

**MOLECULAR CHARACTERISATION OF PREDOMINANT LACTIC ACID  
BACTERIA IN FERMENTED BREADFRUIT (*Artocarpus communis*) AND PIGEON  
PEA (*Cajanus cajan*) AND QUALITY ATTRIBUTES OF THEIR PRODUCTS**

BY

**ALICE OLAPADE AJANI**

**MATRIC NUMBER: 139825**

B. Tech (Hon), LAUTECH; MSc. (Ibadan)

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## ABSTRACT

Breadfruit and pigeon-pea are high yielding crops. However, breadfruit is highly susceptible to deterioration while pigeon-pea is hard-to-cook. Fermentation improves crop preservation, nutritional value and utilisation. Literature on fermentation of Breadfruit (BF) and Pigeon-pea (PP) is sparse. The study was designed to characterise fermenting organisms and determine physicochemical and sensory properties of fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea products.

Breadfruit (BF) and pigeon-pea (PP) were fermented individually using liquid state fermentation at  $28\pm 2$  °C and  $37\pm 1$  °C for 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 h. Biochemical, DNA extraction, Phylogenetic tree, Alignment and 16S rRNA sequencing of fermenting organisms were characterised by molecular methods. The fermented crops oven-dried and milled into flours. Chemical (proximate, pH, Total Titratable Acidity (TTA), anti-nutrients), functional [Water and Oil Absorption Capacities (WAC and OAC), Bulk Density (BD), Foaming Capacity (FC) and Stability (FS), Gelation Capacity (GC)] and pasting properties of fermented samples were determined using standard methods. Based on preliminary trials, flours were blended at ratios 100:0, 90:10, 80:20, 70:30, 60:40 and 50:50 (BF: PP) and analysed for proximate composition using AOAC method. Breakfast meals and cookies were prepared from the flours using standard procedures. Sensory attributes of the products were determined by panelists. Data were analysed using ANOVA at  $\alpha_{0.05}$ .

Sugar fermentation and gram staining of the selected isolates showed diverse sugars and improved acidity as fermentation proceeded. Sequences of purified DNA products were significantly similar to GeneBank samples. Phylogenetic tree indicated high homology among the identified lactic acid bacteria with change in fermentation duration up to 120 h, reflecting taxonomical relationships among identified species. Alignment established similarity level through the nucleotide numbers across the region. High sequence homology of *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum* with sequence codes of CP011536.1 and CP015308.1, respectively as the dominant lactic acid bacteria were identified. Fermented BF flour contained 4.2-3.6% protein, 8.1-9.3% moisture (dry basis), 2.7-3.0% ash, 3.5-3.0% fibre. The protein, moisture, ash and fibre contents of PP were 24.8-4.5, 8.8-9.2, 3.7-4.0 and 1.4-1.8%, respectively. The pH of BF flour decreased with increased TTA and the same trend was observed in PP samples. The phytate, tannin, cyanide and alkaloid contents of BF and PP were 0.5-0.2 mg/g, 6.2-4.7 mg/g, 1.0-0.1 mg/100g and 1.2-0.2%, and 0.5-0.1 mg/g, 0.9- 0.1 mg/g, 1.2- 0.1 mg/g and 0.9-0.5%, respectively. Breadfruit WAC (346.1-224.8%) decreased while OAC (256.7-286.4%) increased as fermentation progressed. Loose bulk and packed densities were 0.4-0.5 and 0.4-0.6 g/mL,

respectively. Decrease in FS and increase in GC values were observed as fermentation progressed at  $28\pm 2$  and  $37\pm 1$  °C, respectively. The WAC, OAC, BD, GC of PP increased with decrease in FC and FS. Fermentation improved pasting properties of BF. Meals and cookies prepared with 10-20% PP had significantly higher acceptability levels of 7.7 to 6.4 and 5.8 to 5.0, respectively.

Molecular characterisation established genetic variations in *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum*. Fermentation improved the sensory attributes of breadfruit and pigeon-pea flours. Production of breakfast meal and cookies from fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea flours are recommended.

**Keywords:** Fermented breadfruit, Pigeon-pea, DNA extraction, Composite flour

**Word count:** 490

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to Jehovah Shammah, the giver of my strength and wisdom for being there.

And to my late father, James Iyiola Atanda Popoola who instilled in me the love for learning and the idea that as a lady, I needed a career.

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Thank you all.

## **CERTIFICATION**

This is to confirm that this work was carried out by AJANI, Alice Olapade of Food Technology Department, University of Ibadan.

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**Supervisor**

**Prof. G.O. Adegoke PhD (Ibadan),**

**C. Biol, M.I. Biol (London)**

**FIMLS**

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Breadfruit (*Artocarpus communis*) originated from Malaysia, South Pacific and Caribbean. It is a vital crop in Pacific islands, which blow-out to the Africa and Caribbean (Taylor and Tuia, 2007). It is an essential food in Caribbean, besides endangered through international agreement for plant genetic (Ragone, 1997). Breadfruits can be found in Nigeria, Cameroun, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Senegal and Ghana in Africa (Appiah *et al.*, 2011). It can be found in 3 zones (south-west, south-south, south-east) including part of north central. The production level has been projected to be almost 10 million tonnes dry weight within a year, with abilities of higher than 100 million tonnes every year in South Western Nigeria (Adewusi *et al.*, 1995). Breadfruit tree yields fruit two times within year, this occurs around March to June, then July to September and so it bears fruit all through year. It is highly nutritive, inexpensive and freely accessible in irresistible large quantity, particularly at the topmost of the two ripening periods in May and August. The fruits are but under abused in Nigeria as a result of its little societal approval (Omobuwajo, 2007). Breadfruit can be consumed at different phases of ripeness and usually at mature green and ripe stage. Not-fully ripened breadfruits are preferred in some areas. It might be consumed at all phases of growth as a starchy staple like banana and plantain, to replace potato, or prepared as a fruit (Ragone, 2011)

Breadfruit reported as outstanding basis of carbohydrate, vitamins, minerals but low fat (Rincon, 2007). It is well-thought-out to be good basis of potassium, calcium, magnesium, copper, iron, thiamin, niacin with appreciable anti-oxidants and carotenoid (Ragone, 1997; Deivanai and Subhash, 2010). However, the noticeably low level of protein in breadfruit makes it nutritionally deficient and predisposes the consuming population to protein malnutrition (Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.*, 2012). Also, the fruits are underutilised due to quick physiological deterioration which results in short shelf life; as farmer powerlessly look at their reaped breadfruits decaying as a result of insufficient methods of processing to use the harvested breadfruits. Breadfruit is extremely perishable in fresh form (Amusa *et al.*, 2002) and shipment for lengthened storing period in commercial form is not practicable with current technical development (Medlicott, 2002).

Breadfruit produced (60-80%) in South-West Nigeria is lost because of deterioration and lack of use (Steve *et al.*, 1995).

Although, breadfruit had been developed into numerous forms for utilisation; fruits can be cooked, crushed and eaten like pounded yam (Adepeju *et al.*, 2011). Mukesh *et al.*, (2014) discovered that mature fruits can be roasted, baked and replaceable for numerous potato formulas, the unripe fruits can be cured, marinated or simmered to give flavour like artichoke hearts. Breadfruit in sliced form can be used to produce chips or French fries (Morton, 1987). Breadfruits are eaten as snacks in Ghana by numerous rural dwellers and are used for food security (Appiah *et al.*, 2011a). Breadfruit was prepared to make starches, flours, complementary foods reported (Olatunji and Akerele, 1978; Ajani *et al.*, 2012, Adepeju *et al.*, 2014).

Strong determinations are presently made in pursuit of inexpensive protein bases with nutritious and useful properties to mitigate unruly malnutrition broadly blown-out in developing countries (Siddhuraju *et al.* 1996). Breadfruit enrichment which has potential of lessening protein-energy malnourishment has not received considerable attention. In this regard, pigeon-pea is an important legume with excellent nutrients and inexpensive source of plant protein consumed in Africa can be used for enrichment.

Pigeon-peas (*Cajanus cajan*) are lesser known nearby obtainable but inexpensive legume in the tropics and sub-tropics. Pigeon-peas protein content ranged from 23-26% (Onweluzo and Nwabugwu, 2009) and rich in lysine. Protein content is equivalent with legumes such as cowpea, groundnut and it is high in fibre content as well as mineral quality (Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2009a). Pigeon-pea was underutilized owing to its hard texture that results to extensive cooking periods as well as incidence of some anti-nutrients (Francis *et al.*, 2001; Odeny 2007, Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2009). Pigeon-pea remains dearth accepting pulse embraced through small-holder farmers in most developing countries which plays vital part for the farming schemes (Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2013). Pigeon-pea varieties available in South-West Nigeria, could be used in supplementing the little starchy staples (Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2009b). The mature, immature seeds and unripe pods of pigeon-pea could be eaten. The seeds are used complete, dehulled or consumed in flour form regularly. Since pigeon-pea is suitable in tropical areas of developing countries where inadequate quality of protein is a

restrictive issue with increase in population, suitable processing methods that will expand

its utilisation is desirable to solve malnutrition and food uncertainty.

On the other hand, breadfruit and pigeon-pea are recognised to contain some anti-nutrients just like some other legumes which inhibit digestive processes and effective utilisation of proteins. These anti-nutrients are saponin, protease inhibitors, lectins, haemagglutinin and flatulence issues (Osabor *et al.*, 2009; Alonso *et al.*, 1998). Antinutritional Factors (ANF) are chemical substances existing in food crops, though non-poisonous but produce hostile physiological responses in animal who consumes. Sometimes, they hinder utilisation of nutrients in leguminous crops (Nwokolo, 1996). Nevertheless, these may be removed or lessened using fermentation and germination (Khorshah and Cheuham, 1986). Also, fermentation and steaming as reported enhance detoxification of breadfruit (Onweluzo and Nnamuchi, 2009). However, fermentation as one of methods for handling and conserving breadfruit is fairly unpopular as introduced in Pacific Islands (Adekanmi *et al.*, 2012). Fermentation is one of classic means for organoleptic enhancement, detoxification, nutritional quality, preservative properties and antibiotics production in foods (Oyewole and Isah, 2012). Fermentation has significant parts in reduction of anti-nutrients, nutrient accumulation and anti-microbial actions; giving fermented products pleasing smell and quality. This is owing to enzymes metabolic actions and draw materials microorganism (Oyarekua, 2013).

Fermentation technology for various home use and industries cannot be overstressed because of role in diet, wellbeing and economy since existence of mankind. Previous works shown that several authors have worked on breadfruit and pigeon-pea fermentation but their reports had not addressed molecular aspect of identification and characterisation of organisms and possible applications of the crops and fermentation methods differs. Ojokoh *et al.* (2013) investigated fermentation effect on breadfruit (*Treculia Africana*) and cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata*) nutrients and antinutrients using solid state fermentation. The micro-organisms isolated were identified with the aid of traditional/conventional methods. Also, reports of Nwaneri *et al.* (2017) on microbiology and biochemistry of fermented African breadfruit using solid state method, identified organisms with conventional methods and not characterised with molecular methods. Adegbehingbe *et al.* (2017), Adeniran and Ajifolokun, (2015) and several authors' fermented breadfruit and diverse groups of organisms were identified using solid state fermentation.

Influence of processing techniques on properties of pigeon-pea (Pele *et al.*, 2016), fermentation of pigeon-pea and millet as complementary food (Mbaeyi-Nwaoha and Obetta, 2016) were researched on and microbial properties analysed. Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2017) co-fermented sorghum and boiled pigeon-pea as weaning food. Fasoyiro *et al.* (2009) and host of authors fermented pigeon-pea seeds for products development using conventional methods. This traditional/conventional method of microbial identification are prone to errors (Pettiet *et al.*, 2005). However, molecular methods by means of 16S rRNA sequencing presents current state-of-art in identification and characterisation of micro-organisms especially dominant lactic acid bacteria in fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea using submerged fermentation method. 16S rRNA sequencing developed as more impartial, precise and dependable procedure for bacterial proof of identity. Also, it has additional ability of defining taxonomical relationships among bacteria (Clarridge, 2004). Breadfruit in addition with pigeon pea identified as an essential high-yielding food crop in a lot of tropical regions and they have great commercial standards and recognised for their capabilities to influence food security. Several authors fermented breadfruits seeds, while enhancement have been attained in nutritive value and legume quality by germination, dehulling, fermentation, heat treatment (Forster *et al.*, 2011; Oloyo, 2004), limited work completed in the area of breadfruit fermentation, production of composite from fermented breadfruit –pigeon-pea and production of cookies. Also, not much has been completed on starter culture development from such fermentation. With growing situation on food insecurity, concerns for diet, general health and the way millions of people are chronically undernourished, it is vital to know nutritional status of fermented flours for further utilisation. It is therefore the study objective to produce and evaluate fermentation influence on nutrients, anti-nutrients in breadfruit and pigeon-pea flours so as to investigate prevalent LAB potential as starter culture.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

Breadfruit is known to be highly perishable and processing to flour is one of the methods of preservation (Ragone, 2011). However, the flour is deficient in protein (Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.*, 2012) and contained anti-nutrients such as oxalate, phytate, alkaloid, e.t.c., thus limiting its utilizations. Substitutions of flours with protein rich legumes have produced value added composite flours (Ojokoh *et al.*, 2013).

Pigeon-peas are lesser known crop that contained about 23-26% of protein (Onweluzo and Nwabugwu, 2009). The study of Ugwu and Oranye (2006) and Adegbehingbeet *et al.* (2017) revealed decrease in anti-nutritional factors of breadfruit flour and seeds through fermentation. In-depth knowledge of microbial activities through fermentation process of breadfruit and pigeon-pea composite flours and their effects on flour quality and products are desirable.

### **1.3 Justification of study**

Due to high level of post-harvest losses (60-80%) of breadfruit (Steve *et al.*, 1995), occurrence of anti-nutrients, insufficiency of protein in this lesser known crop as well as increase in food insecurity in Nigeria, it has become imperative to transform breadfruit to storable form, reduce its disadvantages and enhance it with legume to improve its nutritive value. Hence, substitution of fermented pigeon-pea flour with breadfruit for production of breakfast meal and pizzelle cookies will improve the nutritional status of the products. Research outcome will increase breadfruit and pigeon-pea utilisation; crop growers will profit and new research areas will be opened.

### **1.4 Research Objectives**

The key objective was to characterise fermenting organisms and determine chemical, functional, pasting, sensory properties of fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea products.

Specifically, this study intended to:

- i. improve shelf life of breadfruit and pigeon-pea through processing into flour for better utilisation.
- ii. determine chemical, functional, pasting properties of breadfruit and pigeon-pea.
- iii. detect, then quantify level of antinutrients in breadfruit and pigeon-pea flours.
- iv. determine and identify most dominant LAB in breadfruit and pigeon-pea using 16S rRNA gene amplification and sequencing approach.
- v. examine consumer's acceptability of breakfast meal and pizzelle cookies prepared from breadfruit-pigeon-pea composite.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Breadfruit description

Breadfruit (*Artocarpus communis*) (synonym *Artocarpus altilis*) belongs to tropical tree moraceae family (Orwa *et al.*, 2014). *Artocarpus* resulting from Greek words; artos means bread and carpus means fruit. Breadfruit invented from *Artocarpus camansi* Blanco and *Artocarpus mariannensis* Trecul. Breadfruit plants are monoecious flower growing on similar trees. This family has more than 1000 species and about 50 genera tropical trees and shrubs. The tree height is about 26m, clear stem of 6m, 0.6 – 1.8m breadth supported. Nevertheless, some varieties might certainly not exceed  $\frac{1}{4}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  of these sizes. Breadfruit tree allows a host of slight flowers, rod-shaped point with 12.5-30cm lengthy and 2.5-3.75cm thick. The male greatly set on a drooping, which is yellow first and brown latter. At the upper surface, the flowers are bright-green and glossy. Some flowers might be cloudy, yellowish, covered with tiny stiff hairs underneath and conspicuous yellow veins. (Morton, 1987). Some of species in this class has edible fruits and seeds, for example, jackfruit (*Artocarpus heterophyllus*) and (*Treulia africana*) both are the seeded form generally known as breadfruits (Zerega *et al.*, 2004). Breadfruit skin is changing in colour from yellowish-green to brown and might have 20-30cm diameter. It is fewer rounded shape with denser rough but resembling wax in appearance. The fruit is hard in the green stage with white inner, starchy and slightly fibrous. It is mild when fully ripe; cream coloured or yellow and pale inner, with sweet-smelling. Also, a humid light yellow /colourless flesh surrounds a central with slight unique aroma inside (Yamaguchi, 1983). The seeds are round in shape, irregularly oval, pointed at one another, dull-brown with blacker strips and length is approximately 2 cm. Breadfruit has two important varieties which are regular wild variety planted in some regions with little fleshy tissue and seeds; then cultivated that is extensively grown which is without seed variety, sometimes, few established seeds found in seedless cultivars. Seeds are thin, dark-brown and eatable, with skin thickness of around 0.5 mm (ICRAF, 2010).

However, breadfruit is periodic and so bountiful that it cannot all be consumed fresh during its season. This is because the trees regularly yield huge produces at a particular period of year

and safeguarding harvested fruit is a concern as a result of quick deterioration after harvesting (SPC, 2006; Adepeju *et al.*, 2011). As a result of insufficient routine techniques of processing to use all the breadfruits harvested, farmers usually helplessly watch their harvested breadfruits waste. To avoid waste, numerous procedures of conserving breadfruit have been developed. Breadfruit was well-kept in numerous diverse ways before the Europeans came to the Pacific, these include fermenting and drying (SPC, 2006). The significance of breadfruits notwithstanding, are underutilized and deserted but the unexploited potential needs to be harnessed (Quartermain, 2006; Omobuwajo, 2007). Underutilisation is as result of societal stigmatisation, thinking breadfruit is for poor and slaves, since it is being considered as lesser known crops. All these factors headed to its abandonment (Appiah *et al.*, 2011a; Akanbi *et al.*, 2009; Spore, 2007).

## 2.2 History and Distribution of Breadfruit

Breadfruit drew to the Tahitian cultivars offered by Captain Bligh to St. Vincent Island, also Jamaica around 1712, then spread to whole of Caribbean (Kerr, 2009). This was presented on a search for inexpensive, high-energy food for West Indies and Mauritius British slaves in 1796. The trees were disseminated through root cuttings, air-layering of plants above ocean distances and native range by Polynesian traveller. It arrived Africa in 1899 through determination of Camayenne botanic garden in Guinea and blow-out further to some regions of West Africa. The seedless types of *Artocarpus communis* are extensively dispersed in Eastern Polynesia and parts of Caroline Islands with variety of cultivars. New Guinea Island, South East Asia and Philippines have spiny seeded breadfruit similar to *Artocarpus communis*. Breadfruit usually implanted via countries like Ghana, Sierra Leone, Jamaica and Nigeria (Macrae *et al.*, 1993).

Breadfruit is believed to be introduced to Ife Wara, South West, Nigeria from Caribbean before turn of century, then blow-out to neighbouring town and villages (Adewusi *et al.*, 1995). Breadfruit is a widespread regular nutritive ceremonial dinner food in Ile-Ife, Osun State, about 80km away from Ibadan. This is for producing a type of pounded yam called "Iyan Jaloke" or "Gberefuru" and common in other parts of Osun State of Nigeria where it is cooked and consumed as yam. It is presumed that one breadfruit tree in a farmhouse can supply dinner to a family of four for a year (Anonymous, 2010).

### 2.3 Harvesting and Yield

Breadfruits plucked whenever is matured through appearance by minor droppingsap on surface. Harvesting is carefully done to retainfruit quality. The harvesters use to climb the trees and pluck fruit through the forked stick. Although this might cause bruising/piercing but well-thought-outhealthier than takingfruits via hand asfragmented pedicel drips latex (Morton, 1987).Harvesting is best done before the build-up of the field heatin the early hours of the day. This is done by mounting the tree end-to-end. In presence of harvesting device, breadfruit must not allow to fall on ground so as to avert mechanical injuryof the fruit. Breadfruit can be plucked whenstrong, notcompletely ripe and each weighs between 1-5kg (Omobuwajo, 2003). This is because they are commonly consumedunripe, when breadfruitfleshy tissue is white and soft (Brouk, 1975). The fruit matures 1 to 3 days after harvest and can be used within 5 days of harvesting and should not be left in the sun or wind. The fruit yield per tree differs depending on area. Breadfruit tree has an abundantfruitful ability, the average size is between 400 - 600 fruits per year (NTBG, 2009).The fruit termed as vital crop of countlessprofitableworth (Soetjipto and Lubis, 1981). Breadfruit yieldsare higher to staples likecassava and yam (Singh, 2009). Breadfruit yieldabout 50 - 150 fruits per year inSouth Pacific and average production is 150- 200 fruits in South Indiaper annum and yielddiffers from wet and dry areas.

### 2.4 Composition and Nutritive Value

Breadfruit is an outstandingnutritional staple thatrelates favourably with starchycommoditiesgenerallytaken in tropical countries with number higher than 120 species(Camille *et al.*, 2011). This crop standsamonguppermostproducing plants. Breadfruit remainsabundantinpotassium,fiber, calcium and magnesium (Ragone, 2007). Itis a vital food with nutritive valuesbut high in starch (Jeffrey *et al.*, 2006). It is valued food reserve of high-calorie diet (starch - 68%,protein - 4%, fat -1% on dry basis) withsubstantialquantitiesof minerals and vitamins,particularly the B-Vitamins. Breadfruit is 25% carbohydrates (110kcal/100g) and 70% water. Studiesshowed that breadfruit (*Artocarpus communis*) is a leading source of dietary carbohydrates; matured ones have about 84% carbohydrate and starch having above 60% total



carbohydrate. These carbohydrates, operated as simple sugars such as fructose and glucose by the body are freely used to improve the energy generation process in the body (Oladunjoye *et al.*, 2010). Studies by Ekpenyong (1985) and Makinde *et al.* (1985), indicated considerable variations in nutrient contents of Africa breadfruit. Breadfruit (*Artocarpus communis*) has been reported by several authors as good source of nutrients (Orwa *et al.*, 2009; Adewusi *et al.*, 1995). Breadfruits have yeast odour and fresh bread texture, then vitamin C, Vitamins B1 (100ug) averagely present as well as small amounts of zinc and thiamin (100 µg/100 g). The quantity of pro-vitamin A carotenoid which is vitamin A precursor, differs with ripeness. Dry breadfruit has related nutrient quantities as raw breadfruit, excluding vitamin C and thiamin that are less stable (Zerega *et al.*, 2004). Breadfruit remains respectable fibre basis also vital for healthy gut. Diet rich in fibre aids in regulating blood sugar, decrease lipids in blood (risk of heart disease) and weight control.

Breadfruit is an excellent fruit for a healthy, optimally working heart because of availability of potassium. Potassium is a crucial constituent of the body liquids which control heartbeat rate and body's pressure level efficiently. It has calcium and better basis of vitamin C (Ragone, 1996). Calcium is used for healthy bones in the body and also useful when blood levels drop. Calcium is essential in muscle contraction, nerve functioning and blood clotting. Breadfruits have necessary vitamins and antioxidants like xanthin, which work to defend the body from the devastating attacks of bacterial and viral agents. Besides, they also inhibit free radical substances from harming the body's cells. In effect, they combine their efforts to diminish the risks of osteoarthritis, rheumatoid arthritis, several cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Vitamin B<sub>9</sub> (folic acid), recognised as folate, is a vital constituent for cells functioning, reproduction and normal growth. Vitamin B<sub>9</sub> plays an important part in procedures on cell division. 14 micrograms vitamin B<sub>9</sub> could originate in raw /fresh breadfruit (100g). Vitamin B<sub>9</sub> offers 4% endorsed daily worth and folate has been known in reducing Alzheimer incidence and cognitive decline. Vitamin C is sturdy absorbent antioxidant; then, eating fruits abundant in vitamin C aid to grow battle contrary to communicable agents and harmful searches free radicals. Water-soluble vitamin, riboflavin functions in redox reactions, as co-enzyme and antioxidant in energy metabolism. This vitamin like others assist the body in converting carbohydrates, fats and proteins into glucose as body fuel.

Breadfruit is well compared with rice as a result of nutrients availability, a portion of seeded variety could meet vitamin C daily requirements, while comparing with vitamin C and other nutrients in rice which are very low (NBTG., 2014, Ragone, 1997). Breadfruit has reasonably high level of potassium, iron, calcium, niacin, riboflavin and pro-vitamin A (Graham and De-Bravo, 1981). Iron is an ample component and biologically important for each active organism. It plays significant part in procedures that unceasingly take place in molecular level, particularly during hemoglobin formation. In 100g raw breadfruit, 0.54 milligrams of iron can be found and provides 3% daily endorsed rate for average adult. Magnesium is an important mineral that showed positive influence in energy creation, healthy immune system regulation and muscle functioning. It regulates blood glucose level and assists in protein creation. 100g raw breadfruit has 25mg magnesium, which is 6% daily values suggested for an adult. Magnesium is needed for bone, crucial to heart function, insulin secretion and its function. The fruit is also containing small quantity of fat and sodium. Though, breadfruit remains an excellent vitamin, carbohydrate and minerals bases but contains small protein and fat (Rincon, 2007; Adebayo-Oyetoro, 2012). Protein content of breadfruit ranges from 3-5% (Appiah *et al.*, 2011; Qulai *et al.*, 2013) with poor amino acid quality (Golden and Williams, 2001).

**Table 2.1: Raw Breadfruit Nutrients (Nutritional value per 100g)**

<b>Nutrients</b>	<b>Quantity</b>
Energy	431kJ
Carbohydrate	26.04 g
Sugar	10.56g
Fibre	4.7 g
Fat	0.22 g
Protein	1.03g
Water	70.65 g
Lutein and zeaxanthin	22 µg
Thiamine (vit. B <sub>1</sub> )	0.11 mg
Riboflavin (vit. B <sub>2</sub> )	0.03 mg
Niacin (vit. B <sub>3</sub> )	0.9 mg
Pantothenic acid (B <sub>5</sub> )	0.457 mg
Vitamin B <sub>6</sub>	0.1 mg
Folate (vit. B <sub>9</sub> )	14 µg
Choline	9.8 mg
Vitamin C	27.8 mg
Vitamin E	0.1 mg
Vitamin K	0.5 µg
Calcium	17 mg
Iron	0.54 mg
Magnesium	25 mg
Manganese	0.06 mg
Phosphorus	30 mg
Potassium	490 mg
Sodium	2 mg
Zinc	0.12 mg

**Source: Foodand Calorie Counter (2009)**

**Table 2.2: Breadfruit Amino Acid Profile**

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<b>Amino acids</b>	<b>Composition (g/100g)</b>
Threonine	0.24
Aspartic acid	1.55
Serine	0.14
Glutamic acid	0.52
Proline	0.09
Glycine	0.40
Alanine	0.33
Cysteine	0.03
Valine	0.19
Methionine	0.21
Isoleucine	0.10
Leucine	0.22
Tyrosine	0.06
Phenylalanine	0.15
Lysine	0.03
Histidine	0.18
Tryptophan	0.39
Arginine	0.10

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**Source: Golden and William (2001)**

## 2.5 Significance / Breadfruit Utilisation

Breadfruit is principally a carbohydrate source around the region where it is produced and eaten in Nigeria. It has been found nutritively more than conservative calories bases such as yam, cocoyam, cassava (Orwa *et al.*, 2009; Omole *et al.*, 1978). Breadfruit produced into different forms in food industries for utilisation. There are reports on the production of starches and flour from breadfruit (Bakare *et al.*, 2012). Akanbi *et al.*, (2009) processed raw breadfruit to industrial starch. Processing of breadfruit into flour and other finished products have been identified as ways of reducing postharvest losses and improve breadfruit utilisation (Ajani *et al.*, 2012; Oulai., 2014). The utilisation of breadfruit for composite flour stated through some investigators. According to Olaoye and Onilude (2008), using breadfruit flour as composite for bread production and confectioneries can assist in minimising wastages associated with breadfruit and increase its output. Flour produced from dried breadfruit is sometimes partially replaced wheat flour for bread production in Barbados and found more nourishing to wheat in lysine and some vital amino acids (Spore, 2007). Typically, breadfruit is usually eaten when mature with texture hard, then enjoyable substitute starchy crops. Mature fruit could boil, steamed or baked, in addition, it could replace potatoes in many recipes. The immature fruits could boil, pickled, then have flavour identical to artichoke hearts. Sliced fruit could fry for chips or French fries' production (Morton, 1987).

Breadfruit known as substitute for carbohydrate diet and its starch may be produced into different formulae for industrial use (Deivani and Subhash, 2010). Adegoke (1985) suggested breadfruit flour as filler in pharmaceutical to replace conventional tuber-crop flours. Esuoso and Bamiro (1995) studied the likelihood of making bread through wheat and breadfruit flour. Olatunji and Akinrele (1978) recommended breadfruits as composite flour constituent, with no pronounced deviations of dough rheological properties and value. Non-alcoholic beverages produced using breadfruit flour as adjunct in malted sorghum (Ilori and Irefin, 1997). Chin-chin and cake made from breadfruit and wheat (Ajani *et al.*, 2012). Olaoye *et al.*, (2007) baked biscuit using breadfruit flour and study established usage of ripe breadfruit in production of cakes, sweet delicacies, cookies and energy bars. Breadfruit can use to prepare wide-range appetizers, beverages, casseroles, fritters, croquettes, pancakes, chowders main dishes, breads, pastries, pasta and desserts (Ragone *et al.*, 2012). Also, breadfruit could be crushed to

produce hummus, vegetarian burgers but mature unripe is ideal as vegetable and useable in curry, stews, dumpling formulas. Mayaki *et al.*, (2003) assessed breadfruit in traditional stiff porridge foods by processing into yam flour-like and pounded yam flour-like products while Omobuwajo (2003) produced breadfruit into three snack food items specifically biscuits, prawn cracker and chips and establish the acceptability in terms of overall quality. Andrew (2011) worked on nutritional and morphological variety of breadfruit; Ragone (2007) reported on breadfruit diversity, conservation and potentials while Jones *et al.*, 2011 investigated on novel foods from breadfruit for food security. Adepeju *et al.*, (2015) worked on development and evaluation of wheat-breadfruit cookies. Furthermore, acceptable bread from breadfruit and wheat composite flour produced by Giami *et al.*, (2004). Adebowale *et al.*, (2008) also produced instant yam breadfruit flour while Oladunjoye *et al.*, (2010) established substitution of breadfruit meal for maize in poultry diet if properly produced.

Ragone and Cavaletto (2006) evaluated sensory of breadfruit value and nutritive structure of 20 cultivars of breadfruit. Also, Ojokoh *et al.*, (2013) researched on the fermentation effect of nutrients and antinutrients compositions in African breadfruit and cowpea flour blends and discovered development in the nutritional quality and effective decline in the anti-nutrient contents. Ojokoh *et al.*, (2014) investigated breadfruit and cowpea fermented with *Lactobacillus plantarum* complementary foods for infants and established its potentials for management of protein-energy malnutrition. Ishaya and Oshodi (2013) evaluated attributes of composite bread produced from breadfruit (*Artocarpus altilis*) flour, wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) and benth seed (*Adenopus breviflorus*) flour. Sensory assessment done discovered that breadfruit and benth seed could replace wheat as much as 20% lacking substantial alteration in taste, appearance and colour in comparison to commercial bread. Adepeju *et al.*, (2014) researched on complementary food using breadfruit. The complementary food developed from breadfruit, soybean and groundnut flours analysed. This related with existing ones to know its acceptability based on texture, dietary bulk and caloric density. Results showed that the formulations had better functional properties in term of water binding capacity, gelation, bulk density, swelling capacity, viscosity and calorific density. These similar observations were made by Ijarotimi and Aroge (2005) on nutritive composition of weaning food produced from breadfruit- soybean flour. The weaning food showed high energy values and satisfactorily meet Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for children at 60% inclusion. Also, breadfruit has been dehydrated using tunnel and freeze. The

drying and waste from these procedures establishes an extremely digestible stock feed (Morton, 1987).

Investigation on microbiological including sensory properties of gari from cassava and breadfruit co-fermented done by Adeniran and Ajifolokun (2015). The result showed six bacteria species isolated from fermented pulp and established breadfruit (20%) co-fermented with cassava produces new invention. This equates favourably with cassava gari based (100%) on microbial and sensory features. Okoye and Obi (2017) reported that the use of germinated breadfruit seeds for the composite flour in cookies production can help to minimize post harvest losses.

## **2.6 Breadfruit Bio-deterioration**

Breadfruit is a vital staple food in some tropics. However, the main factor limiting breadfruit is poor storage, as the fruit experiences quick physical decline once harvesting and reduced yield owing to diseases (Adepeju *et al.*, 2011). Adebayo and Ogunsola (2005) noted that most of difficulties in food encountered by developing countries can be ascribed to enormous postharvest wastages. Due to short shelf lives, breadfruits are usually used in 5 days after harvesting. Nevertheless, breadfruit might take as much as 10 days before getting to markets in cities after harvesting, this results to massive losses owing to bio-deterioration. Amusa *et al.*, (2002) investigated aetiology of breadfruit bio-deterioration in storage and its effects on fruit nutrients. *Aspergillus niger*, *Rhizopus stolonifer*, *Botryodiplodia theobromate*, *Mycorellospora fulva*, *Penicillium spp* and *Aspergillus flavus* associated to deterioration of fresh breadfruit kept inside laboratory for 9 days.

Breadfruit trees infected by soft-scales, mealy bugs and branches also infested by ants after fruiting. Anthracnose and *Phytophthora palmivora* usually attack the fruit, undeveloped breadfruit trees have destroyed with disease caused by *Rosellinia spp*. Also, Phomopsis, *Dothiorella* and *Phylospora* affect the stem and decay breadfruit. Some symptoms detected on unwholesome trees are fruit rot and tip dieback. Fruit flies have been observed to damage breadfruit. Paul and Chen (2004) established that breadfruit could be preserved from fruit flies by means of vapour heat treatment or radiation. However, healthy trees and good sanitation could reduce problems caused through diseases. Storage of breadfruit at temperature below 12°C ends

to chilling injury (Ragone, 1997). This showed brown scaled-like stainingskin,water lossincreased, increased vulnerability toorganism'sdeterioration and harmful flavour features. Due to this bio-deterioration problem, one way to prevent postharvest lossesis speedy processing and transformation of the fruit into flour or other finished products that can be easily stored (Oulai, 2014).

## **2.7 Pigeon-pea Description**

Pigeon-pea is perennial plant which can live for 3-4 years (FAOSTAT, 2011) and it is short-day high feeling plantof photo-periodic variations (Vales *et al.*, 2012). It has two main growth patterns namely determinate type that produces cluster pods at top of canopy andgrowth stops athighpoint which result to less otherwise moreunchanging maturity.Non-determinatetype is the second common growth custom where pods tolerated auxiliary bunches. Broadly, latter typecouldstand biotic and a-biotic pressures as a result of intrinsicability to renew. The traditional cultivars are landraces, tall and take about 180-280 days before maturity. Pigeon-pea hasnumerous local names in diverseregions of the world (Saxena, 2008). In Barbados, pigeon-pea seeds grown to feed pigeons andin India, pigeon-peacommonlyrecognised as'red gram, tur or arhar'. Pigeon-pea seeds contain14% seed coat, 85% cotyledonsand 1% embryo withvariationin food nutrients (Faris and Singh, 1990).

## **2.8 History and Distribution of Pigeon-Pea**

Pigeon-peagrew in Asia,then distributed to West Africa in 2000 B.C., where it became second mainhub of origin (Van Den Beldt, 1988). It was taken to West Indies and usedto feed bird (Van der Maesen, 1986). Pigeon-pea grown extensivelyaround 14 Countries in over 4 million ha. Foremost pigeon-pea growers around globe are:Tanzania, India, Uganda,Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique andEthiopia.Puerto Rico,Dominican Republic andWest Indies. Also, Latin America,Burma,Philippines in Asia,Australia, IndonesiaandThailand (Sinha, 1977).



## **2.9 Harvesting and Yield of Pigeon-Pea**

Pigeon-peas typically planted throughout the rainy period and harvested in dry season in Nigeria. Harvesting usually done after 140 days of planting when the pods begin to turn green and plump. The fruit of pigeon-pea is in form of pod, 2-9 seeds/pod and is flat, green colour, occasionally covered with hair and marked with dim purple. Pigeon-pea seeds are extensively variable in colour and weigh 4-25g/100 with round or lens shaped (Sheldrake, 1984). The yields of top growth fresh pigeon-pea range to 35 tons/acre, with approximately 700 lb/acre, these make pigeon-pea utmost yielding legume food. Uganda produces the highest pigeon-pea next by Nepal and India (Ghadge *et al.*, 2008).

## **2.10 Pigeon-Pea Composition and Nutritive Values**

Pigeon-pea described to have protein (20-22%), fat (1.2%), carbohydrate (65%) and (3.8%) ash (FAO, 1982). Wild types of pigeon-pea established as encouraging bases of high protein and numerous genotypes had remained technologically advanced with protein. Protein genotypes have almost 20% above normal (Saxena *et al.*, 1987). They contain meaningfully amino acids (about 25%), specifically methionine and cystine (Singh *et al.*, 1990). The seed has lesser dietary fat and is a respectable amino acids basis (Elegbede, 1998). It has additional fat, minerals, extra vitamin A and supplementary vitamin C to regular pigeon-peas (Foodnet, 2002; Odeny, 2007). Pigeon-pea has appreciable amounts of protein with significant amino acids like lysine, methionine and so on. However, undeveloped seeds usually small in nutritive values, but have substantial quantity of vitamin C (100 g serving, per 39 mg) with slight complex fat content. Pigeon-pea is better in basis of nutritional minerals like potassium, calcium, phosphorus, magnesium, iron, and sulphur. Pigeon-pea an excellent basis for water-soluble vitamins, particularly riboflavin, thiamine, choline and niacin (Sinha, 1977).

## **2.11 Importance of Pigeon-pea**

Pigeon-pea recognized as food intended for animal and human consumption. Young hulls, undeveloped seeds and developed seeds might be eaten. Pigeon-pea seeds can be useful complete, de-hulled or milled into flour. Caribbean eat seeds as green undeveloped peas, but regularly prepared into dried split-pea (dahl). Pigeon-pea is rich in organic nitrogen, help in increasing organic matter in the soil and improve structure and superiority (Adu-Gyamfi *et al.*,

2007). The peas help in improving soil quality for long term use as green manure, cover or side street crop (Bodner *et al.*, 2007). Pigeon-pea have capacity in decreasing root-knot nematodes level of subsequent produce once use as manure (Daniel and Ong, 1990). Pigeon-pea use effectively beneath farms as shelter crop in improving possessions of soil, reducing unwanted plant rivalry and food for raiders (Venzon *et al.*, 2006). In addition, it possesses different minerals, vitamins, proteins and carbohydrates (Khandelwal *et al.*, 2010). Pigeon-pea flour found appropriate in cookies, bread and chapattis preparation owing to high content of protein, iron also phosphorus (Harinder *et al.*, 1999). Biochemical changes investigated during production of fermented pigeon-pea for making moinmoin by Oyarekua (2011) while Fasoyiro *et al.*, (2009) processed local spice (dawadawa) using fermented pigeon-pea. The existence of nutritive fibre in pigeon-pea provides possible health aids in avoidance of chronic diseases and considered as functional food. The pigeon-pea flour is outstanding constituent to snack and commended component in increasing pasta nutritional status deprived of disturbing sensory belongings (Torres *et al.*, 2006). Other likely pigeon-pea usages in Africa for human intake include noodles processing, tempe and fermented products (Mugula *et al.*, 2003). In some other parts of the world, pigeon-pea flour used in place of stabilizer for soups and rice. Entire dry seed could be heated unaccompanied otherwise together with vegetables. Over 90% crop used up by means of dehulled while immature pigeon-pea could be used as vegetable and nutritious than dry peas. Green pigeon-pea can be frozen, canned, occasionally very young pods harvested before seeds developed and cooked like French beans in curries. Pigeon-pea can be used for fresh sprouts, ketchup and numerous extruding products (Saxena *et al.*, 2002). Also, bearing in mind therapeutic importance for human beings, legumes are suitable for controlling cardiovascular disease and diabetes (Hu, 2003).

According to Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS), pigeon pea produces approximately 10.5 tons/acre dehydrated substance, also 50 lb Nitrogen per ton as a green manure. Total nitrogen obtainable from a summer pigeon-pea planted at Florida estimated to be 250 lb/acre, availability of this portion crop, demonstrating the nitrogen unconfined over a period of time (Valenzuela and Smith, 2002). Pigeon-pea can be classified as fodder/shelter crop (dried peas, green vegetable peas). Amaefule and Nwagbara (2004) worked on pigeon-pea meal-based diets for pullets. However, combination of pigeon-pea with cereals make balance human diet. Dried peas might stay sprouted temporarily and heated to make diverse flavour using green or

dried peas. Germination improves digestibility of dried pigeon-pea through decrease in impenetrable sugars stay in cooked peas. Fragmented pigeon-peas and most current grains, has important protein basis in typically vegan food. In some regions, undeveloped hulls are eaten as vegetable in dishes like sambar while Ethiopian cooked and eaten young shoots and leaves as well as pods (Asfaw, 1995).

