G50 starches, as shown in panels A and B of Figure 5.

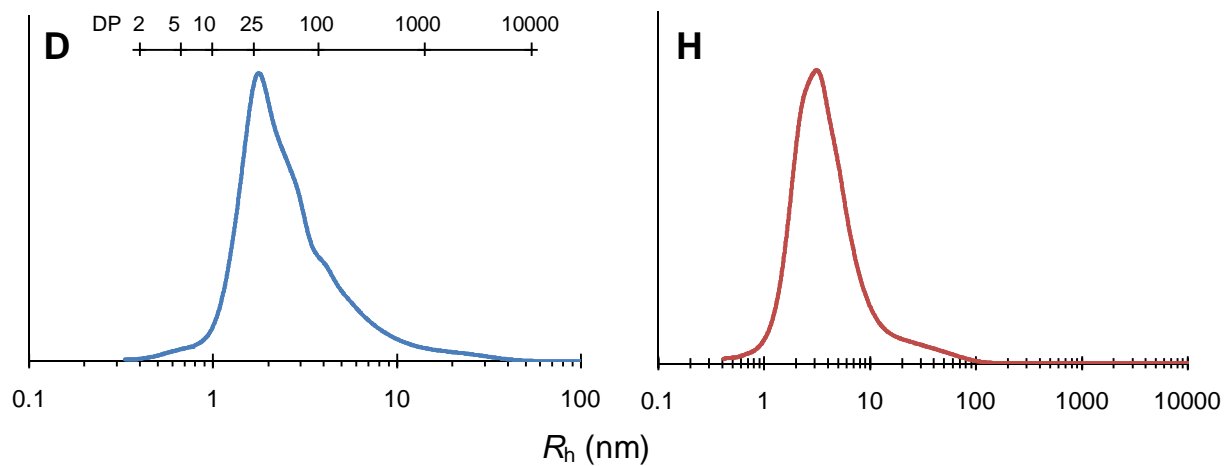
442

443 The branched SEC weight distributions for soluble starch fractions show a single peak with a smaller
444 molecular size (R_h peak ~ 10 nm, Figure 6 E, G) compared to the bimodal peaks for the insoluble
445 fractions of cooked and extruded G50 starches (Figure 6 E-H), indicating that these lower size
446 molecules could be dissolved in water or PBS buffer before enzyme reaction happened. The branched
447 SEC data of all extruded G50 samples in either soluble or insoluble form show slightly lower
448 R_h peaks than corresponding cooked starches (Figure 6 E, G cf. F, H), consistent with the shear
449 degradation mechanism discussed above. In addition, comparison of the debranched SEC
450 data (Figure 6 A - D) also shows that incubation of both cooked and extruded starches in the PBS
451 buffer at 37°C is accompanied by the partial dissolution of both amylose and amylopectin with low
452 molecular size: less release of degraded polymers for the extrudate form and more for cooked G50
453 starch. Starch samples after 2h of amylase digestion were greatly degraded in whole molecular size
454 (Figure 5 G, H), and contained a mixture of amylopectin (R_h peak ~ 2 nm, DP ~ 25) and long chain
455 polymers ($R_h > \sim 5$ nm, DP $> \sim 100$) interpreted from Figure 5 C, D. There were more long chain
456 polymers with $R_h \sim 10$ nm in the digestion residues from G50 extrudates (Figure 5 C cf. D) as well

457 as larger polymers ($R_h > 10$ nm; Figure 5 G cf. H), which might play important roles in restricting
 458 enzyme action.

