

From flours to cakes: Reactivity potential of pulse ingredients to generate volatile compounds impacting the quality of processed foods

Svenja Krause, Séverine Keller, Anahita Hashemi, Nicolas Descharles,

Catherine Bonazzi, Barbara Rega

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1	Title: From flours to cakes: Reactivity potential of pulse ingredients to generate volatile
2	compounds impacting the quality of processed foods
3	
4	Authors:
5	Svenja Krause, Séverine Keller, Anahita Hashemi, Nicolas Descharles, Catherine Bonazzi,
6	Barbara Rega*
7	Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, AgroParisTech, UMR SayFood, 91300, Massy, France
8	* Corresponding author.
9	sven ja.krause @agroparistech.fr; severine.keller @agroparistech.fr; anahita.hashemi9194 @gmail.com;
10	nicolas. descharles @agroparistech.fr; catherine.bonazzi@inrae.fr; barbara.rega@agroparistech.fr
11	
12	Highlights:
13	• Pulses form a larger quantity and variety of process-induced volatiles than wheat
14	• Lipoxygenase plays a major role in lipid oxidation during batter beating
15	• Pea flour made under N_2 is highly prone to lipid oxidation during product making
16	• Pea cakes are the richest in oxidation markers typically linked to green odors
17	Lentil and chickpea flours induce most odor-active Maillard compounds
18	
19	Abstract:
20	This study investigated the impact of substituting wheat with pulse flours (lentil, chickpea,

21 lupin, green and yellow pea) on reactivity during different steps of sponge cake development. 22 Pulses exhibited a greater ability to generate volatiles with probable odor activity. Batter 23 beating initiated lipid oxidation which depended on lipoxygenase activity and the fatty acid 24 profile of the flours. Among the pulses, pea batters were richest in oxidation markers whereas 25 lupin was least reactive, probably due to thermal pre-treatment. Baking triggered 26 caramelization and Maillard reactions, notably with the pulse products which were 27 particularly enriched in pyrazines and furanic compounds. Principle component analysis 28 revealed that pea cakes were associated with oxidation markers that typically possess green-29 beany flavors, while Maillard markers known to impart nutty, roasted notes were assigned to 30 lentil and chickpea cakes. These findings highlight the importance of ingredient type and its 31 pre-processing in the development of quality-related markers for gluten-free products.

32

33 Keywords:

34 Lipid oxidation, Maillard reaction, gluten-free, hexanal, flavor, baking

35 1 Introduction

In recent years, the high prevalence of protein malnutrition in the rapidly growing global population is promoting the development of healthy and nutritious eating practices based on plant foods. Owing to their sustainability, low cost and nutritional value, pulses represent a popular source of vegetable protein (Hall *et al.*, 2017; Sozer *et al.*, 2017). Apart from their protein contents, these commodities not only provide dietary fiber and minerals but also possess a low glycemic index (Hall *et al.*, 2017), thus making them promising ingredients for diverse formulations, including baked goods.

Wheat-based bakery products have been part of the human diet for centuries. However, the associated ingestion of gluten can cause diverse clinical disorders, such as celiac disease, wheat allergy and non-celiac gluten sensitivity (Laleg *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, the market for gluten-free foods is expanding and the creation of value-added pulse products is being increasingly spotlighted.

48 Despite the appealing composition and health-promoting benefits of pulses, 49 exploitation of their advantages is impeded by their unpleasant green-beany off-flavor (Murat et al., 2013). The lipoxygenase-catalyzed oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids is considered to 50 51 be a major contributor to the release of odor-active compounds during harvest and storage and 52 has been reviewed for pea, chickpea, lentil and lupin (Azarnia et al., 2011; Jakobsen et al., 53 1998; Kaczmarska et al., 2018; Murat et al., 2013; Paucean et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019). By 54 contrast, the literature lacks information on the ability of pulses to generate aroma markers 55 and contribute to overall flavor during the development of pulse-based foods subjected to 56 thermomechanical treatments.

57 Sponge cakes are baked systems of particular interest when studying the link between 58 quality and reactivity because of their complex composition (Cepeda-Vázquez et al., 2019; 59 Maire et al., 2013). They are prepared in a two-step process of batter beating and baking, 60 which can favor the oxidative and thermal degradation of lipids, proteins and sugars (Maire et 61 al., 2013; Xu et al., 2019). Replacing wheat with pulse ingredients might therefore affect the 62 presence of precursors likely to undergo changes via lipid oxidation, Maillard reaction and 63 caramelization. It was therefore considered to be interesting, to evaluate the reactivity 64 potential of pulse flours to generate volatiles that could impact food quality during the different steps of cake development compared to a wheat reference. Moreover, the occurrence 65 of newly-formed compounds was studied, alongside other cake quality criteria. 66

67 2 Materials and Methods

68 2.1 Ingredients

Sucrose was purchased from Tereos (Lille, France), sunflower oil from Lesieur (Asnières-sur-Seine, France), whole pasteurized eggs from Ovoteam (Locmine, France), wheat flour from Grands Moulins de Paris (Ivry-sur-Seine, France), green lentil flour and chickpea flour from Celnat (Saint-Germain Laprade, France) and lupin flour and green pea flour from Moulin Meckert-Diemer (Krautwiller, France). Two yellow pea flours (Improve, Dury, France) were used, which had either been produced during exposure to air or under nitrogen.

76 2.2 Chemicals

Furfural-d₄ (\geq 96%) and 2-methylpyrazine-d₆ (98.4%) were purchased from C/D/N Isotopes Inc. (Pointe-Claire, Quebec, Canada), hexanal-d₁₂ (\geq 96%), Celite® 545, iodine and glyceryl triheptadecanoate (\geq 96%) from Sigma Aldrich (Saint-Quentin- Fallavier, France), petroleum ether, isopropanol, heptane, sodium hydroxide, methanol, glacial acetic acid, sodium thiosulfate pentahydrate, isooctane, potassium iodide and iodine (0.02M) from Carlo Erba (Val de Reuil, France) and hydrochloric acid (37%) from Prolabo (Fontenay-sous-Bois, France).

84 **2.3**

Batter and cake formulations

85 Eggs (45% w/w) and sucrose (25% w/w) were whipped together for 10 min (maximum speed) using a mixer equipped with a vertical whisk (KitchenAid Artisan 86 87 5KSM150, St. Joseph, Michigan, USA). Non-sifted wheat or pulse flour (25% w/w) was 88 gradually incorporated within 90 s (minimum speed) and the mixture was beaten for further 89 30 s. Thereafter, sunflower oil (5% w/w) was added within 15 s (minimum speed) and the 90 whole batter was whipped for a further 60 s. Each formulation was prepared in triplicate. A 91 portion of each batter was immediately stored at -20 °C until reaction marker analysis in order 92 to slow down oxidation reactions, whereas the remainder was used for immediate pH and 93 density measurements.

Sponge cakes were generated from a new batch of batter (total 630 g), where 21 aluminum molds (9.8×6.2×3.3 cm³) were each filled with 25 g of batter and baked at 170 °C for 25 min in an insulated convection oven (Bongard, Wolfisheim, France) guaranteeing thermal homogeneity (Fehaili *et al.*, 2010). While 15 cakes were frozen immediately at -20 °C in hermetically sealed glass jars until reaction marker analysis, the remaining six were cooled in order to characterize density, moisture content and pH. Each batch of 21 cakes was only 100 made once because a preliminary test had confirmed insignificant variability between three 101 batches using the same flour (p<0.05) in terms of selected analyses described in the sections 102 below.

103 **2.4 Cake grinding**

104 Prior analysis of moisture content and pH, the six cakes cooled to ambient temperature 105 were ground after density measurement for 1 min at turbo speed using a Moulinex AT710131 106 (SEB, Ecully, France). By contrast, a different protocol was applied to the cakes used to 107 analyze reaction markers in order to ensure similar particle size distribution and limit the 108 formation or loss of volatiles induced by friction heat. Accordingly, 15 frozen cakes from one 109 baking were milled in batches of five for 20 s at 6000 rpm using a Grindomix GM200 knife 110 mill equipped with a stainless-steel bowl and titanium blades (Retsch GmbH, Haan, 111 Germany) and stored at -20 °C.

