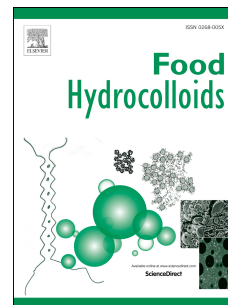


Journal Pre-proof

Buckwheat grains treated with microwave radiation: Impact on the techno-functional, thermal, structural, and rheological properties of flour

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BUCKWHEAT MODIFICATION

Buckwheat grains

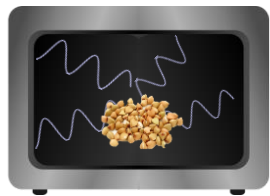


Moisture content (MC)

13%	25%
20%	30%



Microwave-assisted hydrothermal treatment (MWT)



Constant MC during MWT



Milling

Treated flours

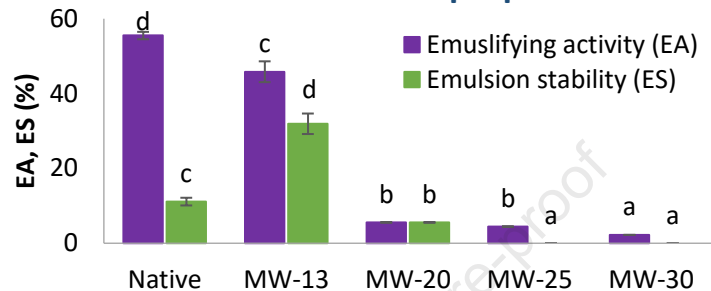
Untreated flour

MW-13	MW-25
MW-20	MW-30

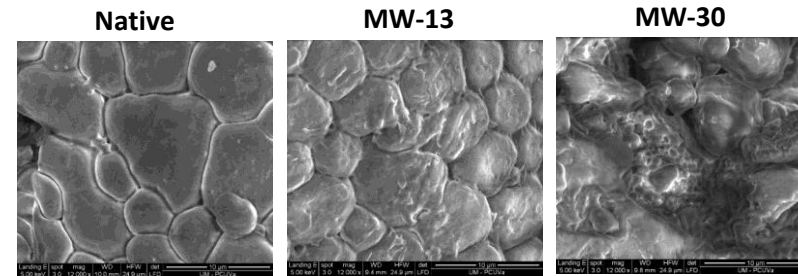
Native

BUCKWHEAT FLOUR CHARACTERISATION

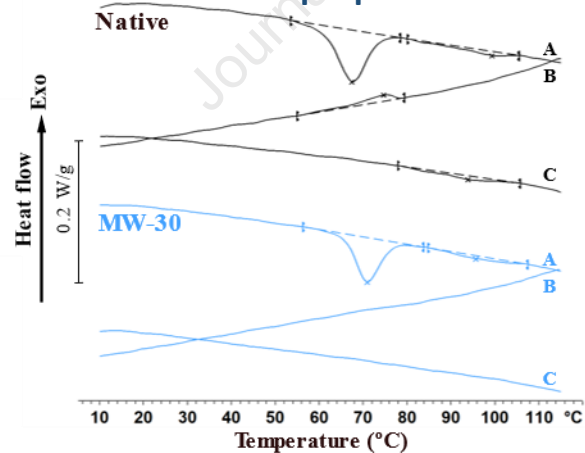
Techno-functional properties



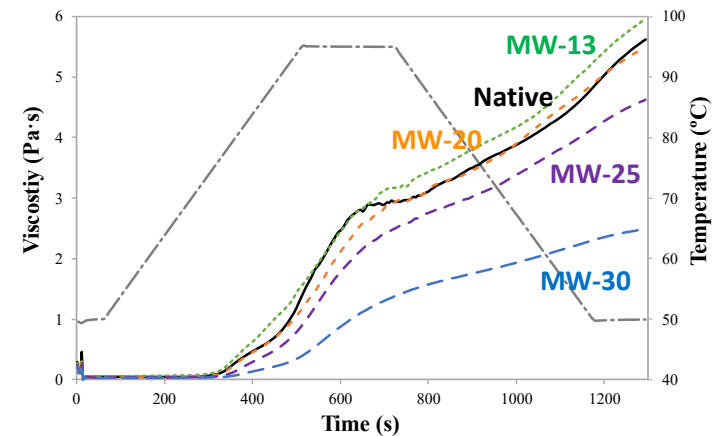
Structural properties



Thermal properties



Pasting properties



1 **Buckwheat grains treated with microwave radiation: impact**
2 **on the techno-functional, thermal, structural, and rheological**
3 **properties of flour**
4

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13 Abstract

14 The physical modification of buckwheat grain, a pseudocereal with great interest in gluten-
15 free (GF) product development, using microwave-assisted hydrothermal treatment (MWT), was
16 evaluated. Buckwheat grains were microwaved (8 min at 18W/g) at four moisture contents
17 (MC): 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30%, maintained constant throughout the treatment using a
18 hermetic container. The impact of MWT on the techno-functional and rheological properties of
19 flour was significantly affected by the MC of the grains. The flour obtained from grains treated
20 with 30% MC (MW-30) was the most modified, showing the highest water absorption capacity
21 (+43%) and a dramatic reduction in its emulsifying activity to almost zero, indicating the loss
22 of its protein functionality during treatment. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) revealed
23 a delay in the gelatinisation temperature (+3.7 °C) with a significant reduction in the
24 gelatinization enthalpy (-27%), which is compatible with a partial pre-gelatinization of the
25 flour. In contrast, the lowest grain MC led to opposite effects on most of the flour properties
26 measured. The most significant difference was its improved ability to form stable emulsions
27 (ES) (+188%) and a significant, albeit moderate, increase in gel structural stability and tolerance
28 to stress. Based on these results, MWT combined with the MC of grain during treatment may
29 be a viable and effective alternative to modulate the techno-functional properties of buckwheat
30 flour and improve its applicability in GF food formulations.

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40 **Keywords:** Microwave treatment; Rheological properties; Thermal properties; Physical
41 modification; Buckwheat

42 1 Introduction

43 The demand for gluten-free (GF) products is steadily increasing due to the rise in diagnoses
44 of related diseases and people choosing to follow GF diets, as they are considered to be healthier
45 by eliminating allergens (Witczak, Ziobro, Juszczak, & Korus, 2016). However, GF products
46 tend to have poorer nutritional qualities than their gluten-containing counterparts (Matos Segura
47 & Rosell, 2011; Miranda, Lasa, Bustamante, Churruga, & Simon, 2014; Villanueva, Abebe,
48 Collar, & Ronda, 2021). Therefore, the inclusion of nutritious ingredients such as buckwheat
49 can improve the variety and quality of GF diets. Buckwheat is a pseudocereal rich in vitamins,
50 minerals (especially manganese, copper, and magnesium), and antioxidants with high levels of
51 flavonoids, particularly rutin. It also contains high amounts of dietary fibre, protein (with a
52 well-balanced amino acid profile), and resistant starch (Bhinder, Kaur, Singh, Yadav, & Singh,
53 2020).

54 The main limitation in the development of GF products is the range of utilisation that GF
55 matrices allow because of their natural characteristics. In the food industry, physical
56 modifications have been applied to flours and starches to improve their properties and expand
57 their range of applications. Physical methods are considered safe and effective; among them,
58 heat-moisture treatment (HMT) is one of the most widely used (Liu, Lv, Peng, Shan, & Wang,
59 2015). During HMT, flour is exposed to a high temperature (above starch gelatinisation) for a
60 variable time (15 min to 16 h) without sufficient water available for gelatinization (10–30%)
61 (Gunaratne, 2018). Traditional HMT is applied to modify buckwheat starch and flour by
62 improving its thermal stability and health benefits, making it more suitable for food products
63 such as noodles, soup, dumplings, and bread (Liu et al., 2015a; Liu et al., 2015b; Xiao, Liu,
64 Wei, Shen, & Wang, 2017). Xiao et al. (2017) treated buckwheat starch and flour at different
65 moisture levels (200, 250, 300, and 350 g/kg) at 110 °C for 16 h. The HMT-modified samples
66 exhibited higher gelatinisation temperatures and were more stable during heating and shearing.
67 However, this treatment led to softer buckwheat gels. HMT decreased rapidly digestible starch
68 while increasing slowly digestible starch and resistant starch, which may have potential
69 applications for reducing the glycaemic index of foods. The authors also demonstrated a more
70 significant effect of the treatment on buckwheat flour than on starch, which is related to the
71 high content of proteins, lipids, and non-starch polysaccharides.