**Table 2.3: Raw Pigeon-pea Amino Acid Profile**

Amino acids	Composition (g/16 gN)
Lysine	7.79
Histidine	3.66
Arginine	5.86
Aspartic acid	11.56
Threonine	3.12
Serine	3.59
Glutamic acid	9.23
Proline	3.17
Glycine	3.07
Alanine	3.79
Cystine	1.19
Valine	5.85
Methionine	1.19
Isoleucine	3.47
Leucine	6.78
Tyrosine	2.63
Phenylalanine	6.15
Tryptophan	ND

**Source:** Akande *et al.*, 2010

## 2.12 Fermentation

Fermentation means way for breaking down compounds through microbial enzymes or metabolic procedure whereby carbohydrates besides linked compounds corroded through discharge of energy without exterior electron acceptors (Adegoke, 2004 and Adams, 1990). It is a procedure for production of foods through support of micro-organisms that own enzymes like lipases, amylases and proteases which hydrolyze carbohydrates, proteins and lipids existing in crop to improve flavour, smell and texture (Steinkraus, 1997; Nout and Motarjemi, 1997). Fermentation in food also means alteration of simple carbohydrate to alcohol and carbon dioxide or carbon-based acids by means of bacteria and yeast in anaerobic circumstances (Williams and Dennis, 2011). It is a standard method for improvement of organoleptic and protective properties, nutritive quality, decontamination and antibiotics production in foods (Oyewole and Isah, 2012). It offers low-cost process of producing and conserving food. It improves nutritive and healthiness food value. The procedure is widely practiced in Africa at industrial and household levels (Mensah, 1997). Conventionally, fermentation is used for preparation of products like beverages by yeast fermentation. Fermentation produced vinegars through *acetobacter*, yogurt, then pickles also prepared by fermentation via *Lactobacilli* (Steinkraus, 1997). Fermentation uses wanted results by *in situ* preparation of precise useful bioactive compounds, this could be achieved by removal of undesirable compounds or conversion into desirable compounds (Hugeholtz and Smid, 2001).

Although, weight of micro-organisms is generally small in food, but their impact on nature of food, particularly taste and other organoleptic properties are weighty (Okafor, 2009). Conventional lactic acid fermentation is most active and suitable process for dietary enhancement of cereals (Eneche, 2009). This acts as a vital role for alleviating antinutrients, rising nutrient concentration and anti-microbial actions. This gives fermented products pleasing taste, smell, consistency as a result of enzymes metabolic actions and draw materials microbiota (Oyarekua, 2013). Fermentation can also be defined as enzyme induced chemical change in foods; these enzymes may be formed by microorganisms and play an important role in human growth as the oldest method of food conservation (Potter and Hotchkiss, 1998). Fermentation uses microorganisms for transformation of raw materials into valuable products. In case fermentation process altered for improvement of taste and smell, results to improved diet, maintenance of original constituents and anti-nutrients purification

(Beaumont, 2002). Some important conditions for fermentation are substrate, micro flora and

environmental (processing). Substrates for food fermentations can be plant or animal origins; these can lead to the following, non-alcoholic foods, alcoholic drinks, vegetable and animal. Accessibility to fermentable carbohydrate, organic nitrogen and minerals remains significant in food fermentations. Microorganisms added either as starter culture or as epiphytic micro-flora are very vital in the food fermentations. Micro-organisms in food varied owing to inherent and external factors that disturb useful properties, preparation, consumption, then, storage (Dullon, 2004). Fermentation could increase legumes phenolic content such as pigeon pea, then, enhance antioxidant activities.

Fermentation can be classified based on raw material (solid or liquid). It can proceed naturally (natural fermentation) or through the starter cultures (pure culture fermentation). Fermented foods have been used extensively since primitive eras around the world; many foods owe their processing and features to fermentative actions of micro-organisms; example of food products is sauerkraut, fermented sausages and cheese (Ojokoh *et al.*, 2013; Arimatet *et al.*, 2014). Fermentation serves numerous purposes in developing countries; improves food taste, enhances food digestibility, preserves food deprivation from toxic organisms and improves nutritive value (Achi, 2005). It is valuable for increasing shelf life of some fresh foods, aroma production and flavour in food as well as covering of putrid flavours. It is less expensive in the developing countries than another means of food protection like canning or cooling. Fermentation, is also, used for medical motives and as food replacements (Anteneh *et al.*, 2011). Fermented foods constitute significant components to African nutrition (Oyewole, 1997). Current use of fermentation in food processing stressed preparation of health benefit foods and better nutritive value. It's presently used in reducing anti-nutrients like phytate and tannin. Also, used in increasing bioavailability of vital nutrient such as iron (Moneim *et al.*, 1995; Towo *et al.*, 2006). Fermentation is used to reduce natural toxins occurrence such as cyanide in cassava (Nout and Motarjemi, 1997; Kobawila *et al.*, 2005) and to decline non-digestible carbohydrates by reducing undesirable effects like abdominal distention and flatulence. Lactic acid bacteria and yeast account for fermentations (Adeleke *et al.*, 2010; Adenike *et al.*, 2007), also, these microorganisms control food fermentation (Guasch-Jane *et al.*, 2006; Robert and William, 2008). Spontaneous fermentation suitable in influencing nutrient density, microbial activities, raw material enzymatic activities and this leads to enhancement of flavour and texture of product.

**Table 2.4: Some Traditional Nigerian Fermented Foods**

<b>Fermented Food</b>	<b>Raw material (Substrate)</b>	<b>Micro-organisms</b>	<b>Uses</b>
Gari	Cassava pulp	<i>Leuconostoc sp.</i> <i>Streptococcus sp.</i> <i>Corynebacterium manihot</i> <i>Geotricum candida</i>	Key meal
Fufu	Whole cassava roots	<i>Lactobacillus sp.</i> <i>Leuconostoc sp.</i>	Meal
Ogi	Maize, sorghum, millet	<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> <i>Streptococcus lactis</i> <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> <i>Rhodotorula sp</i> <i>Candida mycoderma</i> <i>Debaryomyces hansenii</i>	Breakfast cereal, weaning food
Iru (Dawadawa)	African locust bean ( <i>Parkia biglobosa</i> ) Soybean	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i> <i>B. licheniformis</i>	Condiment
Ogiri (Ogili)	Melon seed ( <i>Citrullus lanatus</i> ) Fluted pumpkin ( <i>Telfairia occidentalis</i> ) Castor oil seed ( <i>Ricinus communis</i> )	<i>Bacillus spp.</i> <i>Escherichia spp.</i> <i>Pediococcus sp.</i>	Condiment
Ugba (Ukpaka)	African oil bean ( <i>Pentaclethra macrophylla</i> )	<i>Bacillus licheniformis</i> <i>Micrococcus spp.</i> <i>Staphylococcus spp.</i>	Delicacy usually consumed with stockfish or dried fish
Palm wine	Palm salp	<i>Saccharomyces spp.</i> Lactic acid bacteria Acetic acid bacteria	Alcoholic drink
Burukutu/Pito/Otika	Sorghum, millet, maize	<i>Saccharomyces spp.</i> Lactic acid bacteria	Alcoholic drink
Shekete	Maize	<i>Saccharomyces spp.</i>	Alcoholic drink
Agadagidi	Plantain	<i>Saccharomyces spp.</i>	Alcoholic drink

**Source:** Aworh (2008)

## **2.12.1 Fermentation Methods**

### **2.12.1.1 Liquid Substrate or Submerged Fermentation (LSF)**

This technique is appropriate for microorganism like bacteria which needs moisture. Bioactive compounds discharged into fermentation broth and make use of free liquid substrates like molasses and broths. Submerged fermentation is the growth of micro-organisms in fully liquid system (FAO, 1992). Submerged fermentation mostly uses for extraction of secondary metabolites that require liquid. The substrates are utilized rapidly; hence constant replacement with nutrients are required. Purification of products are easier using this technique and is an advantage to other type of fermentation (Subramaniam and Vimala, 2012).

### **2.12.1.2 Solid State Fermentation (SSF)**

SSF means growing of microorganisms under precise environments without permitted water for preparation of wanted crops (Pandey, 1992). This can further describe as bioprocess done without water but via solid matrix of high-water adsorption. Solid matrix might be bio or inert, but both conditions must have adequate wetness toward sustaining growing (Singhania *et al.*, 2009). SSF suited for fermentation methods involve fungi and micro-organisms with smaller amount moisture. However, SSF not suitable for fermentation procedures linking organisms (bacteria) with higher water-activities (Babu and Satyanarayana, 1996). Examples are industrial enzymes, fuels and enriched animal feeds.



**Table 2.5: Evaluation among Substrates**

<b>FACTOR</b>	<b>Liquid Substrates</b>	<b>Solid Substrates</b>
<b>Substrates</b>	Soluble	Unsolvable Starch, Cellulose, Pectins, Lignin
<b>Aseptic conditions</b>	Uninfected control	Vapour treatment, non-sterile condition
<b>Water</b>	Large volume and Effluent	Inadequate water; little activity Effluent absence
<b>Metabolic Heating</b>	Relaxed temperature control	Small volume heat transfer Calm ventilation and surface exchange
<b>Ventilation</b>	Solvable oxygen restriction Suitable air essential.	
<b>pH</b>	Easy control	Shielded solid substrates
<b>Mechanical agitation</b>	Adequate mixing	Stationary situations preferred
<b>Scale up</b>	Industrial equipment accessible	New design equipment necessary
<b>Inoculation</b>	Calm inoculation nonstop	Spore inoculation, batch
<b>Contamination</b>	Risks for single strain bacteria	Risks for fungi at low rate
<b>Energetic consideration</b>	High intense	Small intense
<b>Volume of Equipment</b>	High and expensive equipment	Small and expensive equipment
<b>Sewage and pollution</b>	High polluting sewages	Absence of sewages, minor pollutant

**Source:** Raimbault, 1998

**Table 2.6: Merits and Demerits of Submerged Substrate Fermentation**

Advantages	Disadvantages
Measure of process parameters is easier than solids	High cost due to the expensive media
Bacteria and yeast consistently spread all over the medium	Expenses for equipment are higher
High-water content for bacteria Inoculum portion is generally small	Consumptions of energy are higher The procedure is very delicate
Lower asset costs	Agitation is regularly important
Better process control	Accidental pollution
Reduced fermentation period	
Decreased floor space supplies	
Purification of products is easier	
Lesser employment costs	
Simpler processes	
Easier upkeep of aseptic situations on industrial measure	

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**Source:** Subramaniyam and Vimala (2012)

### 2.13 Fermentation Substrates

Fermentation substrate extremely differs from one another; therefore, it is vital to select right

substrate. Fermentation methods need enhancement for separate substrate, because organisms react in a different way to substrate. Consumption of nutrients vary in each substrate, and also productivity. Notable substrates for submerged fermentation include sugars, syrup, liquid materials, sewage/wastewater, fruits and vegetables juices while that of SSF include wheat bran, hay, paper pulp, bagasse, coconut coir, rice straw, artificial media, fruit and vegetable wastes (Pandey *et al.*, 1999).

## **2.14 Organisms responsible for food fermentations**

The greatest group of microorganisms involved include;

Bacteria

Yeasts

Moulds

### **2.14.1 Bacteria**

They belong to big cluster of single-celled or multicellular organisms through absence of chlorophyll, availability of simple nucleus and reproducing fast by simple fission. Some are spherical, rodlike, spiral or filamentous (Walker, 1988). The vital bacterium necessary for fermentations include lactobacillaceae, they can generate lactic acid from carbohydrates. Additional significant organism for fruits and vegetables fermentations is *acetobacter* species acetic acid manufacturing acetic acid.

### **2.14.2 Yeast**

They are unicellular organisms replicate asexually via budding. Commonly, yeasts are bigger than bacteria and they performed imperative part in food business. Yeasts made available enzymes that help in needed reactions such as bread leavening, production of alcohol then invert sugar. They have valuable and non-valuable effects in foods and are broadly dispersed in species. Yeasts remain present in air, soil, intestinal tract of animals, orchards and vineyards. Useful yeast desirable for food fermentations are from *Saccharomyces* family. Example is *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

### **2.14.3 Moulds**

They are vital microorganisms in food industries responsible for preservation and spoilage. Some

mould manufactures unwanted contaminants, then add to food spoilage. *Aspergillus* species are regularly answerable to objectionable variations in foods. They originate in diets often and permit high absorptions of sugar and salt. Nevertheless, some moulds transmit flavoured essential quality to foods and produce amylase enzyme for bread making. Moulds from genus *Penicillium* linked to ripening and cheese aroma. They have highest collection of enzymes and might inhabit, then breed on different kinds of foods (Mountney and Gould, 1988).

## **2.15 Conditions for Bacterial Fermentations**

There are six requirements that are essential for bacteria fermentation (Steinkraus, 1996; Mountney and Gould, 1988).

### **2.15.1 Temperature**

Bacteria accept diverse temperatures that deliver enormous choice of fermentation. Some bacteria perform best at 20 to 30°C, while thermophiles desire advanced at 50 to 55°C and colder optima temperature between 15 to 20°C. Lactic acid bacteria performed at 18 to 22°C, for example *Leuconostoc* species, that responsible for fermentation has ideal temperature between 18 to 22°C while temperature higher than 22°C suitable for *Lactobacillus* species.

### **2.15.2 Concentration of Salt**

Lactic acid bacteria stand higher salt concentrations and these give benefit over other less accepting species. This tolerates fermenters to start breakdown that manufactures acid, then hinders growth of unwanted bacteria. *Leuconostoc* well-known for higher salt acceptance, also responsible for greater number of lactic acid fermentation.

### **2.15.3 Water activity**

The quantity of obtainable water for bacteria denoted water activity ( $a_w$ ). Usually, bacteria need equitably higher water activity (0.9 or more) to live. Few species can bear water activity lesser, typically, fungi and yeast dominate with minor water activities.

### **2.15.4 pH**

pH of a substrate measures the degree of acidity. Best pH for some bacteria is close to neutral

point (7.0) and there some bacteria that are acid tolerant, then ready to live at decreased pH. Prominent acid-tolerant organisms include *Lactobacillus*, *Streptococcus* species, and they are important in dairy and vegetable fermentation.

### **2.15.5 Oxygen**

Some fermentative organisms are anaerobes, although some need air for breakdown. *Lactobacilli* are microaerophilic precisely; they manufacture in occurrence of less quantities of oxygen. Aerobic fermentations, oxygen volume is limiting factors. This decides kind, then quantity of organic products attained, quantity of substrate used up and energy discharged from reaction.

### **2.15.6 Nutrients**

Bacteria require nutrients for breaking down of substances and differ in their specificity to diverse substrates. The bacteria for fermentation need starches, either simple sugars, for example glucose, fructose or compound sugars like starch or cellulose. Energy necessities for bacteria are huge and restraining substrate quantity obtainable to investigate development.

## **2.16 Lactic Acid Bacteria**

LAB comprises organisms united through physical, morphological, and metabolic features assemblage. Bacteria can be grouped into not producing spores, not respiring gram-positive rods that generate acid as key products in carbohydrate fermentation. Some group of *Lactobacillus* categorized as non-spore forming, facultative anaerobes (Batt, 2000). LAB had been eaten inside several fermented products like dairy foods. Lactic acid bacteria catch attention of international research for crucial part in most fermented diets, capability to make several antimicrobial compounds promote probiotic possessions (Temmerman *et al.*, 2003). Lactic acid bacteria remain micro-organisms that control food fermentations (Robert and William, 2008; Guasch-Jané *et al.*, 2006). They are essential because of their role in most food industries in place of starter cultures. Metabolic and enzymatic actions of LAB produce volatile substances, these lead to flavour and texture improvements (Kleerebezemab *et al.* 2000). LAB is food grade retaining, recognised-as-safe (GRAS) position, also could discharge exopolysaccharide (EPS). Exopolysaccharide, economically essential since they convey purposeful result in

foods, also useful healthiness effect to end user (Welman and Maddox, 2003). LAB is discriminating, non-sporulating, acid tolerant, cytochrome devoid and not-respiring rod gram-positive. They are related through metabolism and physical features which create acid as main metabolism produce (Holzapfel *et al.*, 2001). Lactic bacteria, also among significant microbes in food fermentations; the bacteria enhance taste and quality of fermented produce. Also, hinder spoilage organisms via creating inhibiting constituents, then huge quantities of acid. Human diets can be either be plants or animal origin fermenting through lactic acid bacteria, meanwhile, bacteria have properties that can be of benefit to food processing or alteration. LAB had used for food and feed fermentation since prehistoric days, and utilisations still on-going in food and feed industries in place of starter cultures (Boonmee *et al.* 2003). As fermentation agents, LAB mostly used in manufacture of fermented products like cheeses (*Lactococcus spp.*), yoghurt (*Streptococcus spp.*, *Lactobacillus sp.*), sauerkraut (*Leuconostoc sp.*), sausages, refined butter, sour cream, vegetables and meats (Arimah *et al.*, 2014). Occurrence of LAB in food and feed with their longer shelf lives, complements as generally recognised as safe aimed at ingesting (Aguirre and Collins, 2008). They establish significant group of organisms, mainly in food processing industry. Key function of LAB is to metabolize glucose, fructose and citrate to produce acids (lactic, acetic), ethanol and mannitol. LAB has potentials as food additives and useful ingredients for wellbeing and economic profits (Welman and Maddox, 2003).

LAB remains critical because of their role in most fermented food industries as starter culture. Fermented dairy products are enjoying acceptance increase as suitable, nourishing, natural and healthy foods (Kalliomäki *et al.*, 2001). Metabolite by LAB have several manufacturing claims in food, textile, pharmaceutical industries as preservative, acidifying agent and flavour. They can be useful for acid-acetaldehyde production (Åkerberg and Zacchi, 2000). Lactic Acid bacteria produce diversity of compounds like formic acid, acetone, ethanol, hydrogen peroxide, bacteriocins and diacetyl as antimicrobial. These discuss protective capacity as natural cheap way in overcoming microorganisms' distributions same niche (Oliveira *et al.*, 2008). Capability of LAB lowering pH of fermented foods lead to spoilage hang-up and therefore extend shelf-life. LAB contribute to production of acid (acetic, lactic, carbonic) and protection through creation of massive collection of antimicrobial and proteins (Elliason and Tatini, 1999). Lactic acid bacteria and their products act as bio-preservatives to increase food shelf-life (Ayad *et al.*, 2004) and reduce risks of foodborne diseases (Konings *et al.*,

2003). Hence, presence of LAB might confer necessary potentials and escalate fermented products safety (De martinis *et al.*, 2002). LAB could produce anti-microbial constituents such as sweeteners, complex sugar, pungent compounds, vitamins and valuable enzymes with probiotic characteristics which might be of help in promotion of food industries. Probiotics recommended for patients getting radiation treatment, those with repeated thrush, vaginal or urinary infections. Also, people suffering in irritable bowel syndrome and travellers, guard food murdering. Some LAB species characterized through lactose transformation, enhanced fermented dairy products digestibility and their preservations (Abdel basset and Djamila, 2008; Weinberg *et al.*, 2007). This ability of LAB led to its usage as starter culture in many fermentations process because it protects the lifespan of its many foods by inhibiting the growth of other harmful pathogens and also help in maintaining palatability of the food (Jeevaratnam, *et al.* 2005).

### 2.16.1 LAB Classification

LAB has classified on acid production into different genera/species through fermenting sugars at specific temperatures (Schleifer *et al.*, 1995; Parvez, *et al.*, 2006). Conventional method of LAB classification was built on physical and chemical characteristics, in recent times, molecular characterization has become important device in proofing LAB identity. Characterization includes: 16S rRNA sequencing, amplified DNA profiling, PCR-based fingerprinting, Soluble protein patterns (Salminen, *et al.*, 1998) and species differentiation via multiple PCR assay by means of precise *recA* derived primer (Torriani, *et al.*, 2001).

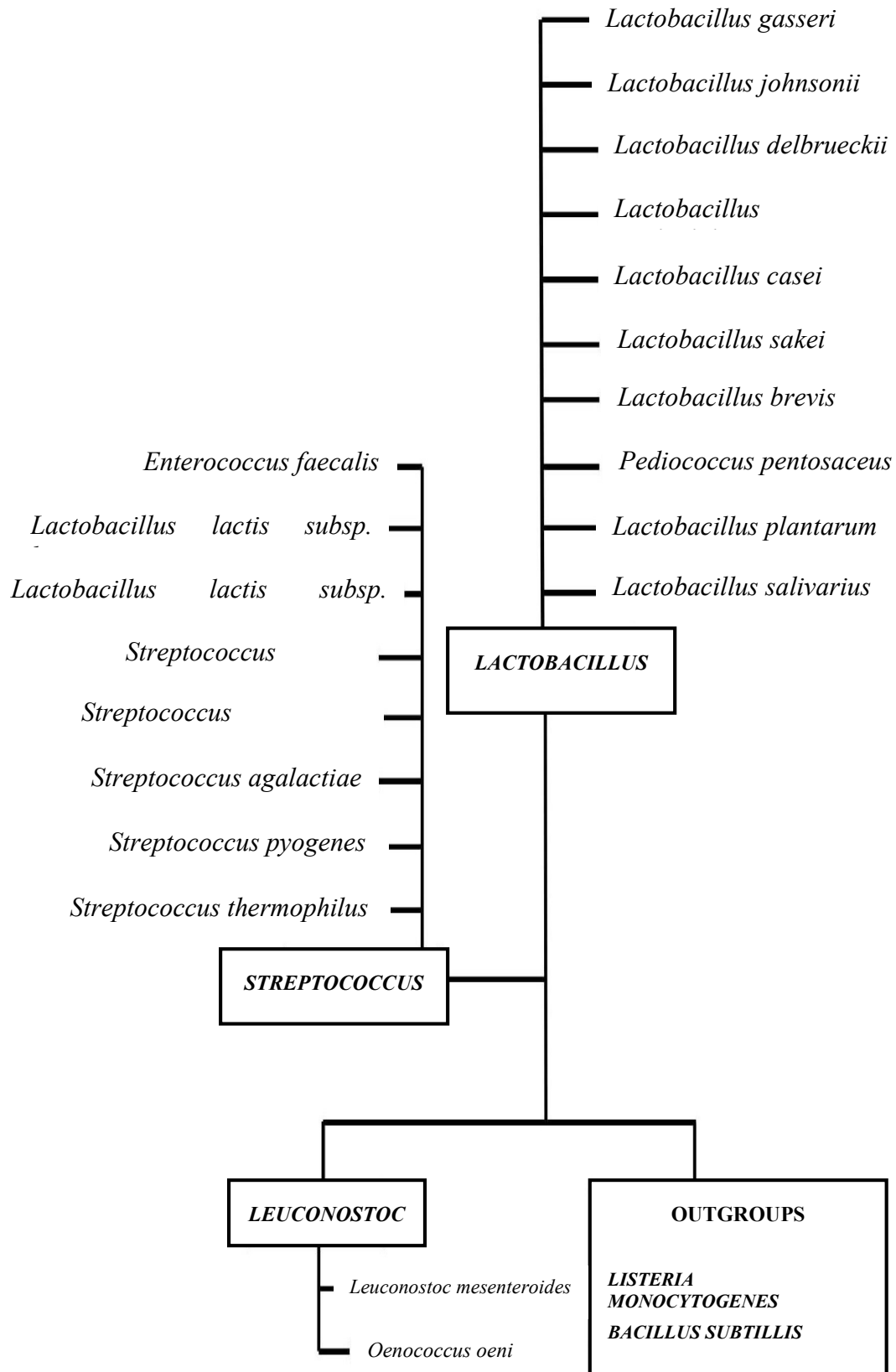
#### 2.16.1.1 Homofermentative and Heterofermentative

The LAB is divided into heterofermentative and homofermentative organisms based on capability of fermenting carbohydrates (Kuipers, *et al.*, 2000). Homofermentative bacteria; *Streptococcus*, *Lactococcus* produce lactate from glucose while LAB like *Leuconostoc*, *Wiessella*, *Lactobacillus* create lactate, ethanol and carbon dioxide from glucose (Salminen, *et al.*, 1998)

### 2.16.2 Taxonomical Classification

Recently taxonomic classification of LAB comes under *Phylum* of *Firmicutes*, class *Bacilli* and order *Lactobacillales* which comprised of various different genera but major ones are *Lactobacillus*, *Enterococcus*, *Melissococcus*, and *Vagococcus* (Fig.1). However, largest genus of this group is the *Lactobacillus* and it consists of more than 80 recognized species. Examples are *Lactobacillus plantarum*, *acidophilus*, *Lactococcus cremoris*, *Bifidobacterium bifidum*, *Lactobacillus Casei*, *rhamnosus*, *delbrueckii*, *bulgaricus*, *fermentum*, *reuteri*, *Lactococcus lactis*, *Bifidobacterium infantis*, *Bifidobacterium breve*, *Enterococcus faecalis*, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Bifidobacterium adolescentis*, and *Bifidobacterium longum* (Canchaya, *et al.*, 2006; Salminen, *et al.*, 1998).





**Fig. 2.1. Differentiation of Species according to the recent Taxonomy**

Source:Rahul *et al.*, 2018

## CHAPTER THREE

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

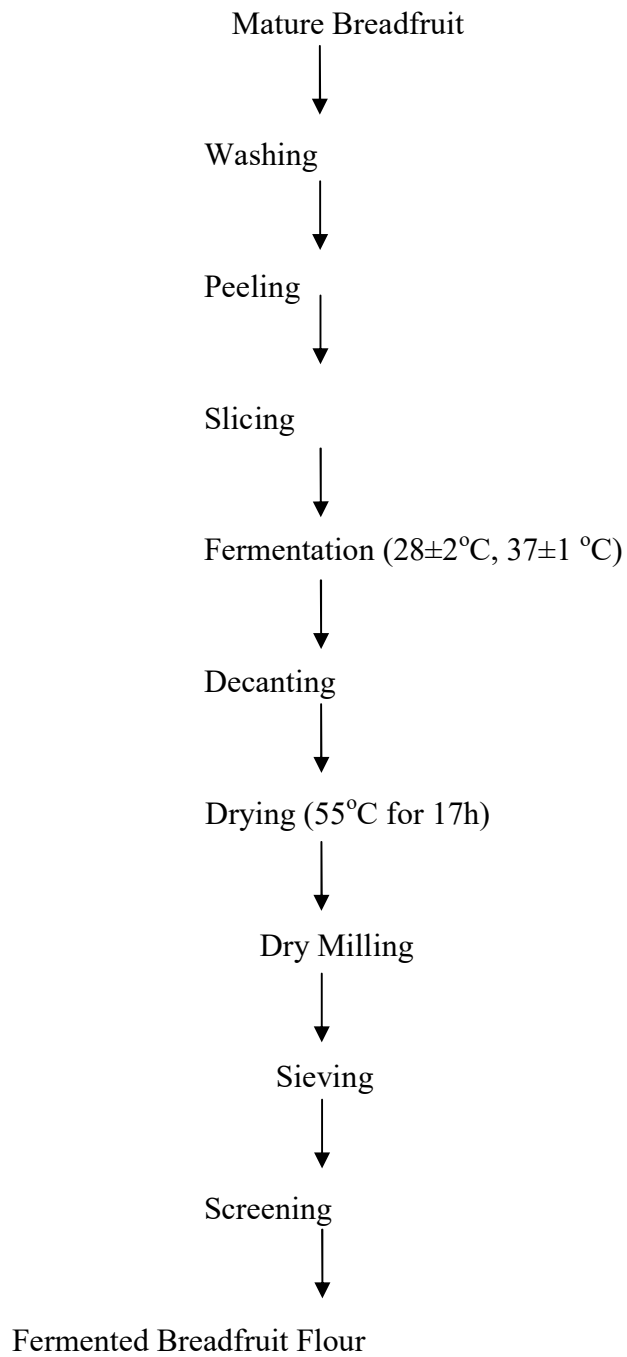
#### 3.1 Material Sources

Matured healthy breadfruits (*Artocarpus communis*) were procured from breadfruit farmer at Ile-Ife, Osun State. Brown pigeon-pea was obtained from a farm in Ago-Aare, Oke-ogun area of Oyo-State. Additional ingredients and components bought from Inqaba Biotechnology outlet at IITA, Ibadan, Oyo State.

#### 3.2 Methods

##### 3.2.1 Fermented Breadfruit Production

Newly harvested matured breadfruits were washed by means of tap water, peeled and sliced manually with stainless knives, non-essential matters were removed (Awoyemi, 2012) with some modifications. Breadfruit slices were put inside the tap water on ratio of 2:1 (w/v) inside low density transparent bucket and covered for 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120 h. Breadfruit slices were allowed to ferment spontaneously at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (ambient temp.) and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Model No. KJ-9022A Incubator). However, on completion of each fermentation period, water discarded. The pulp was drained and dried inside cabinet dryer for 17 h at  $55^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Dried pulp was grinded into flour and sifted through 0.25 mm (Model BS 410, Endecotts, Limited, U.K), British standard sieve (Akusu and Wordu, 2016). Breadfruit flour was packaged inside low density polyethylene materials for advance use (Fig. 3.1).



**Fig. 3.1: Production of Fermented Breadfruit Flour**

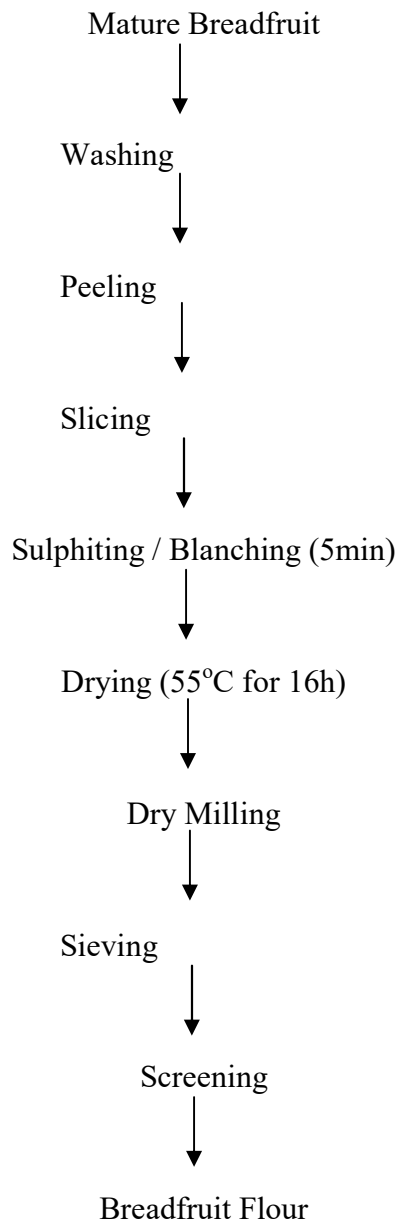
Source: Awoyemi (2012)

### **3.2.2 Production of Breadfruit Flour (Unfermented)**

Breadfruit flour was obtained through technique described (Ajani *et al.*, 2012). Healthy breadfruit was washed carefully, peeled and sliced (1cm thick) using stainless-steel knives. Washed, sliced, breadfruit soaked in 5% sodium metabisulphite solution to inhibit enzymatic browning. Sulphited chips blanched inside water bath (Clifton) for 5 min and dehydrated for 16 h at 55°C by a cabinet dryer. The dried-up chips were pulverized via hammer mill and sieved through 0.25 mm (Model BS 410 Endecotts, Limited, U.K), British standard sieve (Akusu and Wordu, 2016). Quality flour was packaged inside thick (0.04mm) low density polyethylene materials for further use (Fig. 3.2).

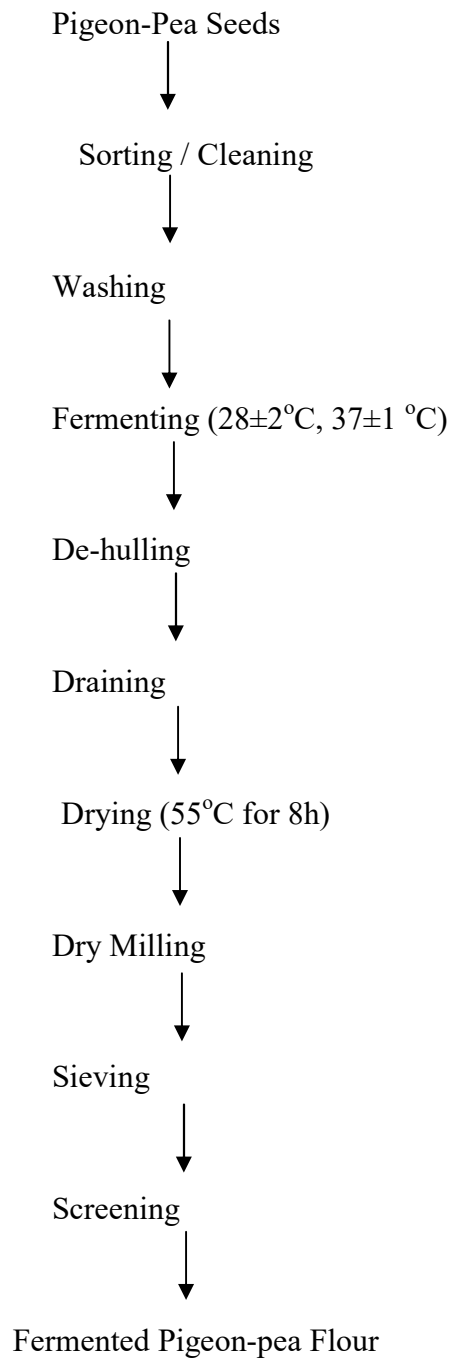
### **3.3 Fermented Pigeon-pea Flour Production**

Fermented pigeon-pea produced using Echendu *et al.* (2004) method with little modifications. Wholesome light brownish pigeon-pea seeds hand-picked and washed using tap water. Cleaned pigeon-pea seeds were poured inside the tap water at ratio 2:1 (w/v) using transparent covered buckets for 24, 48, 72, 96 and 120h respectively. These ferments spontaneously at 28±2°C (ambient temp.) and 37±1°C (Model No. KJ- 9022A Incubator). As the fermentation period is terminated, the fermented pigeon-pea seeds were dehulled using pestle and mortar. Dehulled seeds then washed, drained and dried inside cabinet dryer for 8 h at 55°C. Dried pigeon-pea seeds were milled and sifted through 0.25mm (Model BS 410, Endecotts, Limited, U.K), British Standard Sieve (Akusu and Wordu, 2016). Samples were packed inside thick gauge (0.04mm) low density polyethylene for usage (fig. 3.3).



**Fig. 3.2: Breadfruit Flour Production**

Source: Ajani *et al.*(2012).



**Fig. 3.3: Fermented Pigeon-pea Flour Production**

Source: Echendu *et al.*, (2004)

### **3.4 Breadfruit-Pigeon-Pea Breakfast Meal Formulation**

Breadfruit-pigeon-pea meals were prepared from the following materials; breadfruit: pigeon-pea flours ratios (100:0, 90:10, 80:20, 70:30, 60:40 and 50:50). The breakfast meal was formulated from 24h fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea flour at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively. All the (breadfruit flour, pigeon-pea flour, egg yolk, sunset yellow, glucose, salt, potable water) were weighed and mixed properly (Table 3.1). The soft paste was poured inside boiled water ( $100^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), then agitated briskly with turner till mixture cooked. Powdered milk; vanilla flavor, condensed milk flavor and sugar were added to balance the taste using the method of Tai Situ et al. (2009) with little amendments.

### **3.5 Formulation of Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Pizzelle Cookies**

The pizzelle cookie samples were prepared from these ratios of breadfruit flour: pigeon-pea flour (100:0, 90:10, 80:20, 70:30, 60:40 and 50:50). The cookies were formulated from 24h fermented flours at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Breadfruit flour, pigeon-pea flour, salt were measured and mixed together in a medium mixing bowl. Beaten eggs were added to melted butter, then, chocolate powder, sugar and vanilla were mixed together carefully to form stiff dough. Dough was then dropped inside Salton pizzelle maker (Model WM-6, made in China) and closed for 1 min at  $125^{\circ}\text{C}$  to produce dry and firm cookie (Okpala and Chinyelu, 2011) with little modifications. The recipe is as showed in Table 3.2 while flow chart showing the production procedure as shown in Figure 3.4

**Table 3.1: Ingredients for Production of Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Breakfast Meal**

Ingredients	Quantity
Composite flour	100g
Sugar	40g
Powdered Milk	40g
Vanilla Flavour	2 ml
Salt	0.1g
Glucose	0.2ml
Egg Yolk	0.2ml
Sunset Yellow	0.1g
Condensed milk flavor	5 g
Water	90-95 ml

**Source:** Tai Situ *et al.* (2009)

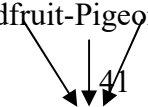
**Table 3.2: Ingredients for Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Pizzelle Cookie**

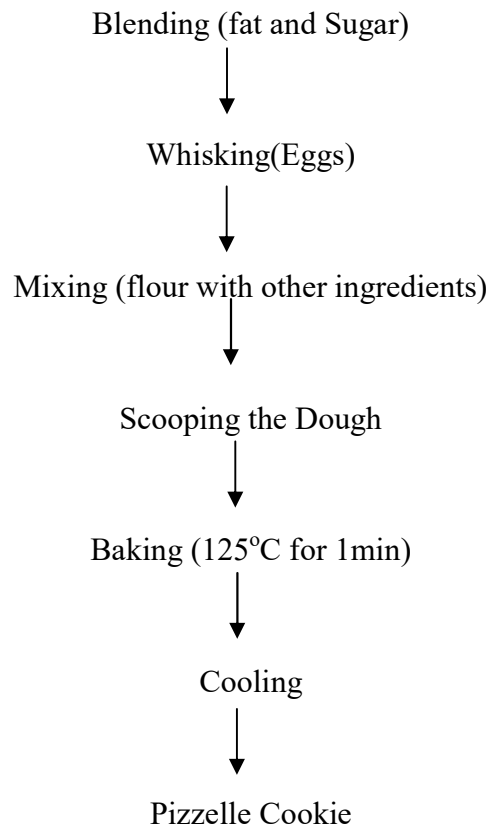


<b>Ingredients</b>	<b>Quantity</b>
Composite flour	100g
Salt	3g
Egg	54ml
Butter	30g
Chocolate powder	20g
Sugar	90g
Vanilla Flavour	5ml

**Source:** Okpala and Chinyelu(2011)

Breadfruit-Pigeon-Pea Flour  
41





**Fig. 3.4: Production of Pizzelle Cookie**

**Source:**Okpala and Chinyelu(2011)

### **3.6 Flour ChemicalComposition**

### 3.6.1 Moisture

Moisture content determined via technique designated through AOAC (2012). 5g each of samples were measured inside previously weighed and clean dehydrated petric dishes. The weighed samples were placed inside ventilated oven (Fisher Scientific Co. USA, Model 655F) at 105°C. Later at 6h, samples were moved to cool inside desiccator and final weights were taken. Moisture content determined by equation (1)

Calculation involved

$$\text{Percent moisture (MC)} = \frac{w_1 - w_2}{w_1 - w_0} \times 100\% \quad \text{----- (1)}$$

$$\% \text{ dry matter} = 100 - \text{MC}$$

$$w_1 = \text{Dish} + \text{initial sample weight}$$

$$w_2 = \text{Dish} + \text{final sample weight}$$

$$w_0 = \text{Initial dish weight}$$

### 3.6.2 Protein determination

Protein content determined through titrimetric technique using AOAC (2005). About 0.20g of the flour sample was put inside tubes for digestion. Selenium tablet (catalyst), then 10 ml H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution was poured inside the tube each. Digestion was done by means of kjeldahl-digesting method till samples became clear. Digested samples permitted to cool, then watered down through purified liquid. NaOH solution was added to the samples and later dispensed into 25 ml mixed indicator flasks (14% boric acid and bromocresol indicator). The sample titrated opposed to 0.01 N HCl solutions. Titration inside empty sample equally determined and the percent protein content was assessed.

### 3.6.3 Fat determination

Fat determination carried out by means of AOAC (2000) protocol: One gram of each flour sample put inside free extraction cap, then sealed. Thimble located inside extractor and fitted with reflux condenser. 250ml soxhlet flask which has earlier dry was allowed to cool inside desiccator and evaluated. Soxhlet flask packed up to ¾ volume of ether (b.pt. 40°C-60°C), then extractor and condenser positioned on boiler. Heater was working continuously using running water for 6 h. Ether escapes continually observed and heater adjusted suitably for boil mildly.