112 **2.5** Chemical composition

113 2.5.1 Moisture, ash, protein, free amino acid, starch and fiber contents

114 The moisture contents of the ingredients and cakes were determined in triplicate by 115 differential weighing before and after drying for 24 hours at 105 °C. The ash content of eggs and flours were analyzed by dry combustion for twelve hours at 550 °C, while their protein 116 117 contents were determined using the Kjeldahl method (NF EN ISO 5983-2) with a nitrogen-to-118 protein conversion factor of 6.25 for pulses and 5.7 for wheat. The flours were further 119 characterized in terms of total starch (EC 152/2009), dietary fiber (AOAC 985.29) and free 120 amino acids (ISO 13903:2005 and ISO 13904:2016). The ash, protein, total starch, dietary 121 fiber and free amino acid contents were determined in duplicate by Improve (Dury, France).

122 2.5.2 *pH value*

The pH of 2 g batter or cake was analyzed in triplicate in 20 mL distilled water using a
 SensIONTM+ PH3 meter (Hach Lange, Lognes, France).

125 **2.6 Physical properties**

126 2.6.1 Density

Batter density was determined in triplicate by slowly drawing the batter up into 10 mL
 open-mouth syringes to avoid gas cell destruction. After weighing, density was calculated
 from the ratio of batter mass to syringe volume, previously defined using water.

Similarly, the density of six pre-weighed cakes was obtained by calculating the mass
to volume ratio. The latter was determined using a laser-based scanner (VolScan Profiler,
Stable Micro Systems, Surrey, UK).

133 2.6.2 Color

The CIEL*a*b* color parameters of three thawed cakes were recorded at illuminant D65 and a 10° observer angle using a CD-6834 spectro-guide sphere gloss colorimeter (BYK-Gardner, Geretsried, Germany). Color was measured at three points on the cake crust, then the cake was halved in a horizontal plane and three further points were analyzed on the crumb of the lower half.

139 2.7 Analysis of lipid oxidation

140 2.7.1 Lipoxygenase (LOX) activity

141 LOX activity was determined externally by Eurogerm (Saint-Apollinaire, France) 142 according to the method described by Delcros *et al.* (1998). Briefly, crude enzyme extracts 143 were prepared in triplicate by blending 2 g flour with 20 mL phosphate buffer (pH 7.5). After 144 centrifugation, 20-200 μ L enzymatic extract was mixed with linoleic acid in phosphate buffer 145 (pH 6.5) and saturated with air. LOX activity was expressed as nmol oxygen consumed per 146 second.

147 2.7.2 Oil extraction

148 To analyze lipid oxidation precursors and markers, oil was extracted from the products 149 using accelerated solvent extraction adapted from Maire et al. (2013). Samples (in triplicate) 150 were mixed with Celite® 545 at ratios (w/w) of 1/1, 3/2, 10/9 and 14/5 for eggs, flours, 151 batters and cakes, respectively, and extracted at 40 °C with heptane/isopropanol (5/1 v/v) for 152 25 min using a Dionex ASE 350 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The 153 solvents were evaporated at 40 °C under a vacuum; yield was then determined by differential 154 weighing before extraction and after evaporation. The oil was stored under nitrogen at -20 °C 155 until analysis.

156 2.7.3 Fatty acid (FA) profile

157 The FA profile of extracted oils was determined by gas chromatography coupled with 158 mass spectrometry (GC-MS) after transmethylation as described by Roman *et al.* (2013) with 159 slight modifications. Approximately 30 mg extracted oil (in triplicate) was dissolved in 1 mL 160 petroleum ether containing 3 mg internal standard heptadecanoic acid. After gentle mixing for 161 10 s, 200 μL NaOH in methanol (2 M) was added and the mixture was shaken for 10 s. The 162 tubes were then incubated in a water bath at 52 °C under constant agitation for 40 s. The 163 reaction was stopped by the addition of 400 μ L HCl in methanol (1 M). Samples were 164 allowed to stand for 2 min for phase separation before the upper phase was transferred into 165 GC vials.

166 Fatty acid methyl esters (FAME) were eluted on a TRACE GC Ultra gas 167 chromatograph (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with an SP-2560 GC column (100 168 m×250 µm×0.2 µm, Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) using helium as the carrier gas (1.20 169 mL/min). A 1 µL sample was injected at 250 °C with a split flow of 448 mL/min. The 170 FAMEs were separated by increasing the temperature by 5 °C/min increments from 100 °C 171 (held for 4 min) to 200 °C (held for 8 min) and then to 250 °C (held for 12 min). Mass spectra 172 (m/z 40-400) were detected at 250 °C using an ISQ single quadrupole mass spectrometer 173 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peaks were identified by comparing their mass spectra and 174 retention times with those of a FAME standard mixture containing 37 compounds (Supelco) 175 subjected to the same procedure. Relative FAME quantities were calculated by relating the 176 integrated areas under the peaks to those of the internal standard.

177 2.7.4 Conjugated dienes (CD)

178 The UV-spectrophotometric measurement of CD in sunflower and extracted oils was 179 performed in triplicate according to Roman et al. (2013) with some modifications. 10-20 mg 180 oil was weighed into 10 mL volumetric flasks, filled quantitatively with isooctane and 181 vortexed at maximum speed for 10 s. Depending on the oxidation status of the sample, a 182 second dilution (0.5-5 mL in 10 mL isooctane) was necessary to ensure absorbance within the 183 linear range of the spectrophotometer. The absorbance of the dilutions was recorded against 184 isooctane in 1 cm quartz cuvettes at 234 nm using a Specord 210 Plus (Analytik Jena, Jena, 185 Germany). The CD content was expressed as a specific absorbance, defined as the absorbance 186 of 1 g oil in 100 mL isooctane at 234 nm.

187 2.7.5 Peroxide value (PV)

The PV of sunflower and extracted oils was analyzed in triplicate by adapting the method described by Roman *et al.* (2013). 0.2 g oil was weighed into 75 mL amber beakers and dissolved in 16 mL glacial acetic acid/isooctane (3/2 v/v) containing 0.002% (w/v) iodine. 1 mL saturated potassium iodide solution was added and the mixture was blended for 90 s. 9 mL distilled water was added and the released iodine was titrated potentiometrically with sodium thiosulfate solution (5 mM). Water was used for the blank titration. The PV was calculated according to the equation Eq. (1).

$$PV\left[\frac{mmol}{kg}\right] = \frac{(V_{Oil} - V_{Blank}) \cdot c_{Thio} \cdot 2000}{m_{Oil}}$$
(1)

where V_{oil} and V_{Blank} are the volumes of sodium thiosulfate required to reach the equilibrium point of the oil or blank sample [mL], c_{Thio} is the molarity of the sodium thiosulfate solution [mM] and m_{oil} is the weight of the oil [g].

198 2.7.6 Acid value

The acid value of extracted oils from the flours was analyzed in triplicate according to the standard method NF EN ISO 660:2020 with slight modifications. Briefly, 50 mg oil was dissolved in 20 mL neutralized ethanol/petroleum ether (1/1 v/v) and the acids present titrated with ethanolic potassium hydroxide (KOH) solution (5 mM). The acid value was expressed as the mass of KOH required to neutralize 1 g fat using the equation Eq. (2).

$$Acid value = \frac{M_{KOH} \cdot c_{KOH} \cdot V_{KOH}}{m_{Oil}}$$
(2)

where M_{KOH} is the molar mass of KOH [g/mol], c_{KOH} is the concentration of the KOH solution [mol/L], V_{KOH} is the volume of KOH solution required to reach the equilibrium point [mL] and m_{oil} is the weight of the oil [g].

207 2.8 Analysis of volatile organic compounds (VOCs)

208 2.8.1 Internal deuterated standard solutions

For each food matrix (flours/batters/cakes), an aqueous solution containing furfural- d_4 , 210 2-methylpyrazine- d_6 and hexanal- d_{12} at concentrations of 14/91/15 mg/L, 0.1/89/3 mg/L and 211 139/778/411 mg/L, respectively, were prepared and stored at -20 °C until use.