72 The use of microwave-assisted hydrothermal treatment (MWT) for the physical
73 modification of flour is a promising alternative to the traditional HMT processes, as microwaves
74 generate heat quickly and efficiently by inducing the movement of polar and ionic molecules,

75 causing friction between them that allows heat to be generated from inside the sample. This is
76 in contrast to conventional heating, in which heat is applied externally. Microwaves, therefore,
77 allow for faster treatment and reduce the energy required compared to conventional thermal
78 heating. MWT has been applied to starch from non-gluten cereals, pseudocereals, tubers, and
79 legumes to modify starch structure and physicochemical properties like solubility, swelling
80 power, rheological behaviour, and gelatinization (Brasoveanu & Nemtanu, 2014; Gupta, Gill,
81 & Bawa, 2008). The modifications caused have been demonstrated to depend greatly on the
82 starch type and its moisture content (MC), exposure time to microwave, and temperature
83 (Brasoveanu & Nemtanu, 2014). Recently, studies have been conducted on the application of
84 MWT in rice flour (Solaesa, Villanueva, Muñoz, & Ronda, 2021; Villanueva, Harasym, Muñoz,
85 & Ronda, 2018). These authors modulated the techno-functional properties of the flours by
86 controlling their water content during the treatment. Solaesa et al. (2021) observed the greatest
87 modifications in rice flour samples treated at 8% and 30% constant MC, such as higher swelling
88 power and water solubility, and superior capacity to form more resistant and consistent gels.
89 Villanueva et al. (2018b) reported higher gelatinization temperature and lower gelatinization
90 enthalpy for rice flour samples treated at 20 and 30% initial MC.

91 However, limited work has been conducted on the treatment of grains by microwaves,
92 although it is an interesting strategy to improve the industrial scale-up of this technology, as it
93 can simplify the treatment process, improve the homogeneity of the treatments, and eliminate
94 the risks associated with the handling of powdery systems, such as potentially explosive
95 atmospheres. In addition, buckwheat kernel has a large grain size and intact plant structures
96 which will affect the kinetics of heat transfer and water mobility during MWT compared to
97 flour treatment. In particular, the water binding capacity of the bran structures located outside
98 of the grains will affect the mobility of water and its availability to produce changes in the
99 molecular structure of the biopolymers (protein and starch), located mainly inside the grain.
100 Most studies on grains have focused on roasting (Jogihalli, Singh, & Sharanagat, 2017;
101 Sharanagat et al., 2019) or pregelatinization (Sun et al., 2018) of the grain but not on its
102 hydrothermal physical modification. Thus, to the best of our knowledge, there are no studies
103 on HMT assisted by microwave radiation applied to buckwheat grain, although it is a matrix of
104 great nutritional interest for use in GF product development.

105 Therefore, the main objective of this study was to evaluate the ability of microwave-
106 assisted hydrothermal treatment of buckwheat grain to modify the techno-functional and

107 physico-chemical properties of buckwheat flour as a function of grain moisture content (MC)
108 (13%, 20%, 25%, and 30%) held constant during treatment using a hermetic container.

109 **2 Materials and methods**

110 **2.1 Samples**

111 Dehulled buckwheat (*Fagopyrum esculentum* Moench) grains of the Kora variety were
112 provided by Grupa Producentów Ekologicznych Dolina Gryki Sp ZOO (Miedzylesie, Poland).
113 The proximal composition was (g/100 g buckwheat): 12.6% protein, 3.0% fat, 4.4% dietary
114 fibre, 1.8% ash, and 13.0% moisture, measured using the 46-19.01, 30-10.01, 32-06.01, 08-
115 01.01, and 44-19.01 AACC official methods (AACC, 2010), respectively. The starch content
116 (65.7 g/100 g buckwheat) was measured using the optional rapid method for total starch
117 described by Englyst, Hudson, & Englyst (2006).

118 **2.2 Microwave treatment**

119 Buckwheat grain MC was set to 13% (the natural MC of the grain), 20%, 25%, and 30%.
120 The batches were obtained by adding distilled water to the grain while stirring the mixture in a
121 rotary mixer MR-2L (Chopin, Tripette et Renaud, France) for 1 h and storing it for 24 h at $4 \pm$
122 2 °C to reach equilibration.

123 Microwave treatments were performed in a customised microwave oven R342INW
124 (SHARP, Sakai, Japan) at 900W and 2450 MHz on 50 ± 0.05 g of buckwheat grains tempered
125 at different MC (13%, 20%, 25%, and 30%) placed into a 1L hermetic Teflon® container,
126 which was continuously rotated by an external device controlled by a power supply unit at
127 speed of 70 rpm to achieve an even distribution of energy and temperature during the treatment.
128 After preliminary studies, the microwave treatment time was set at 8 min for 10s exposure/60s
129 rest cycles (48 cycles). The sample was allowed to cool for 30 min before opening the container.
130 The MC of the samples varied less than 1% during treatment. The maximum temperature
131 reached in each treatment was measured using Testoterm® temperature strips from TESTO
132 (Barcelona, Spain), which were placed in a container in permanent contact with the sample.
133 This temperature averaged 105 ± 5 °C in all samples, with no significant differences between
134 them. Once treated 20%, 25%, and 30% MC samples were dried at 30 °C up to a final MC of
135 approximately 13%. Three batches were obtained for each of the MC samples. The grain was
136 ground in a stone mill Fidibus Medium (Komo, Hopfgarten, Austria) to < 500 µm. The > 500
137 µm fraction, always $< 0.5\%$ w/w, was rejected. The samples were named according to the MC

138 at which they were treated: MW-13, MW-20, MW-25, and MW-30. The samples were
139 maintained at 4 ± 2 °C until analysis. The flour from untreated milled grains was used as a
140 control (native) sample.

141 **2.3 Colour characteristics**

142 Flour colour was determined using a PCE-CSM5 colorimeter and CQCS3 software. The
143 CIELAB coordinates with a D65 standard illuminant and a 10° standard observer were
144 obtained. L* (lightness from 0–black to 100–white) and chromatic coordinates a* (from green
145 (–) to red (+)) and b* (from blue (–) to yellow (+)) were measured. Hue (*h*) and chroma (*C**)
146 were also obtained from the CIELAB coordinates (Solaesa et al., 2021). The colour difference
147 (ΔE) between each treated sample and the native sample was calculated using the equation ΔE
148 $= [(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2]^{1/2}$. Six measurements were taken for each sample.

149 **2.4 Particle size distribution**

150 A laser diffraction particle size analyser (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern Instruments Ltd., UK)
151 was used to study the particle size distribution of the flours. Results were expressed as D₁₀, D₅₀,
152 and D₉₀, (10%, 50%, and 90% of the sample had a smaller particle size than these values,
153 respectively). The particle size distribution was characterised by the median diameter (D₅₀) and
154 dispersion ((D₉₀–D₁₀)/D₅₀). Three measurements were taken for each sample.

155 **2.5 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

156 A Quanta 200-F microscope (FEI, Oregon, USA) was used to study the morphological
157 changes in the flours obtained after MWT and milling. The microscope was equipped with an
158 X-ray detector, which allowed analysis of the samples without prior metallisation. The samples
159 were observed at an accelerating voltage of 5 keV in the low-vacuum mode using a secondary
160 electron detector. Photomicrographs were obtained at different magnifications to illustrate the
161 modifications.

162 **2.6 Techno-functional properties**

163 The water absorption capacity (WAC), water absorption index (WAI), water solubility
164 index (WSI), and swelling power (SP) of buckwheat flour samples were measured as described
165 by Abebe, Collar & Ronda (2015), with slight modifications. Flour dry matter (dm, 2 g) was
166 mixed with water (20 mL) in centrifuge tubes. For WAC measurements, the mixture was
167 vortexed, kept for 10 min at room temperature, vortexed again, and finally centrifuged for 25
168 min at $3000 \times g$. The supernatant was removed, and the remainder was weighed. Results are

169 expressed as grams of water retained per gram of flour dry matter (dm). To determine the WAI,
170 WSI, and SP, the mixtures were heated for 15 min at 95 °C, cooled to room temperature, and
171 centrifuged for 10 min at 3000 × g. The supernatant was poured onto a pre-weighed evaporating
172 dish overnight at 110 °C to determine the soluble solid content. WAI (grams of sediment per
173 gram of flour dry matter (dm)), WSI (grams of soluble solids per 100 g of flour dm), and SP
174 (grams of sediment per gram of insoluble solid flour dm).