Ether left to drain off for some times (10-12 min.) until short siphoning. After which, ether in the extractor cautiously drained. Thimble with the sample removed, then dry on glass clock at bench top. Extractor and condenser were exchanged, then purification continued till flask dried. Flask with fat separated, extractor cleansed and dry to constant weight in an oven. Dry soxhlet flask preliminary weight was regarded as  $W_1$ , then the final dried flask weight and oil/fat ( $W_2$ ), percent fat/oil got by equation (2).

$$\% \text{ Crude Fat (ether extract)} = \frac{w_2 - w_1}{s_w} \times 100 \quad \text{-----} \quad (2)$$

$w_1$  = Flask weight

$w_2$  = Flask and oil weight

$s_w$  = Sample weight

### 3.6.4 Ash determination

2g sample was precisely evaluated into pre-ignited and porcelain crucible measured beforehand, sited inside muffle furnace (Gallenkamp, England), then kindled for 2 h at 600°C. Later, crucibles cooled after ashing below 200°C inside heater for 20 m, then cool further to room temperature inside desiccator. Crucibles and content weighed, the ash was reported as percentage ash content, as shown in equation 3 (AOAC, 2002).

Calculation:

$$\text{Ash content (\%)} = \frac{w_2 - w_0}{w_1 - w_0} \times 100 \quad \text{-----} \quad (3)$$

$w_0$  = Crucible weight

$w_1$  = crucible and sample weight before incineration

$w_2$  = Crucible + sample weight after incineration

### 3.6.5 Fibre determination

Fibre content was determined by means of AOAC (2006) technique: the sample (2g) weighed into fibre flash then 200ml of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> added from hot 1.25% into the mixture. The pre-heated digester apparatus placed on beaker, then samples simmered and refluxed for 30min. Sample sieved via Whatman GF/A paper by means of purified water till filtrate neutral. Filtrate relocated from Whatman GF/A paper into beaker with aid of 1.25% hot NaOH that bring to better state of 200mls. Beaker then pay back to digestion apparatus, boiled, refluxed for 30 min., filtered and rinsed. Whatman GF/A paper moved filtrate into crucible, then dry over night at 100°C. Sample was allowed to cool inside dessicator and weighed (weight A). Sample placed inside furnace for 6 h at 600°C, cool in dessicator and re-weighed (weight B). Loss in weight through burnings signifies crude fibre weight.

$$\% \text{ Fibre} = \frac{\text{Weight A} - \text{Weight B}}{\text{Sample weight (g)}} \times 100 \quad \text{-----} \quad (4)$$

### 3.6.6 Carbohydrate determination

Sample carbohydrate carried out via difference, through subtracting sum of values obtained from analysis from 100 (James, 1995).

$$\% \text{ CHO} = 100 - (\text{Protein} + \text{Fat} + \text{Ash} + \text{Fibre} + \text{Moisture})$$

### 3.6.7 pH determination

Samples measured with pH meter each day through means of the method designated by AOAC, 2005. pH meter was switch on and permitted for 5 min to warm up before standardization via pH 4 and pH 7 buffer solutions to ensure sensitivity and accuracy of the measurement. pH was measured through dipping meter electrode into each buffer solution with thorough rinsing with distilled water. The values of samples (initially prepared through dissolving 10g dry sample into 10 ml distilled water) were taken separately by dipping the pH meter electrode into samples water, then rinsed thoroughly with distilled water after each dip. Then, values read out from the display unit accordingly.

### 3.6.8 Total Titratable Acidity

Acidity determined through titration method. 10 ml aliquot sample was titrated alongside 0.1M NaOH by means of Phenolphthalein indicator described by AOAC (2005).

## 3.7 Functional Properties

### 3.7.1 Bulk Density

Technique referred to via Oladele and Aina (2007) adopted in bulk density determination. 50 g sample placed inside 100 ml measuring cylinder. This cylinder beaten repeatedly on laboratory table till persistent capacity achieved.

Density calculated as below:

$$\text{Density (g/ml or g/cm}^3\text{)} = \frac{\text{weight of sample}}{\text{volume of sample after tapping}} \quad \text{----- (5)}$$

### 3.7.2 Water Absorption Capacity

Absorption resolved at 37 °C, then 60 - 90°C by combination of AACC (1995), Rutkowski and Kozłowska (1981) and Sosulski (1962). 2 g sample spread inside distilled water, then homogenised every 30 s via glass rod. Centrifuging was done at 4000 x g for 20 minutes after mixing for five times. The supernatant cautiously poured, then the pellets of tube were permitted at 45° angle aimed at 10 m to drain and weigh. WAC stated as percentage rise of sample weight.

### 3.7.3 Oil Absorption Capacity

Samples OAC assessed via Eke and Akobundu (1993) technique. 1g of sample ( $M_0$ ) blended with 10 ml vegetable oil via 20 ml separator tube. The liquid mixture blended inside blender for 2 minutes, permitted for 30 min at 28°C to stay and later separated on 4500 rpm. Supernatant emptied, also threw away; then observing oil drips detached and tube weighed ( $M_1$ ). Oil absorption capacity determined according to the following equation:

$$OAC (\%) = \frac{M_0 - M_1}{M_0} \times 100 \quad \text{----- (6)}$$

### 3.7.4 Foaming capacity and stability determination

Foaming of samples determined through Coffman and Garcia (1977) method. 3g sample put inside dry, clean, graduated measuring cylinder. 30 ml distilled water poured to each softly levelled sample, then volumes noted; the cylinder spun and stand for 120 min whereas volume variations documented after 10 min. Foaming capacity and stability values enumerated as follows:

$$FC(\%) = \frac{V_t - V_0}{V_0} \times 100 \quad \text{----- (7)}$$

$$FS(\%) = \frac{FC}{FC_0} \times 100 \quad \text{----- (8)}$$

$V_0$  (ml) = original sample volume,  $V_t$  = total volume after trials

$FC_0$  = foaming capacity at zero minute

### 3.7.5 Gelation Capacity

Samples gelation capacity done via Coffman and Garcia (1977) procedure through minor modification. Suitable suspension 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 20% w/v set inside purified water (5ml). Test tubes comprising suspensions boiled for 1hr inside water bath (Gallenkamp). Tubes

with contents cool at 4°C, then gelation capacity calculated as absorption when sample upturned do not drop.

### 3.8 Pasting properties determination of the Flour Sample

Pasting properties of the samples were determined via a Rapid visco analyser (RVA). The sample moisture content determined to acquire precise weight of sample and water volume necessary for test. Flour sample (2.5g) was mixed with distilled water in a canister fitted into the rapid visco analyzer. The slurry was heated to 50-95°C with holding of 2 minutes. This was followed by cooling to 50°C, holding for another 2 minutes before reading the various values measured on a computer (AOAC, 2006).

### 3.9 Anti-nutritional Factors Determination

#### 3.9.1 Phenolic

The phenol assessed by means of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent assay (McDonald *et al.*, 2001) by minor amendment. Calibration set through mixing solution of gallic acid with Folin – Ciocalteu, then  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  mixture permitted to stay for 30 minutes at 20°C, then colour developed through absorbance and documented at 765 nm via UV-VIS spectrophotometer. One millilitre of each of extract solution in methanol blended with above reagents and absorbance determined phenolic after 30 min. Phenol acquired from equation:  $y = 0.00048x + 0.0055$ , then gallic acid equivalent via formula ;  $T = \frac{cV}{M}$ ; where T = total phenolic , C = concentration of gallic acid recognised after calibrated , V = extract volume and M = sample extract (0.052g).

#### 3.9.2 Flavonoid

Colorimetric method used to prepare flavonoid of flour samples (Nguyen and Eun, 2011). Solution extract of 0.25ml flour sample poured inside purified  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (1.25 ml), 0.075 ml sodium nitrite poured into mixture, then incubated for 5 min with additional 10% aluminium chloride (0.15 ml). Mixture permitted at ambient temperature for 6 min to stay, 1M NaOH (0.5ml) poured, then blended via distilled water (0.275 ml). Mixture quantified using spectrophotometer instantly at 510 nm. Quercetin adopted for calibration. Flavonoid stated as;

$$\text{conc} \left( \frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{ml}} \right) \times \text{vol.} \times \frac{df}{\text{wt of sample}} \text{-----} \quad (9)$$



### 3.9.3 Phytate

Phytate extraction carried out from sample using modified technique of Harland and Oberleas (1977). This standard method depends on alteration of free phytic acid and liberated organic phosphorus via colorimetric measurement. A 2g sample take out 40 ml of 2.4% HCl below constant shaker at 25°C used for 3 h. Then extracts sieved by Whatman paper (No. 1). It was evaluated through spectrophotometric with absorbance wavelength of 640 nm as sketched in AOAC (2005). Phytic evaluated from organic phosphorus through presumptive of a molecule phytic comprising 6 molecules phosphorus and processed by way of equation underneath (AOAC, 2005).

$$\text{Phytate (mg/g)} = \text{conc} \left( \frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{ml}} \right) \times \text{vol.} \times \frac{\text{df}}{\text{wt of sample}} \quad \text{-----} \quad (10)$$

### 3.9.4 Tannin

Tannin determined using quantitative technique as described in food quality control manual (AOAC, 2005). A 0.5g sample measured inside conical flask, then mixed with 10ml (80% ethanol). Mixture shaken and permitted to stay for 1 h, also, 1ml extract transferred into another tube using pipette. Then, 5ml purified water, two drops FeCl<sub>3</sub>, 0.1M HCl included and mixed properly. Also, 4 droplets potassium ferrocyanide included, then absorbance read at 620nm via spectrophotometer.

### 3.9.5 Oxalate

1 g sample measured into 1000 ml conical flask. H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (0.75 M) poured and solution prudently stirred occasionally with stirrer for 1h and mixture sieved via filter paper. Sample filtrate collected, then analysed at (80-90°C) using 0.1M KMnO<sub>4</sub> till colour pink appeared and persevered in 30 seconds (AOAC, 2012).

### 3.9.6 Hydrogen cyanide

Hydrogen cyanide done withalkaline picric colorimetric procedure by Balogopalan *et al.*,(1998) and Onwuka (2005). A 5g of sample dispersed inside 50cm<sup>3</sup>purified water (1:10 w/v),thenpermitted staying overnight onambient temperature. Sample sieved and extract used for analysis. A portion (1 cm<sup>3</sup>) extractmixed with 4 cm<sup>3</sup> of alkaline picrate solution and boiled for 5 min with water bath. Absorbance of developed reddish brownread via UV spectrophotometer at 490nm wave length. Cyanide solution (KCN)standard treated as explained above and read off in spectrophotometer. Before each reading, blankreagentdisplayed zeroon instrument. HCN determinedvia formula as stated in equation 11.

### Calculation

$$\text{HCN (mg/l)} = \frac{(1000)}{W} \times \frac{au}{as} \times \frac{0.5m /l}{10(au/as)} \quad \text{-----} \quad (11)$$

W = sampleweight

as = absorbance standard

au = sampleabsorbance

c = concentration standard (g/cm<sup>3</sup>)

### 3.9.7 Alkaloids

20 ml of 10% acetic acid pouredinside 5g flour and kept for 4 hr. Samplesieved,then filtrathickenedvia evaporation usingwater bath filled to¼ original volume. Drop of conc.NH<sub>4</sub>OHpouredinside extract until precipitation completed. Completedaqueous solution allowed to calm down and precipitate collected. Precipitate wash awaythrough dilute NH<sub>4</sub>OHthensieved, and filter paper left to dry in the oven at 60°C. The residue (alkaloid) dried and weighed. Sample weight (W), Filter paper(W<sub>1</sub>),paper weightwhen it dries to constant weight (W<sub>2</sub>) Harbone (1998).

$$\% \text{ Alkaloids} = \frac{w_2 - w_1}{W} \times 100 \quad \text{-----} \quad (12)$$

### **3.9.8 Saponin**

Protocol used for quantification of saponin improved through Obadoni and Ochuko (2001). A 20 g sample dispensed inside glass beaker contained 200 ml ethanol (20%). The mixture heated at 55°C for 4-5 h inside the water bath with constant shaking. Suspension was sieved and extracted again through filtrate using 200 ml ethanol (20%). Collected extract evaporated through heating at 90°C. The thickened extract inside separating funnel transferred, then diethyl ether (20 ml) poured slowly and stirred. Ether and liquid layer obtained; solvent transfer to another flask while ether discarded. Cleansing process recurrent twice, then 60 ml n-butanol poured to resultant concentrate. Purified extracts via butanol washed twice through sodium chloride solution (10 ml of 5%). Layer with NaCl<sub>2</sub> cast off and final extract heat slowly till vanishing occurred. Later, filtrate dehydrated inside oven to constant weight, then percentage saponin evaluated.

### **3.10 Microbiological Analyses**

#### **3.10.1 Samples Fermentation**

50 ml sterile water was added to 5g of breadfruit chips and pigeon pea; samples were properly mixed and fermented for 24, 48, 72, 96, 120 h at 28±2°C and 37°C respectively.

#### **3.10.2 Microorganisms Culturing**

Samples were exposed to microbial analyses in order to observe vibrant variations in inhabitants of organisms responsible for fermentation. Harrigan and McCance (1976) procedure engaged. 1g sample aseptically measured with weighing scale and cautiously put into 9 ml saline / peptone water. 1 ml suitable dilutions ( $10^1$ ,  $10^2$ ,  $10^3$ ) combined with molten agar, and media triplicates on plate using pouring method. Subculturing done with Nutrient Agar; MRS agar used to detect lactic acid bacteria, then hatched at 35 °C for 48 h using anaerobic containers while total viable count was determined next to incubation. Isolates classification based on biochemical and morphological tests as described by Holt (1994) and Shen *et al.* (1999). Lactic acid bacteria strains were characterized using techniques suggested by some authors (Charteris *et al.*, 2001; Sharpe, 1979, Harrigan and McCance, 1976).

### 3.10.3 Lactic Acid Bacteria Sub-culture

Nutrient agar was used in the experiment and prepared according to producer's description. Weighed nutrient agar poured inside the flask filled with measured saline / peptone water and allowed to bubble to dissolve properly before usage. Conical flask shielded by means of cotton wool, enclosed by aluminium foil and media sterilised for 15 min at 121°C during autoclaving. Medium allowed cooling before pouring 15.0ml into sterile petri dish for solidification. Sub-culturing was done through streaking on the plates and plates hatched in reversed position at 37°C for 24 h. Uncontaminated bacterial isolates acquired through sub-culturing and pure colonies scrutinised cellular morphology, gram staining, catalase test, oxidase test, sugars (glucose, fructose, sucrose, lactose, maltose, melibiose, raffinose and ribose). Cultures preserved in nutrient glycerol for storage on 4°C (Gerba and Pepper, 2004).

### 3.10.4 Morphological and Biochemical Characterisation of Bacteria

Cultural characteristics (colour, shape and size) on the growing medium and cellular morphology were done by means of microscopy, then gram staining as described by Feng *et al.*, 2011. Cellular morphology as well detected beneath JCM-5000 electron microscope (Nikon, Japan) below  $\times 5,400$ . Biochemical and physiological analysis accomplished using the methods described by Holt (1994) and Shen *et al.* (1999).

### 3.10.5 Gram's Staining Method

A little part of each grown bacterial cluster picked with sterile inoculating loop. This transferred into sterile water on clean slide, smeared properly and heat secured. Slide was placed on rack over a sink and smear was flooded for 1 min by means of crystal violet. Temporarily wash away via tap water, then later waterlogged with Gram's iodine (mordant) for 1 min before excess mordant washed off beneath a running tap water. The stain decolorized through 95% alcohol aimed at about

20 secs and washed by means of tap water. Finally, smear counter stained by safranin for 20 secs, and the excess dye was washed off through tap water, then permitted to dry. Immersion oil poured

on the smear, then examined below oil immersion lens at x100 using a light Microscope. Gram-positive bacteria seemed purple while negative was pinkish in colour (Roberts and Greenwood, 2003).

### **3.10.6 Catalase**

Catalase test notices occurrence or non-occurrence enzyme of individually isolate. Enzyme speed up disruption of  $H_2O_2$  toward discharge oxygen and water. 3 droplets newly prepared hydrogen peroxide included in loop-full 18-24 h culture bacterial isolate on clean, grease-free slide. Sterilised purified liquid helped in place of regulator. Gas effervescence specifies catalase-positive reaction whereas absence or late foams formation shows negative reaction (Jideani and Jideani, 2006).

### **3.10.7 Oxidase**

Oxidase test conducted by means of plate method. Culture of test bacterium grown on a nutrient agar and was flooded with a freshly prepared 1% solution of tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine hydrochloride and purple colour observed within 10 min. Colony that rapidly developed a purple colour was recorded as oxidase positive while the one without blue-purple colour referred to as oxidase negative (Jideani and Jideani, 2006).

### **3.10.8 Sugar Fermentation**

Sugar tests intended to detect change in pH when fermentation occurs in a given carbohydrate. Fermentation of carbohydrates produces acids lower pH medium, then change phenol red to yellow from red. Whenever gas is formed as derivative of carbohydrate, Durham tube in medium produce effervescence collection (Etok *et al.*, 2005). Test conducted by inoculating peptone medium (10ml) with 0.1ml of 24 h old grown test bacterial isolate. Incubation carried out for 24 h at 37°C thus, fermented sugar turned the medium to yellow colour showing positive reaction while medium holding unfermented sugar retained the original (red) colour and was noted as negative reaction. Acid production in some cases was accomplished by  $CO_2$  evolution made visible in the closed part of Durham's tube as vacuum or space owing to the movement of the medium in the inverted Durham's tube.

### **3.11 Bacteria Isolates Identification using 16SrRNA Gene Sequencing**

#### **3.11.1 DNA Extraction**

Bacterial isolates developed overnight transferred to eppendorf tube, then spun at 14,000rpm for 2 min. Supernatant thrown away, then DNA pulled out by means of ZYMO kit (ZYMO Research; Inqaba Biotech, South Africa). DNA enumerated through Nano Drop Spectrophotometer (Thermo.2000, USA), then stored at -20°C pending use. DNA later redrooped inside sterile distilled water (100µl). The concentrations of samples measured and DNA concentration was established. DNA purity checked using agarose gel (1.0 %).

#### **3.11.2 DNA Electrophoresis**

Gel electrophoresis can be used to define the superiority and reliability of DNA by means of fractionation on agarose gel (1.0%). Gel produced through softening, then boiling 1.0g agarose in buffer solutions (100ml 0.5 X TBE). Produced gel permitted to cool at 45°C, 10µl ethidium bromide (5mg/ml) mixed together, then poured inside the electrophoresis chamber inserted with combs. 3µl DNA, 5µl purified water and 2µl (6X) dye combined with solidified gel then loaded. Electrophoresis done for 2 h at 80V and DNA integrity imagined then snapped through Ultra Violet light (Thottapilly *et al.*, 1999).

#### **3.11.3 16S PCR Amplification of Lactic Acid Bacteria**

16S universal primer was used for PCR amplification and completed with MJ investigation thermal cycler (PTC-200 model). 5'AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG3' (Forward primer) and 5'ACGGCTACCTTGTTACGACTT3' (Reverse primer). PCR mix involved 1µl from buffer (10X), 0.4µl from MgCl<sub>2</sub> (50mM), 0.5µl of dNTPs (2.5mM), 0.5µl of 5mM buffer for forward primer, and reverse primer was 0.5µl of 5mM buffer. Then 0.05µl of Taq DNA polymerase and purified water (5.05µl). Polymerase chain reaction delineation adopted opening denaturation at 94°C (3 min), then 94°C of 30 cycles at 60 secs, 56°C at 60 secs, 72°C at 120 secs, final extension of 72°C at 5 min, then 10°C hold (Williams *et al.*, 1990).

#### **3.11.4 PCR Purification**

Amplicon further cleansed using 2M Sodium Acetate wash technique before sequencing. 1 µl 2M Na Acetate added to 10 µl of PCR product, pH 5.2, then 20 µl ethanol. The mixture reserved at -20°C (1 h) and rotated at 10,000 rpm (10 min), later wash away with 70% ethanol then dried. The mixture re-suspended in sterile water (5 µl), then set aside for sequencing at 4°C.

#### **3.11.5 PCR Sequencing**

Forward I6S was used as primer for the reaction. PCR mix comprises of big dye terminator mix (0.5 µl), 5X buffer (1 µl), 16S primer (1 µl), distilled water (6.5 µl) with 1 µl PCR product. Polymerase chain reaction sequencing is rapid; preliminary thermal rise to 96°C (1 min.), then 25 cycles, thermal slope to 96°C (10 secs), then incline to 50°C (5 secs) and rise to 60°C (4 min.). Later, upgrade to 4°C and hold (Williams *et al.*, 1990).

#### **3.11.6 Sample Preparation Through Gene Sequencer**

Sample preparation through cocktail mix contained 9 µl Hi Di Formamide blend by means of 1 µl refined sequence equal to 10 µl. Samples loaded in Applied Biosystem machine (ABI 3130xl) and sequence in form of Adenine, Cytosine, Thymine, and Guanine gene obtained.

#### **3.11.7 Sequencing and Statistical Analysis**

Sequences obtained associated with 16S rRNA sample in Genbank and homology of sequences analyzed through National Centre for Biotechnology Information program BLAST server, then construction of phylogenetic tree was done using CLC software (NCBI).

Molecular characterization of the organisms



DNA extraction



Electrophoresis



PCR (16SrRNA)



Sequencing



Blasting



Molecular identification of the organisms



Alignments



Phylogenetic

**Fig. 3.5: Identification of Microorganism using PCR Assay**



### 3.12 Sensory Evaluation

#### 3.12.1 Sensory Properties of Pigeon-Pea-Enriched Breadfruit breakfast meal and Pizzelle Cookie

Sensory assessment done on fermented breadfruit-pigeon-pea breakfast meal and cookie. Semi-trained panelists that are conversant with the products and without any previous information on the coded test products were used. Samples were coded and offered to 50-members semi trained panelists who assessed appearance, aroma, taste, the total suitability of breakfast meal while crispiness was evaluated for cookie in addition to the stated quality parameters in meal. Quality characteristics were measured via Hedonic scale (Larmond, 1977).

Like extremely 9

Like very much 8

Like moderately 7

Like slightly 6

Neither like nor dislike 5

Dislike slightly 4

Dislike moderately 3

Dislike very much 2

Dislike extremely 1

Data gotten exposed toward Analysis of Variance

### **3.13 Statistical Analysis**

Data were recorded in triplicate, then the means were calculated. Sensory testing was subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and means were separated by Duncan New Multiple Range test.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.1 Chemical Compositions for Fermented Breadfruit Samples at Different Temperatures and Time

Chemical composition of fermented breadfruit were as shown in table Table 4.1. Moisture content varied between 9.27– 8.13; protein 4.17 – 3.63, fat 1.00 – 0.77, ash 2.90 – 2.73, crude fibre 3.47 – 3.03, carbohydrate 79.20 – 81.67% at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively. With reverence to moisture content, values found presently are similar to the finding by Appiah (2011) and Adepeju *et al.*, (2015) but marginally lesser to those acquired by Ojokoh *et al.*, (2013). Moisture content of samples fell within tolerable boundary of less than 10%. The value shown to be for flour suitability (Onimawo and Akubor, 2012). This is supplied by the recommendation of CIAT (2001) and CODEX Alimentarius Commission (1995). Low moisture contents attained from breadfruit flour in this study would improve storage strength through reducing the mouldiness and additional unwanted biological reactions (Onimawo and Akubor, 2012).

Protein content of the unfermented sample agreed with the work done by Amusa *et al.*, (2002) while fermented breadfruit samples were slightly lower than control, the different treatments could be responsible for the decrease and might be result of leaching the nutrients into water through the fermentation process. The values achieved were found to be in agreement by Okaka (2005) who reported decrease in nutrients of root and tuber samples through processing. Obasi and Wogu (2008) stated that protein reduction in maize might be as a result of soluble protein loss in soaking. As proteins play functional roles in food formulations, breadfruit flour protein may be useful for reducing protein-energy malnutrition and applicable in food formulation systems of breakfast meal and other complementary foods. Similar values were obtained for fact with that of Adepeju *etal.* (2011). Presently, decline in fat contents of breadfruit is possibly due to existence of lipolytic enzymes that decomposed lipids to glycerol and fatty acids (Oyarekua, 2011). Ajani *et al.*, (2012) testified low crude fat of breadfruit. Fat content shows an important part in storage of food as higher fat remain objectionable for baked products. Fat can encourage rancidity in foods, cause unfriendly and odorous growth (Ihekoronye and Ngoddy, 1985).

Ash contents in unfermented and fermented breadfruit achieved were higher than (2.37- 2.38%) told by Appiah (2011a), Ijarotimi and Aroge (2005) respectively. The ash content of breadfruit slightly decreased as fermentation progressed as detailed by Ejigui *et al.*(2005) on yellow fermented maize. The previous study through Obizoba and Atii (1991) showed that soaking diminished ash content in sorghum. Availability of ash at a vicinity of 3.00% suggests that breadfruit flour could be good source of minerals.

Breadfruit fibre obtained from the present study were (3.47 – 3.27, 3.47 – 3.03%). The reduction in crude fibre maybe due to enzymatic breakdown of fibre through fermentation via bacteria. Ofuya and Nwajiuba (1990) findings established over 35% cellulose loss, during solid-state fermentation of cassava peel. Appiah *et al.*, (2011a) testified reduction in fibre content (3.12 – 3.00%) for fermented breadfruit. Based on Ihekoronye and Ngoddy, (1985), fibre is recognised to support digestive system of human. Shankar and Lanza(1991) also reported the beneficial effects of fibre in averting cancer. Breadfruit have reasonably higher fibre than wheat. This make breadfruit entice good tolerability by a lot of people as well as health Organization.

Carbohydrate contents of fermented and unfermented breadfruit in this study were (79.20 – 80.93, 79.20 – 81.67%). The results showed increased in carbohydrate contents at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Adepeju *et al.*, (2011) obtained (79.46%) for unfermented whole breadfruit while Ijarotimi and Aroge (2005) obtained (81.27%) from unfermented breadfruit which was a bit higher. The results obtained from fermented breadfruit in this study seems to be different from Appiah (2011a) results that reported reduction in carbohydrate contents for fermented breadfruit (79.24% - 76.71%). The methods used as well as sample variety, may be responsible for these results. Excessive carbohydrate suggests that breadfruit could be good energy basis as essential food (Roberts-Nkrumah, 2005). Breadfruit flour might find request as thickener, suitable for formulations of diabetics and hypertensive patients needing small sugar diet.

**Table 4.1: Chemical Composition of Fermented Breadfruit at Diverse Temperature and Time**

<b>Fermentation Period (Hr)</b>	<b>Temp. (°C)</b>	<b>Moisture Content (%)</b>	<b>Protein (%)</b>	<b>Crude Fat (%)</b>	<b>Crude Fibre (%)</b>	<b>Ash (%)</b>	<b>Carbohydrate % (By difference)</b>
0	0	9.27±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	4.17±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	1.00±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	3.47±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	2.90±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	79.20±0.06 <sup>c</sup>
24	28±2	8.53±0.09 <sup>ab</sup>	4.10±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	0.93±0.03 <sup>abc</sup>	3.33±0.09 <sup>abc</sup>	2.97±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	80.13±0.12 <sup>d</sup>
	37±1	8.20±0.06 <sup>cd</sup>	3.83±0.03 <sup>cde</sup>	0.97±0.09 <sup>ab</sup>	3.27±0.03 <sup>bc</sup>	2.83±0.09 <sup>abc</sup>	80.90±0.15 <sup>bc</sup>
48	28±2	8.57±0.03 <sup>ab</sup>	3.93±0.09 <sup>abc</sup>	0.97±0.01 <sup>ab</sup>	3.40±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	2.97±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	80.17±0.12 <sup>d</sup>
	37±1	8.27±0.15 <sup>bc</sup>	3.80±0.06 <sup>def</sup>	0.97±0.03 <sup>ab</sup>	3.23±0.09 <sup>cd</sup>	2.89±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	80.83±0.22 <sup>bc</sup>
72	28±2	8.43±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	4.00±0.06 <sup>abc</sup>	0.90±0.02 <sup>abc</sup>	3.30±0.06 <sup>bc</sup>	2.77±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	80.60±0.12 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	8.30±0.06 <sup>bc</sup>	3.70±0.06 <sup>ef</sup>	0.90±0.06 <sup>abc</sup>	3.13±0.09 <sup>de</sup>	2.83±0.03 <sup>abc</sup>	81.13±0.09 <sup>b</sup>
96	28±2	8.33±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	3.83±0.03 <sup>cde</sup>	0.87±0.03 <sup>abc</sup>	3.40±0.06 <sup>ab</sup>	2.87±0.09 <sup>abc</sup>	80.70±0.10 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	8.13±0.09 <sup>d</sup>	3.73±0.09 <sup>ef</sup>	0.77±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	3.10±0.06 <sup>de</sup>	2.73±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	81.53±0.10 <sup>ab</sup>
120	28±2	8.43±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	3.77±0.03 <sup>def</sup>	0.80±0.06 <sup>bc</sup>	3.27±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	2.80±0.06 <sup>abc</sup>	80.93±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>
	37±1	8.17±0.09 <sup>d</sup>	3.63±0.09 <sup>f</sup>	0.77±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	3.03±0.03 <sup>e</sup>	2.73±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	81.67±0.09 <sup>a</sup>

Means with different subscripts within each row were different significantly at 5% level

## 4.2 Chemical Composition of Fermented Pigeon-pea Flour at Diverse Temperature and Time

The results of the chemical analysis for fermented pigeon-pea shown in Table 4.2. Moisture of flour ranged between 8.83 – 9.23%, 8.83 – 8.72% for 28±2°C and 37±1°C respectively. Moisture increased marginally with increased in fermentation periods at 28±2°C while decreased at 37±1°C. The results similar to previous findings (Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2013; Appiah *et al.* 2011a). Observed decrease in moisture content is an improvement because low moisture enhances necessary quality of flour. Also, low moisture content in foods do increase in product shelf life and delay microbial development.

Based on composition of pigeon-pea, the following protein values obtained: 24.77 – 22.27%, 24.77 – 4.53% at 28±2°C and 37±1 °C respectively. Several authors have reported decrease in protein through fermentation of legumes. Granito *et al.*, (2002) established reduction of *P. vulgaris* flours and revealed link on volume of water used all through fermentation and protein decrease. Similar observations reported through Fasoyiro *et al.*, (2012); Akande *et al.*, (2010). Slight reduction of protein obtained in this work maybe as a result of heat treatment and possibly protein hydrolysis by micro-organisms with the announcement of amino acids desirable for fresh mixture (Oyarekua, 2011). Protein content of pigeon pea makes it a worthy complement to breadfruit as a quality plant food. Mensah and Tomkins (2003) indicated that when legume proteins complement other food crop, an excellent protein can be achieved.

Fat content of the flour increased as fermentation proceeded because of temperature variations (Table 4.2). Fat values ranged from 1.43 – 2.77% and 1.43 – 5.37% at 28±2°C and 37±1°C respectively. The values obtained for unfermented peas were comparable to the findings of Adepeju *et al.*, (2015) while higher values were attained for fermented samples as the fermentation period increased. Fats remain important in diets because of palatability, increase in satiety and maintaining aromas (Aiyesanmi and Oguntokun, 1996). Similarly, it is essential in biological, organisational operative and transport of vital fat-soluble vitamins in the body system.

Ash contents of pigeon-pea flour studied varied from 3.67 to 3.87% and 3.67 to 1.26% for the treatments. The value obtained for sample at 28±2°C were similar with result recorded by Fasoyiro *et al.*, (2013), Mbaeyi-Nwaoha and Obetta (2016) during pigeon-pea processing (1.02-4.01%)

with different methods and evaluation of fermented pigeon-pea (3.10 – 3.56%) respectively. Ash reveals mineral volume present in food. Lowest ash in 37±1 °C samples show leaching of minerals into soaking water which leads to loss of minerals in flour.

Fibre contents of samples were between 1.40 – 1.77%, 1.40 – 1.50% at 28±2°C and 37±1°C respectively. Arawande and Borokini (2010) reported crude fibre between 0.97 to 1.10% for Jack beans. The values obtained were marginally lower than those of Adebawale and Maliki (2011) during pigeon-pea fermentation and maybe due to varietal changes together with the processing methods. Aziah *et al.* (2012) also noted 2.85% and 3.70% crude fibre in chickpea and mungbean flours. Legumes are vital sources of fibre next to cereals (Perez-Hidalgo *et al.*, 1997) and has averse possible for diabetes, cardiac diseases, colon cancer, overweightness and additional diseases (McPherson, 1992). Codex Alimentarius Commission (2000) stressed the importance of fibre in food and advised that fibre for weaning foods should not exceed 5%. Low contents obtained in this study suggest its suitability in infant formulations.

Carbohydrate contents of fermented pigeon-pea flours in this study ranged from 59.90 – 61.70%, 59.90 – 82.54% at 28±2°C and 37±1°C respectively. Oyarekua (2011) and Ghadge *et al.*, (2008) achieved related values in fermented pigeon-pea production and instant whole pigeon-pea. The moderate carbohydrate contents of flour samples suggest its usefulness in solving problem related to energy malnourishment.

**Table 4.2: Chemical Composition of Fermented pigeon-pea flour at Diverse Temperature and Time**

<b>Fermentation Period (Hr)</b>	<b>Temp. (°C)</b>	<b>Moisture Content (%)</b>	<b>Protein (%)</b>	<b>Crude Fat (%)</b>	<b>Crude Fibre (%)</b>	<b>Ash (%)</b>	<b>Carbohydrate % (By difference)</b>
0	0	8.83±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	24.77±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	1.43±0.09 <sup>h</sup>	1.40±0.06 <sup>cd</sup>	3.67±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	59.90±0.20 <sup>gh</sup>
24	28±2	8.63±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	23.83±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	1.73±0.03 <sup>g</sup>	1.67±0.09 <sup>ab</sup>	4.03±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	60.10±0.12 <sup>gh</sup>
	37±1	7.90±0.75 <sup>d</sup>	15.37±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	5.37±0.15 <sup>a</sup>	1.33±0.09 <sup>dc</sup>	1.58±0.04 <sup>f</sup>	68.45±0.94 <sup>d</sup>
48	28±2	9.23±0.09 <sup>a</sup>	24.47±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	2.50±0.06 <sup>e</sup>	1.47±0.03 <sup>bcd</sup>	3.40±0.06 <sup>d</sup>	58.93±0.12 <sup>h</sup>
	37±1	8.58±0.07 <sup>bc</sup>	12.47±0.12 <sup>f</sup>	3.40±0.12 <sup>c</sup>	1.13±0.09 <sup>ef</sup>	2.32±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	72.10±0.23 <sup>c</sup>
72	28±2	9.07±0.09 <sup>ab</sup>	23.80±0.06 <sup>b</sup>	2.77±0.03 <sup>d</sup>	1.53±0.07 <sup>cd</sup>	3.80±0.06 <sup>bc</sup>	59.03±0.17 <sup>h</sup>
	37±1	8.70±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	11.77±0.09 <sup>f</sup>	4.63±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	1.50±0.06 <sup>bcd</sup>	1.26±0.03 <sup>h</sup>	72.14±0.56 <sup>c</sup>
96	28±2	8.67±0.03 <sup>bc</sup>	23.47±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	1.63±0.09 <sup>gh</sup>	1.77±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	3.87±0.03 <sup>b</sup>	60.33±0.09 <sup>f</sup>
	37±1	8.72±0.03 <sup>bc</sup>	8.50±0.12 <sup>g</sup>	2.90±0.06 <sup>d</sup>	1.17±0.03 <sup>ef</sup>	1.38±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	77.73±0.42 <sup>b</sup>
120	28±2	8.47±0.09 <sup>bc</sup>	22.27±0.09 <sup>d</sup>	2.13±0.09 <sup>f</sup>	1.77±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	3.67±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	61.70±0.12 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	8.28±0.14 <sup>bc</sup>	4.53±0.12 <sup>h</sup>	2.37±0.09 <sup>ef</sup>	0.97±0.03 <sup>f</sup>	1.31±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	82.54±0.31 <sup>a</sup>

Means with dissimilar subscripts within columns were different significantly at 5% level



### 4.3 Chemical Composition of Fermented Breadfruit Enriched with Pigeon-Pea at 28±2°C for 24h

The results for composite flour proximate of fermented breadfruit enriched with pigeon-pea shown (Table 4.3). 100% fermented breadfruit had highest moisture of 8.53% and moisture for enriched breadfruit flour were between 7.47 to 7.08%. Ijarotimi and Aroge, 2005 observed reduction in moisture (5.76 – 4.22%) of soy- breadfruit blends as the substitution of soybean rises. Lower moisture content obtained in samples can be ascribed to drying of raw materials to safe moisture level which occurred during sample preparation. Hence, this will reduce the activity of micro-organisms in the products and provide high stability. Drying and other forms of heat treatment reduce moisture content of foods to safe level and thus increasing their shelf life (Falade and Ogunmelu, 2014). Significant increase observed in protein as substitution level through fermented pigeon-pea increased. Protein increased from 4.10 – 10.30% in the composite flour blends. Similar trends (4.20 – 8.05%) observed via Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012) and Akinjayeju (2004) that reported rise in protein content of breadfruit enriched with pigeon-pea. Otunola *et al.*, 2006; Plahar and Hoyle (1991) also detected increase in protein of flour with better legume substitution through supplementation of pigeon-pea, groundnut and cowpea with maize, millet and sorghum in food preparations. Protein of blends improved due to legume inclusion. Higher amount of protein in breadfruit-pigeon-pea blends can be due to inclusion of pigeon-pea flour noted as good protein basis in comparable with legumes like cowpea and groundnut (Oshodi *et al.*, 1985; Fasoyiro *et al.*, 2010). High protein in enriched flours would improve nutritional status for developing country (Nigeria) where individuals barely manage to pay for proteinous diets due to high prices (Falola *et al.*, 2011).

Crude fat of enriched fermented blends ranged from 0.93 – 1.58%. Fat contents were not significantly increased as pigeon-pea substitution increased. Lowest content was observed in 100% fermented breadfruit (0.93%), then 50% pigeon sample had highest value (1.58%). Okafor *et al.* (2018) observed increase in fat content (7.60 – 10.15 mg/100g) during fermentation of maize co-fermented with pigeon-pea flour. Similar work supported through Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012) and Appiah *et al.* (2011) during breadfruit and pigeon-pea processing. The improvement in fat maybe due to lipolytic enzymes action during fermentation which make fatty acids available (Modu *et al.*, 2013). Fat increase in fortified maize-pap and other products were reported by Mbata *et al.* (2009). Fat values though increased with levels of supplementation but

low compare to others. This suggests that the blends will be stable and rancidity may not have adverse effect easily.

Values obtained for ash content remained significantly different (2.97-4.80 %), increased in ash content observed can be as a result of increase inclusion level of pigeon-pea flour. The value increased from 2.97% in the control to 4.80 %, the noticeable increase in ash content with increase in pigeon-pea substitution was a proof that the samples were high in mineral. Appiah *et al.* (2016) and Oyarekua (2011) reported that breadfruit and pigeon-pea are rich in minerals. Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012) discovered ash increase as pigeon-pea level increased (1.48 – 1.92%). The increase in crude ash with pigeon-pea substitution is related to discoveries by Atobatele and Afolabi (2016) during cookie evaluation from soya bean and maize blends. The increase in ash content of enriched flour exhibited that blends might be micronutrients-dense.

Fibre content of enriched fermented breadfruit varied between 3.33 and 1.19%. Fibre content reduces with increase in pigeon-pea inclusions. The present result is in correlation with fibre content (1.65 – 1.46%) reported for African breadfruit-pigeon pea fortified flour (Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.*, 2012), then Omoniyi *et al.*, (2016) on potato also soybean blends (4.62-3.76%). Fibre increases stool substance in body by acting as vehicle for faecal and donates to health of gastrointestinal as well as metabolic in man (Atobatele and Afolabi, 2016).

Carbohydrate content of fermented breadfruit flour at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  for 24h (80.13%) was higher than enriched samples which ranged from 79.61% to 75.05%. The results showed significant reduction of carbohydrate substitution as the substitution progressed. Similar reduction in carbohydrate were observed by Abiodun *et al.* (2016) after enrichment of Gari with melon. Similar trends were noticed during enrichment of maize with soybean and enrichment of breadfruit with pigeon-pea by Balogun *et al.* (2016) and Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012). This maybe due to increase in protein and other food components of the enriched samples. Hence, the flour blends may be good in reducing energy-protein malnutrition.