212 2.8.2 HeadSpace-Solid Phase Micro Extraction (HS-SPME) of volatile compounds

213 For the GC-MS analysis of VOCs, preliminary experiments were performed to optimize the sample, equilibrium, extraction and injection conditions. Accordingly, 2 g 214 215 thawed flour, batter or ground cake were weighed in triplicate into 20 mL transparent vials, 216 spiked with 100 µL of their respective standard solution and enclosed with aluminum 217 polytetrafluoroethylene-coated silicon septa. To ensure that the VOCs of the sample and 218 added standards reached equilibrium in the headspace, the vials were stored overnight at 4 °C. 219 The next day, they were incubated at 50 °C for 18 min in a TriPlus autosampler (Thermo 220 Fisher Scientific). A DVB/CAR/PDMS fiber (50/30 µm, 2 cm, Supelco) was then inserted for 221 42 min at 50 °C. The compounds were thermally desorbed for 2 min (250 °C) and transferred 222 into the injection port of a TRACE GC Ultra gas chromatograph at a split flow of 10 mL/min.

223 2.8.3 Determination and analysis of VOCs

224 Separation of the volatiles was performed on a ZB-wax capillary column (30 m×0.25 mm×0.5 µm) using helium as the carrier gas (1.2 mL/min). The initial oven 225 226 temperature of 40 °C (held for 5 min) was increased to 240 °C at 4 °C/min. Mass spectra were 227 recorded in the electron impact ionization mode at 70 eV by means of an ISQ single 228 quadrupole mass spectrometer. Data were acquired by applying both full scan (TIC, m/z, 33-229 300) and SIM mode using specific m/z values for selected compounds. Identification was 230 performed using Xcalibur 2.2 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled with the MS libraries NIST 231 08 and Wiley 8, as well as by calculating the retention indices of the compounds using a 232 series of *n*-alkanes (C5-C21), which were compared with the values reported on the NIST 233 database (detailed information in Table S1). For VOC quantification, the areas under the TIC 234 or SIM peaks were integrated and related to those of the internal standards. Hexanal, furfural and 2-methylpyrazine were quantified using their deuterated standards. The relative 235 236 quantification of other compounds was performed using 2-methylpyrazine- d_6 for nitrogenous, 237 furfural- d_4 for furanic and hexanal- d_{12} for the remaining compounds.

238 2.9 Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed and significant differences were evaluated by Tukey's test at p<0.05 using SAS studio version 3.8 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). The data acquired is reported with two significant figures. Principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted using XLSTAT 2020.1 (Addinsoft, Paris, France).

243 **3 Results and Discussion**

Wheat, lupin, lentil, chickpea, green pea, yellow pea and yellow pea processed under nitrogen are abbreviated to W, LU, LE, CP, GP, YP and YPN, respectively. The letters "F", "B" and "C" indicate whether the flour, batter or cake was being examined.

247

3.1 Volatile compounds identified in the flours

Figure 1 shows the profiles of VOCs extracted from the flours, batters and cakes made using wheat or pulse flours. An overview of all compounds and their quantities can be found in **Table S2**.

The identification of the VOCs present in the flours is an important prerequisite to understand their potential to form molecules during cake development. As shown in **Figure 1**, the pulse flours, and particularly YPF/YPNF, contained significantly higher relative VOC amounts compared to WF, with the exception of LUF. Moreover, distinct differences in the VOC composition between the raw materials could be determined.

In WF, monoterpenes were observed as the dominant group of volatiles (**Figure 1**), which was not the case for the pulse flours, even though high levels were also detected. The molecules found included limonene, β -myrcene, β -pinene, 3-carene and linalool, which might have been products of endogenous isoprenoid biosynthesis or carotenoid degradation (Azarnia *et al.*, 2011; Jakobsen *et al.*, 1998; Paucean *et al.*, 2018).

By contrast, the most abundant constituents of CPF, GPF and YPF/YPNF included a complex mixture of alkanes (**Figure 1**). These compounds might have been produced by the oxidation of lipids (Paucean *et al.*, 2018; Stevenson *et al.*, 1996) or they could have migrated from the packaging (Chang *et al.*, 2016; Rivas-Cañedo *et al.*, 2009).

265 In LEF, however, the main group of volatiles was alcohols. Relative to WF and LUF, 266 the concentrations determined were significantly higher, but not when compared to CPF and 267 the pea flours (Figure 1). Ethanol generally accounted for a large share of alcohols in all the 268 flours, and particularly in pea cultivars (Table S2). This might suggest microbial spoilage, as 269 the compound can be produced from the amino acid alanine via the Ehrlich pathway (Pico et 270 al., 2015). The presence of 2-methyl-1-propanol, 3-methyl-1-butanol, 2-methyl-1-butanol and 271 2-phenylethanol in the different flours could have confirmed fungal infection as they can form 272 via the same mechanism from valine, leucine, isoleucine and phenylalanine, respectively 273 (Burdock, 2010; Pico et al., 2015). The comparatively low proportions of these molecules in 274 LUF, however, could indicate that this flour or its seeds had been subjected to thermal 275 treatment, thereby suppressing microbial growth.

276 According to the literature, the remaining alcohols can be assumed as being more 277 likely to derive from lipid oxidation, although some have also been described as fungal 278 metabolites (Azarnia et al., 2011; Maire et al., 2013). Among these, 1-hexanol was one of the 279 most abundant, particularly in LEF, GPF and YPF. Other alcohols typical of lipid oxidation, 280 such as 1-penten-3-ol, 2-hexen-1-ol and 3-hexen-1-ol (Kochhar, 1996), were exclusively 281 detected in LEF. Moreover, this flour contained two aldehyde oxidation markers, namely hexanal and 2-hexenal (Belitz et al., 2009), the latter of which was not detected in any other 282 283 flour, thereby emphasizing the higher degree of oxidation of LEF. The opposite could be 284 concluded for CPF based on the absence of aldehydes.

Interestingly, no difference in alcohols and aldehydes profiles could be measured between the two yellow pea flours. Both flours were produced from the same raw material, but were processed and stored under exposure to air (YPF) or under nitrogen (YPNF). From this it could be deduced that lipid oxidation in this ingredient tended to be initiated during harvest and transport rather than during seed grinding or storage.

290 With regard to aldehydes, LUF occupied a special position. Unlike the other flours, 291 LUF contained 2- and 3-methylbutanal (Table S2), which are both indicators of heat 292 treatment, generated by Strecker degradation of either isoleucine or leucine (Cepeda-Vázquez 293 et al., 2018). The assumption of the heat exposure of LUF was affirmed by the identification 294 of furanic compounds, which made up 75% of the VOCs. These included furfural, a known 295 marker of the Maillard reaction (Belitz et al., 2009). In addition, LUF contained traces of 296 pyrazines (0.01-0.03 μ g/g) and ketones linked to the Maillard reaction such as 2,3-297 butanedione, 2,3-pentanedione and 3-hydroxy-2-butanone, which validated the thermal 298 processing of lupin seeds/flour.