175 Emulsifying activity (EA) and emulsion stability (ES) were determined using the method
176 described by Kaushal, Kumar, & Sharma (2012), with some modifications. Flour dm (7 g) was
177 mixed with distilled water (100 mL). Corn oil (100 mL) was added, and the mixture was mixed
178 for 1 min at 1000 rpm using an Ultra-Turrax T25 homogeniser (IKA, Staufen, Germany). The
179 mixture was distributed into 50 mL centrifuge tubes and centrifuged for 5 min at 1300 × g. EA
180 was calculated as the ratio of the emulsion volume to the total initial volume and was expressed
181 as a percentage. Subsequently, the tubes were heated at 80 °C for 30 min, allowed to cool for
182 an additional 30 min, and centrifuged for 5 min at 1300 × g. The ES was calculated from the
183 ratio of the emulsion volume after heating to the total initial volume and was expressed as a
184 percentage. Techno-functional properties were obtained at least in triplicate.

185 **2.7 Pasting properties**

186 The pasting properties of the buckwheat flour were determined using a Kinexus Pro+
187 rheometer (Malvern Instruments, UK) equipped with a starch cell. First, the flour (3.5 g) was
188 dispersed in water (25 mL). A temperature of 50 °C was applied for 1 min, followed by heating
189 to 95 °C at a rate of 6 °C/min, holding at 95 °C for 3.5 min, cooling to 50 °C at a rate of 6
190 °C/min, and holding at 50 °C for 2 min. The paddle speed was set at 160 rpm. Pasting
191 temperature (PT), peak viscosity (PV), peak time (Pt), trough viscosity (TV), breakdown
192 viscosity (BV), final viscosity (FV), and setback viscosity (SV) were calculated from the
193 pasting curve. The determination was performed in duplicate.

194 **2.8 Rheological properties of gels**

195 The gels obtained, as described in the previous section (2.7 Pasting properties) were used
196 for dynamic oscillatory tests on a Kinexus Pro + rheometer (Malvern Instruments, UK)
197 equipped with a parallel plate geometry (40 mm) with a serrated surface and a 1 mm gap. The
198 gels were placed between plates and allowed to rest for 5 min. The temperature was stabilised
199 at 25 °C using a Peltier plate controller. Strain sweeps were performed from 0.1–1000% at 1
200 Hz frequency. The linear viscoelastic region (LVR) was established, and the maximum stress

201 (τ_{\max}) beyond which the dough structure broke and the stress at the crosspoint ($G' = G''$) was
202 determined. Frequency sweeps were performed from 10–1 Hz in the LVR at constant
203 deformation of 1%. The frequency sweep data were fitted to the power-law model, as described
204 by Ronda, Villanueva, & Collar (2014). The recorded viscoelastic parameters G'_1 , G''_1 , and
205 $(\tan \delta)_1$ are the coefficients obtained by fitting the frequency sweep data to the potential model
206 and represent the elastic and viscous moduli and the loss tangent, respectively, at a frequency
207 of 1 Hz. The a , b , and c are the exponents of the potential equation, and quantify the dependence
208 of the dynamic moduli and loss tangent on the oscillation frequency. The complex modulus G_1^*
209 was calculated from $(G'_1 + G''_1)^{1/2}$. All tests were performed in duplicate.

210 **2.9 X-ray diffraction (XRD)**

211 XRD was performed using a Bruker-D8-Discover-A25 diffractometer (Bruker AXS,
212 Rheinfelden, Germany) equipped with a copper tube operating at 40 kV and 40 mA, with $\text{CuK}\alpha$
213 radiation ($\lambda=0.154$ nm). Diffractograms were obtained in flour samples in the range of 5–40°
214 (2θ) at a rate of 1.2°/min, a scan step size of 0.02°, a divergence slit width of 1°, and a scatter
215 slit width of 2.92°.

216 **2.10 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)**

217 A differential scanning calorimeter (DSC3, STARe-System, Mettler-Toledo, Switzerland)
218 was used to obtain the thermal properties related to the gelatinisation and retrogradation
219 transitions of the flour samples (hydrated to 30 g solids/70 g water) using the method described
220 by Villanueva et al. (2018b). The enthalpy (ΔH), expressed in J/g dm, and the peak temperature
221 (T_p), expressed in °C, were extracted from the thermograms obtained in both the
222 first/gelatinization scan performed on fresh samples (gelatinisation and dissociation of
223 amylose-lipid peaks) and the second/retrogradation scan, performed on 7 d-stored samples ($4 \pm$
224 2 °C, melting of the recrystallised amylopectin and dissociation of amylose-lipid peaks). Both
225 scans were performed from 0 to 120 °C at 5 °C/min. The temperature range ($R_{\text{gel}} = T_{\text{endset}} - T_{\text{onset}}$)
226 was calculated for the gelatinisation transition. To study the reversibility of the amylose-lipid
227 complex, immediately after the gelatinisation sweep, a cooling sweep was performed from 120
228 to 0 °C at -5 °C/min, followed by a second heating sweep from 0 to 120 °C at 5 °C/min. The
229 samples were analysed in duplicate.

230 **2.11 Statical analysis**

231 Statgraphics Centurion 18 (Bitstream, Cambridge, MN, USA) was used for the statistical
232 analysis. The least significant difference (LSD) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to
233 assess the significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between samples.

234

235 **3 Results and discussion**

236 **3.1 Colour characteristics**

237 The colour values of the treated and native flours are listed in Table 1. The MWT had a
238 significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on all the measured colour characteristics. Luminosity decreased
239 with increasing MC, resulting in darker flours than those in the control. Only the MW-13
240 sample had the same luminosity as native flour. Hue (h) also decreased for all treatments,
241 always remaining within the first quadrant of the a^*-b^* diagram, which indicates a more
242 reddish hue in the treated flours than in the native flour. The effect increased with MC. The
243 chroma (C^*) did not follow a clear trend, decreasing with treatment for low moisture values
244 (13% and 20%) and increasing again to the value of native flour in the 25–30% MC treatments.
245 This indicates that the vividness of the colour of the treated flours depended on the grain MC
246 during the MWT. Despite the significant changes in the colour parameters ($p < 0.05$), colour
247 differences with respect to the native flour were only visibly differentiated ($\Delta E > 5$) for the
248 MW-30 sample. Darker and reddish flours have also been obtained from microwave-roasted
249 sorghum (Sharanagat et al., 2019) and pregelatinized buckwheat (Sun et al., 2018). The
250 formation of reducing sugars during MWT, favoured by a higher moisture content (Solaesa et
251 al., 2021), enhances the Maillard reaction and, in addition to the thermal oxidation of
252 polyphenols (Sharanagat et al., 2019), may explain the darker and more reddish colours of
253 treated flours and an increase in the effect with higher MC.

254 **3.2 Morphology and particle size distribution**

255 Scanning electron micrographs of native and microwave-treated flours are shown in Figure
256 1. Native buckwheat starch granules, which varied in shape (spherical, ovoid, and polygonal)
257 and exhibited a smooth surface, were packed into clusters of different sizes. These particles
258 have attached or entwined globular or irregular particles of proteins (Sun et al., 2018).
259 Progressively greater differences were observed between the micrographs of native and treated
260 flours as the MC increased. MW-13 and MW-20 had slightly larger and more packed aggregates

261 as well as some roughness on the surface of the starch granules. For MW-25, this behaviour
262 was accentuated, and some deep holes appeared on the granule surface and other exudates
263 gluing the starch granules together. As reported by Villanueva et al. (2018b) for rice flour, these
264 exudates may be amylose being excreted from the starch granules during MWT. This could
265 also be expected in the case of buckwheat flour, considering the high MC of the grain during
266 treatment and the temperature reached in the process, as well as the moderate/high amylose
267 content of common buckwheat (*Fagopyrum Esculentum* Moench) starch, which is in the range
268 of 23.4-29.1% (Ikeda, Kishida, Kreft & Yasumoto, 1997). The MW-30 sample showed the
269 largest particles and the presence of gelatinised granules, which was consistent with the partial
270 pre-gelatinization observed in the DSC scan (see Section 3.7).