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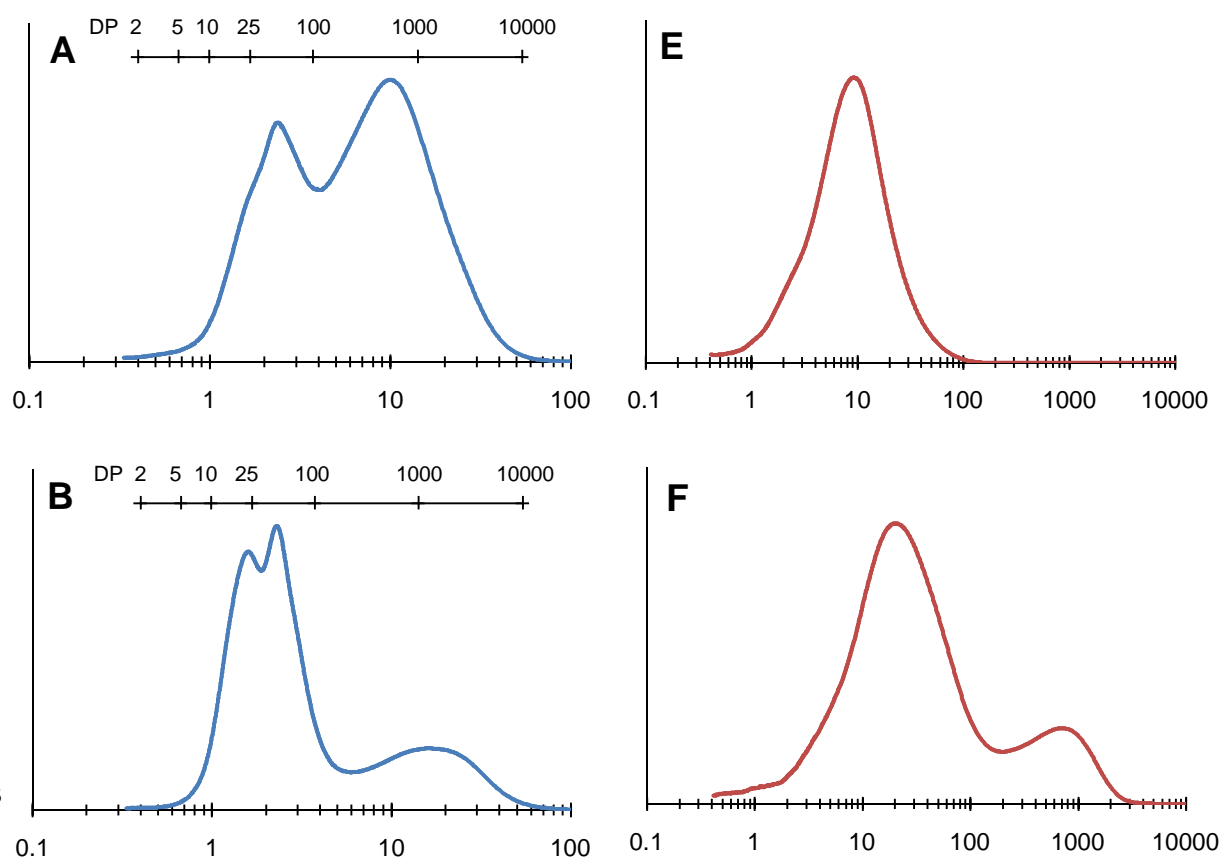




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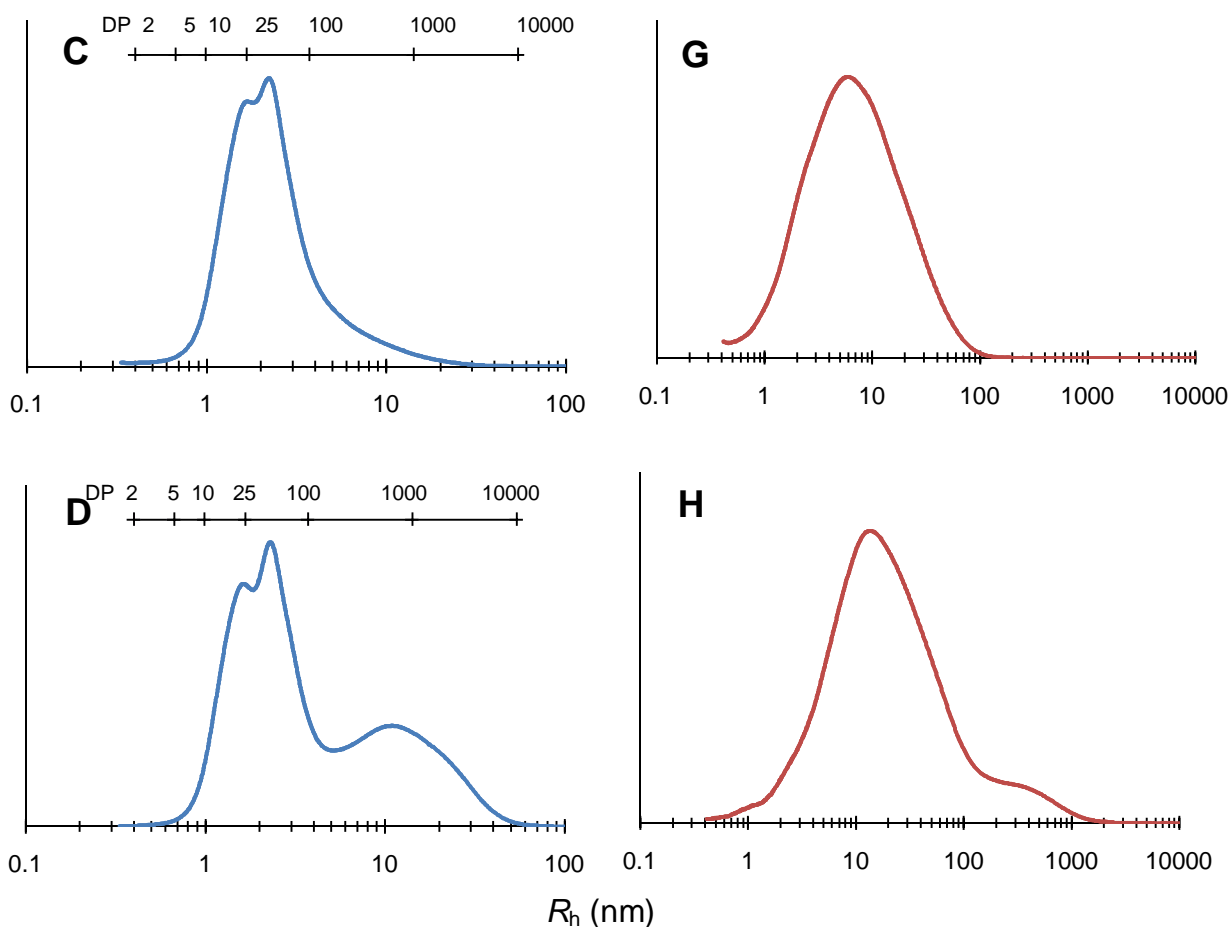
465 Figure 5. Size distributions of debranched (A - D) and whole (E - H) molecules from native (A, E)
466 and extruded (B, F) G50 starches and 2 h digestion residues of cooked (C, G) and extruded (D, H)
467 G50 starches.

