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5 Article type : Research

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8 **Frost-affected lentil (*Lens culinaris* M.) compositional changes through**
9 **extrusion: Potential application for the food industry**

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21 **ABSTRACT**22 **Background and objectives:** Lentil (*Lens culinaris* M.) is a high value, highly nutritional
23 grain which originated in Middle-East. More recently lentil has gained favour in western
24 countries due to the high value in production and the benefits they provide agronomically,
25 however growing lentil in countries such as Australia, Canada, and the United States is not
26 without its challenges. One is the high probability of damage due to radiant frost either before
27 flowering or during pod-filling. The effects of which is most noticeable in the appearance of
28 the seed reducing the value and usability of crops. On the other hand, a generation of well

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1002/CCHE.10296](https://doi.org/10.1002/CCHE.10296)

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29 informed, health-conscious, and environmentally concerned consumers has driven the
30 demand for affordable and healthy food alternatives. Such demand has resulted in a growing
31 industry for protein extraction and novel food production. If used for protein extraction or
32 novel food production the visual appearance of seeds is no longer an important quality trait.
33 Lentil seeds damaged through frost that still retain a high nutritional composition may be the
34 perfect candidate for a low-cost substrate in novel food production whilst improving the
35 outcomes for growers and industry alike.

36 **Findings:** This study used as a model extrusion technology to investigate the use of flour
37 derived from Grade 1 (premium quality), and downgraded frost-damaged lentil and to
38 monitor compositional changes during extrusion. The study concentrated on how total
39 protein, individual carbohydrates, and phenolic acids changed through high-temperature,
40 high-pressure extrusion. Overall flours made from composite lentil-wheat flour had
41 significantly higher concentrations of protein and carbohydrates than the base wheat flour.

42 No significant differences were observed for total protein or carbohydrates between Grade 1
43 and frost-damaged flours however extrusion significantly reduced total protein concentration
44 as well as maltose and glucose concentration but did not alter the concentration of fructose,
45 sucrose or the raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs).

46 As expected, phenolic acids, procyanidin, kaempferol glycoside, and kaempferol trihexose
47 were detected in lentil-wheat composites but not in wheat. All phenolic acids significantly
48 increased with increasing concentrations of lentil flour in composite, however their
49 concentration decreased as a result of the extrusion process. Differences in concentrations of
50 procyanidin and kaempferol glycoside were detected between Grade 1 and frost-affected
51 lentil in both the composite flour and in the extrudate.

52 **Conclusion:** The extrusion process has the effect of altering the composition of the raw
53 material. This was evident by a decrease in protein percentage phenolic compounds and to a
54 lesser effect the water-soluble carbohydrates. No changes in RFOs was observed. The
55 complete loss of glucose and a significant reduction of maltose provides a healthier
56 carbohydrate profile as the carbohydrates are low fermentable sugars. The reduction of
57 phenolic acids a result of extrusion may help to reduce the antinutritional activity particularly
58 in grains where the concentration of phenolic acids is high. This study found that
59 functionality of down-graded lentil is similar to the premium grade, and more expensive raw
60 material. This knowledge may assist in reducing the increasing issue of food waste where
61 often down-graded products are not used in the production of food.

62 **Significants and novelty:** In order to meet world food security needs it is predicted that
63 global food production will need to increase by at least 70% by 2050. Therefore, the
64 utilization of all possible protein sources including down-graded pulses, such as lentil, will
65 become increasingly more important. Furthermore, due to climate change increasingly more
66 variable weather conditions will result in the production of below optimum grains.
67 Understanding how to best utilise both premium and downgraded grains is a desirable
68 outcome to minimize food waste.

69 **KEYWORDS**

70 extrusion, frost, lentil, wheat, phenolic acids, protein, carbohydrate.

71 **1 | INTRODUCTION**

72 The quality of lentil (*Lens culinaris* M.) is generally determined by its physical traits such as
73 seed size, shape, and colour (Shahin & Symons, 2003) however, these traits can be negatively
74 impacted by abiotic stress including frost during pod-filling. Radiant frost occurs when plants
75 and soil absorb sunlight during the day and then absorb radiant heat throughout the night
76 when the air is still, and the sky is clear (Maqbool, Shafiq, & Lake, 2010). Dense chilled air
77 settles into the lower areas of the canopy of the crop and in severe cases the cold air causes
78 the intracellular fluid in the plant to crystallize, (Nucleation). Crystallisation results in the
79 rupturing of the intracellular plasma membrane. Pulses including lentil, field pea, and faba
80 bean are all highly susceptible to radiant frost damage (White, 2000). Such events during
81 flowering and podding are phenotypically expressed as flower abortion, poor pod set, a
82 reduction in pod filling all contributing to lowering grain yield and quality (Delahunty, Perry,
83 Wallace, Brand, & Nuttall, 2019; Maqbool et al., 2010; White, 2000). Visually seeds from
84 plants exposed to radiant frost have severe darkening and wrinkling of the seed coat. The
85 seed shape is often distorted and are much smaller than healthy seeds. Frost events are a
86 common occurrence in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom (Crimp et al., 2016;
87 Maqbool et al., 2010; White, 2000). Damaged lentil that would likely be downgraded as
88 rejects and discarded or used as stock feed still retain a high level of protein, carbohydrates,
89 and other nutritional compounds (Portman, Blanchard, Maharjan, Naiker, & Panozzo, 2019).
90 Frost-damaged lentil seeds that retaining a sufficiently high nutritional composition could be
91 milled to flour for use as an additive in novel food production. This may provide an
92 economical substrate to the food industry whilst improving the outcomes for growers when
93 crops are affected by frost.