271 The particle size distributions of the flours obtained from the treated and untreated grains are
272 shown in Table 1. An increase in the particle size of the treated samples and a significant
273 reduction in their size dispersion were observed, which were in agreement with the SEM
274 observations. The higher changes were obtained for MW-25 and MW-30, with D_{10} increases of
275 96% and 107%, D_{50} of 33% and 56%, and D_{90} of 18% and 26%, respectively. This indicates
276 that smaller and intermediate-sized particles were the most affected by the treatment, which
277 indicates a greater difficulty in reducing the treated grains to small particle sizes during the
278 milling process. The changes in the particle structure observed in the SEM micrographs may
279 explain this difference in milling behaviour. Treated starch granules stick together due to
280 amylose leaching, and more compact amorphous regions caused by structural rearrangements
281 of the starch granules (Villanueva et al., 2018b) may be responsible for this behaviour.

282 3.3 *Techno-functional properties*

283 The MC of the grain during the MWT significantly ($p < 0.05$) affected all techno-functional
284 properties of the treated flours (Table 2). The WAC of the flour increased with MC up to 43%
285 over the control flour in sample MW-30. Similar effect was observed in microwaved-
286 pregelatinized buckwheat grains (Sun et al., 2018), even when they were treated under highly
287 different conditions: at their natural moisture content (10.83%), in open containers (variable
288 humidity over time), and under static conditions (non-uniform distribution of heating). The
289 same effect has been observed in roasted sorghum grains (Sharanagat et al., 2019). These
290 authors related the increased water affinity to the development of a porous structure and the
291 increased damaged starch content due to mechanical damage and/or starch gelatinisation during
292 MWT. The enhancement in the hydrophilic tendency of starch molecules may also be explained
293 by the disruption of hydrogen bonds between the amorphous and crystalline regions, with an

294 expansion of the amorphous region (Solaesa et al., 2021). This behaviour was more intense at
295 a higher MC during the MWT. The highest water affinity of MW-30 was also enhanced by
296 partial gelatinisation, as can be concluded from the SEM images.

297 WAI and SP are affected by factors such as starch molecule conformation; the content,
298 molecular weight distribution, and length and degree of branching of amylopectin and amylose;
299 the interaction between starch chains within the amorphous and crystalline domains; and the
300 presence of phosphate groups (Villanueva, De Lamo, Harasym, & Ronda, 2018a). WAI and SP
301 exhibited a similar tendency and presented a moderate increase for the MW-13 sample (+3%
302 and +4%, respectively), and then a progressive and slight reduction in the MW-25 and MW-30
303 samples (-6% and -4%, respectively). WSI is related to the amount of soluble solids released
304 from starch granules and is used as an indicator of starch degradation and dextrinization
305 (Jogihalli et al., 2017). WSI only changed significantly in the MW-13 sample (11.5%). The
306 increase in WAI, SP, and WSI for MW-13 may be caused by the weakening of amylose-
307 amylopectin bonds and creation of more amylose-water interactions (Solaesa et al., 2021;
308 Villanueva et al., 2018a). However, the reductions in WAI and SP for treatments at higher MC
309 may be attributed to structural rearrangements and reassociations occurring in starch chains
310 during MWT, leading to stronger intramolecular bonds due to the interactions between amylose
311 and amylopectin molecules, formation of ordered double-helical amylopectin side chain
312 clusters, which are more rigid, and the formation of amylose-lipid complexes (Sun, Han, Wang,
313 & Xiong, 2014; Villanueva et al., 2018a).

314 The ability of flour protein to form stable emulsions that resist mechanical stress is
315 important for food applications such as cakes and frozen desserts (Bhinder et al., 2020). EA is
316 generally affected by protein characteristics such as solubility, hydrophobicity, molar mass,
317 conformational stability, and psychochemical factors (pH, temperature) (Tang & Ma, 2009).
318 EA decreased significantly during the MWT. The decrease was moderate for sample MW-13,
319 whereas samples treated with MC above 20% nearly lost their emulsifying activity. The ES of
320 most treated samples also decreased and was null for MW-25 and MW-30. However, MW-13
321 showed a notably higher stable emulsion-forming capacity than native, with an 188% increase
322 in ES. The improvement in emulsifying properties could be a consequence of the thermal
323 unfolding of buckwheat proteins, with an increase in their hydrophobic surface area and
324 flexibility. However, the decrease in emulsifying properties observed in the samples treated
325 under stronger conditions (higher MC) may be due to a decrease in protein solubility by heat-
326 induced aggregation, as well as a decrease in flexibility caused by the rearrangement of

327 unfolded proteins (Tang & Ma, 2009). It is well known that the kinetics of protein denaturation
328 depends on the temperature and treatment time as well as on the MC (Pérez-Quirce, Ronda,
329 Melendre, Lazaridou, & Biliaderis, 2016). Therefore, this factor could have greatly influenced
330 the observed effects, as more intense treatments (higher MC) could have denatured the proteins
331 and aggregated them, thus cancelling their emulsifying functionality, whereas softer treatments
332 (lower MC) could have merely unfolded the proteins, allowing for more bond formation and
333 increasing their emulsifying stability.

334 **3.4 Pasting properties**

335 The pasting curves, plotted in Figure 2, did not present the usual profile of cereal flours, as
336 there was no clear drop after the peak in the plateau area at 95 °C. In the studied buckwheat
337 flours, the breakdown was practically null or negligible. Low breakdown has been reported in
338 several studies for some buckwheat cultivars, indicating high stability during heating and
339 shaking (Bhinder et al., 2020).

340 Two different behaviours were observed in terms of pasting properties (Table 2). MW-13
341 presented a slight but significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in PT, and increase in PV, TV, FV, and
342 SV compared to native flour. However, the rest of the treated samples showed the opposite
343 behaviour, with an increased PT and decreased PV, TV, FV, and SV; with the effect being more
344 pronounced at higher MC. Similar behaviour was observed by Kamble, Singh, Pal Kaur, Rani,
345 & Upadhyay (2020) for microwaved-wheat semolina at 900 W for 1, 1.5, and 2 min, with an
346 increase in pasting parameters (PV, BV, FV, and SV) for 1 min and significant decreases after
347 1.5 and 2 min of MWT. This different effect on pasting properties depending on the intensity
348 (power and time) of the MWT was also reported by Sharanagat et al. (2019) for microwave-
349 roasted sorghum. These studies did not report the MC of treated semolina or grains during
350 treatment, which leads to the possibility that they were treated at their natural MC, without
351 moistening. In the present study, the MC of the grains, which were always treated at the same
352 power and time, seemed to determine the type and intensity of the changes induced by the
353 treatment. Changes in pasting properties may be the result of structural rearrangements and
354 starch chain association during microwave heating (Kamble et al., 2020). The increased PT and
355 delayed gelatinisation may be due to the increased heat requirement for the structural
356 disintegration of starch granules and paste formation caused by the strengthening of
357 intragranular bonding forces occurring during the treatment (Zavareze & Dias, 2011). The
358 higher MC in flour during treatment facilitates molecular mobility and allows for faster and
359 deeper changes in the starch structure under constant MC treatment conditions. Thermal

360 treatment of the MC-13 sample allows a certain disaggregation of the starch structure, although
361 its low MC likely restricted the aggregation or the establishment of new/more ordered
362 structures. These results show that the effect of MWT on flour properties increased significantly
363 with the MC of the grain during treatment. This can be affirmed given that the temperature
364 reached by buckwheat grains during MWT was the same regardless of the MC, which is not
365 usually the case when MWT is applied directly on flours. A previous work has shown that the
366 temperature reached by rice flour during MWT presented an inverse correlation with moisture
367 content during treatment (Solaesa et al. 2021), making it difficult to analyse the individual effect
368 of each variable. Solaesa et al. (2021) determined that the physical properties of microwaved-
369 rice flour were modified to a greater extent when treatment was performed at a very low MC
370 (8%), associated to the highest temperature reached in said treatment (173°C), much higher
371 than that reached by flour treated at 30% MC (114°C).

372 The reduction in SV is an indicator of lower amylose retrogradation tendency, which may
373 improve the application of these treated flours as thickening agents for products such as soups
374 or sauces, as they would have a lower tendency for syneresis and more stability toward heating
375 and cooking (Bhinder et al., 2020; Sharanagat et al., 2019). The reduction in retrogradation can
376 be explained by the generation of new interactions between amylose and amylose and/or
377 amylopectin-amylose chains as a result of HMT treatment, leading to a reduction in amylose
378 leaching, and thus a reduction in setback viscosity (Liu et al., 2015b; Villanueva et al., 2018b).