468



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472

473 Figure 6. Size distributions of debranched (A - D) and whole (E - H) molecules from the soluble
 474 fraction of cooked (A, E) and extruded (C, G) G50 starches, and the insoluble fraction of cooked (B,
 475 F) and extruded (D, H) G50 starches.

476

477 4. Discussion

478 Generally, molecular, crystalline, and granular structure of starches from nanometer to micrometer
 479 length scales are disrupted by the intense thermo-mechanical energy input of an extruder, which
 480 would be expected to generate an amorphous structure and increase the accessibility of starch
 481 molecules for enzymic hydrolysis (Bird, Lopez-Rubio, Shrestha, & Gidley, 2009; Faraj, Vasanthan,
 482 & Hoover, 2004). Although the WMS and NMS extrudates have a densely-packed surface structure
 483 in the dried state (Figure 3 A2 - 3), the local molecular density of starch matrices is temporary and is
 484 lost when subject to hydration, leading to higher digestion rate and extent compared to

485 G50 extrudate. Therefore, there was no difference in digestion rate coefficients between WMS
486 incooked and extrudate forms and only a small (but significant) difference for NMS, as shown in
487 Table 1. Incomplete gelatinization of G50 starch which results in survival of some double helices and
488 micron-scale structures (detected by DSC, SEC) after cooking leads to a higher yield of ERS fraction
489 compared with cooked NMS and WMS. Among three maize starch extrudates with different initial
490 amylose contents, only high-amylose G50 starch shows relatively lower digestion rate and extent,
491 compared with almost fully digested WMS and NMS extrudates (Figure 2 A). In particular, the large
492 difference in digestion rates of G50 extrudates compared with cooking in excess water (Table 1), for
493 materials with very similar and low indices of molecular and crystalline order (Table 2), provides
494 strong evidence that non-ordered conformations are involved in the slow rate of digestion of G50
495 extrudates. The simplest explanation for this difference is that the extrusion process caused an
496 increase in local density of non-ordered conformations which was not reversed on hydration.

497

498 From the electron micrographs of G50 extrudates before and after digestion presented in Figure 3
499 and previous reports (Shrestha, Blazek, Flanagan, Dhital, Larroque, Morell, et al., 2015; Shrestha,
500 Ng, Lopez-Rubio, Blazek, Gilbert, & Gidley, 2010), it was found that all the granules were grossly
501 disrupted and deformed within the extruder by mechanical force and heat/moisture induced swelling.
502 Therefore, there was more homogeneity in the digestion pattern in contrast to native starch. Recently,
503 Shrestha, et al. (2015) suggested that the digestion-limiting features in extruded starches are
504 molecular and/or mesoscopic factors rather than the granular level, although the physical architecture
505 of extrudates also can act as a barrier to prevent enzyme access to some extent. Size fraction did not
506 markedly influence the digestion kinetic profiles (Figure 2 B, C), indicating that enzymic hydrolysis
507 of fine and medium size fractions for NMS and G50 extrudates was hydrolysis-limited rather than
508 access/binding-limited. However, a small amount of coarse aggregates from both extrudates (yield <ca.