94 Lentil is a popular widely grown crop throughout India, the Mediterranean and, Southeast
95 Asia, where it has been highly prized as a food staple (Yadav, McNeil, & Stevenson, 2007).
96 Traditional uses include dahl and soups as well as being consumed whole after soaking and
97 boiling. Along with other pulses such as chickpeas, faba beans, field peas, and dry beans,
98 lentil plays a key role in assisting populations obtain sufficient levels of protein and other
99 important function compounds in their diet (Bresciani & Marti, 2019). These compounds
100 include dietary fiber, carbohydrates, starch and minerals (Joshi, Aldred, Panozzo, Kasapis, &
101 Adhikari, 2014; Li et al., 2014; Portman et al., 2019; Tosh & Yada, 2010; Wang & Toews,
102 2011). In western countries, a growing trend is the use of pulse-flours in novel food products.
103 These products are well suited to vegetarian and vegan diets but may also generate products
104 that increase the mainstream consumption of pulses including lentil (Bresciani & Marti,
105 2019). There are challenges to overcome in order to increase the acceptance of pulse-based
106 products in western society. These include an unpleasant beany-flavours that can be produced
107 and also the presence of antinutritional compounds such as non-digestible oligosaccharides
108 (Bresciani & Marti, 2019) and nutrient-limiting compounds such as phenolic acids (Champ,
109 2002; Gilani, Xiao, & Cockell, 2012; Thavarajah, Thavarajah, & Vandenberg, 2009).
110 Conversely, oligosaccharides and phenolic acids are reported to have properties that may
111 have a positive health benefit. (Ganesan & Xu, 2017; Johnson, Combs, & Thavarajah, 2013;
112 Rao, Chinkwo, Santhakumar, & Blanchard, 2018; Vaher, Matso, Levandi, Helmja, &
113 Kaljurand, 2010). In understanding the benefits and limitations of lentil as an additive wheat
114 based flour, it is study the effect that processing has on the above-mentioned compounds as
115 different types of processing including fermentation, baking and, extrusion may alter the
116 composition (Bartolomé, Estrella, & Hernandez, 1997; Han & Baik, 2008; Hansen et al.,
117 2002). Extrusion is a cooking process where a substrate such as flour when mixed with water
118 undergoes a variety of conditions including, kneading and melting (Offiah, Kontogiorgos, &
119 Falade, 2018). Post mixing and hydration the doughs are subjected to sheer forces and
120 heating in a die-head were different levels of gelatinization are achieved depending on the
121 desired outcome (Offiah et al., 2018). The resulting extrudate can be manipulated to form
122 shapes through the selection of different die-heads and by controlling the exit speed and
123 temperature. Extrusion cooking has many advantages, including the ability to produce a
124 diverse range of products using inexpensive raw materials with minimal processing times
125 (Offiah et al., 2018). For example, operating an extruder under a low-shear profile can be
126 used to create pasta-style products, whereas medium-shear profiles can be used to create meat
127 analogs from plant-based material and, high-shear extrusion profiles allow for the creation of

128 expanded snack foods (Dogan, Gueven, & Hicsasmaz, 2013). Furthermore, extrusion can
129 alter the final composition, through protein denaturation, enzyme inactivation (Dogan et al.,
130 2013), and a reduction of antinutritional compounds (Nikmaram et al., 2017; Rathod &
131 Annapure, 2016) including phenolic acids (Brennan, Brennan, Derbyshire, & Tiwari, 2011;
132 Dogan et al., 2013). Several studies using extrusion has been completed using chickpeas
133 beans, peas, sorghum, and legume blends, there have been few studies have been undertaken
134 using red lentil. (Dogan et al., 2013). To our knowledge this is the first study where down-
135 graded lentil damaged by frost have been used in extrusion. Grade 1 and frost-damaged lentil
136 seeds were milled to flour and used as an additive with wheat flour in high-temperature and
137 high-pressure extrusion. This study investigated the compositional changes in total protein,
138 water soluble carbohydrates and phenolic acids, during extrusion.