**Table 4.3: Chemical Composition of Fermented Breadfruit Enriched with Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h**

Sample	Moisture Content %	Protein %	Crude Fat %	Ash %	Crude Fibre %	Carbohydrate % (By difference)
<b>240</b>	8.53±	4.10±	0.93±	2.97±	3.33±	80.13±
	0.15 <sup>a</sup>	0.10 <sup>f</sup>	0.04 <sup>d</sup>	0.07 <sup>f</sup>	0.15 <sup>a</sup>	0.20 <sup>a</sup>
<b>241</b>	7.47±	6.47±	1.00±	3.48±	1.97±	79.61±
	0.35 <sup>b</sup>	0.07 <sup>e</sup>	0.02 <sup>d</sup>	0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.25 <sup>b</sup>
<b>242</b>	7.29±	7.71±	1.13±	3.70±	1.77±	78.40±
	0.20 <sup>b</sup>	0.20 <sup>d</sup>	0.05 <sup>cd</sup>	0.03 <sup>d</sup>	0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.37 <sup>c</sup>
<b>243</b>	7.19±	9.14±	1.29±	3.76±	1.43±	77.19±
	0.30 <sup>c</sup>	0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.27 <sup>d</sup>
<b>244</b>	7.12±	9.76±	1.44±	3.98±	1.38±	76.32±
	0.31 <sup>c</sup>	0.07 <sup>b</sup>	0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.28 <sup>c</sup>
<b>245</b>	7.08±	10.30±	1.58±	4.80±	1.19±	75.05±
	0.14 <sup>c</sup>	0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.14 <sup>f</sup>

Means with different subscripts within row is different significantly at 5% level

**Legend:**

240 – 100% fermented breadfruit at 28±2°C (24h)

241 - 90%: 10% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea flour at 28±2°C (24h)

242 - 80%: 20% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea flour at 28±2°C (24h)

243 - 70%: 30% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea flour at 28±2°C (24h)

244 - 60%: 40% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea flour at 28±2°C (24h)

245 - 50%: 50% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea flour at 28±2°C (24h)

#### 4.4 Chemical Composition of Fermented Breadfruit Enriched with Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h

The sample moisture varied from 8.20% to 7.04% as indicated in Table 4.4. Enriched flour moisture had significance differences. Results show that addition of pigeon pea flour caused moisture reduction of blends. Present study is similar to work carried out by Rita *et al.* (2010) and Edema *et al.* (2005) in wheat-soy composite cake. Hence, low moisture detected remains good pointer for potential longer shelf-life. Smith (1972) reported that total moisture of sample should not surpass 14%. However, the moisture content falls within the acceptable moisture level that could extend product shelf-life due to little water activity. Enriched breadfruit protein at 37±1°C for 24h varied from 3.83 – 7.22%. There are improvements in protein values with increased pigeon pea flour substitution. Increase in protein is comparable to findings through Olaoye *et al.* (2006) and Rita *et al.* (2010). Protein increase as a result of pigeon-pea substitution is expected due to pigeon-pea richness in protein. Besides, this finding confirms earlier reports on the beneficial effect of vegetable protein (Agbede and Aletor, 2003). The breadfruit – pigeon pea flour may alleviate disease such as kwashiorkor as a result of high carbohydrate intake.

Fat increase marginally as pigeon pea substitution increased (0.97- 1.81%). Ijarotimi and Aroge (2005) noticed similar trend (6.77 – 16.30%) during substitution of breadfruit with soybean flour. Ajani *et al.* (2016) also observed increased in fat contents (1.20 – 1.63%) during enrichment of gari with soybean and groundnut. Otunola *et al.* (2007) established fat increase in fortified maize-ogi with okra seed and bambara groundnut. The low fat in these samples are indication that the enriched blends will be suitable in terms of stability.

The finding of increase in ash content (2.83 – 4.03%) in the enriched fermented breadfruit flour in this study comparable to Ajanaku *et al.* (2013) reported for fortified samples. Ash determined mineral of a particular food; higher ash leads to better mineral of food (Ukegbu and Anyika, 2012). Ash endorsed nutritional allotment in food remains intact.

Fibre enriched breadfruit ranged between 3.27 – 2.44%. Highest value recorded for 100% fermented breadfruit which is control. In this work, crude fibre found reduced as level of substitution increased. The reduction may be as the fermented breadfruit flour reduced; then replacing by pigeon-pea flour with lower fibre to breadfruit, percentage nutrients in that flour might have become lower. Uzopeters *et al.* (2008) informed decrease in kokoro fibre flour

replaced with defatted groundnuts and soybean. Fibre consists of indigestible carbohydrate in plant cells.

Carbohydrate content of enriched fermented breadfruit varied from 80.90% to 77.18% and there was a decrease in values with pigeon-pea inclusion. Jimoh and Olatidoye (2009) reported a decrease in carbohydrate through the addition of soybean and Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012) testified to the decline of carbohydrate from 74.82% to 68.46% in sorghum enhanced through walnut (45%) and ginger (5%). Recommended Dietary Allowance (RDA) for carbohydrate foods is  $\geq 60$  mg/100g (FAO/WHO, 1998).

**Table 4.4: Chemical Composition of Fermented Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Composite at 37±1°C for 24h**

Sample	Moisture Content %	Protein %	Crude Fat %	Ash %	Crude Fibre %	Carbohydrate % (By difference)
370	8.20± 0.10 <sup>a</sup>	3.83± 0.06 <sup>f</sup>	0.97± 0.14 <sup>d</sup>	2.83± 0.16 <sup>e</sup>	3.27± 0.07 <sup>a</sup>	80.90± 0.26 <sup>a</sup>
371	8.14± 0.18 <sup>a</sup>	4.42± 0.19 <sup>e</sup>	1.11± 0.02 <sup>d</sup>	3.63± 0.03 <sup>d</sup>	2.44± 0.02 <sup>d</sup>	80.26± 0.46 <sup>b</sup>
372	8.01± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	4.93± 0.06 <sup>d</sup>	1.43± 0.01 <sup>c</sup>	3.74± 0.01 <sup>c</sup>	2.49± 0.01 <sup>d</sup>	79.40± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>
373	7.32± 0.12 <sup>d</sup>	5.57± 0.17 <sup>c</sup>	1.49± 0.04 <sup>c</sup>	3.86± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	2.56± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	79.20± 0.29 <sup>d</sup>
374	7.23± 0.20 <sup>d</sup>	6.47± 0.24 <sup>b</sup>	1.62± 0.06 <sup>b</sup>	3.92± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>	2.65± 0.02 <sup>b</sup>	78.11± 0.05 <sup>e</sup>
375	7.04± 0.07 <sup>e</sup>	7.22± 0.08 <sup>a</sup>	1.81± 0.02 <sup>a</sup>	4.03± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	2.72± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>	77.18± 0.16 <sup>f</sup>

Means with different subscripts within row is different significantly at 5% level

**Key:**

370 – 100% fermented breadfruit at 37±1°C (24h)

371 - 90%: 10% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea at 37±1 °C (24h)

372 - 80%: 20% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C (24h)

373 - 70%: 30% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C (24h)

374 - 60%: 40% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C (24h)

375 - 50%: 50% fermented breadfruit flour: Pigeon-pea at 37±1 °C (24 h)

#### 4.5 pH of Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea

Table 4.5 shows pH values for fermented breadfruit flour at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . The pH values obtained ranged from 6.26 - 4.64 (wet samples), 6.25 - 4.79 (dry samples) and 6.26 - 4.44 (wet samples), 6.25 - 4.52 (dry samples) for 0-120 h of fermentation period respectively. The study observed decreased in pH values of wet breadfruit samples with increase in fermentation period while slight rise observed in dry samples but lower than control. Ojokoh *et al.*, (2013) stated related reduction in pH through fermentation in breadfruit and cowpea; this could be attributed to the production of lactic acid by *Lactobacillus plantarum*. Adepeju *et al.* (2014) also stated similar trend through the production of complementary diets from breadfruit. pH values show low acidity in samples and important for some functional properties.

Table 4.6 shows fermented pigeon-pea pH values at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  respectively. The values ranged from 6.90 to 5.45 (wet samples), 6.90 to 4.68 (dry samples) and 6.90 to 3.81 (wet samples), 6.90 to 4.97 (dry samples). Values of pigeon-pea pH decline as fermentation period proceeded, even though the values for dry pigeon-pea flours were marginally higher than wet ones. Afoakwa *et al.*, (2010) observed pH reduction all through fermentation period of pigeon-pea which is possibly caused by the activities of lactic acid bacteria. Oyarekua (2011) noticed decline in pH throughout the fermentation of pigeon-pea flour while Amoa-Awua and Jakobsen (1995) reported similar pH reduction in the fermentation of cassava.

**Table 4.5: pH of Fermented Breadfruit at Different Temperatures and Time**

Temp.	Duration (Hour)	Wet (Sample)	Dry (Sample)
<b>28±2°C</b>			
	0	6.26 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>	6.25 ± 0.01 <sup>a</sup>
	24	5.24 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>	5.46 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>
	48	4.86 ± 0.01 <sup>d</sup>	5.46 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>
	72	4.71 ± 0.02 <sup>e</sup>	5.05 ± 0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	96	4.70 ± 0.02 <sup>e</sup>	4.89 ± 0.02 <sup>g</sup>
	120	4.64 ± 0.02 <sup>f</sup>	4.79 ± 0.01 <sup>h</sup>
<b>37±1°C</b>			
	24	5.52 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>	5.34±0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	48	4.87 ± 0.01 <sup>d</sup>	5.13±0.01 <sup>d</sup>
	72	4.72 ± 0.01 <sup>e</sup>	4.91±0.07 <sup>f</sup>
	96	4.46 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>	4.85±0.03 <sup>g</sup>
	120	4.44 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>	4.52±0.01 <sup>h</sup>

Means with similar subscript within row is similar significantly at 5% level



**Table 4.6: pH for Fermented Pigeon-peaat Different Temperatures and Time**

<b>Temp.</b>	<b>Duration (Hour)</b>	<b>Wet (Sample)</b>	<b>Dry (Sample)</b>
<b>28±2°C</b>			
	0	6.90 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	6.90 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>
	24	6.50±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	6.07 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>
	48	6.05± 0.05 <sup>c</sup>	5.16 ± 0.02 <sup>c</sup>
	72	5.95±0.05 <sup>d</sup>	5.15 ± 0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	96	5.70 ±0.07 <sup>e</sup>	4.80 ± 0.01 <sup>e</sup>
	120	5.45±0.05 <sup>f</sup>	4.68 ± 0.02 <sup>f</sup>
<b>37±1°C</b>			
	24	3.81 ± 0.01 <sup>i</sup>	4.97±0.07 <sup>d</sup>
	48	3.83 ± 0.01 <sup>i</sup>	4.99±0.02 <sup>d</sup>
	72	3.98 ± 0.03 <sup>gh</sup>	5.13±0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	96	4.01 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>	5.16±0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	120	4.07 ± 0.02 <sup>g</sup>	5.49 ±0.01 <sup>bc</sup>

Means with similar subscript within row is similar significantly at 5% level

#### 4.6 Total Titratable Acidity of Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea

Results of titratable acidity for breadfruit and pigeon-pea at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  respectively ranged from 0.03 - 0.24 (%), 0.03 - 0.23 (%) and 0.01 - 0.24 (%), 0.01 - 0.19 (%) as presented in tables 4.7 - 4.8. The results showed significant decrease in pH through fermentation with equivalent rise in acidity. The rise in acidity might be ascribed to lactic acid bacteria action through fermentation process. This results to production of organic acids and additional metabolites initiating souring or acidification of the product (Afoakwa *et al.*, 2010, Adesokan *et al.*, 2011). Adegbehingbe *et al.*, (2017) reported comparable observation while fermenting uncut and milled breadfruit seeds (2.34% to 3.60%), (2.43% to 3.12%).

Okigbo (1980) reported acid production during cassava fermentation which assumed responsible for product steadiness, flavour growth and cyanide elimination. Sefa-Dedeh *et al.* (2004) noted that the acid produced during fermentation of maize had antimicrobial effects on some pathogens. Mensah *et al.* (1990) also established that high titratable acidity of fermented cereals reduced the occurrence of diarrhoea in infants. Thus, based on data obtained in this study, kind of acid produced through fermentation of breadfruit and pigeon pea can have antimicrobial effects on some pathogens and lessen diarrhoea in infants if consumed.

**Table 4.7: Total Titratable Acidity of Fermented Breadfruit at Different Temperatures and Time**

Temp.	Duration (Hour)	TTA (%)
<b>28±2°C</b>		
	0	0.03 ± 0.01 <sup>i</sup>
	24	0.08 ± 0.03 <sup>h</sup>
	48	0.09 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>
	72	0.10 ± 0.01 <sup>f</sup>
	96	0.13 ± 0.01 <sup>e</sup>
	120	0.24 ± 0.02 <sup>a</sup>
<b>37±1°C</b>		
	24	0.07 ± 0.01 <sup>h</sup>
	48	0.09 ± 0.00 <sup>g</sup>
	72	0.16 ± 0.03 <sup>d</sup>
	96	0.19 ± 0.01 <sup>c</sup>
	120	0.23 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>

Values within same columns with different alphabet(s) were different at 5%

**Table 4.8: Total Titratable Acidity for Fermented Pigeon-pea at Diverse Temperatures and Time**

Temp.	Duration (Hour)	TTA (%)
<b>28±2°C</b>		
	0	0.01± 0.00 <sup>j</sup>
	24	0.12± 0.02 <sup>h</sup>
	48	0.15 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>
	72	0.20 ± 0.03 <sup>c</sup>
	96	0.21 ± 0.01 <sup>b</sup>
	120	0.24 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>
<b>37±1°C</b>		
	24	0.11 ± 0.02 <sup>i</sup>
	48	0.15 ± 0.01 <sup>g</sup>
	72	0.17 ± 0.01 <sup>f</sup>
	96	0.18 ± 0.01 <sup>e</sup>
	120	0.19 ± 0.02 <sup>d</sup>

Means with similar subscript within row is similar significantly at 5% level

#### 4.7 Functional Properties for Fermented Breadfruit Samples at Different Temperatures and Time

Table 4.9 shown fermented flours functional properties. In fermented breadfruit, loose and packed densities varied from 0.38 – 0.43, 0.38 – 0.50 g/ml; 0.42 – 0.49, 0.42 – 0.55 g/ml at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Adepeju *et al.*, (2011) related results from processed whole and pulp breadfruit flours. The flour densities likened to 0.40-0.55 g/cm<sup>3</sup> achieved in breadfruit, soybean and tiger nut (Ijarotimi and Aroge, 2005), also 0.55 g/cm<sup>3</sup> fermented maize (Mbata *et al.*, 2009a). Rise in density is necessary for packaging benefit, for instance greater amount might be filled within constant capacity (Fagbemi, 1999). Density measures flour weight (Oladele and Aina, 2007). Specified supplementary food to small density because it promotes digestibility among children who have immature digestive system reported (Mbata *et al.*, 2009). In this respect, breadfruit flour can be appropriate in weaning food formulations and also have possible usage as breakfast meal ingredient.

Water absorption capacity for fermented breadfruit ranged from 346.05 – 226.60% and 346.05 – 224.75%, respectively at different treatments. It is maximum water quantity food material can take, then sustain below preparation situation which is connected to dryness and penetrability of material. Table 4.9 shows water absorption capacity of samples which varied as fermentation period increases, significant decrease observed in values of fermented breadfruit treatments. The change may be ascribed to the variance in their carbohydrate contents (Adepeju *et al.*, 2011). Water Absorption Capacities (WAC) for fermented breadfruit achieved were higher than one detailed for unfermented breadfruit (Adepeju *et al.*, 2011) but were related to 227% described for fermented bambarra groundnut through Fasasi *et al.*, (2007). WAC enable food producers know quantity of liquid needed during production, in that way improved handling features. Results suggest that breadfruit flour might find suitable requests in food preparations like breakfast meal, cake and other confectionery products.

Oil Absorption Capacity (OAC) for breadfruit control (256.70%) slightly lower than fermented breadfruit samples. There were minimal increase in the values at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  (256.70 – 276.65%) and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  (256.70 – 286.40%). This may be attributed to the proteins denaturation and

dissociation (Qulai *et al.*, 2014). The higher the denaturation, the higher the Oil Absorption Capacity. Oil helps in food preparations and allows a sign of aroma-holding capability to flour (Narayana and Narasinga, 1982). Oil also makes flour suitable in food preparations (Odoemelam, 2003) and good oil capacities in flour (Table 4.9) suggest suitability for food preparations involving mixing like confectioneries where oil is the essential component (Banigo and Mepba, 2005).

Foaming Capacity of breadfruit ranged from 12.70 – 2.96%, 12.70 – 2.00 % at 28±2°C and 37±1°C separately. Foaming Capacities decreased through use of treatments particularly at 37±1°C, observing that fermentation reduced the foaming rate. The foaming capacities acquired for breadfruit flour were equivalent to previous report on breadfruit cultivars and treatment effects on breadfruit (Oulal *et al.*, 2014; Appiah *et al.*, 2011a). Foaming capacity attribute to protein solubility, in other words, foaming has to do with soluble proteins (Narayana and Narayasinga, 1982). Foaming properties may be suitable in food systems to enhance textural uniformity, appearance of foods, leavening features in confectionery products.

Foaming stability of the flour samples ranging between 0.17 – 0.07% and 0.17 – 0.00%. Samples fermented at 28±2°C have better foaming stability than other samples. Similar results on foaming capacity and stability increase on sample concentration had been informed (Vani and Zays, 1995). Nwoji (2005) established increased in foaming capacity of germinated flour while heat treatment decreased the foaming stability. Yasumatsu *et al.* (1972) established higher foaming stability in native proteins than denatured protein. Foaming is useful for texture improvement, consistency and food appearance (Akubor and Eze, 2012).

Least Gelation Capacity (LGC) values for breadfruit were (4 – 6%) and (4 – 6%) at 28±2°C and 37±1°C respectively (Table 4.9). The values were virtually equivalent but statistically different through diverse temperatures and time. Values acquired linked well with the prior report of Fasasi *et al.* (2007). Gelation capacities obtained is lower in tolegume seed flour with (12%) (Aremu *et al.*, 2007), then lupin seed (14%) (Sathe *et al.*, 1982). Lower gelling capacity sample, gives improved gelling ingredients (Adepeju *et al.*, 2014; Akintayo *et al.*, 1999). Thus, breadfruit and pigeon-pea flours may serve as good gelling and thickening agents.

**Table 4.9: Functional Properties of Fermented Breadfruit at Different Temperature and Time**

Fermentation Period (Hr)	Temp. (°C)	LBD (g/ml)	PBD (g/ml)	WAC (%)	OAC (%)	FC (%)	FS (%)	LGC (%)
0	0	0.38±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.42±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	346.05±3.95 <sup>a</sup>	256.70±3.10 <sup>bcd</sup>	12.70±1.59 <sup>a</sup>	0.17±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	4.00±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
24	28±2	0.38±0.02 <sup>f</sup>	0.40±0.00 <sup>g</sup>	249.05±2.15 <sup>cd</sup>	276.65±4.85 <sup>ab</sup>	5.62±0.78 <sup>b</sup>	0.07±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	4.00±0.03 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.36±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.40±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	301.15±27.35 <sup>b</sup>	286.40±4.10 <sup>a</sup>	4.58±0.08 <sup>d</sup>	0.05±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	4.00±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
48	28±2	0.36±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.38±0.03 <sup>j</sup>	237.85±0.95 <sup>d</sup>	271.30±11.00 <sup>abc</sup>	4.81±0.89 <sup>c</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	4.00±0.03 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.50±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.55±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	281.05±9.05 <sup>bc</sup>	284.50±1.30 <sup>a</sup>	4.17±0.17 <sup>f</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	4.00±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
72	28±2	0.35±0.02 <sup>h</sup>	0.40±0.03 <sup>g</sup>	230.10±0.50 <sup>d</sup>	256.70±1.30 <sup>bcd</sup>	4.66±0.74 <sup>e</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	6.00±0.05 <sup>a</sup>
	37±1	0.36±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	0.40±0.01 <sup>i</sup>	256.80±1.60 <sup>cd</sup>	280.75±1.55 <sup>a</sup>	3.27±0.27 <sup>h</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	6.00±0.05 <sup>a</sup>
96	28±2	0.42±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.44±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	229.00±5.60 <sup>d</sup>	251.40±0.20 <sup>cd</sup>	3.85±0.85 <sup>g</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	6.00±0.02 <sup>a</sup>
	37±1	0.40±0.02 <sup>e</sup>	0.45±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	250.35±5.05 <sup>cd</sup>	280.90±8.50 <sup>a</sup>	2.88±0.96 <sup>j</sup>	0.01±0.00 <sup>d</sup>	6.00±0.01 <sup>a</sup>
120	28±2	0.43±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.49±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	226.60±3.20 <sup>d</sup>	251.80±0.70 <sup>cd</sup>	2.96±0.04 <sup>i</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	4.00±0.03 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.41±0.00 <sup>d</sup>	0.43±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	224.75±3.75 <sup>d</sup>	257.45±1.65 <sup>bcd</sup>	2.00±0.01 <sup>k</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	6.00±0.01 <sup>a</sup>

Means with similar subscript within row is similar significantly at 5% level

**Legend:**

LBD=LooseBulk Density

PBD =PackedBulk Density

WAC=WaterAbsorption Capacity

OAC = Oil Absorption Capacity

FC=Foam Capacity

FS =Foam Stability

LGC =Least Gelation Capacity



#### 4.8 Functional Properties for Fermented Pigeon-pea at Different Temperature and Duration

Mean values obtained for pigeon-pea functional illustrated below in Table 4.10. Loose densities of pigeon pea flours varied 0.57 - 0.72 and 0.57 - 0.68 g/ml whereas crowded densities were between 0.67 - 0.83 and 0.67 - 0.78 g/ml at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  respectively. Bulk densities of fermented pigeon-pea samples increased with fermentation periods. This may be attributed to soaking or absorption of water. Similar results were reported by Oppong (2015) during production of cowpea flour (0.7 and 0.82 g/ml). Appiah (2011b) documented 0.80, 0.79, 0.69 g/cm<sup>3</sup> of Tona, Adom and Nhyira cowpeas respectively. Densities of treated products dictate features of its packaging. Wilhelm *et al.* (2004) established that products densities influence volume, durability of packaging material and texture. Higher mean values recorded in this work indicate small packaging prices as flour particles are weightier, and can occupy a lesser amount of space for each unit mass. Akpata *et al.* (1999) documented higher density in rice (0.914 g/cc).

Water Holding Capacity in flours were between 223.1 - 318.5% and 223.1 - 277.6% at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  respectively. Adebowale and Maliki, 2011; Oyarekua, 2011 noted similar observations during fermentation of pigeon-pea. Fermented values compared higher to unfermented, which is similar to the report of Fasoyiro *et al.* (2010). WAC considered to be vital in protein viscous foods, examples are baked products, dough and so on. WAC is necessary in food classifications to enhance produce evenness and arrangement (Osundahunsi *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, flour may be beneficial in food preparations.

Oil Absorption Capacity (OAC) for pigeon-pea flours were 203.55 - 213.10% and 203.55 - 208.55%. The oil absorption capacities improved as the periods of fermentation increased in this current study. It was observed in treated samples than in raw, which is similar to Igene *et al.* (2005) findings on processed winged bean flours. Also, Elkhailifa *et al.* (2005) stated rise of oil absorption during sorghum fermentation. Higher oil absorption of 214% and 196% were reported for unripe banana flour and brown rice flour respectively (Anuonye *et al.*, 2012). Proteins nature and higher protein contents of flours also contribute expressively to oil holding properties of food constituents (Ravi and Sushelamma, 2005). Better absorption of oil in pigeon-pea flours could be described to high protein contents of the samples. OAC is valuable for structure connections in

food as well as increasing shelf life of meat products and confectioneries.

Foaming capacity of fermented pigeon-pea flours were in ranges of 22.50 – 9.25, 22.50 – 8.20 % at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively. As fermentation periods and temperatures increased, foaming capacity reduced. In this current study, non-fermented samples have higher foaming properties and the observation was comparable to the report by Adebawale and Maliki (2011). Decrease of foaming capacity in pigeon-pea is ascribed to increase in fat through fermentation period (Igbabul *et al.*, 2014). The reduction in foaming might be clarified based on presence of globular proteins that make denaturing surface difficult (Okpala *et al.*, 2013). Foaming formation remains protein type, pH, processing methods, thickness and surface pressure role. Foaming capacity determines flour ability to foam; which is dependent on stretchy protein which declines water surface (Asif-UI-Alam *et al.*, 2014).

Foaming stability of fermented pigeon-pea for the two samples were lesser than unfermented pea. Results varied from 80.60 to 0.0%, 80.60 to 0.0% at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively. Similarly, Adebawale and Maliki (2011) observed decline in foam stability through increase in fermentation periods. Also, a study by Akubor *et al.*, (2013) recorded 80% foam firmness for African star apple kernel. This might be due to decline in protein through fermentation since protein absorption produces protein-protein relations at air-water bond. Also, encourages creation of complex films which provide high viscoelastic opponent to foam fusion that rises stability (Adebawale, 2003). Enujiugha and Akanbi (2005) also stated that inherent protein produces better stability than denatured protein.

Gelation Capacity of fermented samples from pigeon-pea presented in (Table 4.10) ranged from 6 – 4%, 6 – 10% for the two treatments and highest values recorded for samples at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The gelation variation of pigeon-pea is ascribed to component sizes like lipids and proteins, carbohydrates. This suggests constituent's collaboration might be significant to pigeon-pea functional properties (Kaur *et al.*, 2007). Values for fermented pigeon-pea flours are related to reports of pigeon-pea (4%) through Onimawo *et al.*, (1998), then soybean (10%) (Alfaro *et al.*, 2004).

Small gelation detected presently could be benefitted using flour as additive gel-foaming materials in food products, as low gelation linked to oxidized amylose and amylopectin. High gelation capacities however, might remain as a result of improved interaction occurred among binding pressures as absorption rises (Ikegwu *et al.*, 2009).

Gelation Concentration measures least quantity of flour desirable for gel formation in measured water. This differs from one flour to another, depending on proportions of ingredients structure like carbohydrate and protein (Abbey and Ibeh, 1988). The increase in protein concentration boosts contact among binding forces which increases gelling capacity (Lawal, 2004). Thus, the lesser the gelation capacity, the better the gelling capacity in the flour (Usman *et al.*, 2016).

**Table 4. 10: Functional Properties for Fermented Pigeon-pea Samples at Different Temperature and Time**

<b>Fermentation Period (Hr)</b>	<b>Temp. (°C)</b>	<b>LBD ( g/ml)</b>	<b>PBD g/ml</b>	<b>WAC (%)</b>	<b>OAC (%)</b>	<b>FC (%)</b>	<b>FS (%)</b>	<b>LGC (%)</b>
0	0	0.57±0.03 <sup>f</sup>	0.67±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	223.10±3.50 <sup>h</sup>	203.55±1.95 <sup>bcd</sup>	22.50±0.10 <sup>c</sup>	80.60±0.20 <sup>a</sup>	6.00±0.05 <sup>b</sup>
24	28±2	0.67±0.07 <sup>c</sup>	0.77±0.05 <sup>d</sup>	218.05±0.05 <sup>h</sup>	205.60±1.40 <sup>bcd</sup>	19.25±0.15 <sup>d</sup>	75.35±0.15 <sup>b</sup>	4.00±0.02 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	0.68±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.78±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	277.60±1.10 <sup>ef</sup>	179.25±11.65 <sup>e</sup>	23.35±0.25 <sup>b</sup>	50.25±0.25 <sup>c</sup>	6.00±0.05 <sup>b</sup>
48	28±2	0.67±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.77±0.07 <sup>d</sup>	267.75±2.75 <sup>fg</sup>	205.70±1.60 <sup>bcd</sup>	18.40±0.20 <sup>e</sup>	12.50±0.30 <sup>f</sup>	4.00±0.09 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	0.63±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.71±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	218.05±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	192.70±0.80 <sup>abcd</sup>	25.30±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	40.40±0.20 <sup>d</sup>	6.00±0.03 <sup>b</sup>
72	28±2	0.67±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.80±0.05 <sup>b</sup>	282.40±2.20 <sup>de</sup>	208.10±2.00 <sup>abc</sup>	15.60±0.20 <sup>f</sup>	10.45±0.45 <sup>g</sup>	6.00±0.08 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.57±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.69±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	188.15±0.25 <sup>cde</sup>	192.70±0.80 <sup>abcd</sup>	25.30±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	40.30±0.30 <sup>d</sup>	10.00±0.11 <sup>a</sup>
96	28±2	0.67±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.77±0.07 <sup>d</sup>	291.90±0.80 <sup>bcd</sup>	210.60±0.50 <sup>ab</sup>	12.45±0.25 <sup>g</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	6.00±0.07 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.61±0.04 <sup>e</sup>	0.71±0.02 <sup>e</sup>	269.45±2.25 <sup>fg</sup>	204.40±1.40 <sup>bcd</sup>	9.40±0.30 <sup>h</sup>	33.45±0.15 <sup>c</sup>	6.00±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
120	28±2	0.72±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.83±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	318.50±1.60 <sup>a</sup>	213.10±5.30 <sup>a</sup>	9.25±0.15 <sup>h</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	6.00±0.09 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	0.61±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.71±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	269.45±2.25 <sup>fg</sup>	208.55±0.55 <sup>abc</sup>	8.20±0.20 <sup>i</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	4.00±0.03 <sup>c</sup>

Values within same columns with different alphabet(s) were statistically different at 5%

**Legend:**

LBD=Loose Bulk Density

PBD= PackedBulk Density

WAC=Water Absorption Capacity

OAC= Oil Absorption Capacity

FC= Foam Capacity

FS=Foam Stability

LGC=Least Gelation Capacity

#### 4.9 Pasting Properties for Fermented Breadfruit Samples at Different Temperature and Time

Effects of fermentation on breadfruit pasting presented below (Table 4.11). This results to mixture of procedures; gelation from grain break to successive polymer arrangement, as a result of mechanical shear through starch heating and cooling (Otegbayo *et al.*, 2006). Breadfruit flour observed in this study demonstrated substantial higher peak viscosity 458.33 – 489.29 RVU and 458.33 – 512.00 RVU respectively. Peak viscosity is maximum viscosity attainable through cooking of flour and this established by starch-water suspension for the period of heating (Adebowale *et al.*, 2005). High flour viscosity may be linked to quantity of starch; amylose proportion to amylopectin, then resistivity to swelling of starch particles (Adepeju *et al.*, 2011). Peak viscosity described as extent of starch impairment; extreme starch weakening result to higher viscosity (Sanni *et al.*, 2001), indicates high binding volume of the thickener granules. However, pastes viscosity denote thickness level on cooking via advanced starches swelling influence. Nevertheless, increased in values were observed as the fermentation time increased at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  (Table 4.11). Otegbayo *et al.* (2006) noticed higher values in pounded yam; this implies that at higher peak viscosity, breadfruit might form thicker pastes on cooking. Peak viscosity associated to cooking easiness and showing paste strength in gelatinization through applications in food processing (Opata *et al.*, 2007). Also, it is the highest holding strength indicating capacity of starch crumbs to uphold its concentrated form when paste held in 2 min. 30 sec. at  $95^\circ\text{C}$ .

Table 4.11 showed result of breadfruit samples through which varied from 335.85 – 411.71 RVU; 335.85 – 386.25 RVU respectively. The same trend was observed by Awolu (2017) for pearl millet based composite flour. It is least thickness value of temperature phase for Rapid Visco Analyzer, then measures paste capacity to resist disintegrate by cooling (Ayo-omogie and Ogunsakin, 2013). Trough thickness is capacity of starch particles to stay undisrupted when breadfruit starch exposed to holding duration of continuous higher temperature and shear stress.

Breakdown viscosity of breadfruit varied from 122.29 – 8.12 RVU and 122.29 – 47.71 RVU at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively. Breakdown viscosity measures the degree of starch disintegration. Also, measures flour aptitude to survive heat and stress in course of cooking (Adebowale *et al.*, 2005). Small breakdown results to higher steadiness paste (Hugo *et al.*, 2000). Breakdown viscosity of breadfruit samples reduced as fermentation time increased in all the

treatments. This indicates that the samples have moderately good hot paste stability. Oduro *et al.* (2000) affirmed starch through little stability or small collapse have very feeble cross-linking inside particles.

Considering Table 4.11, final viscosity of breadfruit varied significantly from 515.00 to 629.42 RVU and 515.00 to 572.42 RVU at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. The values obtained were high which showed that breadfruit formed firmer gel after cooking and cooling owing to excessive carbohydrate in flour. Decrease in viscosities of some flours probably due to biochemical variations (breakdown of starch into sugars) through fermentation (Otegbayo, 2014). Final viscosity determines starch capacity to form sticky paste after boiling, then chilling (Maziya-Dixon *et al.*, 2007). Breadfruit setback viscosity values range between 178.96 – 225.33 RVU, 178.96 – 195.70 RVU at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. Setback is stage on pasting curve for cooling starches at  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Greater setback viscosity, greater tendency to retrograde. It contains reunion, reallocation of starch particles. Similarly, liquid earlier bound in visco-elastic on loose process discussed as synergetic. Higher setback linked by unified paste and stated as important for native product like pounded yam which needs high thickness, then steadiness (Kimet *et al.*, 1995; Lawal, 2004).

Setback of carbohydrate diets connected with texture of various products. High setback for breadfruit samples in this study suggest that the flour will form cohesive gruels on cooking. Setback described as signal that thickener has high propensity of backward through unfreezing circles (Ikujenlola and Fashakin, 2005). Thus, breadfruit flour might be valuable as ingredient in products like breakfast meal where starch retrogradation is wanted.

Peak time of breadfruit samples ranged between 5.50 – 7.00 min, 5.50 – 5.73 min at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 4.11). Time to achieve peak viscosity is significantly lower than (22-38 min) described for dried fufu by Sanni and Jaji (2003), then Shittu *et al.*, (2001) through pupuru processing (37-43 min), in same range (5.47 – 7.00 min, 3.62-4.27 min) for pearl millet composite flour and toasted tapioca respectively (Awolu, 2017; Adebowale *et al.*, 2008). It is the period at which highest thickness was achieved per min. and measures cooking period (Adebowale *et al.*, 2005; Lawal *et al.*, 2004).

Temperature of breadfruit flours at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  ranging from  $78.30$  to  $81.53^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $78.30$  to  $80.25^\circ\text{C}$  and these were higher than values ( $76-78^\circ\text{C}$ ) stated for dried fufu (Sanni and Jaji, 2003). The pasting temperature of breadfruit flours are lesser than boiling; hence flour can become paste in warm water under boiling. Oluwamukomi *et al.*, (2005) noted ( $70.50^\circ\text{C}$ ) for fermented maize flour and  $79.20$  and  $80.85^\circ\text{C}$  reported for enriched “gari” semolina with soy-melon (Oluwamukomi and Jolayemi, 2012). Increase in pasting temperature as fermentation progressed also observed by Afoakwa *et al.*, (2010). Pasting temperature measures lowest temperature essential for cooking food (Sandhu *et al.*, 2005). This could have consequences in stability of components formula, then specify efficiency prices (Newport Scientific, 1998). Flours pasting properties are factors defining accuracy applications as functional ingredients and additional manufacturing products.



**Table 4.11: Pasting Properties for Fermented Breadfruit Flour at Different Temperature and Time**

Fermentation Period (Hr)	Temp. (°C)	Peak Viscosity (RVU)	Trough Viscosity (RVU)	Breakdown Viscosity (RVU)	Final Viscosity (RVU)	Setback Viscosity (RVU)	Peak Time (min)	Pasting Temp. (°C)
0	0	458.33±0.08 <sup>c</sup>	335.85±4.73 <sup>d</sup>	122.29±4.46 <sup>a</sup>	515.00±1.17 <sup>ef</sup>	178.96±3.38 <sup>c</sup>	5.50±0.10 <sup>e</sup>	78.30±0.05 <sup>g</sup>
24	28±2	489.29±0.96 <sup>b</sup>	411.71±2.21 <sup>a</sup>	77.58±3.17 <sup>d</sup>	629.42±2.00 <sup>a</sup>	217.71±4.21 <sup>ab</sup>	5.90±0.03 <sup>b</sup>	79.10±0.10 <sup>ef</sup>
	37±1	512.00±3.00 <sup>a</sup>	386.25±2.00 <sup>b</sup>	125.75±1.00 <sup>a</sup>	558.87±2.96 <sup>c</sup>	172.62±0.96 <sup>ef</sup>	5.27±0.00 <sup>f</sup>	79.10±0.10 <sup>ef</sup>
48	28±2	383.17±0.50 <sup>e</sup>	321.33±5.75 <sup>c</sup>	61.83±5.25 <sup>c</sup>	546.67±3.17 <sup>d</sup>	225.33±2.58 <sup>a</sup>	5.27±0.07 <sup>e</sup>	80.78±0.02 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	488.92±0.08 <sup>b</sup>	385.25±2.50 <sup>b</sup>	103.67±2.58 <sup>b</sup>	571.67±2.00 <sup>b</sup>	186.42±4.50 <sup>de</sup>	5.63±0.03 <sup>d</sup>	78.28±0.02 <sup>g</sup>
72	28±2	368.62±6.29 <sup>f</sup>	262.58±8.00 <sup>g</sup>	106.04±1.71 <sup>b</sup>	431.04±2.13 <sup>g</sup>	168.46±5.88 <sup>g</sup>	5.77±0.10 <sup>c</sup>	80.15±0.30 <sup>bc</sup>
	37±1	424.42±3.33 <sup>d</sup>	376.71±0.46 <sup>bc</sup>	47.71±2.88 <sup>f</sup>	572.42±1.33 <sup>b</sup>	195.71±0.88 <sup>d</sup>	5.33±0.07 <sup>f</sup>	79.90±0.00 <sup>cd</sup>
96	28±2	309.62±1.79 <sup>h</sup>	248.00±1.33 <sup>h</sup>	61.62±0.46 <sup>e</sup>	390.92±5.25 <sup>i</sup>	142.92±3.92 <sup>i</sup>	5.80±0.07 <sup>c</sup>	81.53±0.02 <sup>a</sup>
	37±1	362.79±0.54 <sup>f</sup>	261.83±0.75 <sup>g</sup>	100.96±0.21 <sup>b</sup>	437.29±0.63 <sup>g</sup>	175.46±0.13 <sup>ef</sup>	5.37±0.03 <sup>f</sup>	79.90±0.05 <sup>cd</sup>
120	28±2	303.96±4.29 <sup>i</sup>	295.83±4.00 <sup>f</sup>	80.12±0.29 <sup>c</sup>	506.79±1.21 <sup>f</sup>	210.96±2.79 <sup>c</sup>	7.00±0.00 <sup>a</sup>	78.63±0.42 <sup>fg</sup>
	37±1	314.54±0.79 <sup>g</sup>	236.33±3.00 <sup>i</sup>	78.21±3.79 <sup>d</sup>	401.12±0.46 <sup>h</sup>	164.79±2.54 <sup>h</sup>	5.73±0.00 <sup>cd</sup>	80.25±0.45 <sup>bc</sup>

Means with diverse subscript within row is different significantly at 5% level

#### 4.10 Pasting Properties for Fermented Pigeon-pea at Diverse Temperature and Time

Pasting for fermented pigeon-pea are shown (Table 4.12). Peak viscosity for fermented pigeon-pea flours at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  ranged between 79.08 – 22.50 RVU and 55.25 – 98.79 RVU respectively while control was 22.38 RVU. Peak is highest attainable viscosity through cooking of flour and highest viscosity established by starch-water action through heating system (Adebowale *et al.*, 2005). Study agreed through Oloyede *et al.*, (2016) findings. It was detected that pasting temperature and peak time reduced faintly at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  whereas peak viscosity increased as fermentation proceeded. Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.* (2012) testified decreased in viscosity peak as noticed at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  as supplementation of pigeon-pea increases in African breadfruit. Peak viscosity depends on solubility, water-holding capability and components structure of food system (Leszek, 2011). It is an indication of starch to expand before its breakdown. It is irregularly connected through the product quality and offers a sign of gelatinous load faced through mixing (Maziya-Dixon *et al.*, 2005).

Table 4.12 show trough viscosity for fermented pigeon-pea samples ranging from 78.00 – 26.25 RVU and 53.50 – 88.08 RVU at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  while control was 21.96 RVU. Trough viscosity also called holding strength or hot paste is highest thickness at constant temperature phase of RVU profile, then determines breakdown in cooling (Chinma *et al.*, 2009). 21.96 RVU documented as least for control whereas 88.08 RVU was noted as highest for the fermented pigeon pea at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Breakdown values for fermented pigeon-pea flour were between 0.42 - 2.88 RVU and 0.42 - 10.71 RVU respectively. Breakdown viscosity can be defined as the degree of paste firmness or starch particle breakdown through heat (Dengate, 1984). There were general increase in breakdown values of all the samples with different temperatures and fermentation period. Increase in breakdown values of pigeon-pea as fermentation progresses suggests simple cooking. High breakdown viscosity responsible for low capacity of sample to survive heat and shear pressure in boiling (Adebowale *et al.*, 2005). However, sample with relatively small breakdown thickness would have better stable paste through heating than higher thickness (Farhat *et al.*, 1999) even though ability of thickener to tolerate heat at high temperature and pressure are vital for various procedures.