			VOC concentration [µg/g sample]										
Sar	nple	Alkanes	Alcohols	Ketones	Aldehydes	Furanic	Nitrogenous	Acids/Esters	Pyrones	Sulfurous	Terpenes	Total	
'n	W	160.2 ± 5.5 ^c	$235 \pm 40^{\circ}$	16.2 ± 2.5^{d}	6.19 ± 0.32 ^b	$45 \pm 12^{\circ}$	0.013 ± 0.011^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	381 ± 14 ^b	843 ± 54^{d}	
Flo	LU	23.1 ± 2.1 ^c	30.9 ± 1.3 ^c	29.6 ± 1.4^{d}	$2.054 \pm 0.014^{\circ}$	291 ± 11 ^a	0.0575 ± 0.0038 ^a	$11.45 \pm 0.66^{\circ}$	n.d.	n.d.	0.54 ± 0.14^{d}	389 ± 11 ^d	
	CP	$2200 \pm 550^{\circ}$	835 ± 100 ^{b,c}	69.8 ± 9.7 ^{c,d}	n.d.	27.4 ± 1.3 ^{c.d}	0.0178 ± 0.0067^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	126 ± 17 ^a	57.8 ± 9.2 ^d	3310 ± 680 ^{c,d}	
	LE	$293 \pm 29^{\circ}$	729 ± 99 ^{b,c}	105.4 ± 1.8 ^{b,c}	12.9 ± 1.8 ^ª	144.6 ± 5.0^{b}	0.022 ± 0.012^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	29.0 ± 1.1 ^b	$174 \pm 66^{\circ}$	1490 ± 180^{d}	
	GP	4990 ± 180 ^{b,c}	1390 ± 320 ^b	218 ± 39^{a}	6.871 ± 0.048 ^b	5.02 ± 0.44^{e}	0.0090 ± 0.0037^{b}	42.95 ± 0.86 ^a	n.d.	n.d.	922 ± 21^{a}	7570 ± 480 ^{b,c}	
	YP	12200 ± 2000 ^a	2280 ± 480^{a}	$124 \pm 20^{b,c}$	14.54 ± 0.36^{a}	$14.66 \pm 0.43^{d,e}$	0.0077 ± 0.0046^{b}	30.6 ± 8.6^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	21.7 ± 4.9^{d}	14700 ± 2400 ^a	
	YPN	8700 ± 4700 ^{a.b}	2320 ± 480^{a}	152 ± 35 ^b	13.4 ± 1.3 ^a	32.6 ± 3.4 ^{c,d}	0.0124 ± 0.0055^{b}	$41.2 \pm 3.5^{a,b}$	n.d.	15.0 ± 7.3^{b}	22.9 ± 2.8^{d}	11300 ± 4500 ^{a,b}	
ter	W	$0.62 \pm 0.43^{\circ}$	$4.83 \pm 0.37^{\circ}$	n.d.	0.531 ± 0.019^{d}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	$5.98 \pm 0.62^{\circ}$	
Bat	LU	$3.85 \pm 0.29^{\circ}$	1.580 ± 0.027 ^c	0.598 ± 0.034^{d}	0.1292 ± 0.0074 ^d	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	$6.20 \pm 0.24^{\circ}$	
	CP	$9.5 \pm 4.8^{\circ}$	$255 \pm 19^{\circ}$	9.28 ± 0.64 ^{c,d}	89.2 ± 4.9^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	$363 \pm 29^{\circ}$	
	LE	$0.84 \pm 0.40^{\circ}$	$232 \pm 26^{\circ}$	7.4 ± 1.1 ^d	172 ± 10^{a}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	$413 \pm 31^{\circ}$	
	GP	600 ± 100 ^{a.b}	857 ± 74 ^b	20.81 ± 0.76 ^{b,c}	$48.5 \pm 2.9^{\circ}$	12.9 ± 1.9 ^a	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1540 ± 140 ^b	
	YP	$247 \pm 69^{b,c}$	1200 ± 170 ^b	28.8 ± 3.6^{b}	$37.7 \pm 2.9^{\circ}$	21.0 ± 6.8^{a}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1540 ± 100 ^b	
	YPN	1070 ± 480^{a}	2240 ± 520 ^a	50.4 ± 8.2^{a}	159.1 ± 9.4^{a}	21.4 ± 3.7^{a}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	3540 ± 930^{a}	
ke	W	1.456 ± 0.014^{d}	2.299 ± 0.071 ^e	1.143 ± 0.032 ^c	5.84 ± 0.34^{e}	0.197 ± 0.011^{f}	0.790 ± 0.025^{d}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	11.72 ± 0.46 ^e	
Co	LU	1.35 ± 0.10^{d}	0.593 ± 0.026^{f}	1.168 ± 0.034 [°]	4.37 ± 0.14^{f}	0.472 ± 0.013^{d}	0.8409 ± 0.0069^{d}	n.d.	0.00542 ± 0.00078^{a}	n.d.	n.d.	8.81 ± 0.27 ^e	
	CP	$3.993 \pm 0.053^{\circ}$	5.48 ± 0.15°	2.013 ± 0.058^{b}	19.06 ± 0.43°	0.713 ± 0.028^{b}	$1.211 \pm 0.010^{b,c}$	0.1579 ± 0.0070 ^b	0.112 ± 0.085^{a}	n.d.	n.d.	32.74 ± 0.84 ^d	
	LE	5.13 ± 0.71°	19.56 ± 0.81^{a}	2.00 ± 0.13^{b}	16.74 ± 0.35^{d}	0.770 ± 0.021 ^a	1.69 ± 0.12^{a}	0.241 ± 0.021 ^a	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	46.1 ± 1.9 ^b	
	GP	10.98 ± 0.61^{a}	11.68 ± 0.11^{b}	2.527 ± 0.042^{a}	32.47 ± 0.33^{a}	$0.4312 \pm 0.0029^{d,e}$	$1.261 \pm 0.039^{b,c}$	0.1453 ± 0.0091^{b}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	59.49 ± 0.48^{a}	
	YP	7.7 ± 1.1 ^b	5.15 ± 0.11 ^c	2.180 ± 0.030 ^b	24.11 ± 0.48^{b}	0.415 ± 0.018 ^e	$1.171 \pm 0.051^{\circ}$	$0.1136 \pm 0.0071^{\circ}$	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	40.9 ± 1.6 ^c	
	YPN	8.9 ± 1.2^{b}	3.666 ± 0.055^{d}	2.390 ± 0.071^{a}	31.80 ± 0.65^{a}	$0.592 \pm 0.017^{\circ}$	1.356 ± 0.012^{b}	0.1419 ± 0.0059 ^{b,c}	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	48.8 ± 1.6^{b}	

299

300 Figure 1. Profile of VOCs [µg/g sample] extracted from flours, batters and cakes. Compounds are categorized into alkanes (■), alcohols (■), alcohols (■), furanic compounds (■), 301 nitrogenous compounds (=), pyrones (=), acids/esters (=), terpenes (=) and sulfurous compounds (=). n.d.: not detected. Relative amounts were estimated based on the internal deuterated 302 standards hexanal- d_{12} , furfural- d_4 and 2-methylpyrazine- d_6 . Different letters within a column of one food matrix indicate significantly different means (p < 0.05). W = wheat, LU = lupin, CP = 303 chickpea, LE = lentil, GP YP YPN under nitrogen. = green pea, = yellow pea and = yellow pea processed and stored

304 **3.2** Changes to the VOC profile during batter beating

The distribution of dry ingredients in the moist matrix, along with air entrapment during batter whipping, seemed to initiate reactions. This could be seen from the marked changes in VOC profiles compared to the flours (**Figure 1**). The highest levels of compounds were extracted from batters made with green and yellow pea, while the lowest quantities were recorded in WB and LUB. In terms of the number of VOCs, the batters could be ranked in a similar order (**Table S2**).

311 Alcohols represented the dominant group of VOCs in all batters with the exception of 312 LUB, where the profile was primarily characterized by hydrocarbons. The highest relative 313 amounts were determined in pea batters, the alcohol levels in which exceeded those in WB by 314 up to $460 \times$ (Figure 1). Taking account of the fact that the batters only contained 25% flour, 315 and that the contributions of inherent egg and oil volatiles to the VOC profile were negligible 316 (Maire et al., 2013), it emerged that the amounts of alcohols increased sharply during batter 317 beating. Most of these alcohols were associated with FA breakdown, attributable to the 318 incorporation of air. 1-Hexanol was one of the most abundant compounds in the batters 319 (Table S2), which was found at concentrations up to $35 \times$ higher than those detected in the 320 flours when considering their 25% content. The widely accepted pathway for 1-hexanol 321 production involves the oxidation of linoleic acid under the formation of hexanal, which is 322 reduced to 1-hexanol by the action of an alcohol dehydrogenase (Jakobsen et al., 1998). In 323 addition, several other alcohols were generated, some of which are also believed to originate 324 from linoleic acid degradation. These included 1-octen-3-ol and 1-pentanol, which appeared 325 at high levels, particularly in GPB, YPB and YPNB (Table S2). These batters were moreover 326 highly enriched in 1-penten-3-ol, which was more likely to have been produced from linolenic 327 acid oxidation catalyzed by an alcohol dehydrogenase (Murray et al., 1976). Among the 328 yellow pea batters, YPNB stood out for its significantly higher concentrations of lipid 329 oxidation markers compared to YPB (Figure 1). This might indicate that producing pea flour 330 under nitrogen protected unsaturated FAs from oxidation. Consistent with this, it could be 331 hypothesized that any contact with atmospheric oxygen would cause an instant reaction, 332 leading to VOC formation.