379 **3.5 Rheological properties of gels**

380 Rheological properties of the gel samples were determined using dynamic oscillatory tests.
381 Table 3 shows the parameters obtained from fitting the power law model to the frequency sweep
382 data and the maximum stress (τ_{max}) within the linear viscoelastic region (LVR) and the cross-
383 point ($G' = G''$, $\tan \delta = 1$) obtained from the strain sweeps. All samples exhibited significant
384 differences in their viscoelastic properties with respect to the control, although two opposite
385 trends were observed among the treated samples. The gels obtained from MW-13, MW-20, and
386 MW-25 were stronger than the control gel, whereas those from MW-30 were significantly
387 weaker. The highest increases in the elastic (G_1'), viscous (G_1''), and complex (G^*) moduli,
388 +23%, +16%, and 22%, respectively, were observed for MW-13 sample. This increase was
389 accompanied by a drop in the loss tangent, which denotes reinforcement in the solid-like
390 behaviour of the gels (Villanueva et al., 2018a). All the gels increased their viscous behaviour
391 with frequency, as exponent “a” was always below exponent “b”, which explains why exponent
392 “c” was always positive and thus, the loss tangent increased with the angular frequency. The

393 τ_{\max} and crosspoint ($G' = G''$) values increased up to a maximum of +84% and +30%,
394 respectively, for the MW-13 sample, indicating a more resistant structure of the gel. Similar
395 results have been reported for microwaved-treated rice starch (Villanueva et al., 2018a) and rice
396 flour (Solaesa et al., 2021). This improvement in gel resistance to stress could be caused by
397 cross-linking between starch chains in the amylose portion during HMT, which allowed the
398 formation of more junction zones in the continuous phase of the gel matrix (Gunaratne, 2018).
399 However, MW-30 exhibited the opposite behaviour. The gel made from this sample showed
400 reduced elastic, viscous, and complex moduli (-52%, -41%, and -51%, respectively), as well as
401 τ_{\max} (-65%) and stress at the crossover point (-65%), with respect to the control sample. This
402 could be explained by its partial gelatinisation during the MWT, which resulted in a less rigid
403 gel due to the partial collapse of the starch granule structure (Zavareze & Dias, 2011).

404 3.6 Crystalline structure

405 X-ray diffraction patterns of the flour samples are shown in Figure 3. Buckwheat flour
406 presented an A-type diffraction pattern with peaks at 15°, 17°, 18°, and 23°, that were
407 maintained after treatment, although a change in the intensity of the peaks was observed in the
408 treated flour. For all samples, the intensity of the 20° peak, associated with V-type crystallinity,
409 increased with respect to the native flour. This behaviour was previously reported by Villanueva
410 et al. (2018) for microwave-treated rice flour and may be associated with an increase in the type
411 II amylose-lipid complex. The MWT may have favoured the formation of type II amylose-lipid
412 complexes, which appear as polycrystalline specimens in the XRD pattern (Biliaderis, 2009).
413 It has previously been reported that when heated to high temperatures, typically above 90 °C,
414 the randomly oriented helices of the amylose-lipid Type I complex may change into the type II
415 form as they become regularly oriented and organised, likely through lamellae thickening
416 (Biliaderis, 2009; Wokadala, Ray, & Emmambux, 2012).

417 For the other peaks, samples treated at the lowest MC (MW-13 and MW-20) presented a
418 moderate increase in intensity, whereas the intensity of the peaks in the MW-25 and MW-30
419 samples was slightly lower than that of the control flour. Xiao et al. (2017) found a relative
420 crystallinity increase in buckwheat flour treated with conventional HMT from 19% (untreated
421 flour) to 26% (in the sample treated at 35 g/100 g MC for 16 h at 110°C). However, microwaved
422 buckwheat grains showed no significant difference ($p < 0.05$) in relative crystallinity compared
423 to the native sample (64%). The much shorter treatment time (8 min vs. 16 h) and the protective
424 action of the grain's components could be the reasons for this difference. Both increases and
425 decreases in the X-ray diffraction pattern for the MWT of starches have been reported,

426 depending on the source and treatment conditions (Brasoveanu & Nemtanu, 2014). Increases
427 in the diffraction patterns due to hydrothermal treatments have been related to the displacement
428 of the double helical chains within the starch crystals, resulting in a more ordered crystalline
429 matrix (Zavareze & Dias, 2011).

430 **3.7 Thermal properties**

431 The thermal properties obtained from the first (gelatinisation) and second (retrogradation)
432 DSC scans are summarised in Table 4. In the gelatinisation scan, two peaks were observed at
433 67–71 °C and approximately 98 °C, as is typical in several cereal and pseudocereal flours, such
434 as corn, rice, wheat, and buckwheat. At lower temperatures, the first peak is related to starch
435 gelatinisation (melting of amylopectin crystallites) and the second peak is related to the
436 disruption of the type I amylose-lipid complex (Biliaderis, 2009). The temperature of the
437 gelatinisation peak (T_{p-gel}) was affected differently by the MWT, depending on the grain MC
438 during the treatment, as has also been described for the remaining measured properties. The T_{p-}
439 $_{gel}$ showed a decrease for the MW-13 sample and then increased progressively with MC,
440 exceeding the value of the control flour by up to +4 °C in the MW-30 sample. The increase in
441 T_{p-gel} on HMT, that was previously reported for treated buckwheat flour and starch (Liu et al.,
442 2015a; Xiao et al., 2017), may be due to the improvement in amylose-amylose, amylose-
443 amylopectin, and amylose-lipid interactions. These interactions suppress the mobility of the
444 starch chains in the amorphous regions. Consequently, the amorphous regions would require a
445 higher temperature to cause swelling that can contribute to the disruption of the crystalline
446 regions. The extent of these interactions has been shown to be influenced by starch source,
447 amylose chain length, and by the MC prevailing during HMT (Hoover, 2010). The opposite
448 trend observed in the MW-13 sample, also observed by other authors when applying dry heat
449 treatment (DHT), can be attributed to the rupture of hydrogen bonds in or between starch
450 granules during the heating process under a restricted amount of water, which would make it
451 easier for water to enter starch molecules during the gelatinisation process, leading to lower
452 gelatinisation temperatures (Lei et al., 2020). The temperature range, R_{gel} , significantly
453 decreased for MW-25 and MW-30. This behaviour was opposite to that reported for buckwheat
454 flour and starch treated by conventional HMT, where the temperature range increased with
455 increasing MC (Liu et al., 2015a; Xiao et al., 2017). However, Villanueva al. (2018b) also found
456 a reduction in R_{gel} for MWT of rice flour, indicating that MWT promoted the formation of more
457 uniform and perfect amylopectin crystallites. The gelatinisation enthalpy, ΔH_{gel} , was
458 significantly ($p < 0.05$) different only from that of the native flour for the MW-30 sample. This

459 sample showed a lower ΔH_{gel} , which may be related to partial gelatinisation, as well as the
460 dissociation of double helices and disruption of amorphous regions within starch granules
461 during hydrothermal treatment (Xiao et al., 2017). The amylose-lipid dissociation peak
462 obtained in the first scan was not significantly affected by the MWT.

463 In the second scan, two peaks were observed in both the control (untreated) and treated
464 samples MW-13 and MW-20. However, in the MW-25 and MW-30 samples, only the first peak
465 was observed. The first peak ($T_{\text{p-ret}}$ of approximately 49 °C) corresponded to the melting of
466 recrystallised (retrograded) amylopectin during storage, appeared at a substantially lower
467 temperature, and showed a much wider temperature range than the gelatinisation peak obtained
468 in the first scan, owing to the fewer perfect crystallites formed during the retrogradation process
469 than those present in the original native starch structure. The second peak ($T_{\text{p-am-lip}}$ of
470 approximately 93 °C) was related to the reversible amylose-lipid dissociation peak, which in
471 this second scan showed a substantially higher enthalpy than that in the first one, particularly
472 in the control sample. Similar results were reported by Liu, Donner, Yin, Huang, & Fan (2006)
473 for native buckwheat flours. The retrogradation peak presented a similar $T_{\text{p-ret}}$ in all samples,
474 whereas the enthalpy, ΔH_{ret} , increased with MWT, from 2.2 J/g dm in the control sample to
475 2.9–3.2 J/g dm in the treated samples, with no significant differences among them. The
476 increased amylopectin recrystallisation extent, which was also reported by Villanueva et al.
477 (2018) for MWT rice flour, may negatively affect the shelf life of treated flour gels. The
478 enthalpy of dissociation of the amylose-lipid complex obtained after 7 d of storage of the gels,
479 $\Delta H_{\text{am-lip}}$, increased in the control sample with regard to that obtained in the first scan (applied
480 to fresh, non-gelatinised samples) because of the better conditions for complex formation when
481 amylose leaked from the starch granules during gelatinisation (Eliasson, 1994). However, the
482 opposite behaviour was observed for the MWT samples: $\Delta H_{\text{am-lip}}$ decreased progressively with
483 MC to the point of being undetectable for MW-25 and MW-30. Figure 4 shows the results of
484 the reversibility study of the amylose-lipid complex in both flours obtained from treated (MW-
485 30) and untreated (native) grains. For this analysis, a cooling scan from 120 °C to 0 °C at -5
486 °C/min was performed immediately after gelatinisation one to study the formation of the
487 amylose-lipid complex. Subsequently, a new heating cycle identical to the gelatinisation cycle
488 was applied to check amylose-lipid complex dissociation. As can be seen, an exothermic peak
489 corresponding to the formation of amylose-lipid complex appeared during the cooling sweep
490 applied to the gel formed after the gelatinization scan of the native sample. However, this
491 formation peak was not visible for the MW-30 sample, although the peak of its dissociation