Final viscosity of the fermented pigeon-pea samples at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 4.12) ranged from 31.71 to 100.00 RVU and 31.71 to 123.25 RVU respectively. It is typically viewed as a pointer for steadiness of cooked paste for real use (Ragae and Abdel-Aal, 2006). There was an increase in final viscosities of all treated samples as fermentation progressed. Oloyede *et al.* (2016) observed related results through fermented moringa seed flour while Ige (2017) noticed comparable findings in complementary foods prepared from pigeon-pea-maize flours. Increase noted in fermented pigeon-pea might be ascribed to disintegration of carbohydrate compound to minor sugars through fermentation (Oloyede *et al.*, 2016). The paste viscosity is linked to amylose; suggesting flour high in amylose will have high viscosity and vice versa (Goering and Dehass, 1990).

The study revealed setback viscosity of fermented pigeon-pea which varied between 22.08 – 10.58 RVU and 13.58 – 35.17 RVU at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Setback viscosity measures paste stability after cooking. The control had the lowest value (9.75 RVU) whereas one of the samples at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  had the highest value (35.17 RVU). However, there was an increase in setback viscosities of all the samples fermented, with increased time. The increase in the setback values might be due to hydrogen bonding through cooling and higher starch amylose (Alais and Linden, 1986). Low setback values show amount of starch retrogradation and syneresis. High setback value reduces retrogradation in cooling of product made from flour and vice versa (James and Nwabueze, 2014). The low setback in pigeon-pea indicates low retrograde propensity. Flour that have reversing propensities are plus for products like soups and pastes that experience thickness loss, also precipitation due to regression (Adebowale and Lawal, 2003).

Pasting / peak time of fermented pigeon-pea scrutinised ranged between 6.67 - 6.93 min and 6.47 - 5.57 min. while control was 6.73 min. It is used to know least period and temperature essential for cooking flour (Chinma *et al.*, 2009). Peak period is viewed as a sign of overall time engaged by each mixture to achieve optimum viscosity, that is, time for paste to gel during cooking. As fermentation period increased at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  including control sample, pasting time values increased while samples at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  decreased with pasting temperatures. Hence, flour blends with low peak time would cook faster to higher time.

Pasting temperature of pigeon-pea ranged between 0.00 - 90.43°C, 0.00 - 87.70°C. Pasting temperature provides least temperature required to cook flour, the costs of energy and other constituent's steadiness (Shimelis *et al.*, 2006). Sample at 28±2°C has the highest pasting temperature while the unfermented sample shows no pasting characteristic (error). The remarks in this study are comparable to values (84 – 89°C) achieved by Usman *et al.* (2016) on weaning food blends from sorghum varieties. Moorthy (2002) established diverse pasting temperatures (61.5°C to 86.3°C) in sweet potato starches, the differences might have caused through interior structure changes in starch that occurred in formless and crystallize areas (Crosbie *et al.*, 2004). Higher pasting temperatures might be linked to existence of strong bond forces by granule interior and amylopectin's high crystalline nature with amorphous amylose (Ikegwu *et al.*, 2009, Opata *et al.*, 2007).

**Table 4. 12: Pasting Properties for Fermented Pigeon-Pea Flour at Different Temperature and Time**

Fermentation Period (Hr)	Temp. (°C)	Peak Viscosity (RVU)	Trough Viscosity (RVU)	Breakdown Viscosity (RVU)	Final Viscosity (RVU)	Setback Viscosity (RVU)	Peak Time (min)	Pasting Temp. (°C)
0	0	22.38±0.13 <sup>h</sup>	21.96±0.13 <sup>l</sup>	0.42±0.00 <sup>l</sup>	31.71±0.13 <sup>j</sup>	9.75±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	6.73±0.00 <sup>ab</sup>	0.00±0.00 <sup>c</sup>
24	28±2	79.08±1.33 <sup>bc</sup>	78.00±1.50 <sup>b</sup>	1.08±0.17 <sup>h</sup>	100.08±1.50 <sup>c</sup>	22.08±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	6.67±0.00 <sup>ab</sup>	88.75±0.05 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	55.25±3.17 <sup>d</sup>	53.50±2.92 <sup>c</sup>	1.75±0.25 <sup>f</sup>	74.71±2.88 <sup>d</sup>	21.21±0.04 <sup>d</sup>	6.47±0.27 <sup>bc</sup>	88.03±0.02 <sup>b</sup>
48	28±2	42.96±0.79 <sup>e</sup>	41.83±1.08 <sup>f</sup>	1.12±0.29 <sup>h</sup>	59.17±0.50 <sup>f</sup>	17.33±0.58 <sup>e</sup>	6.80±0.00 <sup>b</sup>	88.13±0.08 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	62.71±0.04 <sup>c</sup>	60.33±0.25 <sup>d</sup>	2.37±0.29 <sup>e</sup>	73.92±0.00 <sup>ea</sup>	13.58±0.25 <sup>g</sup>	6.27±0.07 <sup>cd</sup>	87.65±0.40 <sup>b</sup>
72	28±2	35.46±2.21 <sup>f</sup>	33.71±2.46 <sup>g</sup>	1.75±0.25 <sup>f</sup>	48.83±2.50 <sup>g</sup>	15.12±0.04 <sup>f</sup>	6.93±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	88.05±0.00 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	65.38±3.13 <sup>c</sup>	61.63±2.63 <sup>d</sup>	3.75±0.50 <sup>c</sup>	75.42±3.42 <sup>d</sup>	13.79±0.79 <sup>g</sup>	6.20±0.07 <sup>cd</sup>	87.70±0.30 <sup>b</sup>
96	28±2	27.87±0.79 <sup>g</sup>	26.58±1.08 <sup>h</sup>	1.29±0.29 <sup>g</sup>	37.17±2.42 <sup>i</sup>	10.58±1.33 <sup>h</sup>	6.93±0.07 <sup>a</sup>	88.03±0.07 <sup>b</sup>
	37±1	84.71±2.13 <sup>b</sup>	75.67±1.83 <sup>bc</sup>	9.04±0.29 <sup>b</sup>	104.67±2.42 <sup>b</sup>	29.00±0.59 <sup>b</sup>	5.57±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	86.33±0.08 <sup>b</sup>
120	28±2	22.50±5.17 <sup>h</sup>	26.25±1.08 <sup>h</sup>	2.88±0.38 <sup>d</sup>	44.25±1.75 <sup>h</sup>	18.00±0.67 <sup>c</sup>	6.87±0.07 <sup>b</sup>	90.43±1.68 <sup>a</sup>
	37±1	98.79±1.29 <sup>a</sup>	88.08±0.67 <sup>a</sup>	10.71±0.63 <sup>a</sup>	123.25±0.58 <sup>a</sup>	35.17±0.08 <sup>a</sup>	5.53±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	87.20±0.05 <sup>b</sup>

Values within same columns with different alphabet(s) were statistically different at 5%

#### 4.11 Anti-Nutrient Contents of Fermented Breadfruit Samples at Different Temperatures and Time

Anti-nutrients of fermented breadfruit flour results at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  respectively shown (Table 4.13).

Phenolic contents for fermented breadfruit were between 3.32 - 1.53 mg/g and 3.32 - 1.09 mg/g. During fermentation period of 24h to 120h, anti-nutrients were significantly reduced, for example there were decreased in phenolic in all samples as fermentation time proceeded (Table 4.13). Unfermented sample (control) has the highest content of phenolic while the fermented sample at 120h has the least content. Ojokoh *et al.* (2013) observed similar findings in breadfruit fermentation. Phenolic contents attained were found lower to the report (Odoemelam and Osu, 2009) through fermentation of breadfruit in different locations. Phenolics recommended to have chemo-preventive and cardio-protective effects (Vita, 2005, Dragsted *et al.*, 1993). It is also useful in defending human body against oxidative harm through unrestricted radicals (Halliwell, 1997).

Flavonoid contents of fermented breadfruit samples studied varied from 1.87 – 0.81 mg/g and 1.87 – 0.33 mg/g. There was a decrease in flavonoid contents of breadfruit flour as fermentation increased at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. Flavonoids reported having biological properties like anti-bacteria, toxic and inflammatory activities, then frequently function as sturdy antioxidants, unobstructed fundamental foragers and metallic chelators (Jimoh and Oladiji, 2005). Plant flavonoids are potential dietary cancer chemo-protective and anti-tumor agents (Elangovan *et al.*, 1994). Therefore, breadfruit might offer the needed dietetic bioflavonoids for cancer prevention and growth of tumor in humans if adequately consumed.

Fermented breadfruit phytate were 0.47- 0.19 mg/g, 0.47 - 0.25 mg/g at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. The values are related to study investigated (Abiodun *et al.*, 2016) in cassava which phytic acids decreased with fermentation periods. Decrease in anti-nutritional contents may be due to leaching into the water during fermentation and dewatering process. Obasi and Wogu (2008) and Onimawo and Akubor (2005) reported that phytate get reduced in yellow maize through soaking. Wide variety of microflora known to possess phytase activities that are partially accountable in reduction of phytic acid in fermented samples (Ojokoh, 2005). Phytic acid can bind some vital minerals or nutrients of digestive tract and leads to inorganic deficits.

Hence, acid level in breadfruit is small and may not have any danger if matched to phytate diet between 10 – 60 mg/g on consumption for longer period resulting to bioaccumulation decrease of minerals in single-chambered animals (Thompson, 1993). However, presence of phytate is helpful since it might have encouraging nutritional role as anti-oxidant and cancer mediator (Turner *et al.*, 2002).

Tannins are recognised in preventing actions of enzymes like lipase, trypsin and amylase (Griffith, 1979). Oladunjoye *et al.* (2010) reported soaking and other methods reduced tannin. Table 4.13 showed tannin contents of fermented breadfruit that ranged between 6.15 – 4.78 mg/g and 6.15 – 4.65 mg/g, respectively. The decrease in values of tannin in breadfruit is similar to the findings on mucuna beans (Udensiet *al.* 2008). Tannin contents in the breadfruit flour were higher than other anti-nutrients (Table 4.13) but the values were however lower in comparison to 13.3, 19.1 and 99.2 g/kg described in fluted pumpkin, breadnut and cashewnut respectively (Fagbemi *et al.*, 2005). Tannin reduction through fermentation of breadfruit might be discharge of polyphenols into the fermentation water lower than concentration effect (Uzogara *et al.*, 1990). Tannins are polyphenols and water soluble though typically found in seed coat (Singh, 1988).

Oxalate has harmful consequences on diet, then health via calcium absorption reduction, also assisting kidney stone creation (Nooman and Savage, 1999). Fermented breadfruit oxalate samples varied 0.40 - 0.24 mg/g, 0.40-0.20 mg/g. Reduction in oxalate may be processing method used and activities of micro-organisms. The values of oxalate recorded are in agreement with those achieved (1.26 mg/g – 0.83 mg/g) by Obasi and Wogu (2008) through soaking of yellow maize. Therefore, decrease in oxalate through fermentation can have positive influence on consumer's health, improving bioavailability of needed minerals and reducing kidney stones risk among consumers (Bhandari and Kawabata, 2006).

Hydrogen cyanide (HCN) contents of fermented breadfruit samples ranged between 1.0 - 0.24 mg/100g, 1.0 – 0.09 mg/100g. Results showed substantial decrease in cyanide of all samples fermented. The decrease detected in samples might be microbial action through fermentation (Kobawila *et al.*, 2005). Hydrogen cyanide content of processed breadfruit seed stated by Nwaigwe and Adejumo (2015) ranged between 0.48 - 1.49 mg/100g and Sanni *et al.*, (2008) reported that gari from diverse processing points contained 1.8 to 49.60 mg HCN/kg.

Consumption of foods immense in cyanide might be injurious to nervous system (Chung *et al.*,

1998). Small cyanide found from fermented samples show breadfruit flour can safely use for food preparation since level of cyanide is far below dangerous quantity of 1.40mg/100 mg (Oke, 1999). Little quantities of cyanide informed for processed cookies from blends of sorghum flours and African breadfruit using autoclave (Okpala and Okoli, 2011). Cyanide contents of fermented breadfruit are in line with the standards compulsory for cassava flour and other flours in Colombia and Africa (CIAT, 2001) where it is specified that cassava flour should not have more than 50mg HCN/kg.

Alkaloids found in legumes are responsible for the unpleasant taste and turgidity in humans (Fereidoon, 2014). Table 4.13 presented the fermented breadfruit alkaloid contents. The contents varied from 1.19 - 0.23 % and 1.19 - 0.25 % at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. Ojinnaka *et al.*, (2013) reported alkaloid reduction during breadfruit soaking for production of cookies. Nwaigwe and Adejumo (2015) autoclaved breadfruit seed and obtained reduced alkaloid values which ranged between 4.00 – 1.33%. The values attained by these authors seemed low and realistic for regularly consumed food (Ezeagu, 2005). Alkaloids affect metabolic and physiological actions in the body; hence they are extensively used in medication (Harbone, 1973). However, some plant alkaloids cause thoughtful intoxications in animals, humans and often mutagenic (Aletor and Adeogun, 1995).

Fermented breadfruit saponin ranged between 0.46 to 0.03% and 0.46 to 0.06 % at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. General reduction observed in all the samples based on fermentation periods and similar with findings (Ojinnaka *et al.*, 2013) in course for producing cookies from breadfruit. The saponin in fermented breadfruit under study was very low and they might not pose threat to human health. Low level of saponin might be leaching when breadfruit was soaked overnight through fermentation. Soaking has been reported to reduce saponin content. Saponins reported to possess anticarcinogenic belongings, safe inflection actions and proliferation rule. Also, it has benefits of inhibiting cancer growth and lowering saturated fat actions (Jimoh and Oladiji, 2005).



**Table 4.13: Anti-Nutrient Contents of Fermented Breadfruit Flour**

<b>Fermentation Period (Hr)</b>	<b>Temp. (°C)</b>	<b>Phenolic (mg/g)</b>	<b>Flavonoid (mg/g)</b>	<b>Phytate (mg/g)</b>	<b>Tannin (mg/g)</b>	<b>Oxalate (mg/g)</b>	<b>Cyanide (mg/100g)</b>	<b>Alkaloid (%)</b>	<b>Saponin (%)</b>
0	0	3.32±0.20 <sup>a</sup>	1.87±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.47±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	6.15±0.23 <sup>a</sup>	0.40±0.00 <sup>a</sup>	1.00±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	1.19±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	0.46±0.01 <sup>a</sup>
24	28±2	2.78±0.13 <sup>b</sup>	1.51±0.05 <sup>d</sup>	0.30±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	5.93±0.16 <sup>b</sup>	0.32±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.40±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.92±0.03 <sup>b</sup>	0.28±0.02 <sup>c</sup>
	37±1	2.39±0.07 <sup>d</sup>	1.78±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.38±0.01 <sup>ab</sup>	5.60±0.09 <sup>c</sup>	0.34±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.87±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.83±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.32±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
48	28±2	2.58±0.12 <sup>c</sup>	1.47±0.04 <sup>e</sup>	0.29±0.04 <sup>cd</sup>	5.62±0.22 <sup>c</sup>	0.28±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.33±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	0.70±0.02 <sup>e</sup>	0.25±0.02 <sup>d</sup>
	37±1	1.93±0.11 <sup>e</sup>	1.61±0.06 <sup>c</sup>	0.30±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	5.49±0.06 <sup>d</sup>	0.29±0.00 <sup>d</sup>	0.67±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.80±0.04 <sup>d</sup>	0.19±0.01 <sup>c</sup>
72	28±2	2.26±0.13 <sup>cd</sup>	1.20±0.05 <sup>f</sup>	0.28±0.03 <sup>cd</sup>	5.26±0.06 <sup>ef</sup>	0.27±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.29±0.00 <sup>f</sup>	0.50±0.04 <sup>f</sup>	0.03±0.01 <sup>h</sup>
	37±1	1.92±0.12 <sup>e</sup>	1.60±0.06 <sup>c</sup>	0.30±0.07 <sup>d</sup>	5.32±0.05 <sup>e</sup>	0.25±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.20±0.01 <sup>i</sup>	0.68±0.02 <sup>e</sup>	0.09±0.01 <sup>f</sup>
96	28±2	1.60±0.18 <sup>ef</sup>	1.12±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.23±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	4.92±0.15 <sup>g</sup>	0.25±0.00 <sup>f</sup>	0.27±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.25±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.05±0.00 <sup>g</sup>
	37±1	1.55±0.16 <sup>g</sup>	1.53±0.08 <sup>d</sup>	0.27±0.03 <sup>cd</sup>	4.84±0.14 <sup>h</sup>	0.22±0.00 <sup>g</sup>	0.16±0.01 <sup>j</sup>	0.27±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	0.08±0.02 <sup>f</sup>
120	28±2	1.53±0.17 <sup>g</sup>	0.81±0.07 <sup>h</sup>	0.19±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	4.78±0.03 <sup>i</sup>	0.24±0.00 <sup>f</sup>	0.24±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	0.23±0.02 <sup>i</sup>	0.05±0.00 <sup>g</sup>
	37±1	1.09±0.10 <sup>h</sup>	0.33±0.06 <sup>i</sup>	0.25±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	4.65±0.05 <sup>g</sup>	0.20±0.00 <sup>g</sup>	0.09±0.01 <sup>k</sup>	0.25±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.06±0.01 <sup>g</sup>

Means in each column with different alphabetdiffers statistically (5% level)

#### 4.12 Anti-Nutrients of Fermented Pigeon-pea at Different Temperature and Time

The phenolic contents from fermented pigeon-pea flour ranged 0.86 - 0.23 mg/g, 0.86 - 0.48mg/g at 28±2 °C and 37±1°C, respectively (Table 4.14). Decreased in phenolic contents of the samples at 28±2 °C and 37±1°C as the fermentation periods increased observed. Related findings reported by Lasekan and Shabnam (2013) in the fermentation of rambutan seed. Hithamani and Srinivasan (2014) noticed decrease in polyphenol contents during sprouting and pressure-cooking of finger and pearl millets. This could be as a result of phenolics diffusion in cell, then diffused phenolic oxidation by polyphenol oxidase activity (Afoakwa *et al.*, 2008). Reduction of phenols is desirable as this anti-nutrient is known to impart poor colour on food due to enzymic browning. However, Bravo (1998) indicated that the nutritional consumption of polyphenols is 1 g/ day (US), 23 mg/day (Dutch) and 28 mg/day (Denmark) which means the flour could be good for eating.

Flavonoids are polyphenolic acknowledged as high antioxidant possessions and free essential foraging capability (Scherer and Godoy, 2009). Fermented pigeon-pea flavonoids varied between 0.59– 0.09 mg/g, 0.59– 0.76 mg/g samples at 28±2°C and 37±1°C (Table 4.14). As fermentation period increased at 37±1°C, there was increase in flavonoids of fermented samples. Fermentation reported to cause rise in flavonoid contents in legumes (Ademiluyi and Oboh, 2011). However, decreased values of flavonoids noticed at 28±2°C might be ascribed to either sample absorption or fermentation period as experienced in pistachio hulls fermentation (Ehsan *et al.*, 2010). Okorie and Olasupo (2014) also observed decrease in flavonoids when African oil bean seeds were soaked overnight.

Table 4.14 revealed phytate contents of fermented pigeon-pea samples 0.45- 0.08mg/g, 0.45 - 0.34mg/g at 28±2°C and 37±1°C while sample at 28±2°C has the least value (0.08mg/g). Reduction of phytate as fermentation progresses has also stated (Adeniran *et al.*, 2013) through fermentation of lima and locust beans. The current study acquired values lesser to 888 mg/g reported in moth bean also, 51.6 mg/g in *Prosopis chilensis* (Vijayakumari *et al.*, 1996). Pigeon-pea soaking and boiling reported to show phytate reduction (Igbedioh *et al.*, 1994).

Phytate decline observed in pigeon-pea samples (Table 4.14) indicate that the nutritional status of the processed samples might be of health benefit to the consumers. The reduction in phytate level could be attributed to an unsolvable complex being formed among phytates, then another ingredient

(Vijayakumari *et al.*, 1996).

They are known to reduce digestibility of starches, fats, protein and normally expelled when they are bound. Before phytates ingested, they impact digestive enzymes and bind minerals like zinc, iron and manganese in the gut (Raboy, 2001).

At  $28 \pm 2$  °C and  $37 \pm 1$ °C, respectively, the present study discovered tannin from fermented pigeon-pea samples range between 0.91 – 0.13 mg/g, 0.91– 0.14 mg/g (Table 4.14). There were decreased in contents as fermentation periods were increasing for all the treatments. Decreased in tannin was observed by Onwuka (2006) during pigeon-pea and cowpea processing. Onilude *et al.* (2014) noticed tannin decrease inside cereal- soybean blends due to malting and toasting. Kinyua *et al.*, (2016) reported that fermentation and malting of sorghum as well as pigeon-peas dehulling decreased tannin content. The decrease in tannin occurs due to leaching of tannin ions into water via fermentation and also by polyphenol oxidase activity in food grain, or microflora activity due to fermentation (Ene-Obong and Obizoba, 1996, Fagbemi, 2005). Reports also established that soaking and fermentation decreased tannins content in raw African yam bean (0.41% - 0.19%) and in some legumes (Nwosu *et al.*, 2012, Ikemefuna *et al.*, 1991). Tannin belongs to polyphenol group testified as antioxidant through oxidative stress averting linked with heart disease, cancer and inflammation (Tapiero *et al.*, 2002).

Oxalate of fermented pigeon-pea (Table 4.14) varied 0.14- 0.09 mg/g, 0.14 - 0.34 mg/g at  $28 \pm 2$ °C and  $37 \pm 1$ °C, respectively. Decreased in value of oxalate in treated pigeon-pea could be ascribed to discharge of oxalate to water. Ajayi *et al.*, (2011) observed decreased oxalate contents in pigeon-pea, lima and jack beans. However, slight increase observed in pigeon-pea oxalate values at  $37 \pm 1$ °C but lesser than those of walnut (1.13 mg/g) reported by Ogungbenle (2009), sorghum (5.22 mg/g) and millet (4.06 mg/g) described by NAS (1974) respectively. The oxalate levels in all the samples were within safe level (4-5 mg/g). Oke (1969) reported that low levels of oxalates (4-5 mg/g) are acknowledged to cause no irritation in the mouth or inhibit with iron or calcium absorption. Dresbach (1980) stated that oxalate decrease to physiological bearable quantity via processing, improved use of nutrients for metabolic activities.

Fermented pigeon-pea cyanide contents ranged between 0.60-1.21 mg/100g and 0.08-1.21 mg/100g, respectively. This report agreed with findings (Oluwamukomi and Adeyemi 2015) that observed cyanide reduction in fermentation of soy-melon gari. Adegbehingbe *et al.* (2014) also

reported decreased in cyanide contents of fermented lima bean seeds. Cyanide contents of pigeon-

pea samples lesser than report for ground bean flour (Chikwendu, 2005) in the present study. The reduction in HCN level through fermentation is due to leaching, as cyanides water soluble (Tresina and Mohan, 2012). The reductions of HCN in all the flour samples were far beyond the 35 mg/100g lethal value (Oke, 1969). This suggests that fermented samples examined might be good for eating.

Table 4.14 presented fermented pigeon-pea alkaloid contents varied from 0.92 to 0.46% and 0.92 to 0.48% for samples at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Highest alkaloid content found in unfermented sample (control). However, reduction of alkaloid contents occurred in different treatments with increase in fermentation periods. Udensi *et al.*, 2014 and Siddhuraju *et al.*, 2002 detected alkaloid reduction when samples were autoclaved. Nwaigwe and Adejumo (2015) also, established that low level of alkaloid content reduces flatulence in humans.

Saponins are glycosides components, then stated as natural soaps based on frothy characteristics. Saponins identified for useful and harmful possessions depending on its concentration. The current study revealed saponin contents of samples from 0.64 to 0.26% and 0.64 to 0.34% (Table 4.14). Nwannekezi *et al.*, (2017) through different processing methods of pigeon pea flour obtained similar results. As fermentation time increased, saponin contents in fermented pigeon-pea flour decreased with different temperatures. Highest value obtained from unfermented sample while the least was from samples treated at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Table 4.14).

Saponin reduction may be due to microbial degradation (Nwannekezi *et al.*, 2017). Onimawo and Akubor (2005) testified saponins trace elements to be nutritively favourable because of hypocholesterolemic activity (cholesterol lowering). In addition, content reduces heart diseases risk when consuming saponin-rich legumes. Foods rich in saponin are essential in nutrition to regulate cholesterol, check peptic ulcer and osteoporosis. Gemedede and Ratta (2014) established its applications as viral adjuvants and bacterial vaccine (Quillaja saponins).

**Table 4.14 Anti-Nutrient Contents of Fermented Pigeon-pea Flour**

<b>Fermentation Period (Hr)</b>	<b>Temp. (°C)</b>	<b>Phenolic (mg/g)</b>	<b>Flavonoid (mg/g)</b>	<b>Phytate (mg/g)</b>	<b>Tannin (mg/g)</b>	<b>Oxalate (mg/g)</b>	<b>Cyanide (mg/100g)</b>	<b>Alkaloid (%)</b>	<b>Saponin (%)</b>
0	0	0.86±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.59±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	0.45±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.91±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.14±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	1.21±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.92±0.10 <sup>a</sup>	0.64±0.02 <sup>a</sup>
24	28±2	0.40±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.49±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.23±0.01 <sup>c</sup>	0.40±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	0.13±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.92±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.86±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.32±0.01 <sup>g</sup>
	37±1	0.71±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	0.60±0.03 <sup>d</sup>	0.36±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.46±0.15 <sup>b</sup>	0.22±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.19±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.91±0.11 <sup>a</sup>	0.52±0.00 <sup>b</sup>
48	28±2	0.33±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.33±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	0.19±0.00 <sup>d</sup>	0.33±0.01 <sup>d</sup>	0.11±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.80±0.03 <sup>cd</sup>	0.83±0.02 <sup>ab</sup>	0.32±0.01 <sup>g</sup>
	37±1	0.67±0.06 <sup>c</sup>	0.61±0.03 <sup>d</sup>	0.36±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.34±0.06 <sup>d</sup>	0.23±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	0.18±0.01 <sup>g</sup>	0.84±0.05 <sup>ab</sup>	0.50±0.01 <sup>b</sup>
72	28±2	0.31±0.00 <sup>gh</sup>	0.28±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.16±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	0.28±0.02 <sup>f</sup>	0.10±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	0.77±0.02 <sup>d</sup>	0.66±0.02 <sup>c</sup>	0.29±0.00 <sup>h</sup>
	37±1	0.66±0.02 <sup>e</sup>	0.70±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.35±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.33±0.10 <sup>d</sup>	0.30±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.09±0.00 <sup>h</sup>	0.63±0.05 <sup>c</sup>	0.46±0.01 <sup>c</sup>
96	28±2	0.25±0.05 <sup>i</sup>	0.22±0.01 <sup>i</sup>	0.11±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.25±0.02 <sup>g</sup>	0.10±0.00 <sup>e</sup>	0.68±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.50±0.03 <sup>cd</sup>	0.28±0.00 <sup>hi</sup>
	37±1	0.64±0.02 <sup>d</sup>	0.73±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.34±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.31±0.00 <sup>c</sup>	0.31±0.02 <sup>b</sup>	0.09±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.57±0.02 <sup>d</sup>	0.44±0.01 <sup>cd</sup>
120	28±2	0.23±0.01 <sup>j</sup>	0.09±0.01 <sup>j</sup>	0.08±0.00 <sup>g</sup>	0.13±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.09±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.60±0.01 <sup>f</sup>	0.46±0.01 <sup>e</sup>	0.26±0.00 <sup>i</sup>
	37±1	0.48±0.03 <sup>c</sup>	0.76±0.02 <sup>a</sup>	0.34±0.01 <sup>b</sup>	0.14±0.05 <sup>h</sup>	0.34±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.08±0.01 <sup>h</sup>	0.48±0.06 <sup>e</sup>	0.34±0.01 <sup>g</sup>

Means with diverse alphabet within each row were statistically different (5% level)

#### 4.13 Biochemical and Carbohydrates Features of Bacteria in Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea

Table 4.15 revealed biochemical characteristics of fermented breadfruit- pigeon pea isolates. The isolates from breadfruit and pigeon-peas produced lactic acid bacteria namely *Lactobacillus fermentum* and *plantarum* while some were bacilli like *Bacillus anthracis*, *thuringiensis*, *cereus*, *pumillus*, *paenibacillus thuringiensis* and *Alcaligenes*. Some selected isolates (*L. fermentum*, *L. plantarum*, *B. anthracis*, *thuringiensis*, *cereus*, *pumillus* and *paenibacillus thuringiensis*) picked after the characterization provided blue-purple colour through gram staining; this discovered gram-positive bacteria. *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum* differentiated through their biological capability to divulge hexoses completely through Embden-Meyerhof path. However, *Alcaligenes* strain was negative to the test. Some bacteria strains identified showed positive reaction and generate acid during fermentation for these sugars: glucose, fructose, gluconate, sucrose, lactose, maltose, melibiose, raffinose and ribose. Although, some were unable to ferment these sugars. In the current study (Table 4.15), the LAB identified was able to ferment the sugar while bacilli strains fermented glucose only. In food industry, LAB act as valuable and decay organisms; they use in fermented milk production like sour milk, yoghurt, butter and cheese.

LAB is useful for preparation in sausages, sour dough, pickles, sauerkraut, silage beverages such as wine. It can be found in genital intestinal, animal and man respiratory tracts (Hammes *et al.*, 1992). LAB and their metabolism products serve as bio-preservatives, therefore, increase food shelf-life (Schillinger and Lucke, 1989; Ayad *et al.*, 2004). They displayed many anti-microbial actions via production of bacteriocins and compounds like ethanol, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, organic acids, diacetyl, reuterin (Oral Jensen Axelsson *et al.*, 2008) and decreasing foodborne diseases risks (Konings *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, the present LAB might have needed potentials and improve fermented products safety (De martinis *et al.*, 2002). LAB capability to lower fermented foods pH leads to inhibition/reduction of food spoilage (Ellison and Tatini, 1999). Studies shown isolated LAB types of diverse environmental niches, for examples in milk, meat, vegetables, mouth, intestine and mammals vagina. *Lactobacillus plantarum* is used as starter culture and as probiotic LAB in cheese making (Vinderola *et al.*, 2000; Gomes *et al.*, 1995).

Research showed probiotics ability to control immune responses, lesser biomarkers like faecal activities, superficial bladder and cervical cancer (MacFarland, 2000).

Additional benefits of probiotics include improvement of inflammatory bowel disease; contagion control, multi drug-resistance microbes' abolition. Also, blood cholesterol reduction, then anti-mutagenic/anti-carcinogenic activity (Salminen *et al.*, 2005). Previous studies isolated *L. plantarum* during sausage fermentation and sicilian green olive (Randazzo *et al.*, 2004; Parente *et al.*, 2001). Sugar isolated conformed to findings of Hedberg *et al.*, (2008) and Sharpe (1979), they worked on sugar fermentation in probiotic bacteria. The study also agreed with work done by Ishola and Adebayo-Tayo (2012) on fermented food for bio-molecules production.

**Table 4.15 Biochemical and Carbohydrates Characteristics of Bacteria from Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea**

Sample	Gram Reaction	Catalase	Oxidase	Glucose	Fructose	Gluconate	Sucrose	Lactose	Maltose	Melibiose	Rafinose	Ribose
1. <i>L. fermentum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
2. <i>L. fermentum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
3. <i>L. fermentum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
4. <i>L. fermentum 3</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
5. <i>B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6. <i>B. anthracis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. <i>B. cereus 2</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. <i>B. anthracis 2</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9. <i>B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10. <i>B. thuringiensis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11. <i>L. plantarum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
12. <i>L. plantarum 1</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Readings done through anaerobic environments at 37°C after 24h. Key: + = Positive reaction, -=Negative reaction



**Table 4.15 Biochemical and Carbohydrates Characteristics of Bacteria from Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea (contd.)**

Sample	Gram Reaction	Catalase	Oxidase	Glucose	Fructose	Gluconate	Sucrose	Lactose	Maltose	Melibiose	Rafinose	Ribose
<i>13. L. plantarum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>14. B. anthracis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>15. B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>16. B. thuringiensis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>17. L. fermentum 3</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>18. L. fermentum 3</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>19. L. fermentum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>20. L. plantarum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>21. L. plantarum 1</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>22. L. plantarum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Readings done through anaerobic settings at 37°C after 24h. Key: + = Positive reaction, - = Negative reaction

**Table 4.15 Biochemical and Carbonhydrates Characteristics of Bacteria from Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea (contd.)**

Sample	Gram Reaction	Catalase	Oxidase	Glucose	Fructose	Gluconate	Sucrose	Lactose	Maltose	Melibiose	Rafinose	Ribose
23. <i>B. anthracis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
24. <i>B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
25. <i>B. thuringiensis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
26. <i>L. fermentum 2-1</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
27. <i>L. fermentum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
28. <i>L. fermentum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
29. <i>L. plantarum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
30. <i>L. plantarum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
31. <i>L. plantarum 3</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
32. <i>L. plantarum 1</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Readings done through anaerobic settings at 37°C after 24h. Key: + = Positive reaction, - = Negative reaction

**Table 4.15 Biochemical and Carbohydrates Characteristics of Bacteria from Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea (contd.)**

Sample	Gram Reaction	Catalase	Oxidase	Glucose	Fructose	Gluconate	Sucrose	Lactose	Maltose	Melibiose	Rafinose	Ribose
33. <i>L. plantarum 4</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
34. <i>B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
35. <i>B. cereus 1</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
36. <i>B. cereus</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
37. <i>L. fermentum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
38. <i>L. plantarum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
39. <i>L. plantarum</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
40. <i>B. thuringiensis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
41. <i>B. anthracis</i>	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Readings done through anaerobic environments at 37°C after 24h. Key: + = Positive reaction, - = Negative reaction

**Table 4.15 Biochemical and Carbohydrates Characteristics of Bacteria from Fermented Breadfruit and Pigeon-pea (contd.)**

Sample	Gram Reaction	Catalase	Oxidase	Glucose	Fructose	Gluconate	Sucrose	Lactose	Maltose	Melibiose	Rafinose	Ribose
<i>42. L. fermentum 3</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>43. L. fermentum 1</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>44. L. fermentum 2</i>	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>45. Alcaligenes</i>	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
<i>46. Bacillus pumillus</i>	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	+
<i>47. Paenibacillus thuringiensis</i>	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-

Readings done through anaerobic settings at 37°C after 24h. Key: + = Positive reaction, - = Negative reaction

#### **4.14 Polymerase Chain Reaction, 16S rRNA Gene Sequence and Phylogenetic Tree of Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Isolates**

Polymerase chain reaction and gel electrophoresis established as suitable tools for analysis of *Lactobacillus* community since they allow the detection of species very rapidly and economically (Burton *et al.*, 2003). Strains of more than forty-seven (47) organisms were isolated and screened from breadfruit and pigeon-pea. Plate 4.1, shows the agarose gel electrophoresis of PCR amplicons for fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea.

The current study presented gene sequencing, phylogenetic trees and alignment derived from 16S rRNA sequence. For this study, figures 4.1 a-c display the breadfruit isolates sequence; fig. 4.1 (d) demonstrates phylogenetic tree while fig. 4.1 (e) shows the isolates alignment at  $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ . However, figs. 4.2 a-d show pigeon-pea sequence; fig. 4.2 (e) illustrates phylogenetic tree and fig. 4.2 (f) indicates the isolates alignment at the same temperature ( $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ ). Figures 4.3 a-f reveal breadfruit isolates sequence at the temperature of  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  while fig. 4.3g shows phylogenetic tree and 4.3h shows the alignment of breadfruit isolate. Thus, figures 4.4 a-g show pigeon-pea isolates sequence, fig. 4.4h is the phylogenetic tree and 4.4(i) is the alignment of the pigeon-pea at  $37 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Polymerase chain reaction built genomic techniques assumed to have uppermost probable for quick, dependable and repeatable discovery. Also, establish documentation, classification, then species of same strains (Gomez-Gil *et al.*, 2004). Traditionally, LAB had been categorised via phenotypic possessions includes physical tests, sugar formation strategies but molecular methods established as operative, precise technique to ascertain and characterize flora in multifaceted bacterial groups like fermented foods in last 20 years (Kesmen *et al.*, 2012). Phylogenetic centred on sequences, then displays relationship among better-studied

orders. Phylogenetic tree is used to avoid sequence of same clonal isolates, this, dropping cost of DNA sequences. Each clade represents related organisms, horizontal edges shown shortest and longest group branches. Root of universal phylogenetic tree suggests that the bacteria have single ancestor (Prescott *et al.*, 2008).

Phylogenetic trees and 16S rRNA gene sequence presented *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum* as dominating organisms during fermentation of breadfruit and pigeon-pea (fig.4.1 d). This data shows that *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum* are closely related than other species based on phylogenetic locations. They are heterofermentative *lactobacilli* and can metabolize glucose to a mixture of carbon dioxide, lactic and acetic acid.

*Lactobacillus plantarum* recognised as prevalent organism in numerous natural fermentations (Mugula *et al.*, 2003), possibly because of ability to tolerate acid, then bigger capacity to use substrate (Fleming and McFeters, 1981). *Lactobacillus fermentum* also reported to dominate fermentation of *fufu* during intermediate and final stages, this produced typical flavour for the product (Adekoge and Babalola, 1988). *Lactobacillus* testified accountable acid creation, then flavour improvement in cereals pap and 'gari' (Ngaba and Lee, 1979; Akinrele, 1970). Chen *et al.*, (2010) discovered *L. plantarum* as most essential specie in tomato which is similar to the present study. Representative isolates selected for identification via PCR analyses, bacteria isolated were categorised via morphological, biochemical and molecular methods. Biochemical and phylogenetic trees showed most characterised LAB belongs to *Lactobacillus spp*, *lactobacilli* are vital advocates of lactic fermentation for a very long period (Pang *et al.*, 2012; Pang *et al.*, 2011). The taxonomic identifications achieved with DNA analyses were completely reliable with the results of morphological characterization. The results indicated that identification through 16S rRNA is similar to traditional biochemical approaches (Singh and Khullar, 2015).

16S rRNA gene is key among bacteria and has precise signature sequences. Saraithong *et al.* (2014) reported 16S rRNA gene sequence for studied bacteria structure in Apis. 16S rRNA accrues mutations quickly than nuclear rDNA genes, then decode relationships underneath family level (Simon *et al.*, 1994). Petti *et al.* (2005) 16S rDNA sequencing identified bacteria correctly together with misidentified pathogens by traditional methods. The trait makes the sequence a vital indicator for identification. The 16S rRNA is notable for use but there are others

like 23S rRNA, 16S-23S intergenic insert and *gyrB* (Gomez-Gil *et al.*, 2004; Venkateswaran *et al.*, 1998).

Gene is satisfactory with interspecific 16S rRNA polymorphisms, essential in adding to discriminative and statistically reliable dimension (Clarridge, 2004). Also, 16S rRNA used extensively in determining huge quantity strains of bacteria and many deposited sequences for comparison of unknown bacterial strains (Clarridge, 2004). In addition, 16S rRNA measure relationship among bacteria, because of general gene (Woese, 1987). Universal primers carefully chosen as complementary to conserve regions as shown in figs. 4.1 (i), 4.2 and the sequences (figs. 4.1 a-g, 4.2 a-d; 4.3 a-f, 4.4 a-g, 4.5 a-f, 4.6 a-g) of which variable regions are for comparative taxonomy (Clarridge, 2004; Relman, 1999). Generally, 16S rRNA sequences allow bacteria selective comparison at species level and categorising strains at diverse levels (Clarridge, 2004). 16S rRNA could be explored in sequences as standard for classification, microorganisms documentation and also displays appropriate variations (Ting *et al.*, 2009). Identification of bacteria using 16S rRNA sequence discovered lactic acid bacteria and *Bacillus spp.*, while dominant organisms are *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum*. *Bacillus sp.* is common bacterium found plentifully in soil. LAB is amongst microorganisms that control food fermentations (Guasch-Jane *et al.*, 2006). They are gram-positive which make lactic acid key produce, then Generally -recognised- as -safe (Konings, 2000). This study established that fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea contain abundant LAB species which involved in adequate acidification during fermentation process. LAB plays vital role in production of quality silage and they display effects on silage quality differently (Yang *et al.*, 2010). LAB creates significant group of organisms in food processing industries, these organisms are responsible for fermentation of most legumes and cereals (Oyarekua, 2011; Amusa *et al.*, 2005). LAB has probable as food seasonings and functional constituents for health and economy aids (Welman and Maddox, 2003).