139 **2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS**

140 **2.1 | Materials**

141 A commercially available red lentil (*Lens culinaris* M.), cv. PBA Jumbo was used in this
142 study and consisted of two samples; Grade 1 (premium quality) and, a frost-damaged (down-
143 graded lentil) which had a high proportion of small and dark seeds. Both samples were
144 cleaned with a vacuum separator (KimSeed, WA, Australia) to remove any plant residue
145 matter. Whole lentil seeds including the seed coat were milled to a flour with a cyclone mill
146 that was fitted with a 0.5 mm screen (Laboratory Mill 120; Perten Instruments, Huddinge,
147 Sweden). Composite wheat-lentil flours were prepared by blending a commercial baker's
148 flour (Perfection Bakers Flour, Allied Mills, Australia) with either Grade 1 or frost-affected
149 lentil flour using ratios of lentil at 0, 10, 20, 40, and 100%.

150 **2.2 | Extrusion cooking**

151 A co-rotating, interlocking, twin-screw extruder (Brabender KETSE 20/40; Brabender®
152 GmbH & Co. KG Duisburg, Germany) with a flighted length ration of 20/40 was used in this
153 study. The screw configuration was comprised of a feed zone, compression zone with
154 kneading block, and a melting zone. A round strand die head with a nozzle diameter of 2.5
155 mm was also used. The screw speed was 250 rpm and the material feed rate was 8 kg/h.
156 Water dosing was supplied by a peristaltic pump (Watson Marlow 120U/DV) with a constant
157 melt moisture content of 25%. Heating zones (HZ) were as follows, HZ1: 50°C, HZ2: 95°C,
158 HZ3: 110°C, HZ4: 125°C, HZ5: 125°C, HZ6: 140°C. The melt temperature in the die head
159 was 137° C.

160 **2.3 | Sample preparation**

161 Extruded products were ground to a fine powder with a mortar and pestle and stored at 4° C
162 until further analysis.

163 **2.4 | Total protein**

164 The total protein of extrudates was measured using the Dumas combustion method AACC
165 46-30.01 (AACC, 2000) and was performed using a Leco TruMac analyzer (Leco Corp, St
166 Joseph, MI, USA). The moisture content of samples was determined through a
167 thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA) (Leco Corp, St Joseph, MI, USA). All sample evaluations
168 were reported in triplicate and total protein was reported on a % dry basis.

169 **2.5 | Water-soluble carbohydrate extraction**

170 Carbohydrate extraction was performed as described by Maharjan, Jacobs, Deighton, and
171 Panozzo (2018) with modification. Ground extrudate, (0.4g) was weighed into polyethylene
172 tubes and suspended in 5 mL of reverse osmosis (RO) water. Each sample was sonicated for
173 a total of 30 min at a frequency of 50 hertz (FXP 12; Unisonic Pty Ltd, Australia), and then
174 vortexed (Thermolyne Maxi Mix II; Thermoline Scientific, IA, USA), at 10-minute intervals
175 throughout the sonification process. The above process was repeated twice more. The pooled
176 extract was then centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 minutes (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5810,
177 Hamburg, Germany). An aliquot, 0.75 mL of the resulting supernatant, was transferred to 2
178 mL Eppendorf tubes and 0.75 mL of 100% acetonitrile added. Each sample was then
179 centrifuged at 3,000g for 10 minutes (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5430R, Hamburg, Germany)
180 before being filtered through a 0.2 µm PTF syringe filter (FILTER-BIO®) into UPLC Vials
181 for analysis. The samples were then analyzed for water-soluble carbohydrates (WSC) using
182 the UPLC/ELSD method outlined by Maharjan et al. (2018).

183 **2.6 | Water-soluble carbohydrate (WSC) UPLC-ELSD analysis**

184 Water-soluble carbohydrates (WSCs) was measured by Ultra Performance Liquid
185 Chromatography/ Evaporative Light Scattering Detection (UPLC/ELSD) using the method
186 described by Maharjan et al. (2018).

187 **2.7 | Phenolic acid extraction**

188 Ground extrudate (0.25 g) was weighed into 15 mL polyethylene tubes. One mL of 70%
189 acetone was added to the sample which was then vortexed and placed on a Thermo shaker
190 (Thermo Scientific, Australia) set at 5000 rpm at room temperature for 1 hour. Samples were
191 then centrifuged at 2000 rcf (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5810, Hamburg, Germany) for 5 minutes

192 and the supernatant transferred to 15 mL Teflon tubes. This extraction step was repeated, and
193 the supernatant collected. An aliquot (1 mL) of pooled supernatant was dried at 60°C under a
194 stream of nitrogen gas in a heated block (Ratek Instruments, Victoria, Australia). Following
195 drying, the samples were resuspended in of 10% methanol (1 mL) and filtered through a PTF
196 syringe filter (0.22 µm) (FILTER-BIO®) into UPLC Vials for analysis.