509 15%) shows much lower digestibility, probably due to the effect of diffusion barriers to enzyme
510 access.

511

512 We also investigated the changes in starch molecular composition and organization that occurred after
513 extrusion and digestion, including molecular size distributions, double/single helical and crystallinity
514 levels, and thermal properties. It is highly likely that the ordered features play some role in restricting
515 enzymic hydrolysis, as indicated by a small increase in double helical and crystallinity levels for
516 enzyme-resistant fractions of G50 extrudates after 2 h digestion (Table 2). Lopez-Rubio, Flanagan,
517 Shrestha, Gidley, and Gilbert (2008) suggested that the characteristic dimension of the resistant
518 crystals formed was ~5 nm with a maximum DP of ~13 and ~17 glucose units for double and single
519 helices respectively. These ordered structures were later suggested to be associated with some highly
520 branched amorphous fringed ends coating on the surface of double helices, providing a physical
521 barrier to enzyme access/binding which slows the digestion rate (Shrestha, et al., 2015). However,
522 almost amorphous starch matrices were achieved by extruding G50 starch under the conditions used
523 here, with fractions being ca. 90% amorphous (judged by NMR and XRD). These non-crystalline
524 chains from high-amylose starches can pack in an enzyme-resistant form following extrusion
525 processing and deliver slow digestion rate, consistent with previous findings (Chanvrier,
526 Uthayakumaran, Appelqvist, Gidley, Gilbert, & Lopez-Rubio, 2007; Htoon, et al., 2009). This
527 suggests that the local molecular density (packing) of starch chains can control the digestion
528 rate/extent within low-order starch materials, crystallinity alone may not be sufficient to explain
529 enzyme resistance (Htoon, et al., 2009), and tightly packed non-crystalline regions can also be
530 enzyme resistant, provided they are constrained from swelling extensively in water. Comparison of
531 G50 starches in cooked and extrudate forms, showed some differences in both fully branched and
532 debranched SEC weight distributions of residues recovered after 2 h digestion. The debranched SEC
533 weight distributions of these two digestion residues cover a broad range of chain lengths (Figure 5C,

534 D). It is noteworthy that more long chain polymers ($R_h > 10$ nm, DP > 500) survived, in agreement
535 with the fully branched size distributions (Figure 5 G, H). These SEC results are consistent with
536 longer chain polymers (presumably from native or degraded amylose molecules) conferring
537 relatively higher local molecular density in the original G50 extrudates.

538

539 The non-crystalline or amorphous state is based on the absence of detectable molecular order,
540 but entanglements of amorphous glucan chains can give rise to tightly packed non-ordered matrices
541 increasing localized molecular density. Another example of such locally-dense non-ordered starch
542 structures is in the surface envelope of granule ‘ghosts’: the residual undissolved fraction of starch
543 granules cooked in excess water with limited shear (Zhang, Dhital, Flanagan, & Gidley,
544 2014). However, the technical measurement of local molecular density to quantify sub-micron
545 variability of starch matrices is challenging, and would be the key to studying the structural origins of
546 enzyme resistance from amorphous conformation. Some attempts have been made to measure the
547 free-volume radius distribution of polymeric materials ranging from nanometer to sub-micrometer
548 length scale by positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy, which is a potential technique to quantify
549 the local molecular density (Liao, Chen, Awad, Yuan, Hung, Lee, et al., 2011). Comparing molecular
550 order (judged by NMR, XRD and DSC, Table 2) and relative enzyme digestion rates (Table 1) in
551 cooked vs extruded starches, it was found that molecular order/crystallinity contents were similarly low
552 (7 vs 9 or 12% respectively by NMR) but enzyme resistance was much greater for extruded
553 forms. We suggest that this is strong evidence that tightly packed amorphous material at the
554 (sub)micrometer length scale has a role to play in restricting enzyme action.

555

556

557 **5. Conclusions**

558 Three maize starches with different amylose contents were processed through extrusion with water

559 as the sole plasticizer to achieve low-order starch matrices, with only extruded high-amylose starch
560 exhibiting lower subsequent digestion rate/extent. On the basis of NMR and XRD data, the double
561 helix/crystallinity contents and melting temperatures of high-amylose starches in cooked and
562 extruded forms were similar (ca. 80% amorphous fraction), but enzyme resistance was much greater
563 for extruded forms. We suggest that the local density of packing of starch chains can control its
564 digestibility rather than just crystallinity, which represents only one mechanism of achieving high
565 local density of packing. If these molecularly dense structures are on about a (sub)micron length
566 scale or longer, they could restrict enzyme action in the small intestine with potential health benefits.
567

568 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

569 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version.

570

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577

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