492 during the gelatinisation scan was evident. The same occurred with MW-25, whereas MW-20
493 and MW-13 led to intermediate situations in which successive formation/dissociation peaks
494 were obtained, albeit with lower enthalpy than in the native sample. The high polyphenol
495 content of buckwheat may be involved in this behaviour. After dissociation of the amylose-
496 lipid complex in the gelatinisation scan, free amylose could be associated with other
497 compounds, such as polyphenols, instead of reforming the amylose-lipid complex. Microwave
498 radiation has been shown to enhance the formation of V-type inclusion complexes and non-
499 inclusive complexes of lotus seed starch and green tea polyphenols (Zhao et al., 2019). Rutin,
500 a flavonoid found at considerable concentrations in buckwheat, has also been shown to form
501 such complexes (Zhu, 2015). Food processing may involve tissue disruption and cellular
502 decompartmentalization, resulting in the release of intracellular and extracellular compounds
503 that are originally confined (Zhu, 2015). In this instance, the released endogenous polyphenols
504 may come into contact and interact with other components such as starch. In our analysis,
505 MWT, especially when applied under the most intense conditions (at the highest MC values),
506 may have promoted the formation of noninclusive amylose-polyphenol complexes through
507 hydrogen bonds and complexes that are not detectable by DSC (Deng et al., 2021). If the
508 formation of these complexes is confirmed, it can have beneficial effects, such as lowering the
509 glycemic index (Zhao et al., 2019; Zhu, 2015). Further studies are needed to confirm this
510 hypothesis.

511 **4 Conclusions**

512 The MWT of buckwheat grains significantly modified the morphology and techno-
513 functional, thermal, and rheological properties of flour. This treatment, of only 8 min of MW
514 radiation, resulted in a promising alternative for physical modification. The observed effects
515 varied as a function of MC, being, in general, more intensive for the treatments performed at
516 higher MC (25% and 30%). Therefore, the selection of grain MC during MWT allowed the
517 modulation of the final flour properties and broadening of the scope of buckwheat food
518 applications. The increased emulsion stability of MW-13 can improve products, such as cakes
519 and frozen desserts, where it is necessary to form stable emulsions that resist mechanical stress.
520 The lower amylose retrogradation tendency of MW-25 and MW-30 in the pasting properties
521 may improve its application as a thickening agent for products such as soups or sauces, as it
522 would be able to generate soft texture gels with lower short term retrogradation. The different
523 gel consistencies obtained with MWT, harder and more resistant to MW-13, MW-20, and MW-
524 25, and softer and weaker for MW-30, offer a range of options to produce sauces and creams

525 with different consistencies. However, increased amylopectin recrystallisation may negatively
526 affect the shelf life of the MW-treated flour gels. The possible formation of polyphenol-starch
527 complexes, proposed as a reasonable hypothesis derived from the thermal measurements of
528 phase transitions, needs further study given the importance it could have on the control of the
529 glycaemic index of products made from microwave-treated buckwheat. Further studies are also
530 needed to verify the suitability of the modified flours to produce food products with improved
531 technological, nutritional, and sensory qualities.

532

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539

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545 formal analysis.

546 José María Muñoz: Conceptualization, methodology, and software.

547 Felicidad Ronda: Funding acquisition, project administration, conceptualisation, methodology,
548 resources, visualisation, supervision, formal analysis, writing–review and editing.

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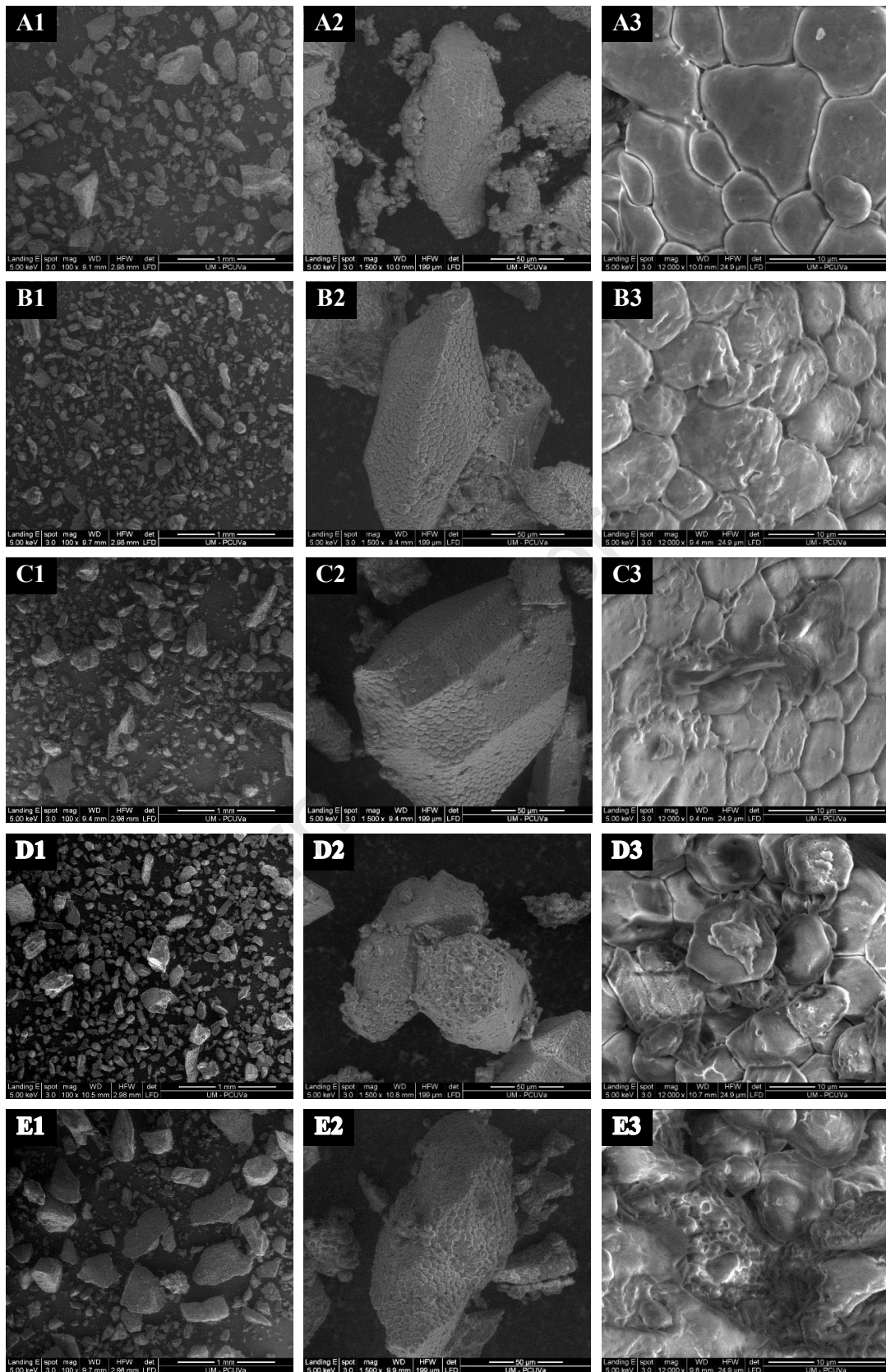


Figure 1. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of buckwheat flours. A: Native, B: MW-13, C: MW-20, D: MW-25, and E: MW-30, at different magnifications 1: $\times 100$, 2: $\times 1500$, and 3: $\times 12000$.