197 **2.8 | Analysis of phenolic acids UPLC-PDA-MS**

198 The identification of phenolic acids of extrudates was performed using the method outlined
199 by Maharjan, Penny, Partington, and Panozzo (2019). All analyses were performed on a
200 Waters UPLC ACQUITY system (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) equipped with a
201 Photodiode array detector (PDA) and ACQUITY mass detector (QDa). Compound separation
202 was achieved using a UPLC-BEH C18 Column (2.1 x 50 mm, 1.8 µm). The mobile phase
203 consisted of (solvent A) acetonitrile with 0.1% acetic acid and (solvent B) MilliQ water with
204 0.1% acetic acid. Peaks were identified based on their molecular weight and UV profiles.
205 Changes in compound concentration was determined by an assessment of area under the
206 curve (ACU). All samples were run in triplicate and the data was processed using Empower 3
207 software (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA).

208 **2.9 | Statistical analysis**

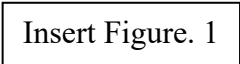
209 All data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's protected with
210 GenStat statistical software 17th edition (VSN International, Hemel Hempstead, UK). Means
211 were analyzed for the least significant difference at a probability level of $p < 0.05$. Results are
212 expressed as a mean value \pm *SD*. All analyses were conducted in triplicate.

213 **3 | RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

214 **3.1 | Extrusion**

215 All extrusion runs were performed using the same round die-head and temperatures, whilst
216 only altering the water and flour dosing rate to maintain a 14 % moisture ration for each
217 composite flour. Visually, the extrudate had a tubular-like shape with air pockets resulting
218 from expansion and giving the extrudate a "pretzel-like" appearance. As the lentil
219 concentration in the wheat flour increased, the colour of extrudates changed from light golden
220 brown to dark brown (Figure. 1)

221 **3.2 | Protein**

222  Insert Figure. 1

223 As expected, increasing the concentration of lentil flour in composite blends resulted in a
224 significant increase of total protein percentage ($p < 0.05$) (Table. 1).

225 Extrusion did result in a significant reduction of total protein content compared to their
226 respective flours (Table. 1), ($p < 0.05$). These findings confirm those of Dogan et al. (2013)
227 who showed that proteins become denatured through extrusion and Camire and King (1991)
228 proposed that such a reduction occurs during extrusion when the hydrophilic amino acid
229 regions of protein become exposed, changing the solubility of proteins in water also affecting
230 nitrogen solubility. Furthermore, the effect that extrusion has on protein solubility has
231 implications for the final product. Hydrophobicity may lead to a rapid reduction of water at
232 the die-head which could enhance product expansion (Camire & King, 1991).

233 No significant differences were observed for protein percentage in the extrudates from the
234 Grade 1 composite flours compared with the corresponding flour of frost-affected lentil
235 (Figure. 2).

236

Insert Table. 1

237

238 **3.3 | Water-soluble carbohydrates**

239 A comparison of water-soluble carbohydrates for the 60 - 40% wheat-lentil composite flour
240 and the corresponding extrudate is demonstrated in Figure 3. The water soluble carbohydrates
241 present in the highest concentrations were fructose, glucose, sucrose, maltose as well as the
242 raffinose family of oligosaccharides (RFOs). The similar chromatographic profiles were
243 observed for all of the wheat-lentil flour composites..

244

Insert Figure. 3

245

246 This study found no significant differences for percentage total WSCs concentration between
247 each composite flour from either the Grade 1, or downgraded lentil (Table. 2).

248 With increasing concentrations of lentil flour in the composite, there was an incremental
249 increase in water soluble carbohydrates ($p < 0.05$), however the concentration of individual
250 water soluble carbohydrates were altered differentially during extrusion as is shown in Figure
251 3 for the 60-40% composite. The largest change in concentration was observed for glucose
252 and maltose whereas fructose and sucrose were not altered as a result of the extrusion process.