On the other hand, bacteria like *alcaligenes faecalis*, *bacillus cereus*, *bacillus pumillus* and *bacillus anthracis* noticed in breadfruit isolates while *bacillus thuringiensis* and *paenibacillus taichungensis* found in pigeon-pea isolates at the same temperature could be as a result of handling. The 16S rRNA gene sequence compared via Basic Local Alignment Search device through sequences database in National Centre for Biotechnology. The findings in this study using phenotypic and molecular characterization established that organisms recognised as same species once gene homology developed to 99% (Laurentiu *et al.*, 2014; Fry *et al.* 1991).

M 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22

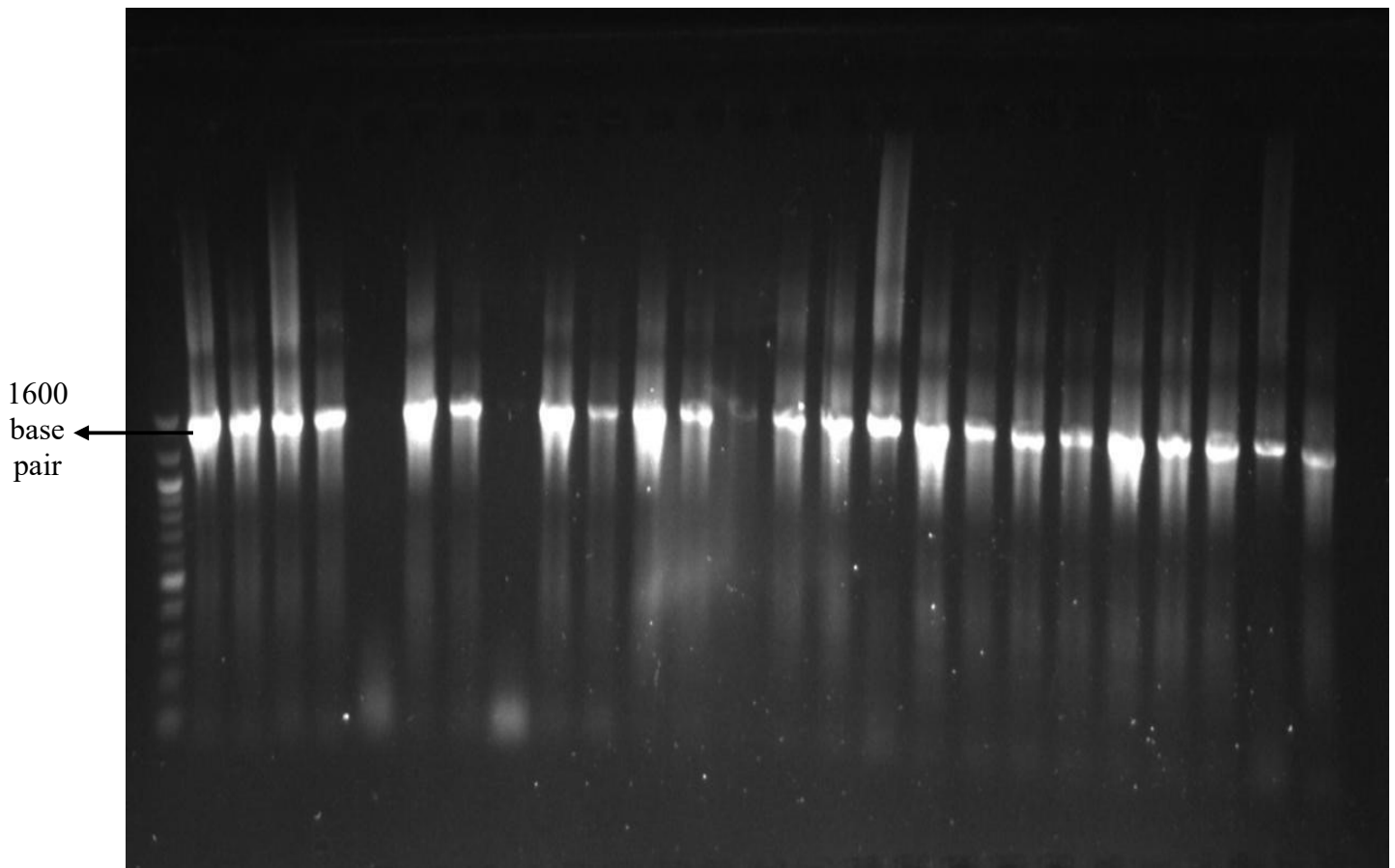


Plate 4.1: DNA amplification bands for breadfruit and pigeon-pea isolates



23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 M

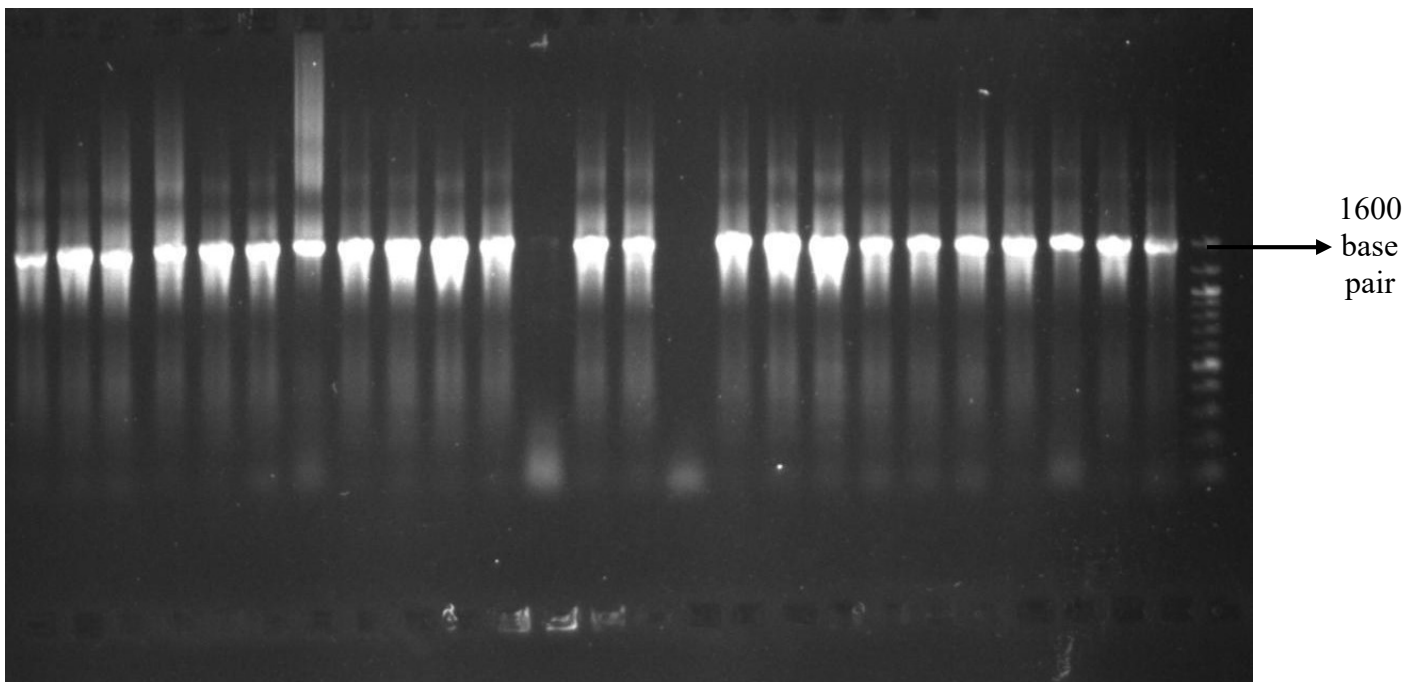


Plate 4.1: DNA amplification bands for breadfruit and pigeon-pea isolates (contd)

46      47      M

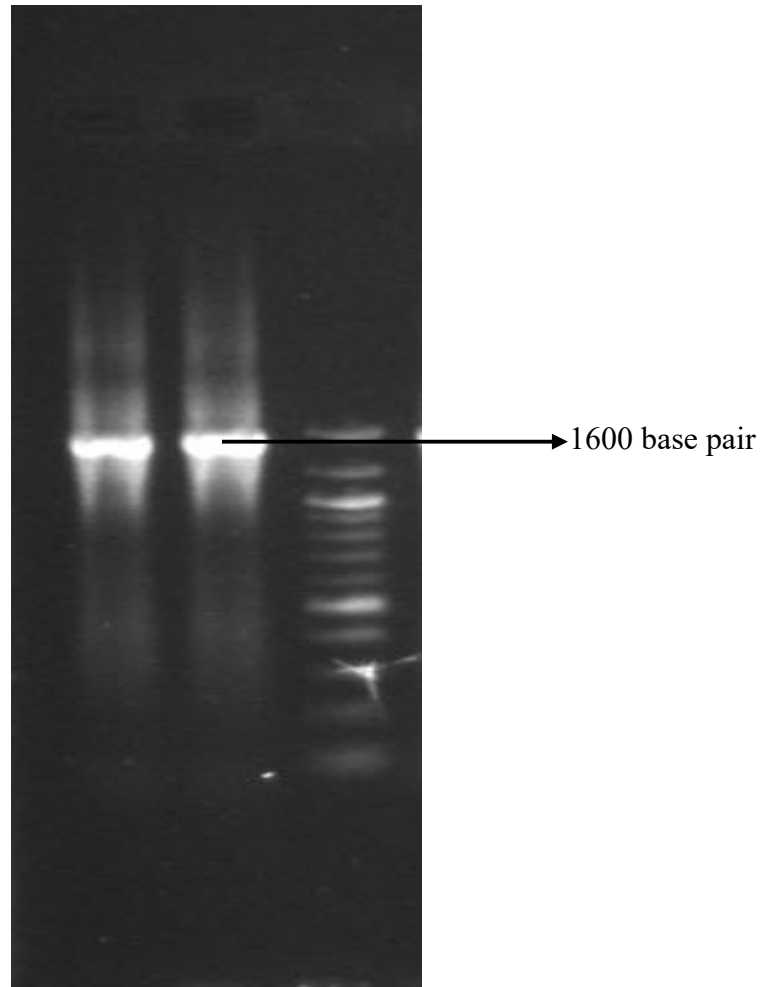


Plate 4.1: DNA amplification bands for breadfruit and pigeon-pea isolates (contd)

**Key:**

M: Marker

Lane 25: *B. thuringiensis*

Lane 1: *L. fermentum*  
Lane 2: *L. fermentum 2*  
Lane 3: *L. fermentum 2*  
Lane 4: *L. fermentum 3*  
Lane 5: *B. cereus*  
Lane 6: *B. anthracis*  
Lane 7: *B. cereus 2*  
Lane 8: *B. anthracis 2*  
Lane 9: *B. cereus*  
Lane 10: *B. thuringiensis*  
Lane 11: *L. plantarum*  
Lane 12: *L. plantarum 1*  
Lane 13: *L. plantarum 2*  
Lane 14: *B. anthracis*  
Lane 15: *B. cereus*  
Lane 16: *B. thuringiensis*  
Lane 17: *L. fermentum 3*  
Lane 18: *L. fermentum 3*  
Lane 19: *L. fermentum*  
Lane 20: *L. plantarum*  
Lane 21: *L. plantarum 1*  
Lane 22: *L. plantarum 2*  
Lane 23: *B. anthracis*  
Lane 24: *B. cereus*  
Lane 26: *L. fermentum 2- 1*  
Lane 27: *L. fermentum*  
Lane 28: *L. fermentum*  
Lane 29: *L. plantarum*  
Lane 30: *L. plantarum 2*  
Lane 31: *L. plantarum 3*  
Lane 32: *L. plantarum 1*  
Lane 33: *L. plantarum 4*  
Lane 34: *B. cereus*  
Lane 35: *B. cereus 1*  
Lane 36: *B. cereus*  
Lane 37: *L. fermentum*  
Lane 38: *L. plantarum*  
Lane 39: *L. plantarum*  
Lane 40: *B. thuringiensis*  
Lane 41: *B. anthracis*  
Lane 42: *L. fermentum 3*  
Lane 43: *L. fermentum 1*  
Lane 44: *L. fermentum 2*  
Lane 45: *Alcaligenes*  
Lane 46: *Bacillus pumillus*  
Lane 47: *Paenibacillus thuringiensis*

CGAGTGGGCCAATTTAAGCGTCGTCAGTTACTACAAGCTTCCGCCACTCTCTACGC  
CCTCGGGGTCATCAGCTTAGTGACCATTTGGTGGGTGGTGAACCAATTTGGCCAGTG  
GCGGGGGAACCTGCGGATTATGCACGGGGTGGCAACGTATGCCTACCGCGCTTACC  
TAGGCAATGTCTTTTGGCAGACCTTGCTTTGGGATTGGTGGGGTTCGTC AATTAGCCA  
CCACGCACCCATGGTTAGCGTTGGCGCTCCTCTGGCCGGCTACTTGGTTGTTAGCGTT  
TGGTTTTGCCTACCTGTTACACCTGATATGGGGGCGCCGGCCGGTTAAACAAAAATG  
ATTCAAGAACCACTAATTGATTGAAAGCGTTTAATTATCTGGTTTGAAAGGAAATAA  
TTAAAGTAGACCACTTGACGAATCGACCAAAGACCGTTATGGTGAGGGTAGTTTAGT  
TGCCTAGCCAGAATCGTTGGAGGGATTATGCTCAATCTTAATAACA ACTGCCGCCAG  
GTTCCCAAGAAGTGGCCCGCTTAGACGCCACCACCCAGCGCCAGCTAAACGCCAA  
CGCCGCGGTGCTCGTGC GGGGGCTGCGCCAGGACCTGGACATGACCACGGGAGAAT  
TTGCGACATACGTAGGCTTAACGCCAACTTTAATTTTCGTCCATTGAAGAGGTT CAGA  
TTAACGTCTCCTACGCCCTGGTGGCTGACATCGCACACCGGGCGGGAAAACGGCTTA  
ACATTGAGTATCGGTGATTTAAGAGAGTGATAGCAAGGGACTGGGAAAAGAGCTGT  
TTTTCCGGTCCCTTTTTTATATACATTTAACGATAACGACATAAAGTTGTATCCTAGA  
TGTGTCGATAACGTCATAAAAAGGAGAGATATCATGGCACAATTA AACCACATGGA  
TAAGCAATTTAAGACCCTCGCTGACTTTTTGGGGACCCACTTTATTTACACCTACGAT  
AACGGCTGGGAATACGAATGGTACGCTAAAAACGACCACACCGTTGACTCCCGGAT  
TCACGGTGGGATGGTCGCCGGCCGCTGGGTGAAGGACCAAGAAGCCACATTGATA  
TGCTGACTGAAGGAGTATAACAAGTTGCTTGGACGGAACCGACTGGGACCGACGTG  
GCCTT.

Fig. 4.1 (a)

*Lactobacillus fermentum*CP011536.1

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TAGGCAATGTCTTTTGGCAGACCTTGCTTTGGGATTGGTGGGGTCGTCAATTAGCCA  
CCACGCACCCATGGTTAGCGTTGGCGCTCCTCTGGCCGGCTACTTGGTTGTTAGCGTT  
TGGTTTTGCCTACCTGTTACACCTGATATGGGGGCGCCGGCCGGTTAAACAAAAATG  
ATTCAAGAACCACTAATTGATTGAAAGCGTTTAATTATCTGGTTTGAAAGGAAATAA  
TTAAAGTAGACCACTTGACGAATCGACCAAAGACCGTTATGGTGAGGGTAGTTTAGT  
TGCCTAGCCAGAATCGTTGGAGGGATTATGCTCAATCTTAATACAACTGCCGCCAG  
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TAAGCAATTTAAGACCCTCGCTGACTTTTTGGGGACCCACTTTATTTACACCTACGAT  
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TCACGGTGGGATGGTCGCCGGCCGCTGGGTGAAGGACCAAGAAGCCCACATTGATA  
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GCCTT.

Fig. 4.1(b)

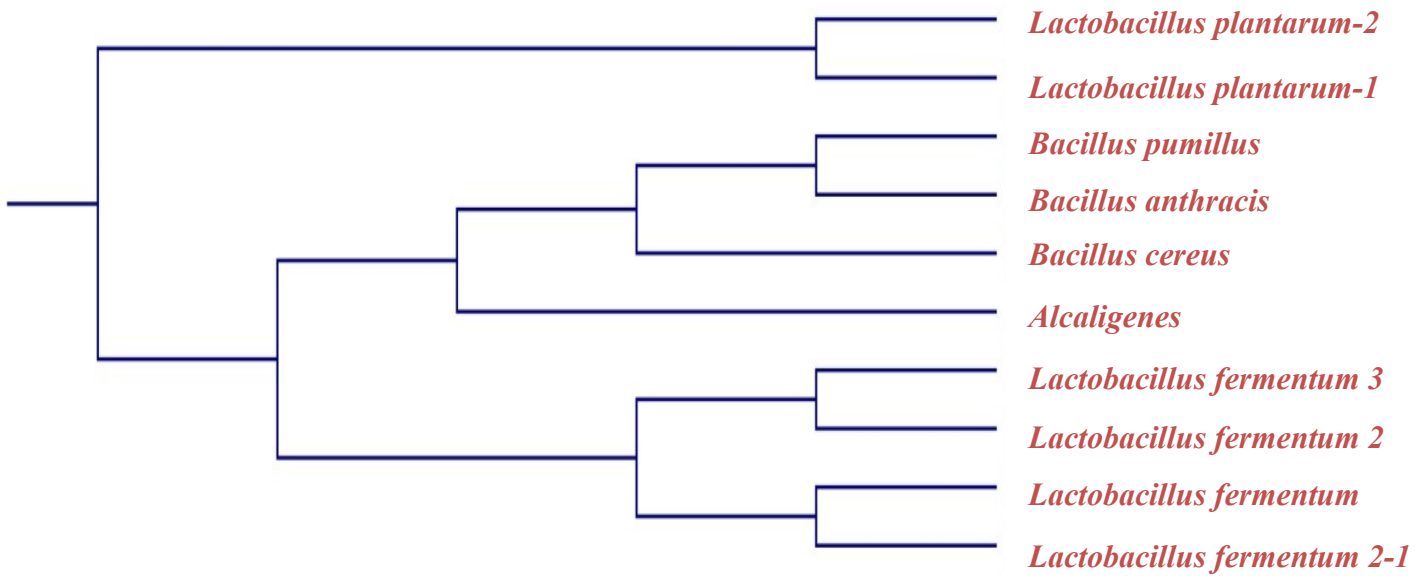
[Lactobacillus fermentumCP002033.1](#)

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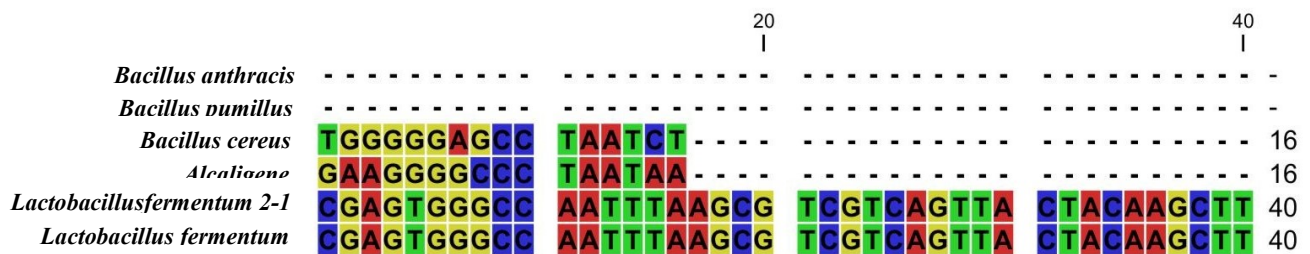
CTAAGGATGCGCAAGATATTGCGGATAAATTGAATGCAAGCGGCAAGTTACCTTAT  
AAAGTAGTCTTCAAAGATGTTATGACGACGGCTGAAAGT  
ATCACCAACTTTATGAAAGAAGTTAATTACAATGATAAGGTAGCCGGTGTATTACT  
TGGATGCACACATTCTCACCAGCCAAGAACTGGATTTCGTGGAAGTGAAGTGTACAA  
AAACCATTATTACACTTAGCAACGCAATATTTGAATAATATTCCATATGCAGACATT  
GATTTTGATTACATGAACCTTAACCAAAGTGCGCATGGC  
GACCGTGAATATGCCTACATTAACGCCCGGTTGCAGAAACATAATAAGGTTGTCTAC  
GGCTATTGGGGCGATGAAGATGTGCAAGAACAGATTGCGCGTTGGGAAGACGTCGC  
AGTAGCGTACAATGAGAGCTTTAAAGTTAAGGTTGCTCGTTTTGGCGACACGATGCG  
TAATGTGGCCGTTACTGAAGGTGACAAGGTTGAAGCTCAA  
ATTAAGATGGGCTGGACAGTTGACTATTATGGTATCGGTGACTTAGTTGAAGAGATC  
AATAAGGTTTCGGATGTTGATATTGATAAGGAATACGCTGACTTGGAGTCTCGGTAT  
GAAATGGTCCAGGGCGATAACGATGC

Fig.4.1 (c)

*Lactobacillusplantarum*CP012122.1



**Fig. 4.1(d): Phylogenetic Tree of Breadfruit Isolates at 28±2°C**



**Fig. 4.1 (e) Breadfruit Isolates Alignment at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$**

#### **4.15 Sensory Properties of Pigeon-pea- Enriched Breadfruit Products**

Sensory assessment is countenance of individual's like or dislike for product due to biological



difference in human and what is observed as suitable during evaluation. It is distinctive foundation of product evidence not simply acquired anyhow. This evaluates people responses to food samples based on quality attributes, lacking labelling help, valuing and additional descriptions (Iwe, 2003). Table 4.16 and 4.17 show the mean sensory scores of pigeon-pea-fortified breadfruit products (breakfast meal and pizelle cookies). The fermented breadfruit-pigeon-pea breakfast meal at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24h assessed on aroma appearance, colour, taste and general suitability via hedonic scale (9-point). Organoleptic attributes of fermented blends shown (Table 4.16). Sample 553 (breakfast meal produced from commercial flour blends) preferred to others based on appearance, colour, aroma, taste including overall acceptability (8.16) while sample 554 (7.68) which is the 10% pigeon-pea not statistically different at  $p\leq 0.05$  after commercial. Trial 558 (50:50 breadfruit: pigeon-pea) was least acceptable. Little differences were observed via appearance, colour, aroma, taste and overall acceptability from other samples at 5% significant level. However, the samples were rated above average and scores higher than (Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.*, 2012) findings. Fermented Breadfruit flour enriched with pigeon-pea flour to make breakfast meal agreed with observations of Muoki *et al.* (2012); Monayajo and Nupo (2011) and Osho (2003) for cassava-based products improved with soybean. Olatidoye *et al.*, (2010) also reported nutritional enhancement on a product enriched with soybean flour. Improvement in protein status of pigeon-pea enriched-breadfruit meal will have nutritive significance for developing countries such as Nigeria, where cost of protein-rich foods is higher. Badmus *et al.* (2006) corroborates the present findings that though breadfruit flour samples were improved nutritionally by enriching with pigeon-pea flour, this does not translate to consumer acceptance as shown. There is need for public enlightenment and sensitization on the nutritional quality and importance of new products in order to stimulate higher consumer's acceptance as suggested by Olaoye *et al.* (2006).

Table 4.17 shows sensory evaluation of pigeon pea-enriched breadfruit breakfast meal at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24h. The observation shown substantial difference in the commercial meal sample and breadfruit meal samples in terms of general acceptability. Commercial meal rated highest (8.08) followed by breadfruit meal samples. This might be ascribed to consumer's familiarity with the commercial sample, which is processed from corn starch. The 10% pigeon-pea inclusion (6.44) rated next to commercial meal, but no significant difference among samples at 10%, 20% and 30% pigeon-pea flour supplementation in overall

acceptability. Overall suitability gives panelists total opinion to meal. Breakfast meal at 50% fermented breadfruit: 50% fermented pigeon-pea had the lowest rating (Table 4.17). Hence, the observations suggest that pigeon-pea-enriched breadfruit-based flour can be useful in food preparations and desirable for making thinner gruels (Alake *et al.*, 2016). Although, samples at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  were rated better than this, but the ratings show that the new products can be acceptable commercially based on awareness.

The sensory scores of pigeon-pea-enriched breadfruit cookies at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24h are shown in Table 4.18 and it was found that the commercial cookie was rated higher (6.02) while the least was 50:50 of breadfruit and pigeon-pea (4.90). Chocolate pizzelle cookies produced from 10% and 50% pigeon-pea flour rated (5.80 - 4.90) where 5.80 is for 10% pigeon-pea flour supplementation and other values have no much difference on appearance, aroma, taste and texture (Table 4.18). Some of the mean scores above average through 9-point hedonic scale show sample's reasonable acceptability. Appearance as well as other sensory properties were not that bad. Appearance can be defined as one of the most vital features affecting products acceptability by the consumers (Suknark *et al.*, 1998). Food acceptance hang on responds to consumer requests and satisfaction provided (Heldman, 2004). FAO (2006) suggested indigenous flour ingredients can be included to product with no negative impart to flavour, particle size, primitive and envisioned colour of product.

Breadfruit blends might be suitable in confectionery products and can replace starchy staples as well as imported foods of lower nutritive values. Sensory properties of pigeon-pea-enriched breadfruit pizzelle cookies at  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 24h showed (Table 4.19). Cookie from commercial sample had highest rating based on overall acceptability (6.86). This was followed by fermented and unfermented breadfruit (100%). The 10% and 20% pigeon-pea inclusion not meaningfully different at 5% level (4.96, 4.80). The obtained results showed decreased in general acceptability as fermented pigeon-pea inclusion increased. Adebayo-Oyetero *et al.*, 2017 obtained similar findings for cookies processed from soybean and sorghum blends. Sample 377 (50% pigeon-pea) rated least considering aroma, appearance, taste, texture with overall acceptability.

Pigeon-pea inclusion influenced sensory qualities including cookies general suitability. Adebayo-

Oyetero *et al.* (2017) had similar report on cookies processing using soybean and sorghum while Okpala and Chinyelu (2011) reported the same trend on cookies evaluation in pigeon-pea and cocoyam. However, substitution of pigeon-pea flours up to 20% in cookies production in order to enhance nutritive value is feasible.

**Table 4.16: Sensory Evaluation Scores of Breakfast Meal Processed from Pigeon-pea-**

### Enriched Fermented Breadfruit at 28±2°C for 24h

Samples	Appearance	Taste	Colour	Aroma	Overall Acceptability
551	5.72± 1.10 <sup>d</sup>	5.84± 1.03 <sup>d</sup>	6.08± 1.35 <sup>d</sup>	5.80± 1.00 <sup>c</sup>	6.08± 0.81 <sup>e</sup>
552	6.68± 1.41 <sup>b</sup>	6.68± 1.14 <sup>b</sup>	6.68± 1.18 <sup>b</sup>	6.48± 1.63 <sup>bc</sup>	7.12± 0.93 <sup>bc</sup>
553	7.52± 1.16 <sup>a</sup>	7.88± 0.73 <sup>a</sup>	7.40± 1.08 <sup>a</sup>	7.24± 1.27 <sup>a</sup>	8.16± 0.62 <sup>a</sup>
554	6.88± 1.20 <sup>b</sup>	7.12± 1.09 <sup>ab</sup>	6.88± 1.05 <sup>b</sup>	6.92± 1.35 <sup>ab</sup>	7.68± 0.69 <sup>b</sup>
555	6.40± 1.53 <sup>c</sup>	6.48± 1.22 <sup>c</sup>	6.76± 1.13 <sup>bc</sup>	6.16± 1.03 <sup>c</sup>	7.04± 1.01 <sup>c</sup>
556	6.28± 1.46 <sup>c</sup>	6.80± 0.58 <sup>b</sup>	6.52± 1.16 <sup>c</sup>	6.64± 1.22 <sup>b</sup>	6.96± 0.84 <sup>c</sup>
557	5.60± 1.22 <sup>d</sup>	6.04± 1.51 <sup>cd</sup>	5.44± 1.35 <sup>c</sup>	5.64± 1.58 <sup>cd</sup>	6.60± 1.41 <sup>d</sup>
558	5.44± 1.04 <sup>d</sup>	5.92± 1.18 <sup>d</sup>	5.16± 1.11 <sup>e</sup>	5.40± 1.41 <sup>d</sup>	6.04± 0.97 <sup>e</sup>

Values within same columns with different alphabet(s) were statistically different at 5%

#### Key:

551 – Unfermented Breadfruit flour

552 – 100% Fermented Breadfruit Flour at 28±2°C for 24h.

553 – Commercial Flour

554 – 90% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 10% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

555 – 80% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 20% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

556 - 70% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 30% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

557 – 60% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 40% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

558- 50% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 50% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h

**Table 4.17: Sensory Evaluation Scores of Breakfast Meal Processed from Pigeon-pea**

### Enriched Fermented Breadfruit at 37±1°C for 24h

Samples	Appearance	Taste	Colour	Aroma	Overall Acceptability
661	5.84± 0.94 <sup>d</sup>	6.24± 1.13 <sup>b</sup>	5.76± 1.01 <sup>bc</sup>	5.88± 1.20 <sup>b</sup>	6.12± 0.97 <sup>b</sup>
662	6.00± 0.64 <sup>c</sup>	5.40± 0.76 <sup>c</sup>	5.00± 0.91 <sup>d</sup>	4.84± 0.94 <sup>d</sup>	5.36± 0.64 <sup>d</sup>
663	8.12± 0.83 <sup>a</sup>	7.92± 0.64 <sup>a</sup>	8.12± 0.73 <sup>a</sup>	7.76± 0.66 <sup>a</sup>	8.08± 0.70 <sup>a</sup>
664	5.60± 1.44 <sup>d</sup>	6.12± 1.33 <sup>b</sup>	5.92± 1.18 <sup>b</sup>	5.48± 1.56 <sup>c</sup>	6.44± 1.33 <sup>b</sup>
665	5.84± 0.94 <sup>d</sup>	6.24± 1.13 <sup>b</sup>	5.76± 1.01 <sup>bc</sup>	5.88± 1.20 <sup>b</sup>	6.12± 0.97 <sup>b</sup>
666	6.52± 1.16 <sup>b</sup>	6.12± 1.05 <sup>b</sup>	6.00± 1.19 <sup>b</sup>	5.68± 1.25 <sup>b</sup>	6.08± 0.75 <sup>b</sup>
667	6.12± 1.13 <sup>c</sup>	5.88± 1.09 <sup>bc</sup>	5.92± 0.76 <sup>b</sup>	5.64± 0.64 <sup>b</sup>	5.72± 0.73 <sup>c</sup>
668	5.96± 1.10 <sup>cd</sup>	5.08± 1.26 <sup>d</sup>	5.48± 0.71 <sup>c</sup>	5.32± 1.42 <sup>c</sup>	5.56± 0.96 <sup>c</sup>

Values within same columns with different alphabet(s) were statistically different at 5%

**Key:**

661 – Unfermented Breadfruit flour.

662 – 100% Fermented Breadfruit Flour at 37±1°C for 24h.

663 – Commercial Flour

664 – 90% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 10% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

665 – 80% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 20% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

666 – 70% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 30% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

667 – 60% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 40% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

668 - 50% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 50% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h

**Table 4.18: Sensory Scores of Fermented Pigeon-pea-Enriched Breadfruit Pizzelle Cookie at 28±2°C for 24h**

Samples	Appearance	Taste	Crispiness	Aroma	Overall Acceptability
240	6.44± 1.88 <sup>a</sup>	5.64± 2.30 <sup>b</sup>	5.42± 1.89 <sup>bc</sup>	5.46± 1.85 <sup>bc</sup>	5.42± 2.32 <sup>b</sup>
241	5.30± 2.10 <sup>ab</sup>	5.10± 2.34 <sup>d</sup>	5.10± 1.85 <sup>cd</sup>	4.90± 1.92 <sup>d</sup>	4.98± 1.85 <sup>c</sup>
242	6.54± 3.07 <sup>a</sup>	6.52± 3.32 <sup>a</sup>	6.48± 3.10 <sup>a</sup>	6.22± 3.06 <sup>a</sup>	6.02± 1.85 <sup>a</sup>
243	5.94± 1.71 <sup>a</sup>	5.48± 2.41 <sup>bc</sup>	5.70± 2.10 <sup>b</sup>	5.92± 1.60 <sup>a</sup>	5.80± 2.32 <sup>a</sup>
244	5.94± 1.75 <sup>a</sup>	5.26± 2.44 <sup>c</sup>	5.40± 1.78 <sup>c</sup>	5.40± 2.08 <sup>c</sup>	5.52± 2.53 <sup>b</sup>
245	5.46± 1.98 <sup>b</sup>	5.32± 2.38 <sup>c</sup>	5.46± 2.04 <sup>bc</sup>	5.62± 1.85 <sup>b</sup>	5.12± 2.43 <sup>c</sup>
246	5.46± 1.98 <sup>b</sup>	5.32± 2.38 <sup>c</sup>	5.46± 2.04 <sup>bc</sup>	5.62± 1.85 <sup>b</sup>	5.12± 2.43 <sup>c</sup>
247	5.04± 2.10 <sup>c</sup>	4.96± 2.33 <sup>d</sup>	5.02± 2.31 <sup>d</sup>	5.36± 2.05 <sup>c</sup>	4.90± 2.53 <sup>c</sup>

Values within same columns with diverse alphabet(s) were statistically different at 5%

**Key:**

240 – Unfermented Breadfruit flours

241 – 100% Fermented Breadfruit Flour at 28±2°C for 24h.

242 – Commercial cookie

243 – 90% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 10% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

244 – 80% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 20% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

245 – 70% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 30% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

246 – 60% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 40% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24h.

247- 50% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 50% Pigeon-pea at 28±2°C for 24 h

**Table 4.19: Sensory Scores of Pigeon-pea Enriched Fermented BreadfruitPizzelle Cookie at 37±1°C for 24h**

Samples	Appearance	Taste	Crispiness	Aroma	Overall
---------	------------	-------	------------	-------	---------

					<b>Acceptability</b>
<b>370</b>	6.42±	5.61±	5.42±	5.43±	5.40±
	1.86 <sup>b</sup>	1.28 <sup>b</sup>	1.87 <sup>b</sup>	1.83 <sup>b</sup>	1.31 <sup>b</sup>
<b>371</b>	5.62±	5.16±	4.98±	5.02±	5.24±
	1.47 <sup>c</sup>	0.10 <sup>c</sup>	1.30 <sup>c</sup>	1.97 <sup>d</sup>	1.85 <sup>b</sup>
<b>372</b>	7.16±	6.90±	7.04±	6.66±	6.86±
	1.32 <sup>a</sup>	1.54 <sup>a</sup>	1.36 <sup>a</sup>	0.79 <sup>a</sup>	0.85 <sup>a</sup>
<b>373</b>	5.22±	4.68±	4.68±	5.14±	4.96±
	1.08 <sup>c</sup>	1.38 <sup>d</sup>	1.28 <sup>cd</sup>	0.14 <sup>c</sup>	1.85 <sup>bc</sup>
<b>374</b>	5.28±	4.78±	4.94±	5.14±	4.80±
	1.03 <sup>c</sup>	1.41 <sup>d</sup>	1.31 <sup>c</sup>	2.15 <sup>c</sup>	1.85 <sup>c</sup>
<b>375</b>	5.06±	4.86±	4.46±	4.76±	4.62±
	1.14 <sup>cd</sup>	1.32 <sup>cd</sup>	1.31 <sup>d</sup>	1.87 <sup>e</sup>	1.85 <sup>c</sup>
<b>376</b>	4.76±	4.14±	4.24±	4.38±	4.56±
	0.18 <sup>d</sup>	1.24 <sup>d</sup>	1.16 <sup>c</sup>	0.22 <sup>e</sup>	1.85 <sup>c</sup>
<b>377</b>	4.84±	4.14±	4.56±	4.34±	4.26±
	0.32 <sup>d</sup>	1.04 <sup>d</sup>	1.08 <sup>d</sup>	0.16 <sup>e</sup>	1.85 <sup>d</sup>

Means within same columns with dissimilar alphabet(s) are statistically different at 5%

**Key:**

370 – Unfermented Breadfruit flour.

371 – 100% Fermented Breadfruit Flour at 37±1°C for 24h.

372 – Commercial cookie.

373 – 90% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 10% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

374 – 80% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 20% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

375 – 70% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 30% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

376 – 60% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 40% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.

377- 50% Fermented Breadfruit Flour: 50% Pigeon-pea at 37±1°C for 24h.



**Plate 4.2: Breadfruit – Pigeon-pea Breakfast Meal**





**Plate 4.3: Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea Pizzelle Cookie**

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 General Conclusion

Generally, fermentations show improvements on nutrients and reduction of anti-nutrients in breadfruit-pigeon-pea using different temperatures and durations. Reduction of antinutritional substances during fermentation at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$  were within permissible safe level as recommended by Codex Alimentarius Commission. There was establishment of *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum* which can serve as starter culture in products development at  $28\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $37\pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Some nutrients were negatively affected during the fermentation while some were not, because of long periods of fermentation. The data presented in this study in terms of chemical, functional, pasting properties, anti-nutrients including molecular characteristics established potentials of using fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea in producing varieties of convenience foods, formulations development and commercial starter culture.

Study also showed enrichment with fermented pigeon-pea at different percentage (10%, 20%, 30%, 40% and 50%) led to increase in nutrients of breadfruit. Precisely, enrichment improved the protein content which is insufficient in breadfruit and carbohydrate content decrease with increase pigeon-pea. Appreciable rise in protein level was perceived in breadfruit flour at 50% level of substitution. Sensory scores from breakfast meal and pizzelle cookies revealed that the products might not be acceptable beyond 10-20% pigeon-pea substitution, but in presence of nutritional awareness percentage level may increase.

Worldwide, changes in consumer styles geared towards convenient foods and foods with extra worth in form of health benefits. Also, presently in Nigeria, research has been focused on adding value to locally available crops as well as developing alternative ways of producing flour for confectionery products and complementary foods. Hence, enriched fermented breadfruit flour for producing breakfast meal and cookies could mitigate the level of wastages in breadfruit and reduce the protein insufficiency of this crop, then reducing problem of malnutrition among populace. In conclusion, more support for production of culturally familiar forms at numerous food shortage countries where fermented products accepted as food necessitate. Also, other processing techniques might help put this time-honoured staple crops back on the menu.

## 5.2 Recommendations

- i. With the national policy of 10% cassava flour supplement for wheat flour in Nigeria, substitution of breadfruit and pigeon-pea to 10% in complementary and convenience foods is recommended. This will alleviate hunger, improving and stimulating breadfruit-pigeon pea demand in large and small scale industries.
- ii. Based on observed nutritional improvement in enriched breadfruit flour, usage of breadfruit and pigeon pea in food formulations will be of advantage in reducing undernourishment.
- iii. Future research should focus on value-additions that are breadfruit-pigeon-pea based for local and export markets.
- iv. Additional studies should be carried out on breadfruit-pigeon-pea in molecular aspect.
- v. Efforts should be made to convert breadfruit to storable form and commercialization should proceed to improve food and nutrition in Nigeria.

## 5.3 Contributions to knowledge

- i. Proximate, physico-chemical, then samples functional properties as influenced by fermentation periods and temperature established.
- ii. Study provided information on changes in nutrients and anti-nutrients from fermented breadfruit and pigeon-pea.
- iii. The fermentation conditions, periods for nutrients retention and reduction of anti-nutrients in breadfruit and pigeon-pea documented.
- iv. Dominant lactic acid bacteria (*Lactobacillus plantarum* and *fermentum*) detected might be useful as starter culture for other food production.
- v. The research established that pigeon-pea-enriched fermented breadfruit flours are highly nutritious and can be useful for food formulations.
- vi. Breakfast meal and pizzelle cookies can be produced from fermented breadfruit-pigeon-pea blends.
- vii. Processing methods for value-added products from underutilised crops like breadfruit and pigeon-pea was established.