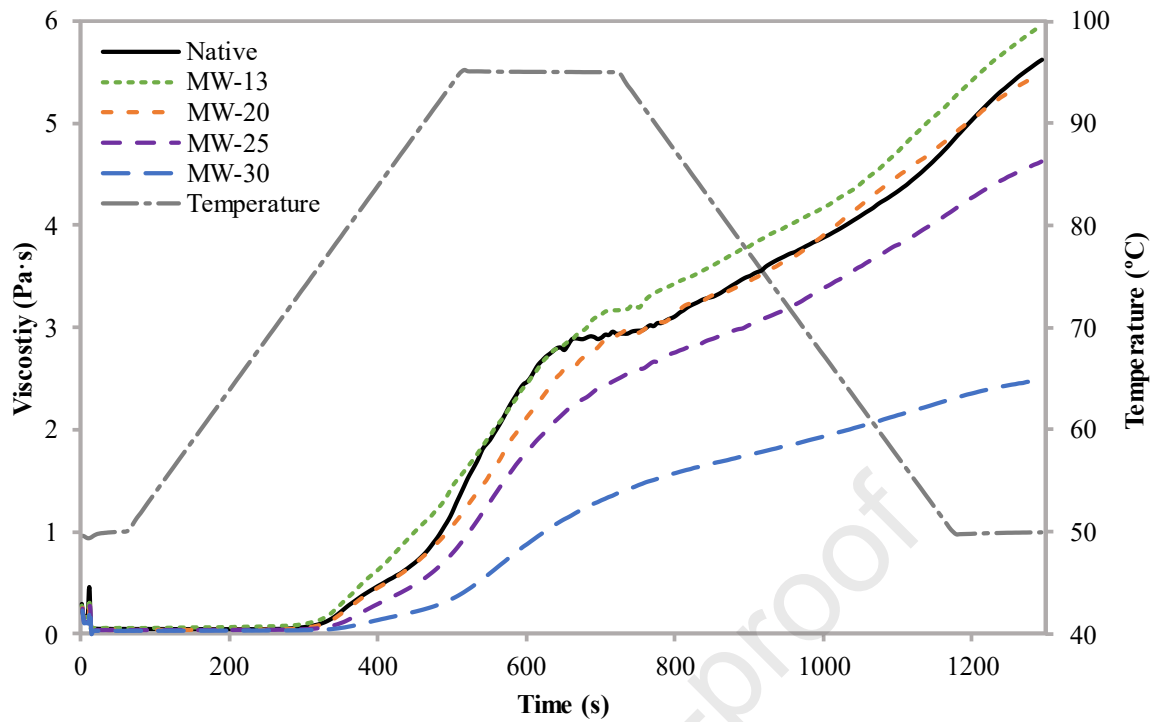


Figure 2. Pasting profiles of flour samples obtained from microwave-treated buckwheat grains at moisture contents of 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30%, and the untreated control flour (native). The temperature profile is plotted on the second axis.

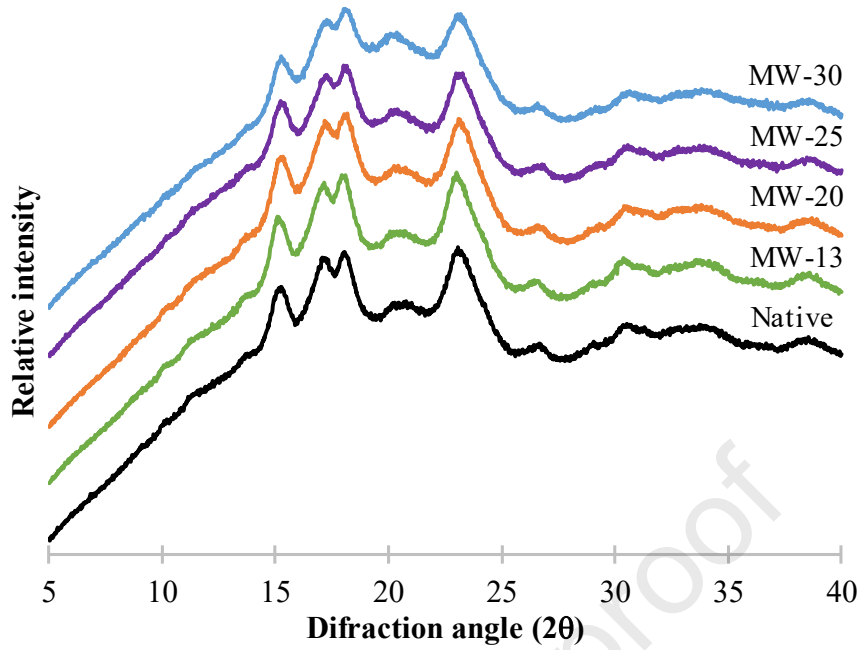


Figure 3. X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of untreated control flour (native) and of flours obtained from microwave-treated grains at 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30% moisture content.

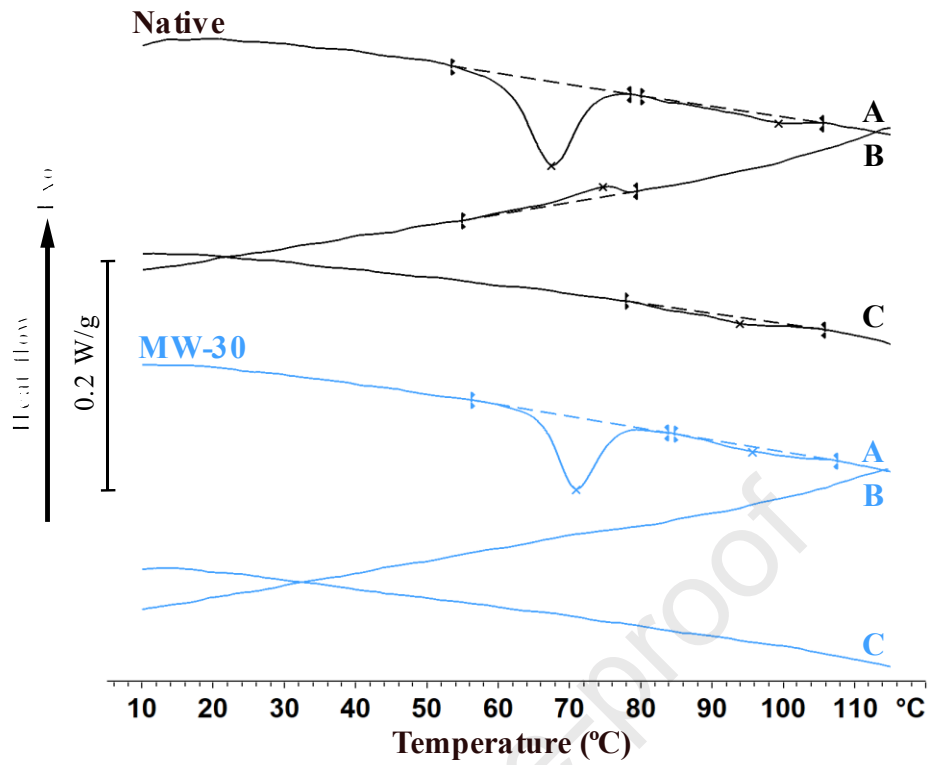


Figure 4. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) thermograms successively performed on untreated flour (native, black) and flour obtained from microwave-treated grain at 30% moisture content (MW-30, blue). A: first heating sweep (gelatinization) from 0 to 120 °C, B: cooling sweep from 120 to 0 °C, and C: second heating sweep from 0 to 120 °C.

Table 1. Colour characteristics and particle size distribution of flour samples obtained from native and microwave-treated buckwheat grains.