253

254 Raffinose, ciceritol, stachyose, and verbascose are not detected in wheat but as expected were
255 present in the composite flours due to the contribution of the lentil flour and were not altered
256 in the extrusion process. This is in contrast to the changes in RFOs which occurred in a
257 bread-study where fermentation significantly ($p < 0.05$) reduced the level of RFOs (Portman
258 et al., 2019). The RFOs are adjuncts of sucrose with the addition of a α -1, 6- galactosyl
259 extension forming complex FODMAPs (fermentable oligo-, di-, mono and poly- saccharides)
260 (Sengupta, Mukherjee, Basak, & Majumder, 2015). In plants RFOs serve as; transport-sugar,
261 sugar-storage units which protect seeds by desiccation during instances of high abiotic stress
262 (Fàbregas & Fernie, 2019). However, RFOs are considered predominantly antinutritional
263 when consumed by mono-gastric animals and humans, because of insufficient α -
264 galactosidase enzymes (α -GAL) (Sengupta et al., 2015). Instead, α -GAL hydrolyses the non-
265 reducing α -D-galactose residues liberating simple sugars and larger complex carbohydrate
266 molecules remain undigested entering the small intestine where they are partially fermented
267 by microbial flora producing carbon dioxide, hydrogen, and small quantities of methane
268 (Raman, Saiprasad, & Madhavakrishna, 2019). RFOs are of particular concern when
269 developing foods based on pulse flours as RFOs and their by-products are the primary cause
270 of irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) (Berrios, Morales, Cámara, & Sánchez-Mata, 2010;
271 Johnson et al., 2013; Siva & Thavarajah, 2018). Conversely, there is evidence showing the
272 beneficial effects of RFOs which undergo partial fermentation in the large intestine acting as
273 a prebiotics and enhancing the growth of lactobacilli and other bifidobacterial ultimately
274 contributing to improved gut health (Berrios et al., 2010; Siva & Thavarajah, 2018).
275 Furthermore, RFOs are reported to quench reactive oxygen species (ROS) by a reduction of
276 N-nitroso compounds which can be formed in the gut (Devi, Lakhera, & Kumar, 2019; Van
277 Loo et al., 1999). RFOs may also interact with Tol-like receptors stimulating the innate
278 immune system (Crittenden & Playne, 1996; Rochfort & Panozzo, 2007).

279

Insert Table. 2

280 3.4 | Phenolic acids

281 The addition of lentil flour to the composite resulted in an increase in the relative absorbance
282 of phenolic acids measured at 280nm. Three main phenolic acids were detected; procyanidin
283 and two kaempferol derivatives which are signature compounds associated with lentil not
284 detected in wheat (Figure. 4). The phenolic acid profile of frost-damaged lentil was similar to

285 the Grade 1 lentil except for kaempferol derivatives which were detected in lower
286 concentrations.

287 Insert Figure. 4

288 A possible explanation for changes in phenolic compounds that occurred in frost-affected
289 lentil may be their role in plant functions including growth and reproduction (Yedidia,
290 Schultz, Golan, Gottlieb, & Kerem, 2019). Phenolic compounds also respond in a protective
291 mechanism during times of abiotic stress such as ambient-frost (Yedidia et al., 2019).
292 Furthermore, increased expression of kaempferol derivatives has been reported in plants
293 exposed to short-term frost prior to harvest (Lee & Oh, 2015).

294 The effect of extrusion on the phenolic compounds is shown in Figure 5 . Extrusion reduced
295 the concentration of all three compounds. These observations align with other studies that
296 have shown that extrusion improves nutrient bioavailability, by significantly reducing the
297 measurable phenolic compounds in food products (Singh, Kaur, Singh, Singh, & Singh,
298 2019).

299 Insert Figure. 5

300 A possible explanation for a reduction of phenolic compounds may be due to high barrel
301 temperatures in the extruder resulting in decarboxylation and polymerisation of phenolic
302 compounds.

303 The reduction of antinutritional factors which includes phenolic acids, phytic acid, trypsin
304 inhibitors and tannins is an important outcome resulting of thermal processing including
305 extrusion (Patterson, Curran, & Der, 2017). All pulses have a relatively high concentration of
306 antinutritional factors compared with cereals and can affect the bioavailability of minerals
307 and inhibit protein digestibility (Rathod & Annapure, 2016). A substantial reduction or
308 complete removal of anti-nutritional factors is recommended for safe food production
309 (Nikmaram et al., 2017). The amount of reduction for anti-nutritional compounds during
310 extrusion is reliant on optimal processing conditions such as temperature, extrusion-time, and
311 moisture content. Achieving the optimal extrusion conditions can enhance the bioavailability
312 of foods and digestibility of protein and starch (Rathod & Annapure, 2016). For example,
313 Rathod and Annapure (2016) demonstrated that increasing the temperature from 140°C to
314 180°C during extrusion, reduced the phenolic content by 65%, and reduced tannin and phytic
315 acid content by 90%. For example, there is a high correlation between the intake of kaempferol

316 and its derivatives and a reduced risk of disease including lung, gastric, ovarian cancer and
317 cardiovascular disease (Calderon-Montano, Burgos-Morón, Pérez-Guerrero, & López-
318 Lázaro, 2011).

319 **4 | CONCLUSION**

320 Extrusion has the effect of altering the physical structure and composition of the final product
321 which facilitates the development of a wide range of food products. This study has
322 demonstrated that the composition of the raw material is differentially affected as a result of
323 extrusion depending on the processing conditions. Extrusion can advantageously be used to
324 decrease the bioactivity of anti-nutritional compounds particularly those found in pulses. This
325 study has shown there are no functional differences between Grade 1 and frost-damaged
326 lentil which would impede its use in extrusion technology . Extrusion can be used to create
327 many types of products beyond the basic extrudate created in this research. Further research
328 using extrusion technology and its application with substrates including downgraded grain-
329 crops affected by a range of abiotic conditions may provide a cost-effective way in
330 addressing the growing global demand for additional dietary protein.