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## APPENDICES

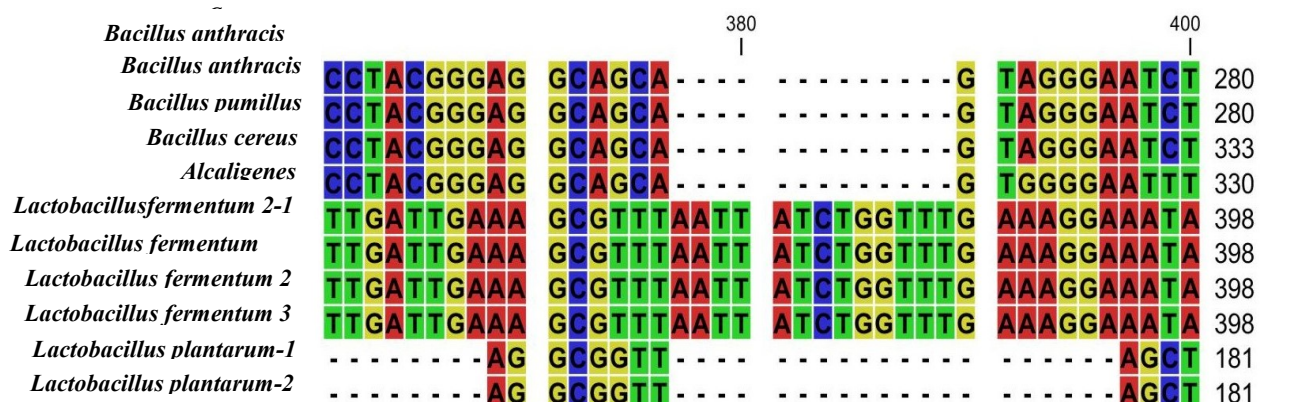
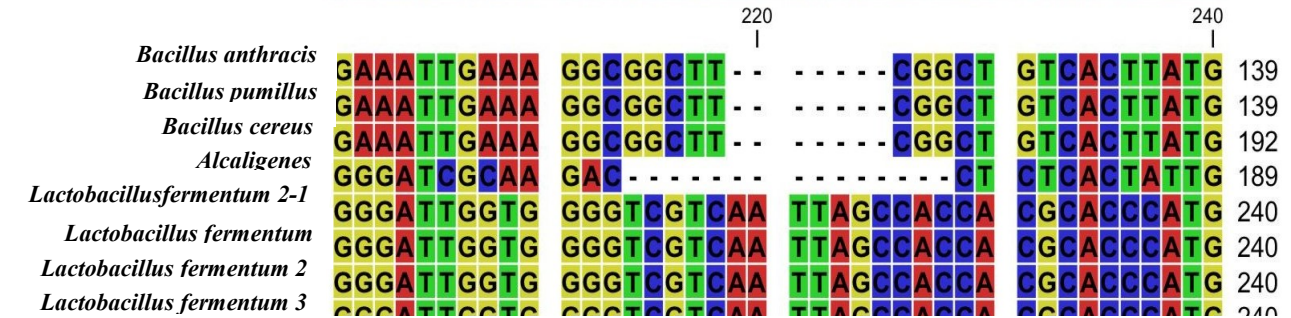
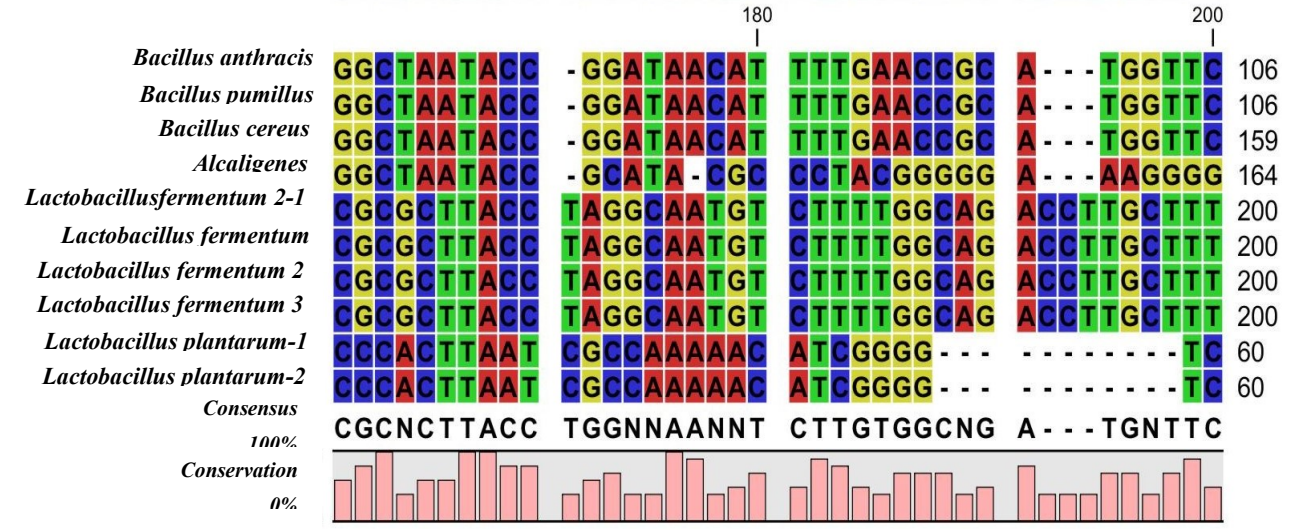
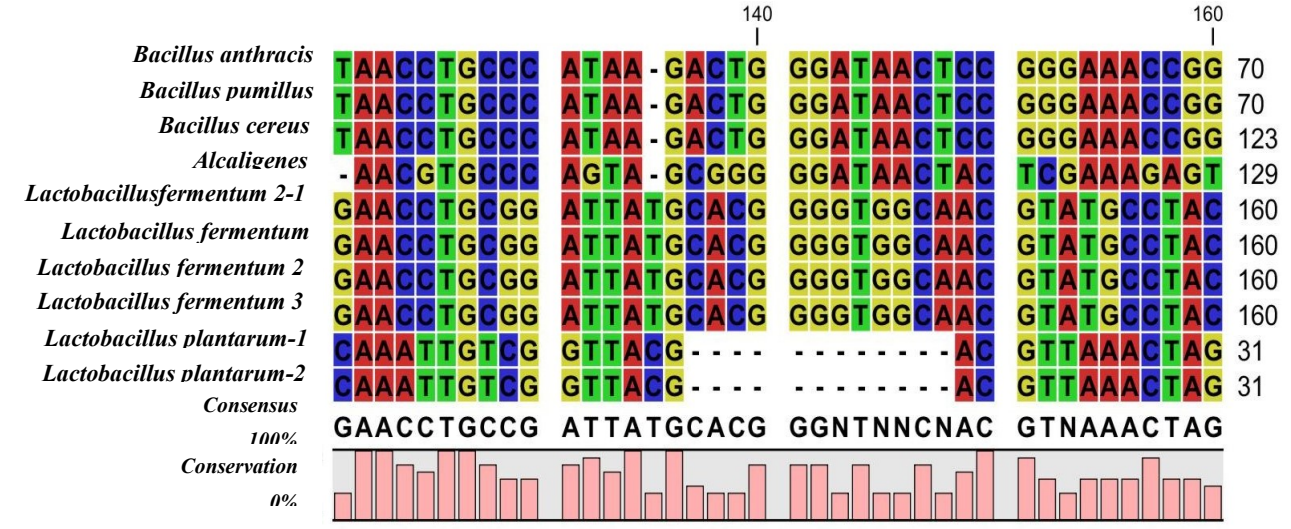
### Appendix 1a

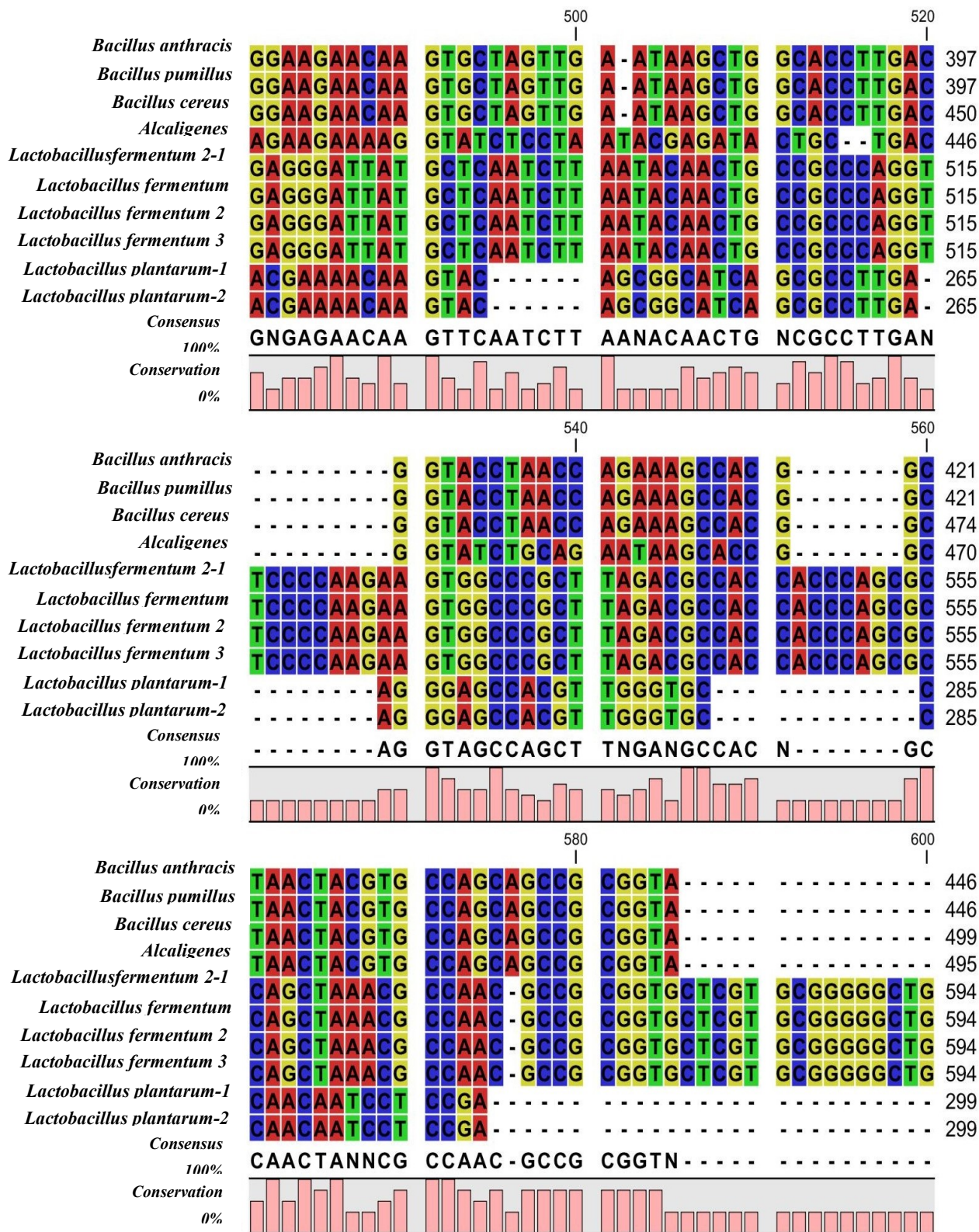
#### 16SrRNA Sequence of Breadfruit Isolates at 28±2°C

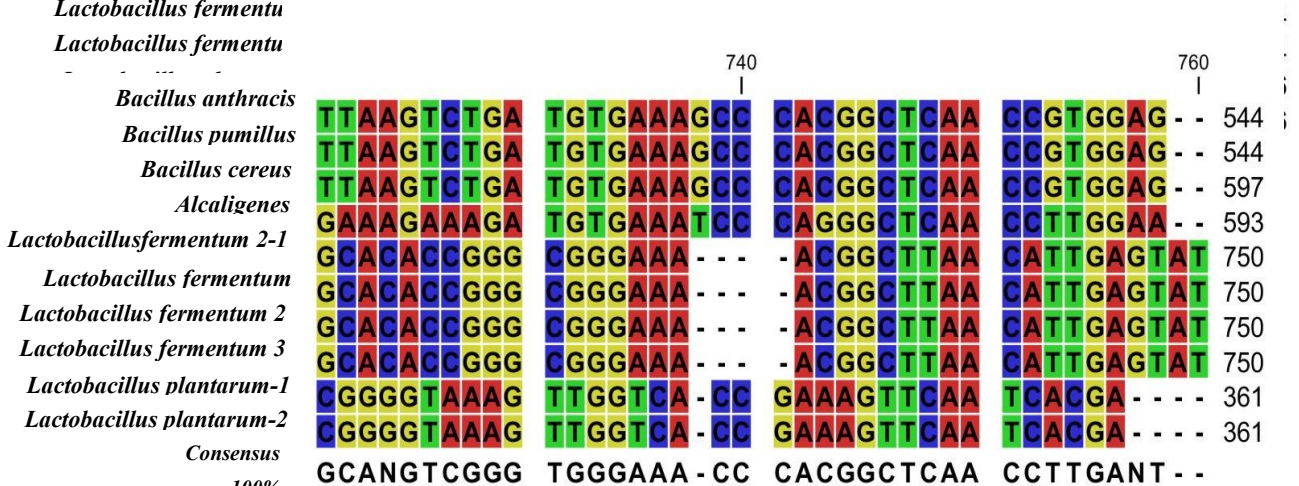
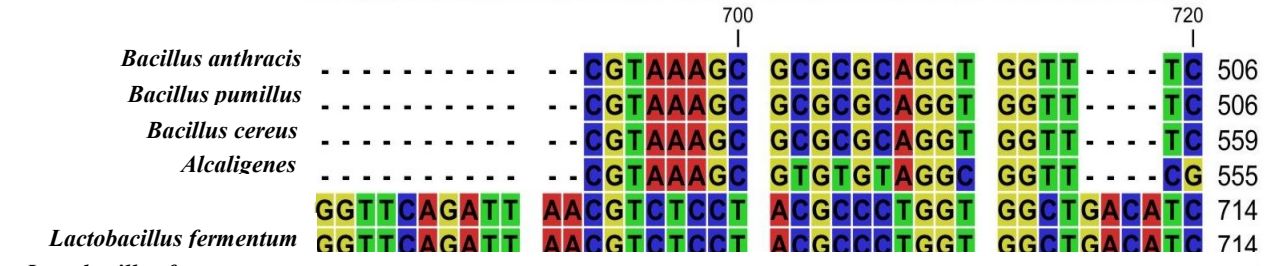
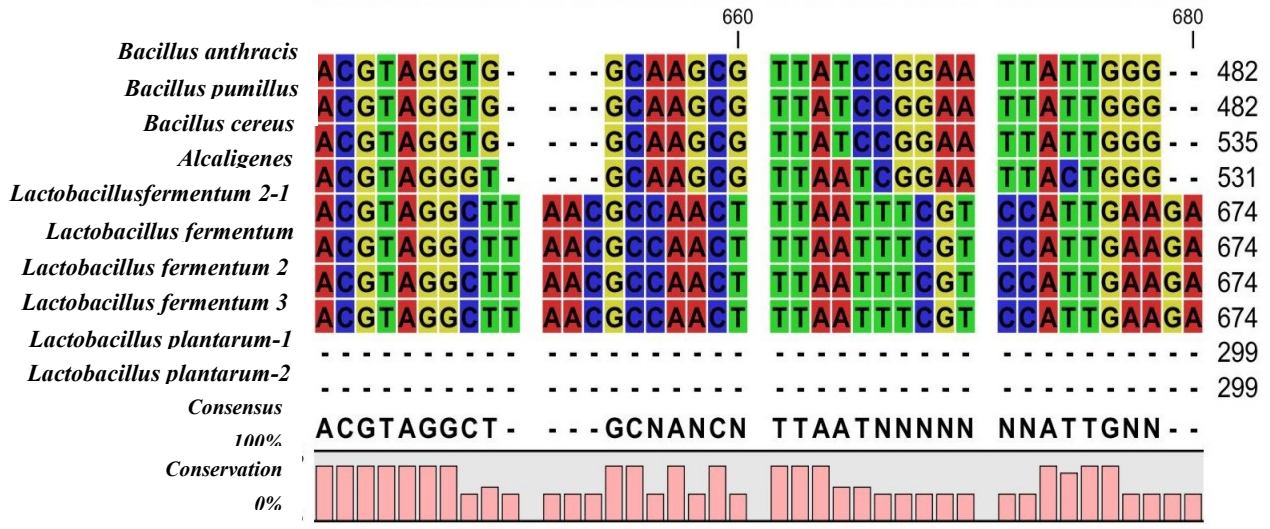
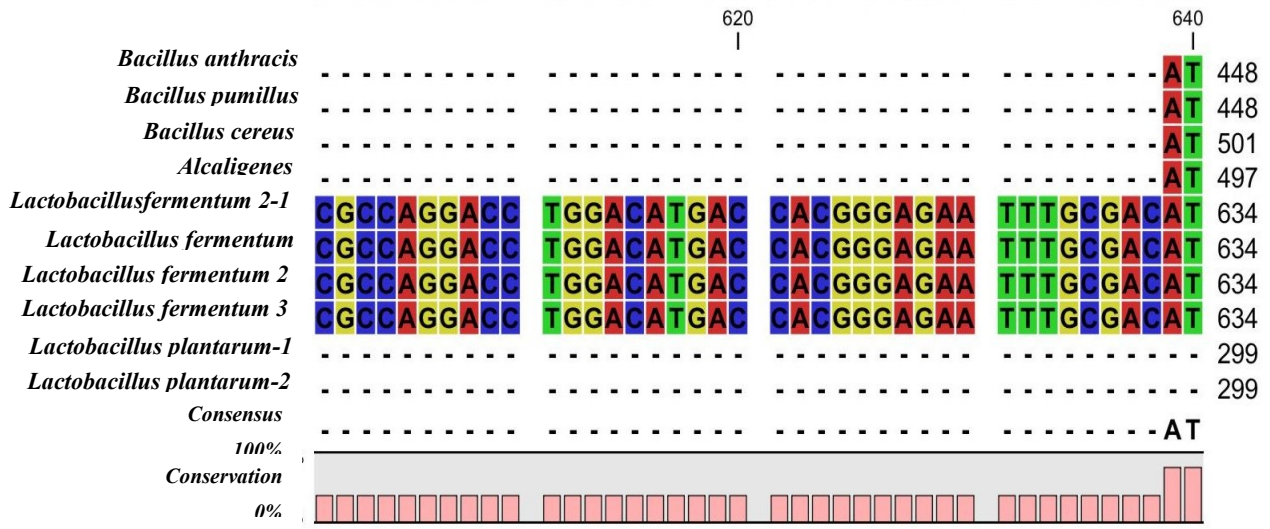
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TGCGGTAGTCAGCGGTTCTAACTTGGAGGCCAAAGATG  
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*Lactobacillus plantarum* CP015308.1

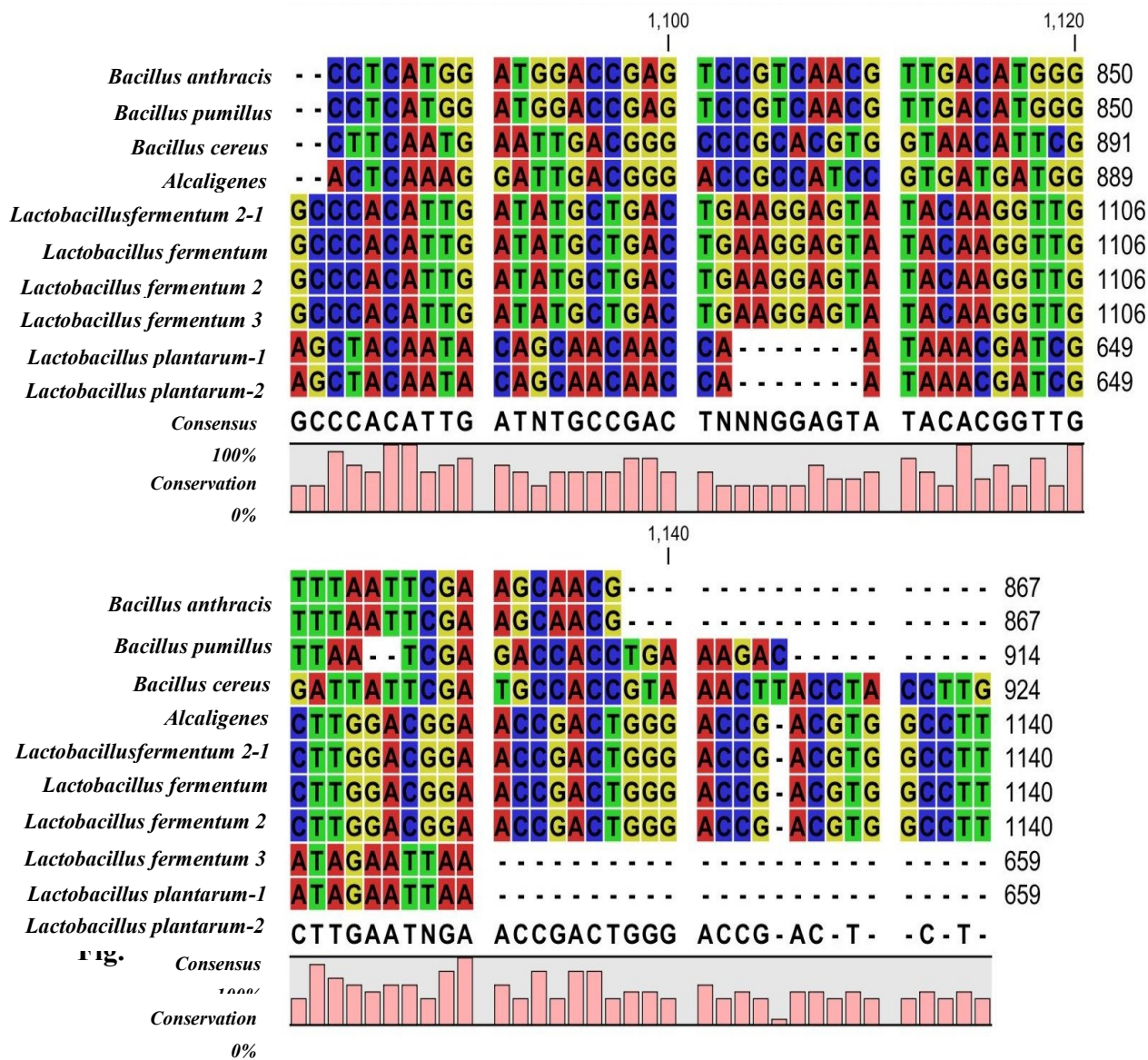
# Appendix 1b











## Appendix 2 a

### 16SrRNA Sequence of Breadfruit Isolates at 37±1°C

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GCCTT.

*Lactobacillus fermentum*CP011536.1

CGAGTGGGCCAATTTAAGCGTCGTCAGTTACTACAAGCTTTCGGCCACTCTCTACGC  
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GCCTT.

*Lactobacillus fermentum*

CP005958.1

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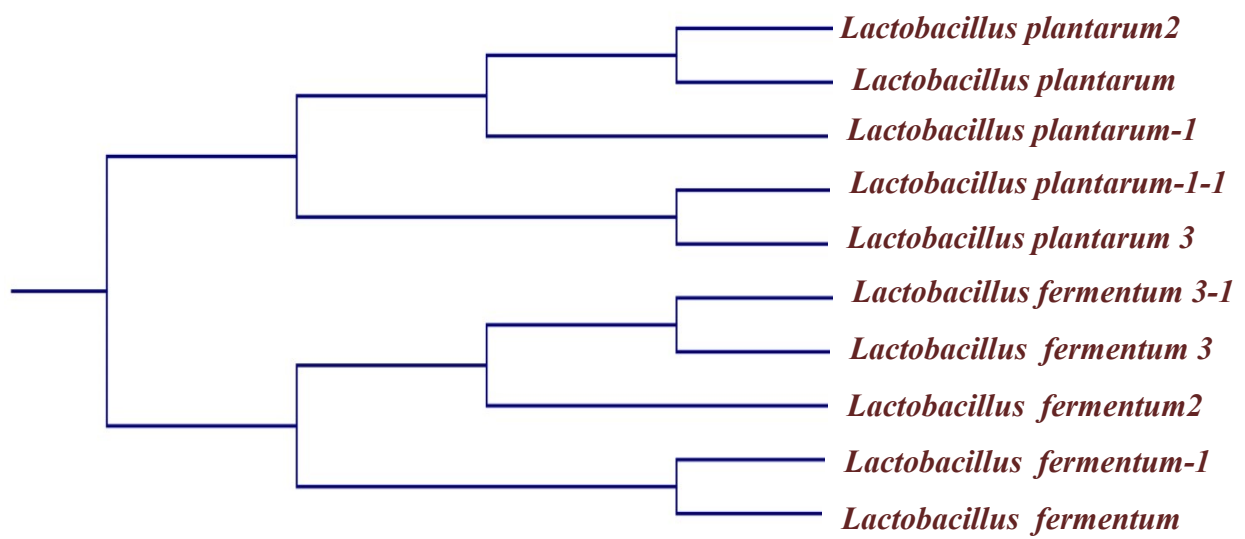
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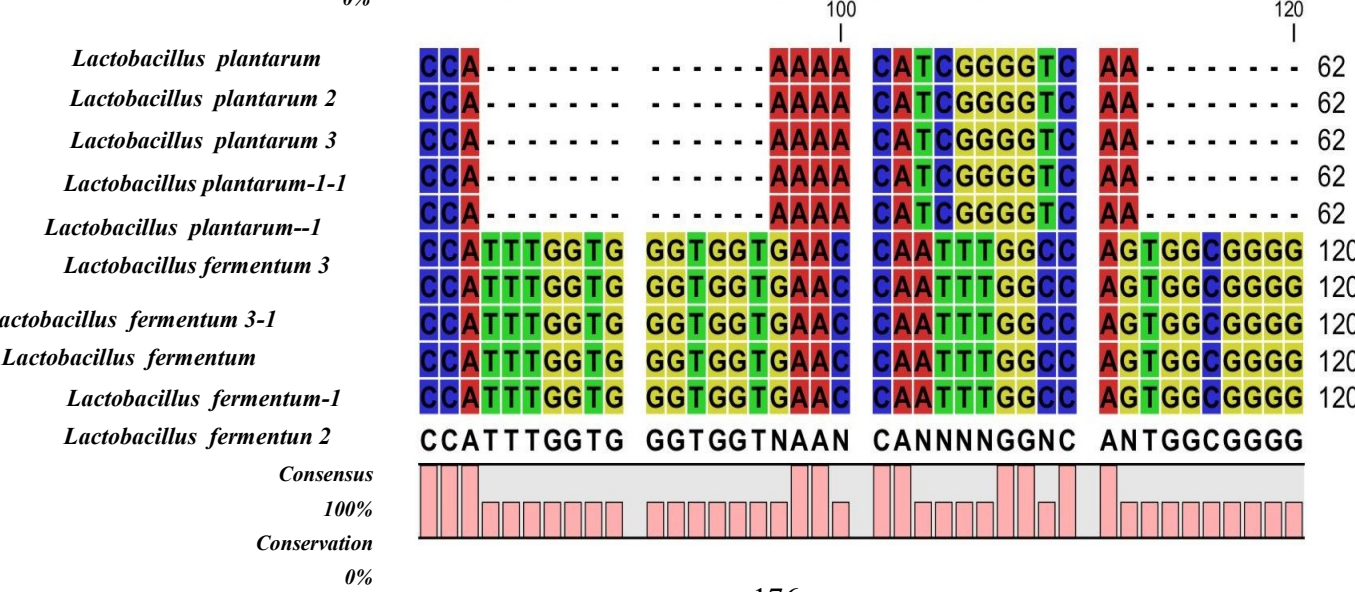
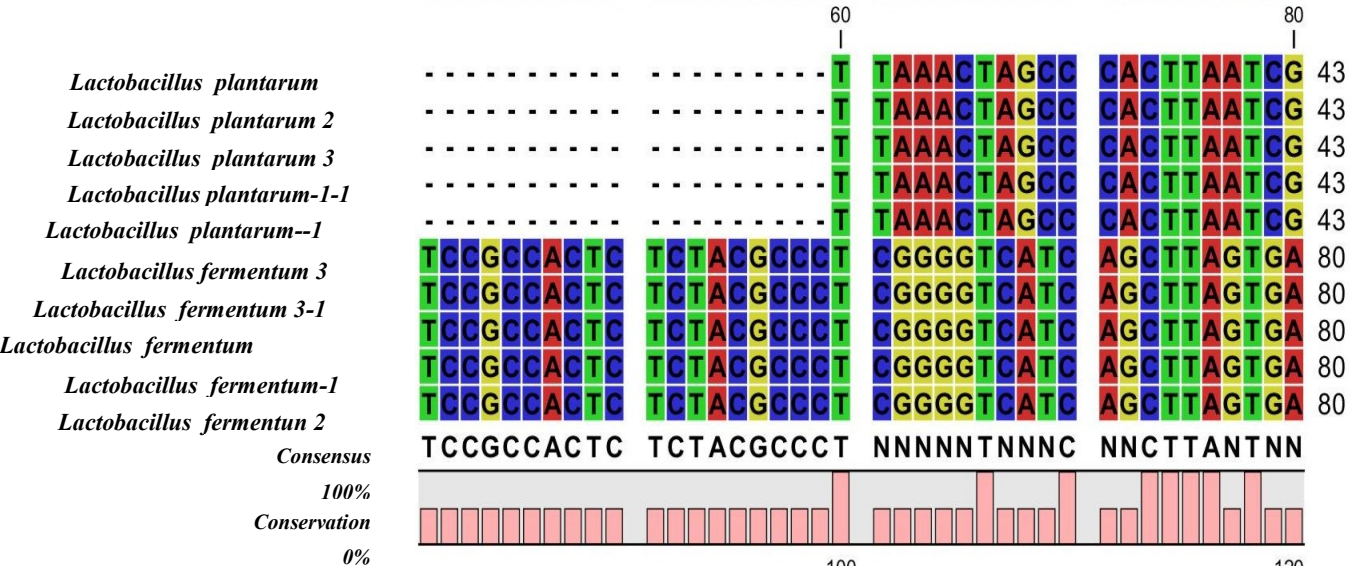
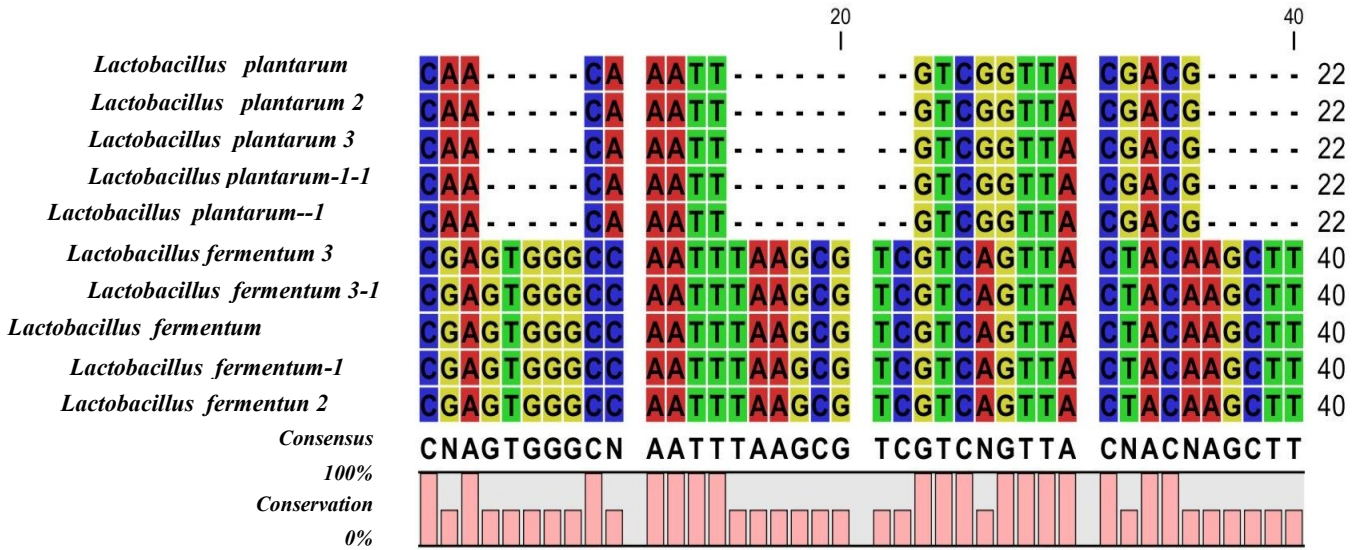
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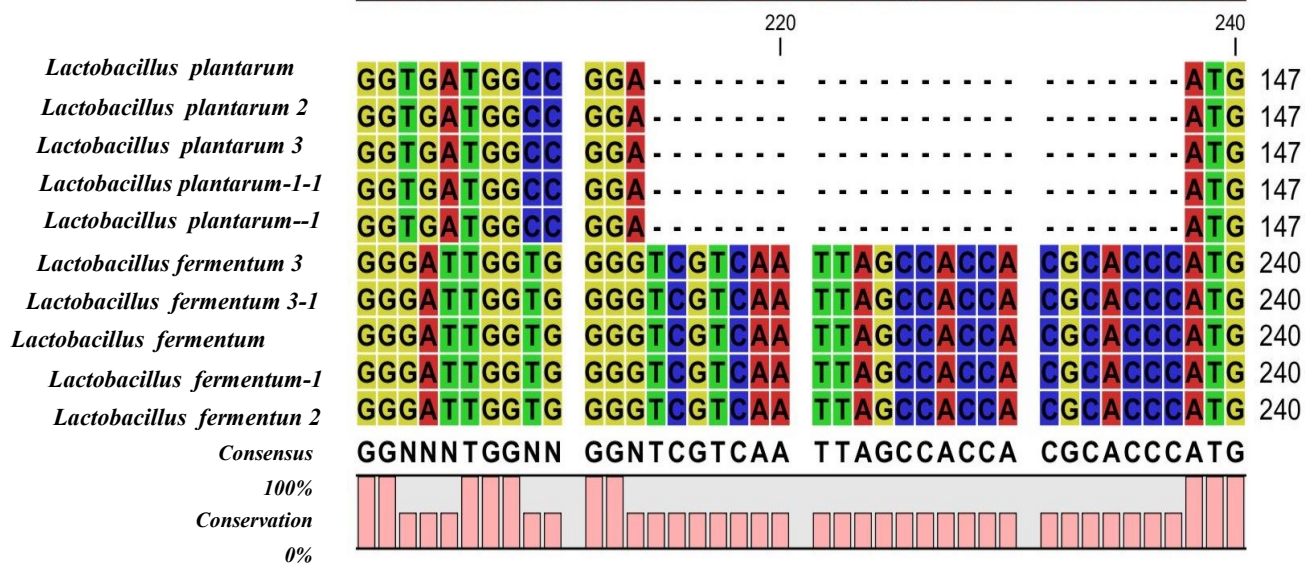
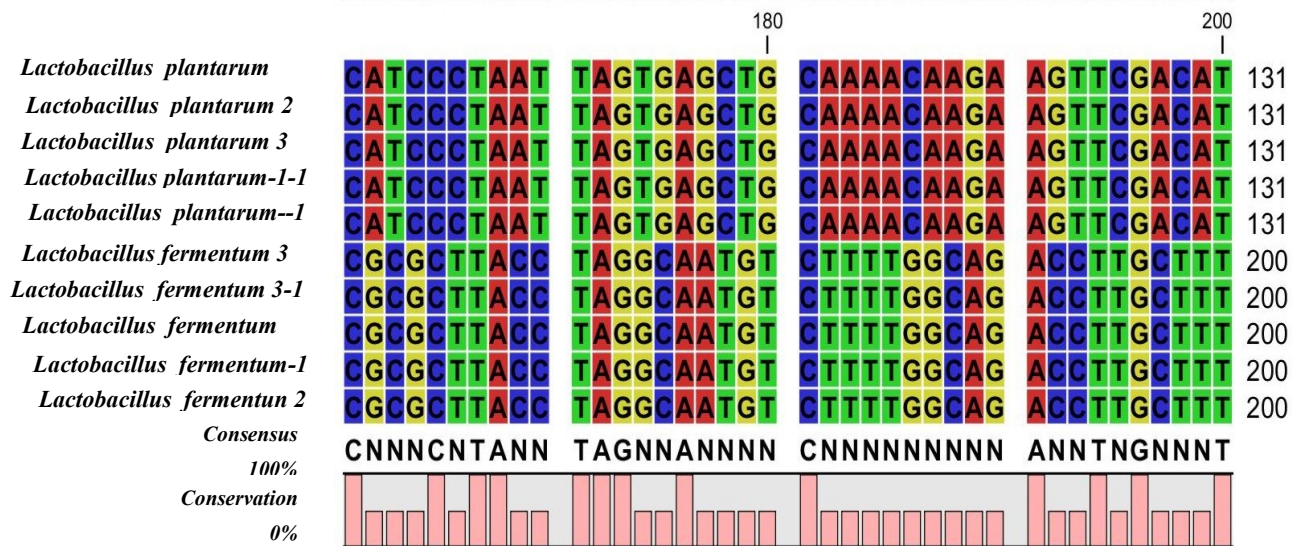
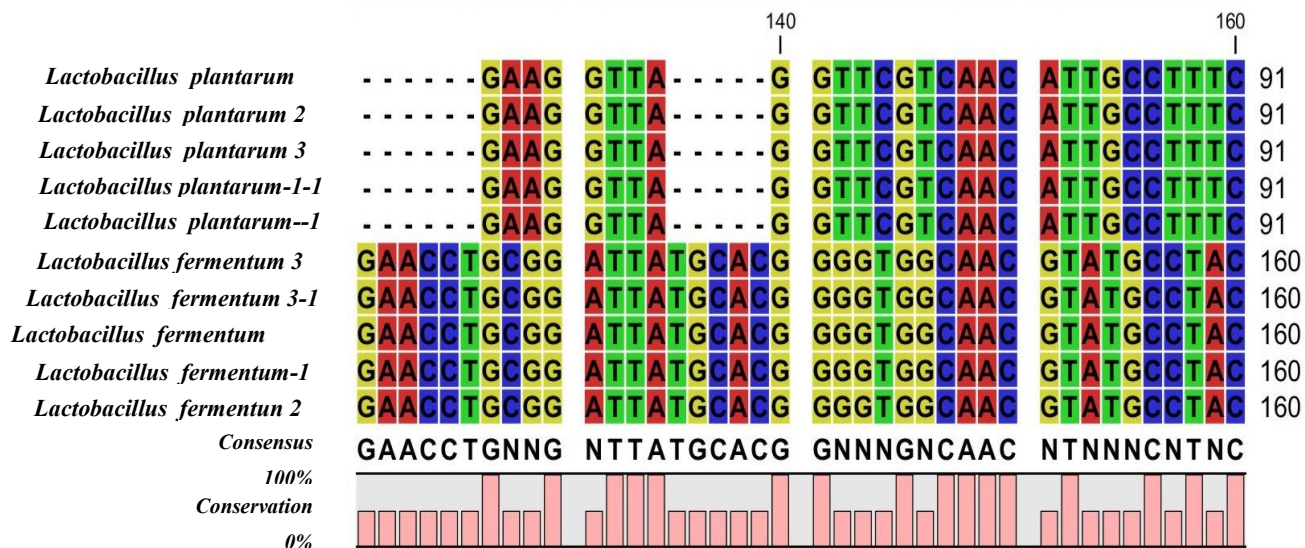
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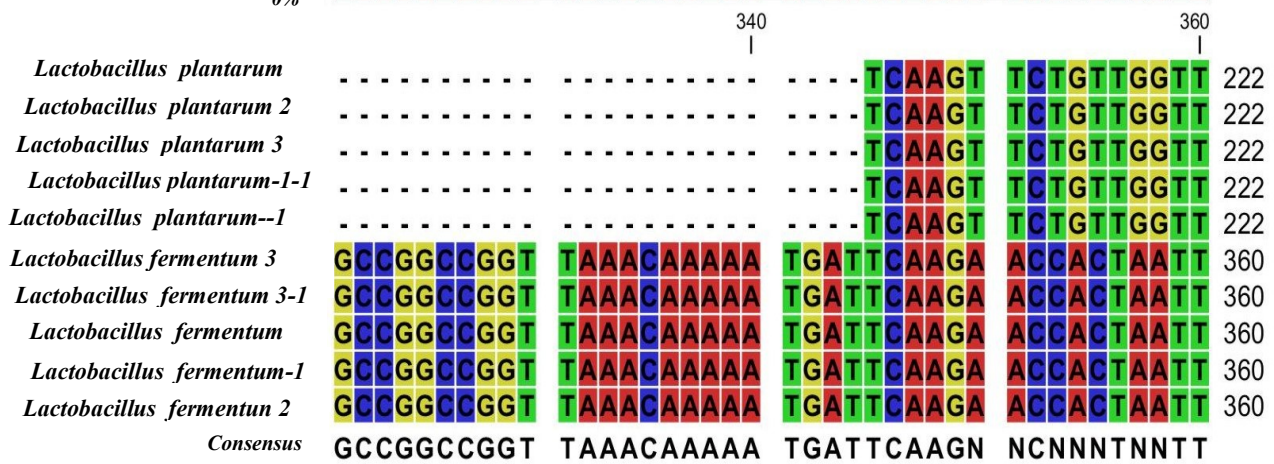
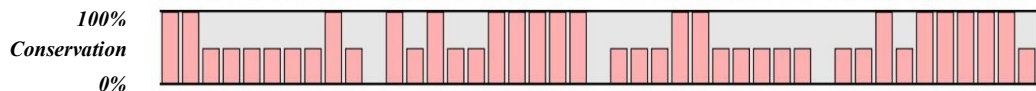
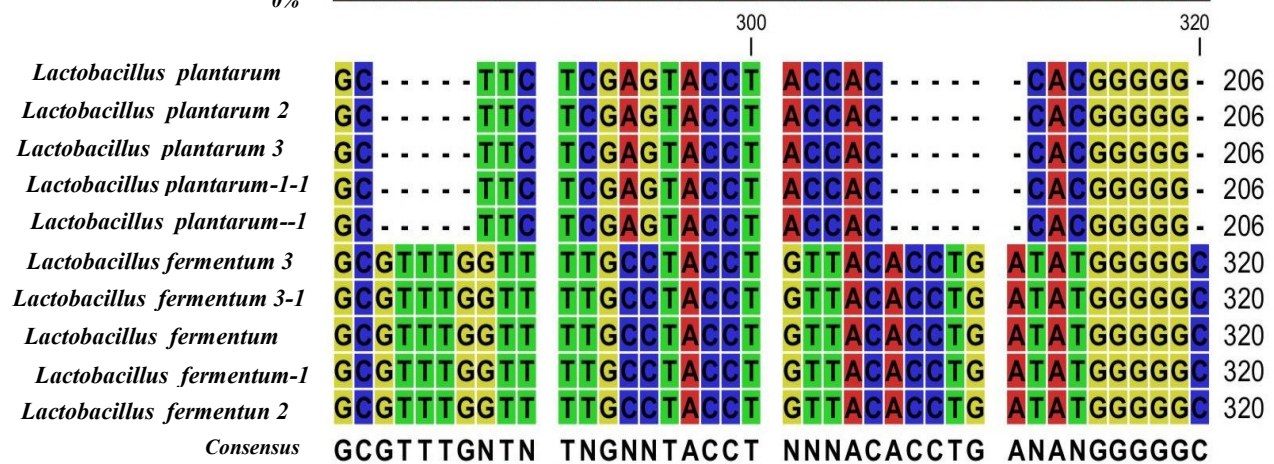
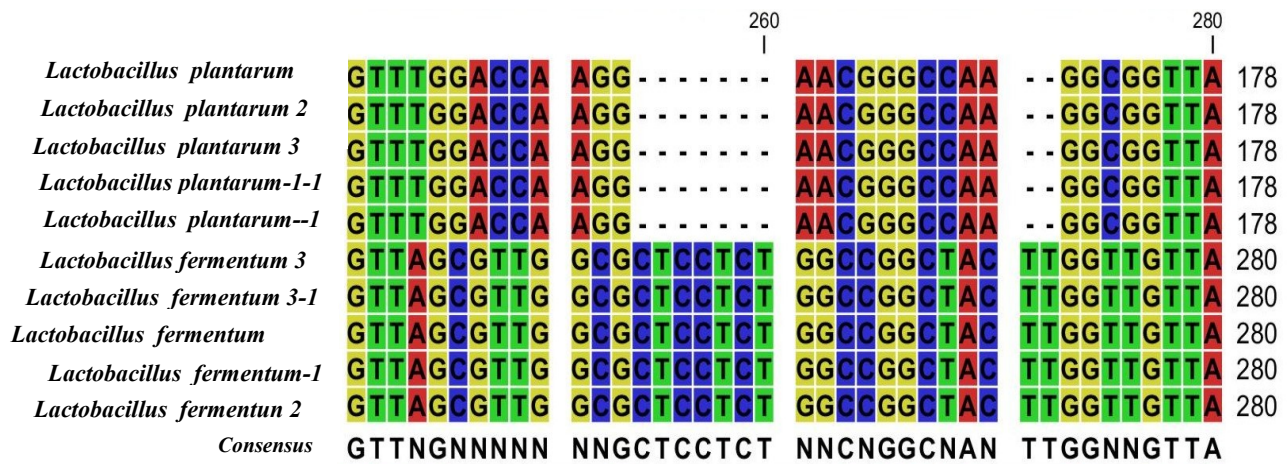