In addition, large quantities of ethanol were measured in the batters, which probably derived from the raw materials or arose in the course of fermentation processes during batter preparation. Indeed, it was the principal alcohol in both WB and LUB (**Table S2**), suggesting their low susceptibility to lipid oxidation. 337 LEB and CPB could be discriminated from the other batters as having higher aldehyde 338 than alcohol contents (Figure 1). Hexanal, in particular, was of considerable importance as its 339 level increased by up to 80× compared to the respective flours, when considering that only 340 25% flour was used during batter making. High values were also extracted from YPB, GPB 341 and CPB, which thus greatly exceeded those in WB and LUB, where only traces of aldehydes 342 were found. Apart from hexanal, the oxidative degradation of linoleic acid also seemed to 343 have caused the release of 2,4-nonadienal, 2-nonenal, 2-heptenal, 2-octenal, pentanal and heptanal (Belitz et al., 2009; Murray et al., 1976), most of which were solely identified in 344 345 LEB. The same was true for the breakdown products of linolenic acid, which included 2-346 hexenal, 2,4-heptadienal and 2-pentenal (Murray et al., 1976). Based on these findings, it 347 could be assumed that CPF, and notably LEF, contained alcohol dehydrogenases that were 348 either at lower levels or with weaker activities, thus transforming fewer aldehydes into 349 alcohols, unlike peas.

The greater vulnerability of unsaturated FAs to oxidative degradation in LEB, CPB, GPB and YPB/YPNB was further substantiated by the presence of ketones such as 3octanone, that were lacking in LUB and WB. After alcohols and aldehydes, these molecules made up the third largest group of VOCs. Finally, furanic components were also found, but only accounted for a maximum of 1% of volatiles (**Figure 1**).

355 **3.3** Factors influencing reactivity potential during batter beating

356 3.3.1 Amount of incorporated air

357 The generation of VOCs during batter preparation was largely attributed to the 358 oxidation of unsaturated FAs. In order to understand whether the amount of air incorporated 359 was correlated with the potential of the flours to form VOCs, the density of the batters was 360 analyzed and associated with the VOC quantities. As shown in Table 1, YPNB and GPB 361 appeared to be the most voluminous, while LUB was the densest. Since the former products 362 were distinctively enriched in VOCs compared to the latter (Figure 1), it was supposed that 363 enhanced air enclosure promoted oxidative reactions. However, this hypothesis was refuted 364 by the behavior of YPB, which contained similar amounts of volatiles as GPB but displayed 365 significantly higher density. Furthermore, its density did not differ significantly from that of 366 WB, LEB, CPB and LUB, but far exceeded their VOC concentrations. This led to the 367 conclusion that the amount of incorporated air was not the principal cause of lipid oxidation, 368 so it appeared essential to address the enzymatic activity of the different flours.

369 **Table 1**. Batter densities, LOX activities, profile of unsaturated fatty acids and acid value in flours.

Flour	Batter density	LOX activity	Unsatura	Acid value		
	$[g/cm^3]$	[nkat/g flour]	C18:1	C18:2	C18:3	
W	0.6046 ± 0.0077^{b}	<20 ^d	5.61 ± 0.25^{d}	24.1 ± 1.2^{d}	1.88 ± 0.18^{d}	23.22 ± 0.74^{b}
LU	0.645 ± 0.027^{a}	<1 ^d	37.0 ± 1.3^{a}	12.07 ± 0.31^{e}	$5.29\pm0.15^{b,c}$	4.512 ± 0.089^{d}
СР	$0.618\pm0.013^{a,b}$	$2510\pm140^{\rm c}$	18.25 ± 0.80^{b}	38.14 ± 0.35^{a}	1.35 ± 0.24^{d}	5.01 ± 0.27^{d}
LE	0.603 ± 0.013^{b}	3200 ± 250^b	$15.26 \pm 0.51^{\circ}$	22.77 ± 0.86^{d}	$4.50 \pm 0.58^{\circ}$	42.522 ± 0.038^a
GP	$0.560 \pm 0.023^{\circ}$	3870 ± 110^a	15.550 ± 0.070^{c}	$28.22 \pm 0.18^{\circ}$	$5.63\pm0.31^{a,b}$	$10.59 \pm 0.49^{\circ}$
YP	$0.621\pm0.017^{a,b}$	4350 ± 300^a	19.80 ± 0.39^{b}	35.51 ± 0.82^{b}	$6.050\pm0.060^{a,b}$	$10.94 \pm 0.52^{\circ}$
YPN	$0.533 \pm 0.028^{\circ}$	4340 ± 160^a	19.70 ± 0.69^{b}	34.54 ± 0.95^{b}	6.42 ± 0.36^{a}	$10.31 \pm 0.46^{\circ}$

370 371

Different letters within a column indicate significantly different means (p < 0.05). W = wheat, LU = lupin, CP = chickpea, LE = lentil, GP = green pea, YP = yellow pea and YPN = yellow pea processed and stored under nitrogen.

372

373 3.3.2 LOX activity and FA profile

374 Unlike the other batters, LUB and WB contained fewer lipid oxidation markers than 375 their respective flours used at a proportion of 25%. As discussed in Section 3.2, these 376 molecules are well-known breakdown products of the polyunsaturated FAs linoleic and 377 linolenic acid. Owing to their 1-cis,4-cis-pentadiene system, they are suitable substrates for 378 LOX, catalyzing their conversion into unstable hydroperoxides, which are subsequently 379 transformed into volatiles (Belitz et al., 2009). Because of the low level of oleic acid 380 degradation products, it was assumed that enzyme-mediated lipid oxidation was the main 381 pathway through which VOCs were released. This was confirmed by analyzing the LOX 382 activities of the flours at a pH similar to that of the batters (**Table 1**). While the enzyme was 383 practically inactive in WF and LUF, its activity in the other flours ranged from 2511 nkat/g 384 (CPF) to 4351 nkat/g (YPF). This finding provided a substantiated explanation for the low 385 concentrations of lipid oxidation markers in the batters made with LUF or WF. In the former 386 case, the suppression of LOX could indicate heat-induced denaturation during seed/flour 387 roasting, which could be supported by the presence of thermal reaction markers (e.g. 388 pyrazines). However, this assumption was not applicable to WF owing to its lack of such 389 molecules. But for the other flours, a logical link between LOX activity and volatiles could be 390 established: the more the enzyme was active, the more VOCs were identified.

The high levels of linoleic and linolenic acid in the pea flours, combined with their striking LOX activity, could further underline their pronounced susceptibility to oxidation (**Table 1**). Although these flours were characterized by a significantly lower acid value than wheat, which reflects the quantity of free FA that can be easily oxidized, they had a higher ability to undergo oxidation and form volatile compounds. This implies, that the fewer FA freely available in the pea flours were probably polyunsaturated fatty acids, which were 397 rapidly oxidized by the highly active LOX. Interestingly, however, CPF and LEF had a 398 weaker ability to generate oxidation markers despite high concentrations of polyunsaturated 399 fatty acids (**Table 1**). In addition, a large number of these seemed to be freely available, in 400 particular in LEF, however were much less degraded compared to the pea flours. This could 401 not only be related to reduced LOX activity but potentially also to a high antioxidative 402 capacity, as described in the literature (Hall *et al.*, 2017). In light of their reported elevated 403 polyphenol contents, a deceleration of FA breakdown could be imagined (Hall *et al.*, 2017).