Sample	Colour characteristics						Particle size distribution			
	L*	a*	b*	C*	h	ΔE	D ₁₀ (μm)	D ₅₀ (μm)	D ₉₀ (μm)	(D ₉₀ -D ₁₀)/D ₅₀
Native	77.3 d	2.21 a	8.84 cd	9.1 c	76.0 e	-	23.3 a	117.6 a	315.5 a	2.48 d
MW-13	77.9 d	2.95 c	9.03 d	9.5 d	71.9 d	1.3 a	28.2 b	124.6 b	324.0 b	2.37 c
MW-20	75.8 c	2.70 b	7.73 a	8.2 a	70.7 c	1.9 b	30.5 b	124.0 b	334.7 c	2.45 d
MW-25	73.8 b	3.02 c	7.94 b	8.5 b	69.2 b	3.7 c	45.5 c	156.0 c	372.3 d	2.09 b
MW-30	71.8 a	3.53 d	8.73 c	9.4 d	68.0 a	5.6 d	48.3 d	183.6 d	396.7 e	1.89 a
SE	0.3	0.05	0.07	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.9	1.3	0.01
p-value (MC)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

MW-13, MW-20, MW-25, and MW-30 samples obtained from microwaved buckwheat grains treated with 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30% moisture content (MC), respectively. L*, a*, and b*: CIELAB colour coordinates; C*: chroma; h: hue; ΔE : colour difference from native flour; D₁₀: diameter where 10% of particles had smaller particle size; D₅₀: median diameter, diameter where 50% of particles had smaller particle size; D₉₀: diameter where 90% of particles had smaller particle size; (D₉₀-D₁₀)/D₅₀: size dispersion; SE: pooled standard error obtained from ANOVA. Mean values with different letters for the same parameter indicate significant differences between means at $p < 0.05$. Bolded p-values ($p < 0.05$) indicate that the effects of MC on microwave treatment are significant at $> 95\%$ confidence level.

Table 2. Techno-functional and pasting properties of flour samples obtained from native and microwave-treated buckwheat grains.

Sample	WAC (g/g)	WAI (g/g)	SP (g/g)	WSI (g/100g)	EA (%)	ES (%)	PT (°C)	PV (mPa·s)	Pt (s)	TV (mPa·s)	BV (mPa·s)	FV (mPa·s)	SV (mPa·s)
Native	1.15 a	9.04 c	9.48 c	4.64 a	56 d	11 c	74.5 b	3007 d	707 a	3001 d	7 a	5723 d	2722 c
MW-13	1.30 b	9.32 d	9.83 d	5.18 b	46 c	32 d	73.4 a	3165 e	716 a	3165 e	0 a	6020 e	2855 d
MW-20	1.32 b	9.01 c	9.47 c	4.86 a	6 b	6 b	74.7 b	2835 c	714 a	2834 c	2 a	5444 c	2610 c
MW-25	1.37 c	8.46 a	8.89 a	4.80 a	4 b	0 a	76.5 c	2505 b	716 a	2505 b	0 a	4662 b	2157 b
MW-30	1.64 d	8.70 b	9.14 b	4.77 a	2 a	0 a	78.4 d	1358 a	716 a	1358 a	0 a	2494 a	1137 a
SE	0.01	0.05	0.06	0.07	1	1	0.1	35	4	34	3	57	36
p-value (MC)	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.005	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.322	<0.001	0.372	<0.001	<0.001

MW-13, MW-20, MW-25, and MW-30 samples obtained from microwaved buckwheat grains treated with 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30% moisture content (MC). WAC: water absorption capacity, WAI: water absorption index, SP: swelling power, WSI: water solubility index, EA: emulsifying activity, ES: emulsion stability. PT: pasting temperature, PV: peak viscosity, Pt: peak time, TV: trough viscosity, BV: breakdown viscosity, FV: final viscosity, SV: setback viscosity, SE: pooled standard error obtained from ANOVA. Mean values with different letters for the same parameter indicate significant differences between means at $p < 0.05$. Bolded p-values ($p < 0.05$) indicate that the effects of MC on microwave treatment are significant at $> 95\%$ confidence level.

Table 3. Rheological properties of gels made with flour samples obtained from untreated and microwave-treated buckwheat grains.

Sample	G_1' (Pa)	a	G_1'' (Pa)	b	$(\tan \delta)_1$	c	G_1^* (Pa)	Crosspoint (Pa)	τ_{\max} (Pa)
Native	1019 b	0.075 c	174 b	0.231 b	0.171 b	0.156 a	1034 b	334 b	244 b
MW-13	1249 d	0.048 ab	201 d	0.212 a	0.161 a	0.164 a	1265 d	433 c	448 d
MW-20	1141 c	0.045 a	180 bc	0.214 a	0.158 a	0.169 a	1155 c	387 bc	386 c
MW-25	1149 c	0.037 a	184 c	0.205 a	0.160 a	0.169 a	1163 c	391 c	401 c
MW-30	491 a	0.062 bc	103 a	0.254 c	0.209 c	0.192 b	502 a	117 a	85 a
SE	15	0.004	3	0.003	0.002	0.004	15	15	9
p-value (MC)	<0.001	0.061	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	0.042	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

MW-13, MW-20, MW-25, and MW-30 samples obtained from microwaved buckwheat grains treated with 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30% moisture content (MC). The power law model was fitted to the frequency sweep experimental data ($G' = G'_1 \cdot \omega^a$; $G'' = G''_1 \cdot \omega^b$; $\tan \delta = (\tan \delta)_1 \cdot \omega^c$), where G_1' , G_1'' and $(\tan \delta)_1$ are the coefficients obtained from the fitting and represent the elastic and viscous moduli and loss tangent, respectively, at a frequency of 1 Hz. The a , b , and c exponents quantify the degree of dependence of the dynamic moduli and the loss tangent with the oscillation frequency. G_1^* : complex modulus at a frequency of 1 Hz. τ_{\max} : maximum stress that the samples could tolerate in the LVR. SE: pooled standard error obtained from ANOVA. Mean values with different letters for the same parameter indicate significant differences between means at $p < 0.05$. Bolded p-values ($p < 0.05$) indicate that the effects of MC on microwave treatment are significant at $> 95\%$ confidence level.

Table 4. Thermal properties of flour samples obtained from untreated and microwave-treated buckwheat grains.

Sample	First scan					Second scan			
	ΔH_{gel} (J/g dm)	$T_{\text{p-gel}}$ (°C)	R_{gel} (°C)	$\Delta H_{\text{am-lip}}$ (J/g db)	$T_{\text{p-am-lip}}$ (°C)	ΔH_{ret} (J/g dm)	$T_{\text{p-ret}}$ (°C)	$\Delta H_{\text{am-lip}}$ (J/g dm)	$T_{\text{p-am-lip}}$ (°C)
Native	8.8 b	67.4 b	12.8 c	0.7 a	98.0 a	2.2 a	48.6 a	2.3 c	93.7 a
MW-13	9.1 b	66.7 a	12.1 bc	0.5 a	97.8 a	2.9 b	49.4 a	0.9 b	92.5 a
MW-20	8.6 b	67.9 c	12.3 bc	0.7 a	97.5 a	3.0 b	48.7 a	0.6 a	92.9 a
MW-25	8.5 b	69.2 d	11.5 ab	0.7 a	98.6 a	3.0 b	48.8 a	nd	nd
MW-30	6.4 a	71.1 e	10.5 a	0.6 a	98.1 a	3.2 b	48.6 a	nd	nd
SE	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.6	0.0	1.4
p-value (MC)	0.002	<0.001	0.058	0.804	0.791	0.534	0.707	<0.001	0.873

MW-13, MW-20, MW-25, and MW-30 samples obtained from microwaved buckwheat grains treated with 13%, 20%, 25%, and 30% moisture content (MC). First scan was performed on fresh samples. Second scan was performed after storage of flour suspensions at 4 °C for 7 d. ΔH_{gel} : starch gelatinisation associated enthalpy; $T_{\text{p-gel}}$: peak temperature for gelatinisation peak; $R_{\text{gel}} = (T_e - T_o)$ for the gelatinisation peak, where T_o is the onset temperature and T_e is the endset temperature; $\Delta H_{\text{am-lip}}$: enthalpy associated with dissociation of amylose-lipid complex; $T_{\text{p-am-lip}}$: peak temperature for amylose-lipid complex dissociation peak; ΔH_{ret} : enthalpy associated with the melting of recrystallised amylopectin; $T_{\text{p-ret}}$: peak temperature of melting of recrystallised amylopectin; nd: non-detectable; dm: dry matter. SE: pooled standard error obtained from ANOVA. Mean values with different letters for the same parameter indicate significant differences between means at $p < 0.05$. Bolded p-values ($p < 0.05$) indicate that the effects of MC on microwave treatment are significant at $> 95\%$ confidence level.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Microwaves are a promising alternative for the physical modification of buckwheat.
- Grain moisture content during treatment determined the final properties of the flour.
- Treatment with 13% moisture content improved the ability to form stable emulsions.
- Microwave treatment increased the water absorption capacity of the flour.
- Type I amylose-lipid complex was not re-formed after dissociation in treated flours.
- A range of gel consistencies were obtained under different treatment conditions.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors confirm that they have no conflicts of interest with respect to the work described in this manuscript.

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Author statement

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