331 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

332 The authors would like to acknowledge Mr. Jurgen M. Cyrulla from CI Scientific Australia
333 for his technical advice with the extruder. The authors acknowledge the ongoing contribution
334 to this research made by the technical staff of the Seed Phenomics and Quality Traits
335 Laboratory Agriculture Victoria.

336 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

337 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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365 [content/grdc-update-papers/2019/02/frost-response-in-lentils](https://grdc.com.au/resources-and-publications/grdc-update-papers/tab-content/grdc-update-papers/2019/02/frost-response-in-lentils)
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TABLE 1 Difference in total protein % dry basis before and after extrusion of Grade 1 Lentil.

Note: Wheat-Lentil blend (W-L). Data are means \pm SD. Values with different alphabetical letters differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). Data based on the mean result of six replicates for each sample, sampled from different sections of extrude during a 30-minute extrusion run.

	100% Wheat	W-L 80% - 20%	W - L 60% -40%	100% Lentil
Flour	13.3 \pm 0.1 ^a	15.9 \pm 0.1 ^a	18.3 \pm 0.1 ^a	26.6 \pm 0.1 ^a
Extrudate	12.7 \pm 0.1 ^b	15.5 \pm 0.1 ^b	16.9 \pm 0.1 ^b	25.4 \pm 0.1 ^b

	100% Wheat	W-L 80%-20%	W-L 80%-20%	W-L 60%-40%	100% Lentil
Lentil (Grade 1)	-	3.3 \pm 0.3 ^b	4.8 \pm 0.6 ^c	5.6 \pm 0.6 ^u	11.0 \pm 0.6 ^e
Lentil (Frost)	-	3.9 \pm 0.9 ^b	4.4 \pm 0.4 ^c	5.7 \pm 0.2 ^d	10.0 \pm 0.3 ^e

Note: Data are means \pm SD. Values with different letters differ significantly as ($p < 0.05$).

Figures

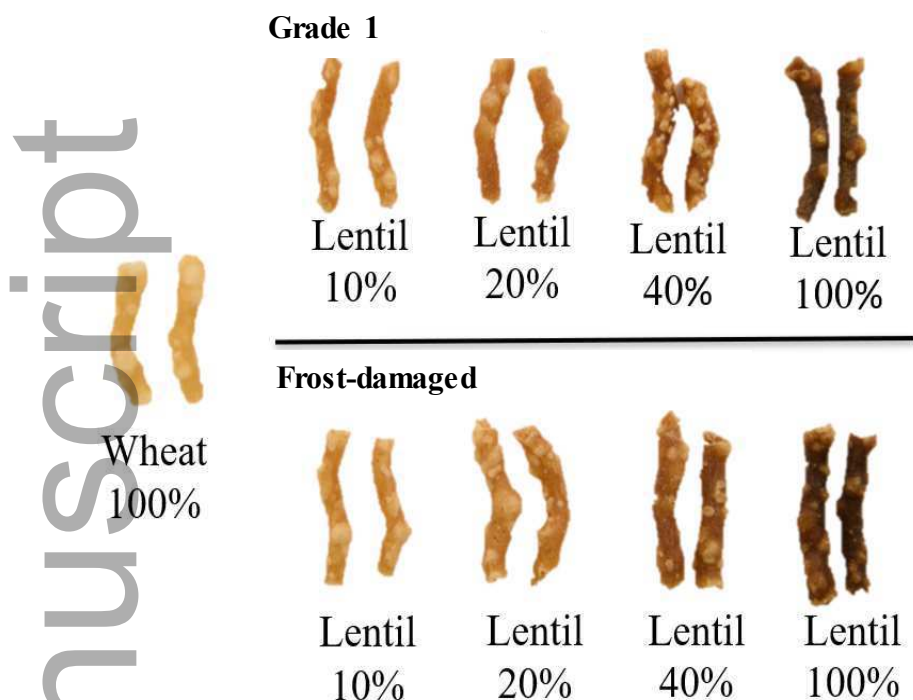


FIGURE 1 Extrudate made from composite Grade 1 and frost-damaged wheat-lentil flour.