404

3.4 Development of density and color in cakes during baking

405 Baking induces starch gelatinization and protein denaturation that lead to the setting of 406 a solid cake structure. This affects the density of the cakes, which is considered a good 407 indicator of cake quality. As depicted in Figure 2, the complete substitution of WF with the 408 different pulse flours results in the successful production of sponge cakes with a slightly 409 higher volume. These findings coincide with the results published by de la Hera et al. (2012), 410 who reported an increase in sponge cake volume after the incorporation of lentil flour. The 411 authors assigned this behavior to the elevated level of protein, which has important 412 emulsifying properties. However, other studies have demonstrated the opposite effect with 413 chickpea (Gómez et al., 2008) or green pea flour (Monnet et al., 2020). These differences 414 could be related to the different recipes chosen. Monnet et al. (2020) observed cracks on the 415 surface of their cakes, indicating crust rupture. Unlike the present study, the authors used 416 baking powder in their formula, which presumably led to an additional formation of gas 417 during cake production. The resulting increase in internal pressure caused the crust to burst 418 and allowed the vapor to escape, triggering shrinkage.

419 According to Gómez et al. (2012), cake shrinkage can also be correlated to the 420 proportion of the starch fraction. In addition to proteins, these macromolecules play a decisive 421 role in the formation of a structural framework during baking based on their heat-induced 422 gelatinization, which in turn affects viscosity and thus the ability to retain air incorporated in 423 the batter (Monnet et al., 2020; Ronda et al., 2011). With a reduced starch-to-protein ratio, the 424 gas cells cannot be sufficiently stabilized during batter solidification, which therefore causes 425 the development of a dense cake. This phenomenon might be used to describe the 426 extraordinary behavior of LUC, which was characterized by the highest density (Figure 2, 427 Table 2). In addition, the elevated fiber content in this flour (Table 2) might have contributed 428 to the reduced volume owing to its effect on the gelatinization and pasting properties of the

starch and disorganization of the starch-protein network, being accompanied by a lower
capacity for gas retention (Aydogdu *et al.*, 2018; BeMiller, 2011; Sasaki *et al.*, 2000).

431 In addition to density, the use of pulse flours was associated with modifications to the 432 color properties of the cake, which is another decisive criterion for the cake quality (Figure 433 2). Pulse flours induced a significant reduction in lightness L^* of the crumb compared to WF, 434 which was most pronounced with LEF. In contrast, redness a^* was significantly increased except with GPC, for which negative a^* values were measured. This implied a greenish hue 435 436 of the crumb, probably due to the presence of chlorophyll in the raw material. Additionally, 437 color generally shifted toward more yellow tints, as perceptible from the higher b^* values, 438 which could be assigned to the high proportion of carotenoids. It has been reported that 439 temperatures $\geq 120^{\circ}$ C and water activities ≤ 0.6 are required to trigger the color formation of 440 baked goods. Working on similar sponge cakes, Srivastava et al. (2018) measured 441 temperatures lower than 120°C in the crumb, while those at the surface were sufficiently high 442 to initiate browning reactions, thereby causing darkening of the crust. As visible in Figure 2, the L^* , a^* and b^* values were very similar in the different products, especially for the crust. 443 444 This could be explained by the Maillard reaction which leads to the formation of brown 445 pigments capable of masking the differences due to the flours in the crust.

446

Flour	Dry matter	Ash	Starch	Protein	Fiber	Fat
W	$87.463 \pm 0.028^{\circ}$	0.76 ± 0.40^{d}	$70.2\pm7.4^{\rm a}$	8.65 ± 0.36^{e}	$2.9 \pm 1.2^{\circ}$	1.112 ± 0.031^{e}
LU	92.90 ± 0.11^{a}	4.79 ± 0.40^a	<0.4 ^c	42.4 ± 1.3^a	26.7 ± 3.3^a	11.93 ± 0.12^a
СР	$91.787 \pm 0.047^{a,b}$	$3.60\pm0.40^{b,c}$	39.3 ± 4.3^{b}	22.19 ± 0.67^c	$13.6\pm2.4^{\text{b}}$	6.354 ± 0.018^b
LE	$91.134 \pm 0.013^{a,b}$	3.79 ± 0.40^{b}	40.7 ± 4.4^{b}	27.64 ± 0.83^{b}	$8.9\pm2.0^{\text{b,c}}$	1.746 ± 0.043^{d}
GP	$90.091 \pm 0.039^{b,c}$	2.67 ± 0.40^c	51.9 ± 5.5^{b}	18.68 ± 0.56^{d}	$8.2\pm1.9^{\text{b,c}}$	1.652 ± 0.056^d
YP	$90.11 \pm 0.17^{b,c}$	2.69 ± 0.030^c	48.8 ± 5.5^{b}	22.98 ± 0.10^{c}	$8.8\pm2.0^{\text{b,c}}$	2.064 ± 0.024^c
YPN	$90.13 \pm 0.12^{\text{b,c}}$	2.68 ± 0.030^{c}	48.6 ± 5.2^{b}	22.98 ± 0.10^{c}	$8.1\pm1.9^{\text{b,c}}$	2.024 ± 0.022^{c}

447 **Table 2.** Chemical composition [g/100 g] of different flours.

448 Different letters within a column indicate significantly different means (p<0.05). W = wheat, LU = lupin, CP = chickpea, LE 449 = lentil, GP = green pea, YP = yellow pea and YPN = yellow pea processed and stored under nitrogen.

450

In addition to their attractive appearance, the developed cakes were also characterized by an improved nutritional quality compared to the wheat-based reference. This could be concluded from the particular chemical composition of the flours used, which led to pulsebased cakes with elevated levels of protein and fiber as well as lower levels of starch and thus glycemic index.



Cake	Density	Dry matter			Crumb color		Crust color			
	[g/cm ³]	[g/100 g]	privalue	L*	a*	b*	L*	a*	b*	
W	0.3423 ± 0.0094^{b}	95.36 ± 0.10^{d}	7.55 ± 0.10^{a}	87.32 ± 0.83 ^a	1.40 ± 0.16^{d}	22.78 ± 0.71^{f}	64.9 ± 2.1^{d}	14.15 ± 0.61 ^b	31.27 ± 0.57 ^d	
LU	0.4087 ± 0.034^{a}	97.10 ± 0.14 ^a	6.180 ± 0.046 ^e	74.7 ± 2.2 ^e	7.24 ± 0.87^{a}	50.15 ± 0.67^{a}	69.7 ± 3.9^{a}	14.1 ± 1.7 ^b	40.7 ± 2.0^{a}	
CP	$0.309 \pm 0.011^{\circ}$	96.19 ± 0.46 ^c	6.91 ± 0.10^{d}	83.82 ± 0.63 ^c	2.82 ± 0.19 ^b	29.46 ± 0.72^{b}	67.7 ± 2.4 ^{a,b}	14.23 ± 0.73 ^b	33.12 ± 0.47 ^b	
LE	$0.305 \pm 0.010^{\circ}$	95.46 ± 0.26 ^{c,d}	6.847 ± 0.026^{d}	64.9 ± 1.1 ^f	$1.92 \pm 0.32^{\circ}$	15.66 ± 0.81 ^g	61.5 ± 1.6 ^e	9.1 ± 1.1 ^c	26.13 ± 0.99 ^e	
GP	$0.2971 \pm 0.0048^{\circ}$	96.333 ± 0.090^{b}	7.157 ± 0.065^{b}	78.9 ± 1.1 ^d	-4.58 ± 0.27 ^e	$28.01 \pm 0.76^{\circ}$	65.3 ± 1.7 ^{c,d}	9.1 ± 1.3 ^c	31.56 ± 0.52 ^{c,d}	
YP	$0.2944 \pm 0.0043^{\circ}$	95.521 ± 0.073 ^{c,d}	6.950 ± 0.035 ^{c,d}	85.9 ± 1.6 ^b	2.65 ± 0.43^{b}	25.63 ± 0.65^{e}	$67.3 \pm 3.6^{b,c}$	14.6 ± 1.2 ^{a,b}	32.11 ± 0.36 ^c	
YPN	0.2810 ± 0.0054 ^c	93.71 ± 0.28 ^e	$7.10 \pm 0.10^{b,c}$	83.4 ± 1.6 ^c	2.52 ± 0.30^{b}	26.25 ± 0.82^{d}	$65.9 \pm 3.2^{b,c,d}$	15.3 ± 1.2 ^ª	33.23 ± 0.44 ^b	

Figure 2. Appearance and characteristics of sponge cakes prepared using different flours. Different letters within a column indicate significantly different means (p<0.05). W = wheat, LU = 458 lupin, CP = chickpea, LE = lentil, GP = green pea, YP = yellow pea and YPN = yellow pea processed and stored under nitrogen.