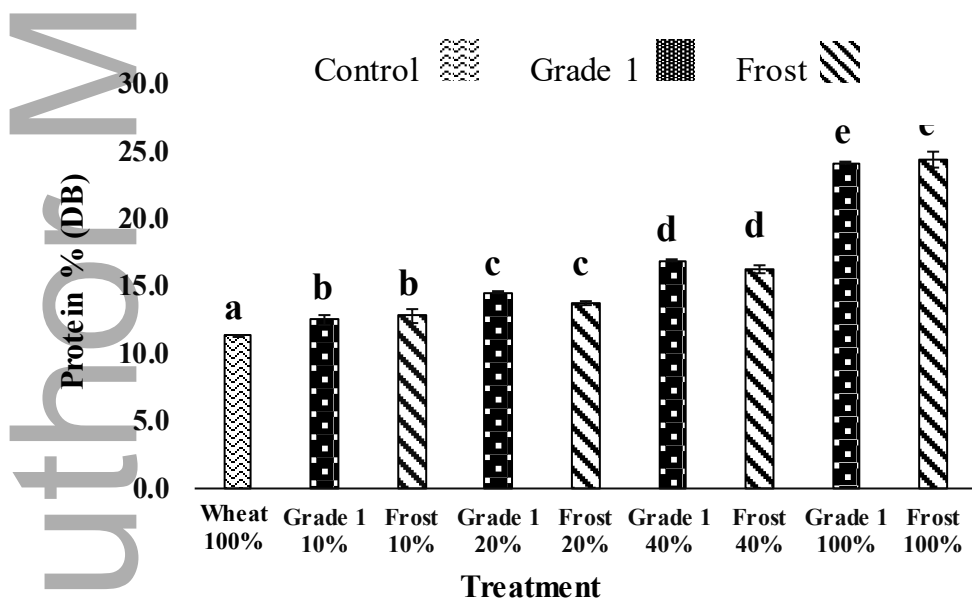


FIGURE 2 Total protein of wheat-lentil extrudate. Letters that are the same indicate no significant difference, ($p < 0.001$) L.S.D = 0.47.

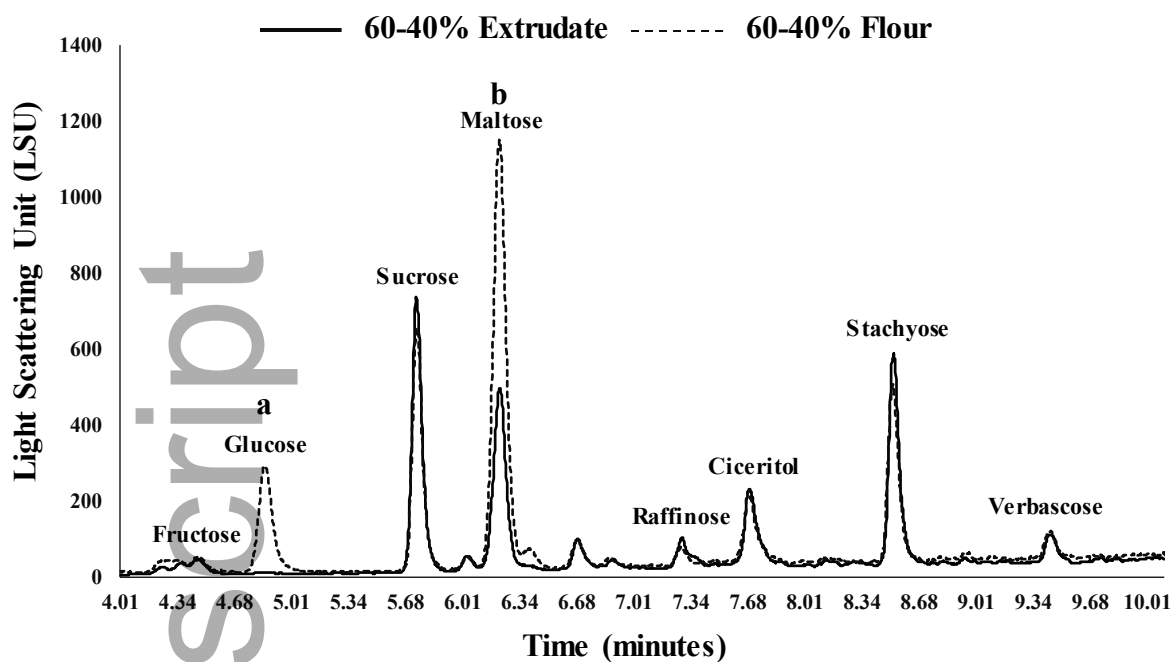


FIGURE 3 Carbohydrate profile of 60 – 40% wheat lentil composite flour (broken line) and extrudate (solid line).

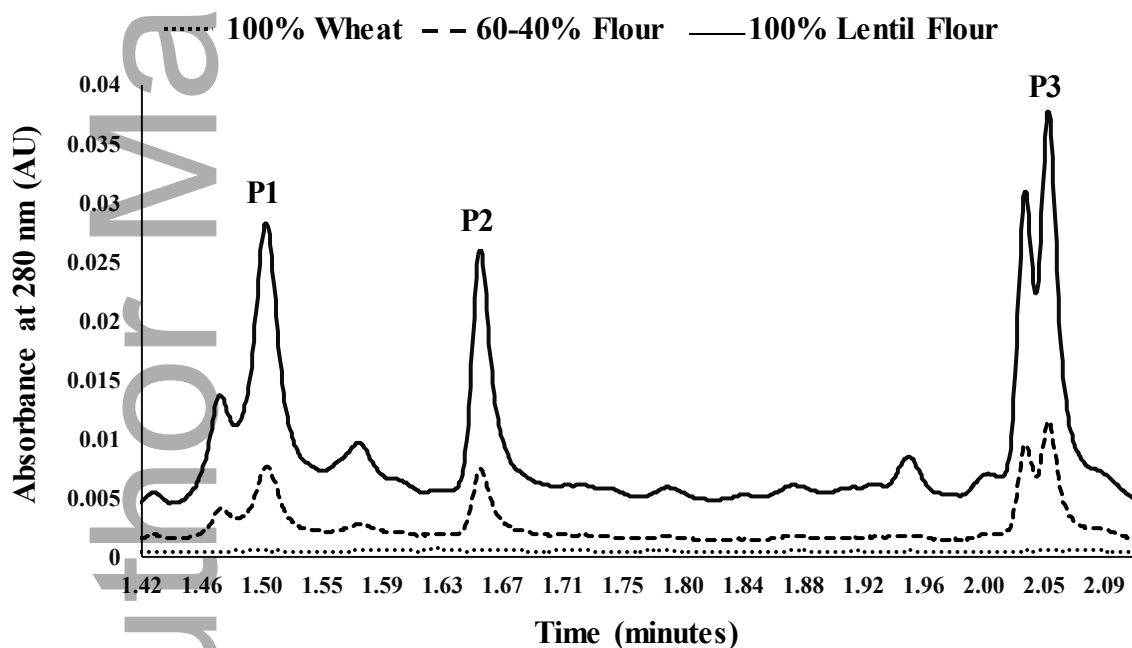


FIGURE 4 Phenolic profile of procyanidin (**P1**); kaempferol glycoside; (**P2**) and kaempferol trihexose; (**P3**). Wheat flour 100% (dotted line), wheat-lentil composite 60-40% (broken line) and lentil flour 100% (solid line).

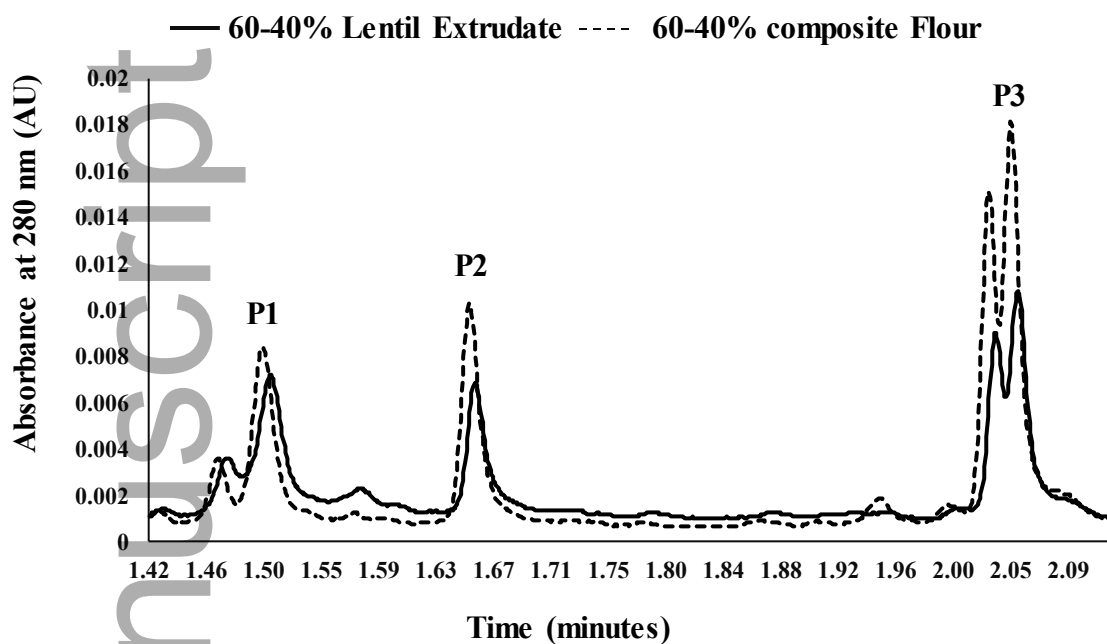


FIGURE 5 Phenolic of procyanidin (P1); kaempferol glycoside (P2), and kaempferol trihexose (P3), lentil flour 60-40% (broken line) and extruded lentil 60-40% (solid line).