459 **3.5** Heat-driven generation of volatile compounds during baking

Apart from structure and color changes, the energy-driven degradation of molecules can be triggered during baking and involve lipid oxidation, the Maillard reaction and caramelization. As shown in **Figure 1**, the cakes were characterized by substantially lower quantities of VOCs compared to the batters, most probably due to volatilization, consecutive reactions or matrix effects. A total of 59 VOCs was detected, most of them in GPC and LEC, while LUC and WC contained the fewest (**Table S2**). Moreover, the latter two stood out for their remarkably low total VOC amounts among all products (**Figure 1**).

467 Except for LEC, aldehydes formed the main group of components in all the cakes, 468 reaching particularly high concentrations in GPC and YPNC. Although the amounts in LEC, 469 CPC and YPC were significantly lower, they clearly surpassed those found in WC and LUC. 470 Among these aldehydes, hexanal predominated in most cakes (Table S2). This marker of 471 linoleic acid oxidation is typically characterized by a low odor threshold, and thus is 472 considered to be relevant regarding the perception of a grassy, beany odor (Buttery et al., 473 1998; Pozo-Bayón et al., 2007). Further oxidation products resulting from linoleic acid 474 degradation were present, such as pentanal, 2-octenal and 2,4-decadienal as well as heptanal 475 and octanal, although the latter two might also have derived from the breakdown of oleic acid 476 (Kochhar, 1996). The first occurrence of some of these compounds might indicate heat-477 triggered autoxidation of the aforementioned precursors, while others might have been 478 retained from the batter, rendering the aldehyde profiles more complex than those of the 479 batters. Together they may not only enhance the green scent, but also impart a fatty, nutty and 480 toasted fragrance to the cakes, especially those based on pea (Burdock, 2010; Murat et al., 481 2013; Szczygiel et al., 2017).

482 The VOC profiles of WC and LUC, on the other hand, contained fewer lipid oxidation 483 markers but more of the aldehydes assigned to thermal amino acid degradation through the 484 Strecker reaction (Table S2). This led to the assumption that the wheat and lupin products 485 were generally less susceptible to lipid oxidation, regardless of whether they were 486 enzymatically catalyzed or heat-induced. The globally accepted mechanism for the formation 487 of Strecker aldehydes involves the reaction between amino acids and α -dicarbonyl 488 compounds such as the deoxyosones generated through the Maillard reaction (Belitz et al., 489 2009). The Strecker aldehydes identified comprised 2-methylpropanal, 2-methylbutanal, 3-490 methylbutanal, acetaldehyde and phenylacetaldehyde, which are associated with the oxidative 491 decarboxylation of valine, isoleucine, leucine, alanine and phenylalanine, respectively (Belitz *et al.*, 2009). While 2- and 3-methylbutanal totaled about 60-70% of the aldehydes in both
WC and LUC, the percentage contributions in the other cakes reached only 10-19%, although
in quantitative terms, the concentrations in all cakes were similar (**Table S2**). Strecker
aldehydes typically have a marked malty and sweet aroma (Garvey *et al.*, 2021; Pico *et al.*,
2015).

497 LEC differed from the other cakes in terms of its higher alcohol content (Figure 1). 498 The majority of this class was composed of 1-hexanol, followed by ethanol and 1-penten-3-ol 499 (Table S2). These three components were also most strongly represented in the other 500 products, with 1-penten-3-ol dominating in YPC/YPNC and ethanol in GPC, LUC and WC. 501 According to the literature, these compounds exhibit more than $1000 \times$ higher odor threshold 502 values in water than aldehydes (Belitz et al., 2009; Buttery et al., 1998). For this reason, they 503 may have contributed only marginally to the overall cake aroma despite their relatively 504 elevated concentrations (Table S2).

505 The same conclusion could be drawn for ketones, which were present at much lower 506 concentrations than alcohols (Figure 1). Unlike the batters, the VOC profiles of the cakes were enriched in markers characteristic of Maillard and caramelization reactions, including 1-507 508 hydroxy-2-propanone (sweet, burnt), 3-hydroxy-2-butanone (buttery), 2,3-butanedione 509 (buttery) and 2,3-pentanedione (buttery) (Table S2). Yaylayan et al. (2000) proposed two 510 pathways for the generation of 2,3-butanedione, including either glucose alone or in 511 combination with glycine via pyruvaldehyde. Subsequently, 2,3-butanedione can be reduced 512 to form 3-hydroxy-2-butanone (Yaylayan et al., 2000). Moreover, these authors suggested 513 that 2,3-pentanedione is produced from pyruvaldehyde, followed by chain elongation with 514 two carbon atoms from amino acids like alanine (Yaylayan et al., 2000). For 1-hydroxy-2-515 propanone, it was assumed that it could derive from isomerized 1-deoxyosone or dehydrated 516 Amadori product through retro-aldol cleavage (Yaylayan et al., 2000).

517 Apart from ketones, a large number of other browning reaction products were 518 detected, including furanic compounds such as furfural, 5-methylfurfural and 2-519 furanmethanol, which were found at higher concentrations in the pulse cakes than in WC 520 (Figure 1, Table S2). According to the literature, furfural can be generated at elevated 521 temperatures via 1,2-enolization from pentoses or glucose through either caramelization or the 522 Maillard reaction (Belitz et al., 2009; Yaylayan et al., 2000). The latter pathway involves 523 condensation of the sugars with free amino acids, followed by further enolization and 524 deamination reactions, giving rise to 3-deoxyosones from which furfural can be released 525 (Srivastava et al., 2018). The generation of 2-furanmethanol from 3-deoxyosone has also been reported (Hollnagel *et al.*, 2002). Furanic molecules are generally associated with a burnt, caramel-like scent (Cepeda-Vázquez *et al.*, 2018; Garvey *et al.*, 2021). However, other molecules from this class and not originating from thermal degradation reactions but lipid oxidation (such as 2-pentylfuran) were present, which could have contributed to the green, nutty notes of the cakes (except LUC).

531 Nitrogenous compounds, i.e. pyrazines and pyrroles, represented another class of 532 VOCs typically arising from Maillard reactions. Pyrazine formation is widely explained by a 533 condensation reaction between two α -aminocarbonyl compounds, which themselves are 534 generated next to Strecker aldehydes through Strecker degradation from the reaction between 535 α -dicarbonyl compounds and amino acids (Belitz *et al.*, 2009). Among the different cakes, the 536 highest levels were found in LEC, and the lowest in LUC and WC (Figure 1) Despite their 537 low levels, their percentage contributions to all the VOCs in WC and LUC were the highest. 538 The structures identified ranged from simple pyrazine to its single or multiple alkyl-539 substituted or amidated form. In addition, pyrrole and its acetylated derivative were detected. 540 In all cases, 2,5-dimethylpyrazine accounted for more than half of the nitrogenous VOCs, 541 followed by 2-methylpyrazine (Table S2). These heterocyclic compounds are known to have 542 roasted, nutty and earthy smells (Garvey et al., 2021; Pico et al., 2015; Pozo-Bayón et al., 543 2007).

544

4 **3.6** Monitoring lipid oxidation throughout cake development

To verify that lipid oxidation was initiated during batter preparation and continued during baking, the concentrations of primary markers, namely CD and hydroperoxides, were monitored throughout the different steps of production (**Figure 3**). The starting values for CD were determined from the specific absorbance obtained for oil, egg and flour, taking the proportions used into account. This calculation was not possible for the hydroperoxides because of the limited fat contents in the flours.

551 As expected, mixing the ingredients into a foam initiated lipid oxidation (Figure 3A). 552 The significant increment in specific absorbance was more pronounced with pulses than with 553 wheat, thus corroborating their higher susceptibility to FA breakdown. The extraordinary 554 behavior of YPNB, which was already characterized by extremely high oxidation-derived 555 VOC concentrations (Section 3.2), was underlined by its specific absorbance values. This 556 implied that the air-free processing of the associated flour protected important precursors 557 from oxidation and made them prone to immediate degradation when they came into contact 558 with oxygen. Moreover, lupin displayed striking oxidative stability as could be noted from its

similar specific absorbance when passing from raw materials to batter (Figure 3A). This
affirmed that lipid oxidation was mainly enzyme-mediated.

561 Coinciding with the literature, baking led to a decline of both CD and hydroperoxide 562 levels (**Figure 3A**, **Figure 3B**), thereby emphasizing the instability of the markers and their 563 subsequent transformation into volatiles (Maire *et al.*, 2013). This trend was more pronounced 564 with pulses (except lupin) than wheat, thus indicating the pursuit of oxidation during baking 565 and explaining their higher VOC levels in the cakes.

566

567



Figure 3. Evolution of (A) hydroperoxides and (B) specific absorbance of conjugated dienes from raw ingredients (\blacksquare) to batters (\blacksquare) to cakes (\blacksquare). Different letters within one production step indicate significantly different means (p<0.05). W = wheat, LU = lupin, CP = chickpea, LE = lentil, YP = yellow pea and YPN = yellow pea processed and stored under nitrogen.

571 **3.7** Impact of flour type on reactivity and sensory-related volatile markers of cakes

572 As described in Section 3.5, complex profiles of VOCs deriving mainly from lipid 573 oxidation, the Maillard reaction and caramelization during different cake making steps were 574 identified in the various cakes. The majority of these molecules are known to exhibit intense odor activities, so are therefore likely to contribute to the flavor quality of the final food. A 575 576 multivariate approach made it possible to visualize which VOCs were responsible for the 577 main differences between pulse-based products and how reaction markers were correlated to 578 each other. Closer inspection revealed that WC and LUC differed considerably from the other 579 cakes by their distinctively lower potential to form volatiles through the aforementioned 580 pathways. Based on this finding, it was of interest to gain deeper insight into the 581 discrimination of LEC, CPC, GPC, YPC and YPNC in order to associate specific reaction markers with individual products, and hence deduce hypotheses regarding possible impacts on 582 583 flavor perceptions and cake qualities. PCA was therefore performed on all the VOCs 584 identified in the five selected cakes.

585 As depicted in Figure 4, PC1, PC2 and PC3 were responsible for 47.75%, 24.59% and 586 13.65% of variability, respectively. Two clusters of cakes were opposed on PC1: (1) LEC and 587 CPC, and (2) YPC, YPNC and GPC. This differentiation was primarily driven by lipid 588 oxidation markers (alcohols, aldehydes, ketones) which were associated with positive 589 loadings and thus with the pea products. This indicated that fatty acid breakdown played a 590 major role during cake development using pea flours, probably attributable to their increased 591 LOX activity compared to LEF and CPF (Table 1). Additionally, the literature has reported 592 high levels of polyphenols (e.g. chlorogenic acid, sinapic acid, catechins, epicatechins) in 593 chickpeas and lentils, suggesting that their antioxidant effects may have decelerated oxidative 594 reactions in both products (Hall et al., 2017). Due to the significantly lower concentrations of 595 lipid oxidation markers in these cakes compared to their respective batters, it was assumed 596 that the majority of molecules tended to be residues of batter beating rather than formed 597 during baking. It could therefore be imagined that the particular assignment of 1-hexanol and 598 hexanoic acid to LEC rather than the pea cakes may have been due to matrix effects markedly 599 affecting the reactivity of the products, for instance by retarding volatilization of the named 600 components during baking. According to the literature, the lipid oxidation markers detected 601 are typically linked to green, beany and grassy odors (Xu et al., 2019), implying that the pea 602 products were probably marked by such off-flavors.

603

604 Further differentiation was achieved when considering PC2 and PC3. On PC1 vs PC2 605 and PC1 vs PC3 it emerged that pyrazines were mainly assigned to LEC and CPC (Figure 4). 606 Chemical characterization revealed that both LEF and CPF were distinctively enriched in free 607 amino acids (7 μ g/g each) compared to the pea flours (3-4 μ g/g) (data not shown). According 608 to Adams et al. (2008), alanine, serine and arginine are important precursors for the 609 generation of 2-ethyl-3,5-dimethylpyrazine, 2-ethyl-6-methylpyrazine, 2-methylpyrazine and 610 2,5-dimethylpyrazine. The former two amino acids were identified at elevated concentrations 611 in LEF, thus possibly explaining the greater presence of the aforementioned pyrazines in 612 LEC. Amino acid analysis further revealed high arginine contents in all the flours $(1-4 \mu g/g)$, 613 which might have been responsible for the high levels of 2,5-dimethylpyrazine in all cakes 614 (Section 3.5). In addition, other studies have discussed the ability of polyphenols to accelerate 615 hexose degradation into α -dicarbonyls. This hypothesis is based on the potential for polyphenols to reduce metals, and particularly iron, which may participate in the Fenton 616 617 reaction (García-Lomillo et al., 2016). The hydroxy radicals thus generated may promote 618 sugar transformation into α -dicarbonyls, which can undergo Strecker degradation, 619 subsequently leading to pyrazines (García-Lomillo et al., 2016). As indicated above, LEF and 620 CPF are known to contain high levels of phenolic acids, which in combination with their high 621 ash contents (36-38 µg/g vs. 3 µg/g in YPF/GPF; data not shown) might have stimulated 622 pyrazine formation. In light of these results, it appeared that the VOC profiles of CPC, and 623 particularly LEC, were influenced to a major extent by pyrazines, thus possibly contributing 624 to a roasted odor in the cakes typically associated with pyrazines (Pico et al., 2015).

Another result worth mentioning is the central location of 2-pentylfuran on PC1 *vs* PC2, from which it was concluded that this molecule might not only be produced through lipid oxidation but concurrently through alternative pathways involving amino group interactions, thus coinciding with findings in the literature (Cepeda-Vázquez *et al.*, 2018).



630Figure 4. PCA biplots on volatile markers, categorized into pyrazines (\blacksquare), pyrroles (\Box), furanic compounds (\blacktriangle) lipid631oxidation markers (\blacklozenge) Strecker aldehydes and derivatives (\bullet) and further Maillard and/or caramelization markers (\circ). LEC =632lentil cake, CPC = chickpea cake, GPC = green pea cake, YPC = yellow pea cake and YPNC = cake made with yellow pea633flourstoredandprocessedundernitrogen.

634 4 Conclusion

635 The complete replacement of wheat with pulse flours yielded sponge cakes with 636 attractive nutritional and structural properties. At the same time, these products were 637 characterized by a more complex profile of volatile compounds with probable effects on 638 sensory quality. The majority of molecules derived from the oxidative processes, which was 639 initiated during batter. Lipoxygenase was identified as the main catalyst of lipid oxidation due 640 to its significantly higher activity in the pulse flours, particularly in yellow and green pea 641 flours, compared to wheat. One exception was lupin, in which the enzyme was practically 642 inactive (probably due to heat treatment), thus explaining its elevated stability versus lipid 643 degradation. By contrast, yellow pea flour produced and stored under nitrogen stood out for 644 its oxidation lability, which might be linked to the greater susceptibility of protected 645 precursors to oxidation.

646 Baking not only perpetuated lipid oxidation but also triggered the decomposition of 647 sugars and amino acids via caramelization and the Maillard reaction, being accompanied by 648 the release of pyrazines, Strecker aldehydes and furanic compounds. Larger quantities of both 649 lipid oxidation and thermal reaction markers were detected in the pulse-containing products 650 than in those made using wheat, most likely due to compositional and matrix effects. Principle 651 component analysis revealed that lipid oxidation markers were mainly associated with green 652 and yellow pea cakes, while pyrazines were assigned to lentil and chickpea cakes. Based on 653 odor descriptors reported in the literature, it was assumed that the global flavor of the pea 654 products might be impacted by a green-beany odor imparted by the lipid oxidation markers, 655 whereas chickpea, and especially lentil, cakes tended to be characterized by pleasant aroma 656 compounds arising from the Maillard reaction. Nonetheless, further studies need to be carried 657 out in order to gain more insight into the most odor-active compounds in pulse-based 658 applications such as cakes.

This outcome indicates that flour type and pre-processing exert a considerable impact on the reactivity potential throughout cake making, thus enabling products to be tailored to the desired odor profile.

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