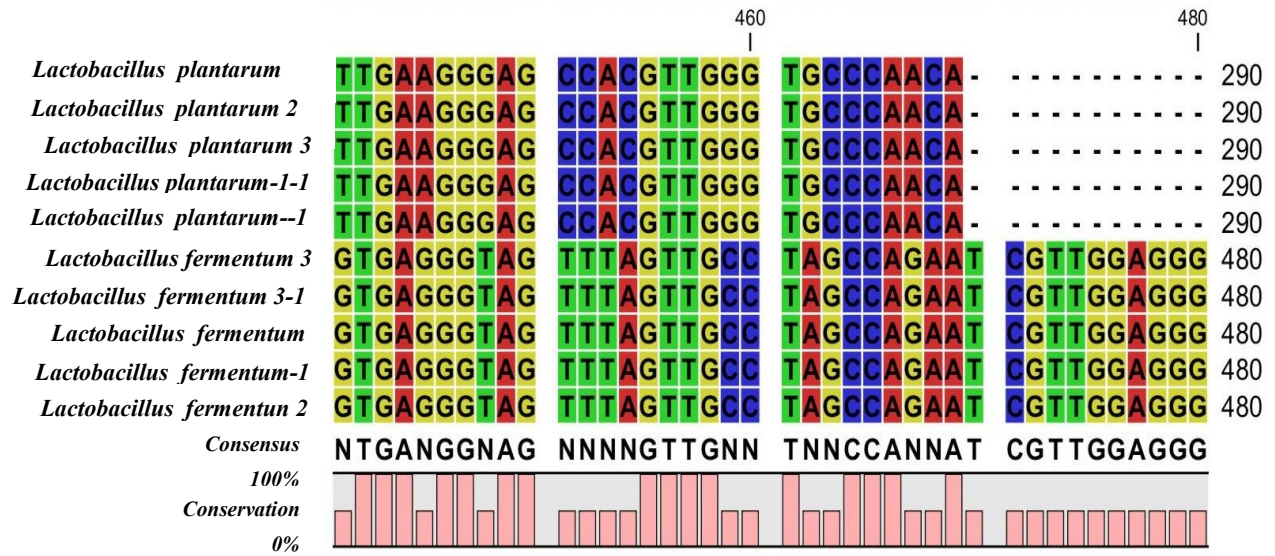
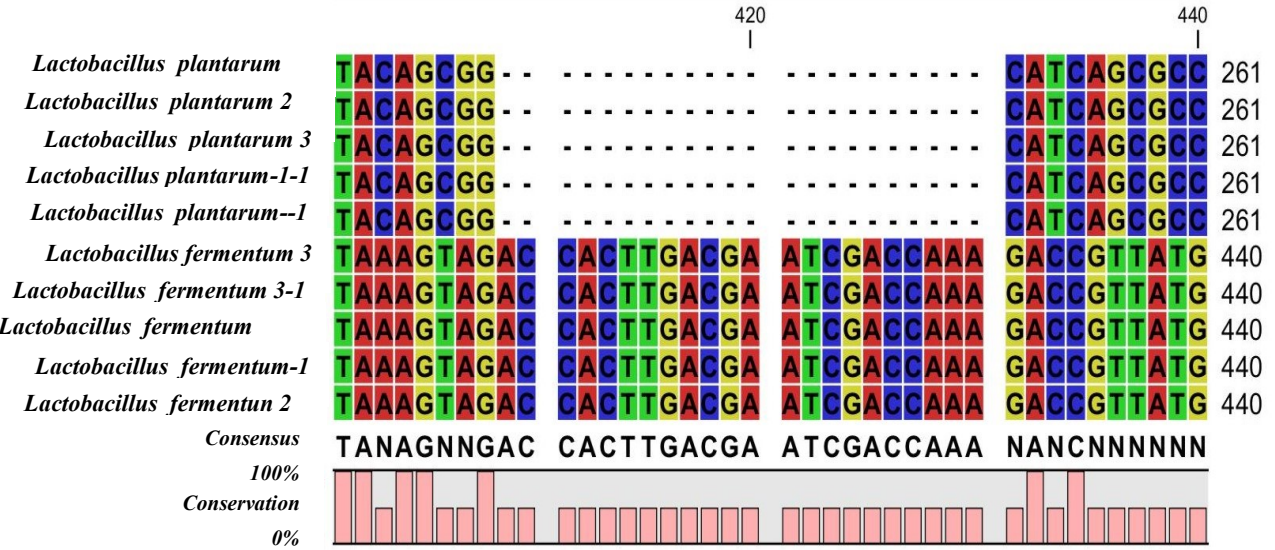
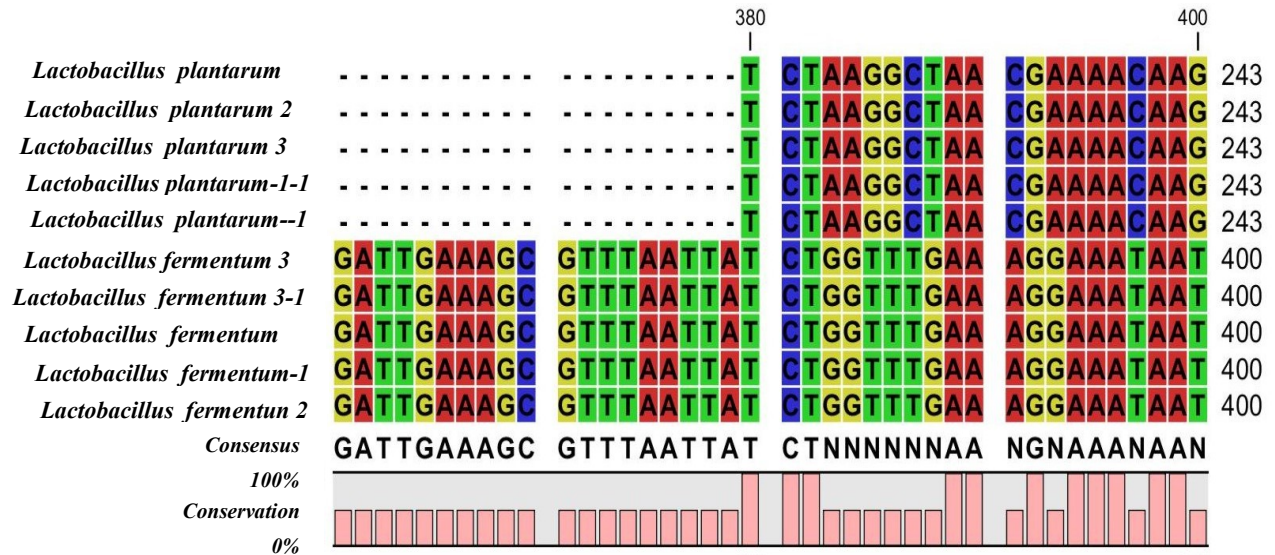
**Appendix 2 b: Breadfruit Phylogenetic Tree at 37±1°C**



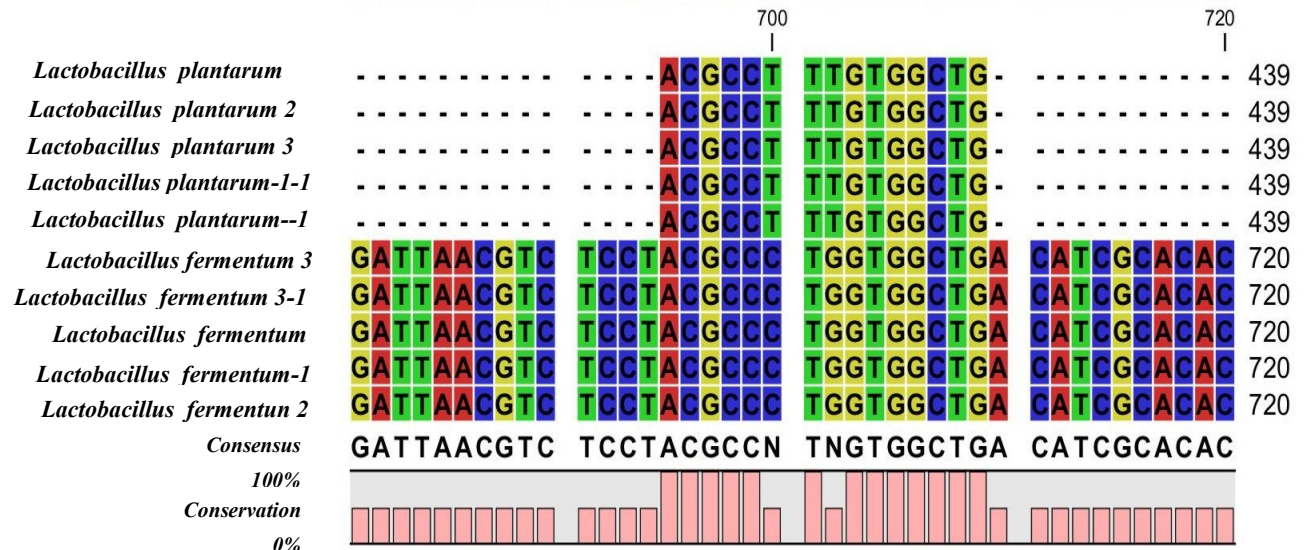
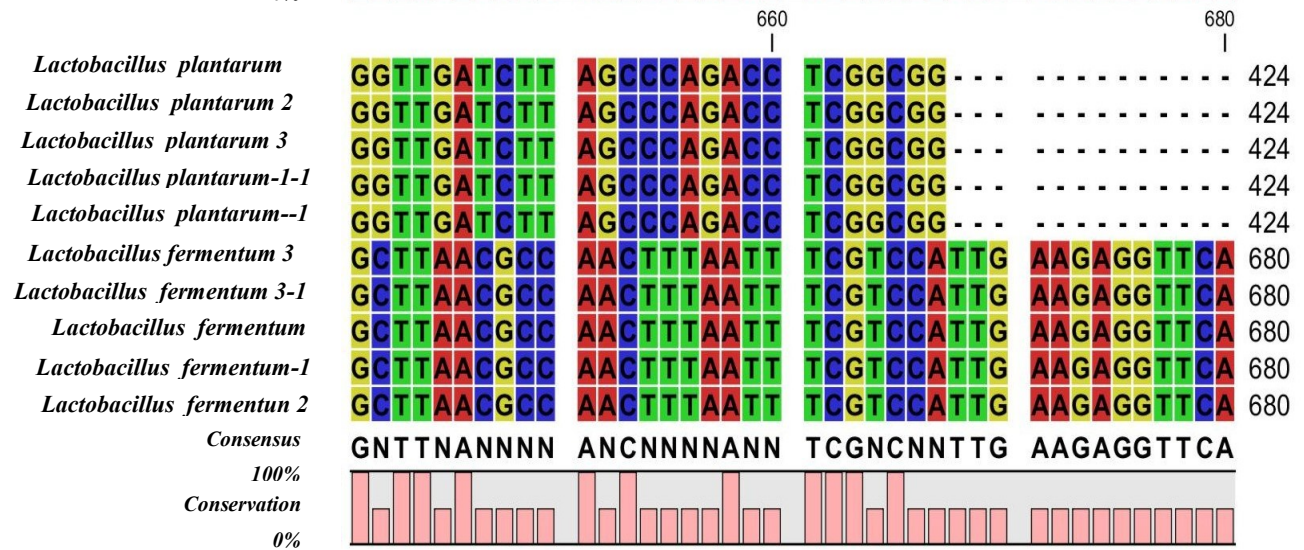
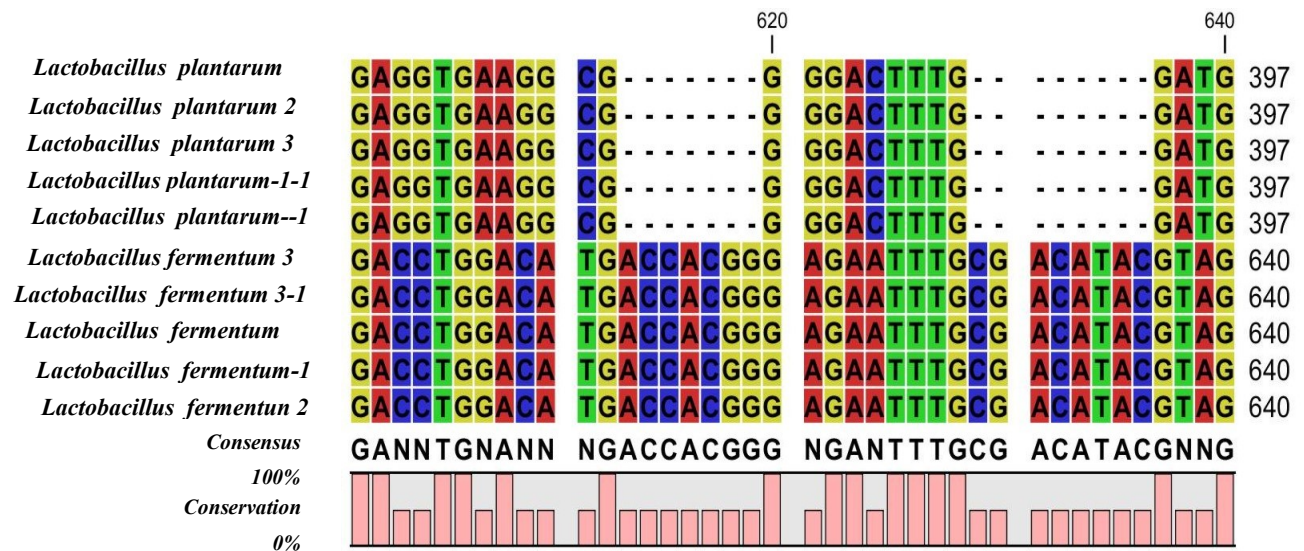


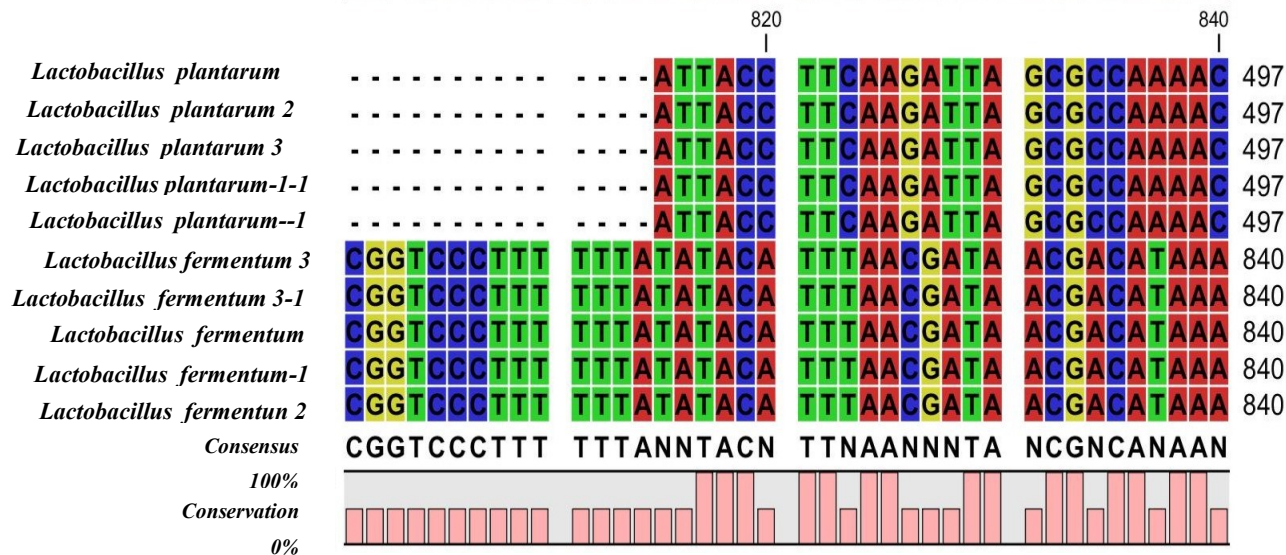
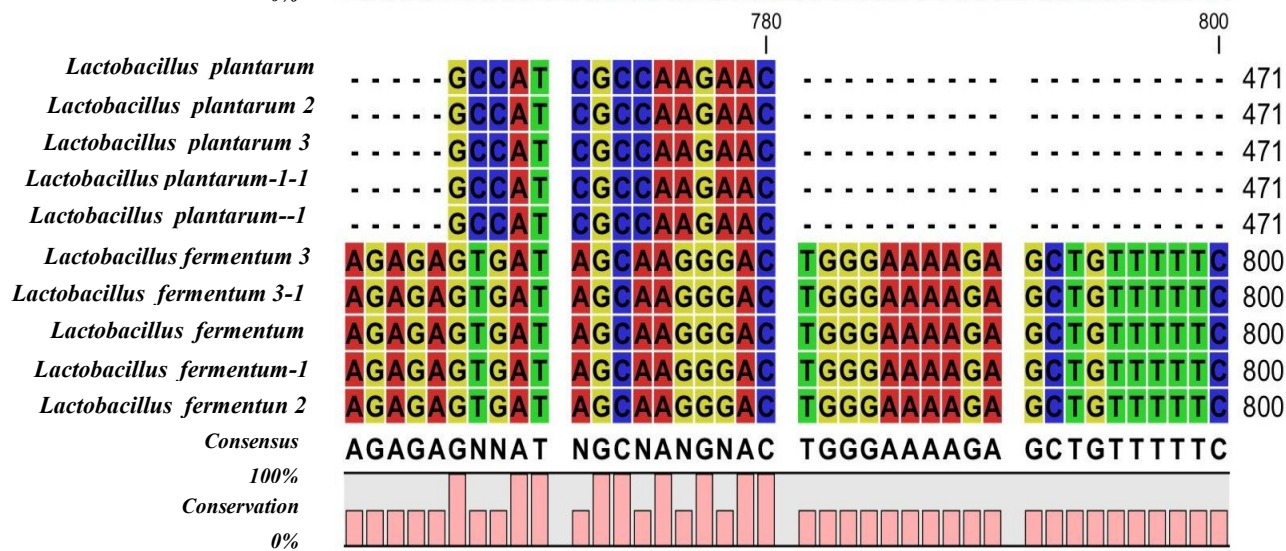
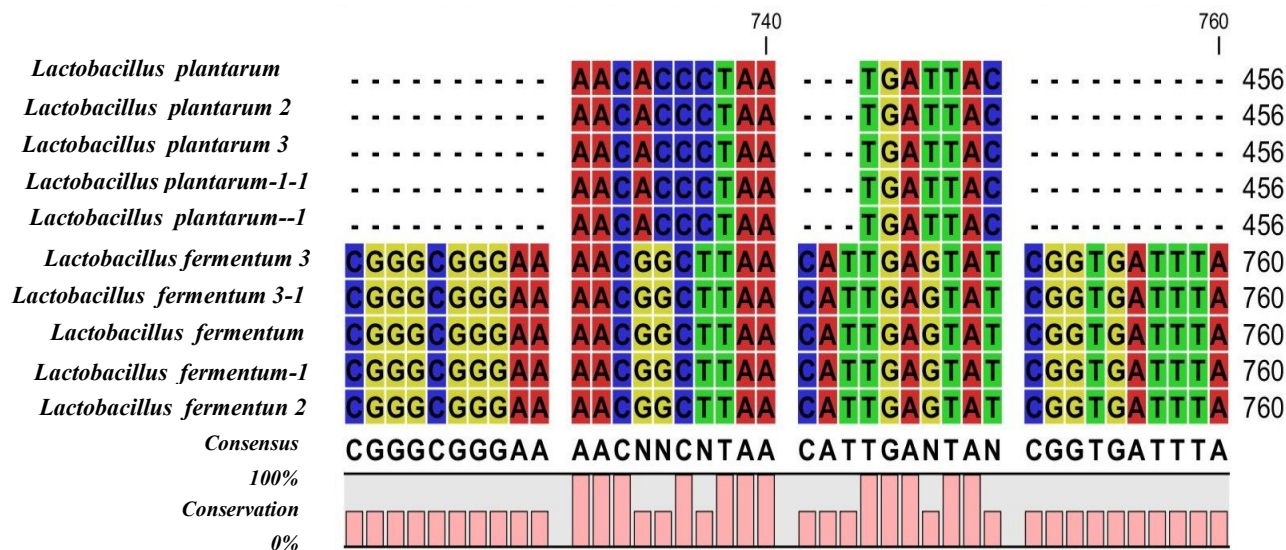


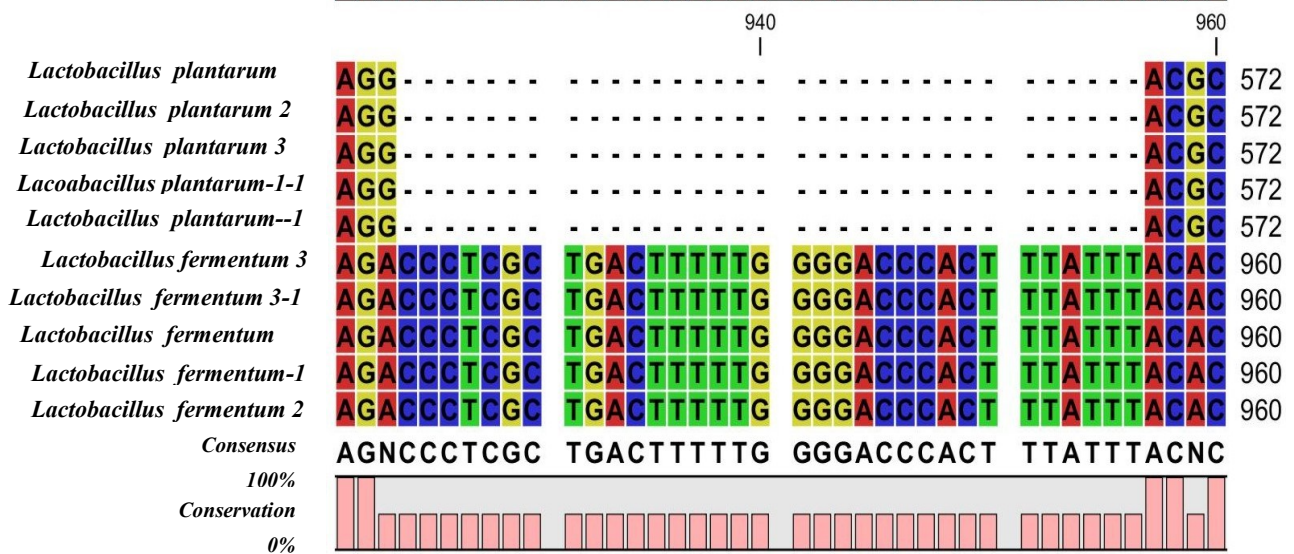
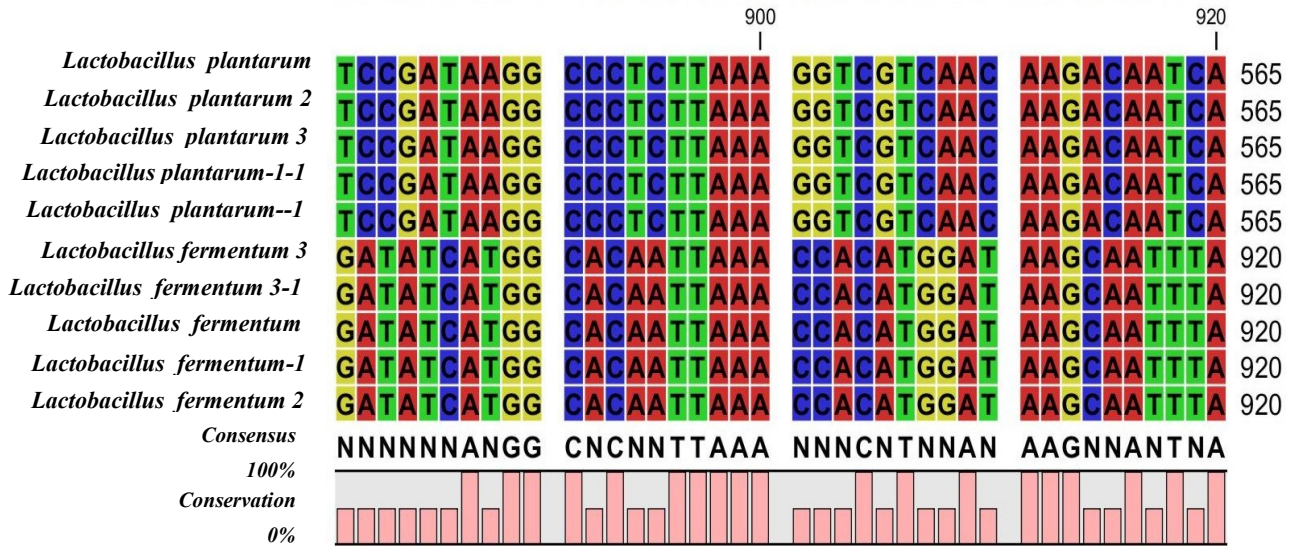
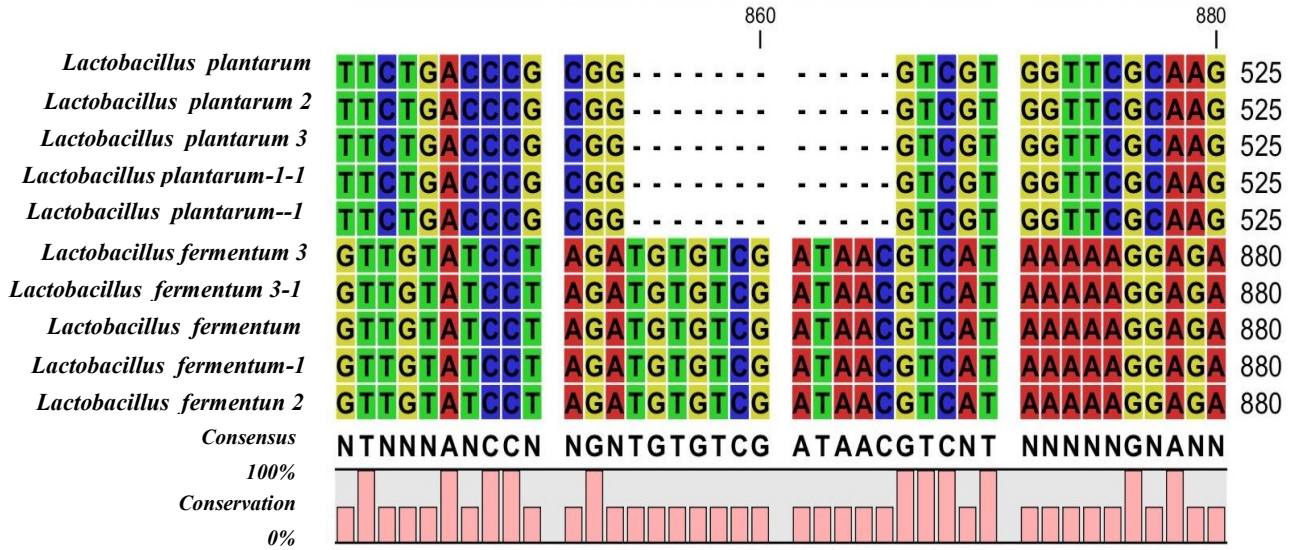






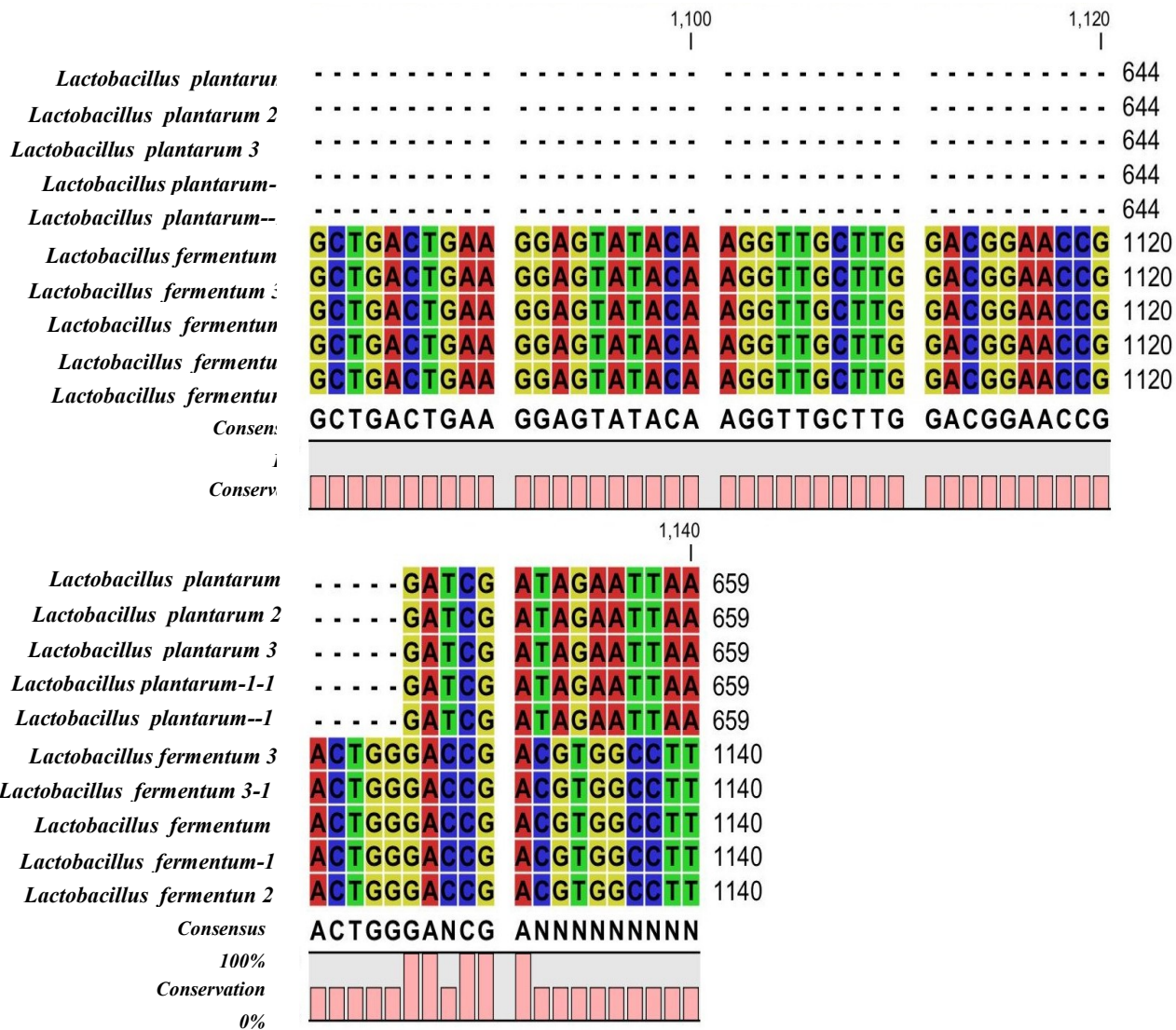












**Appendix 2 c: Breadfruit Isolates Alignment at 37±1°C**

## Appendix 4 a

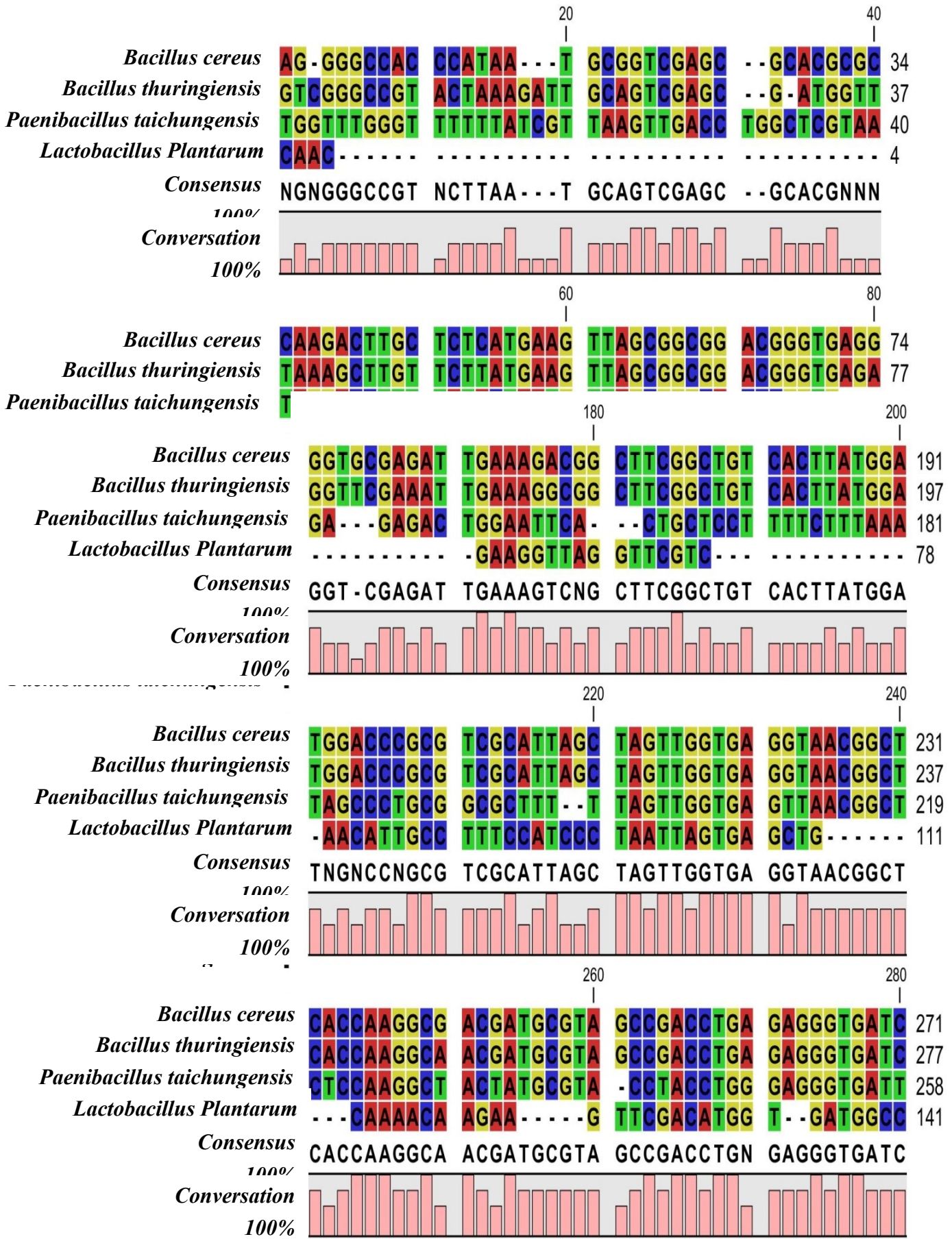
### 16SrRNA Sequence of Pigeon-pea Isolates at 28±2°C

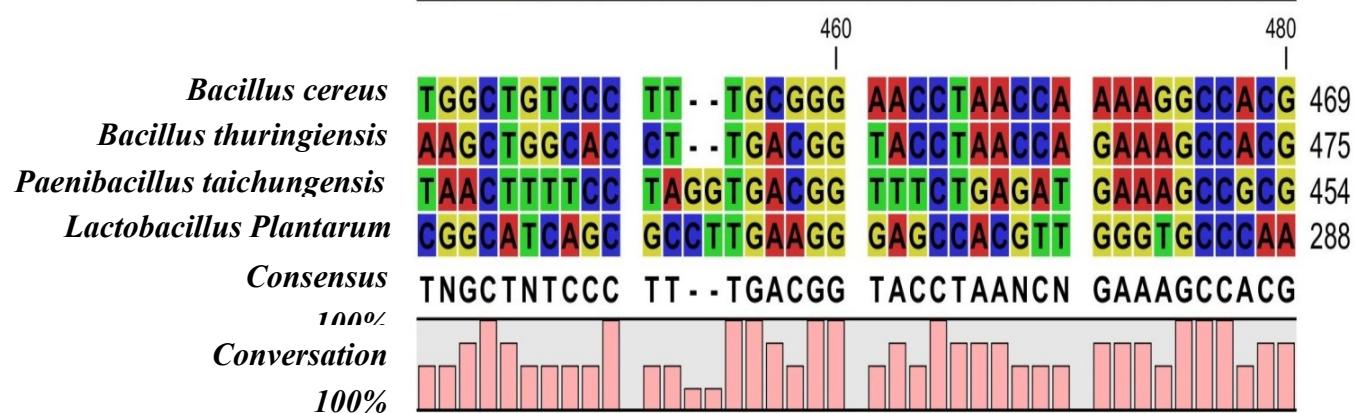
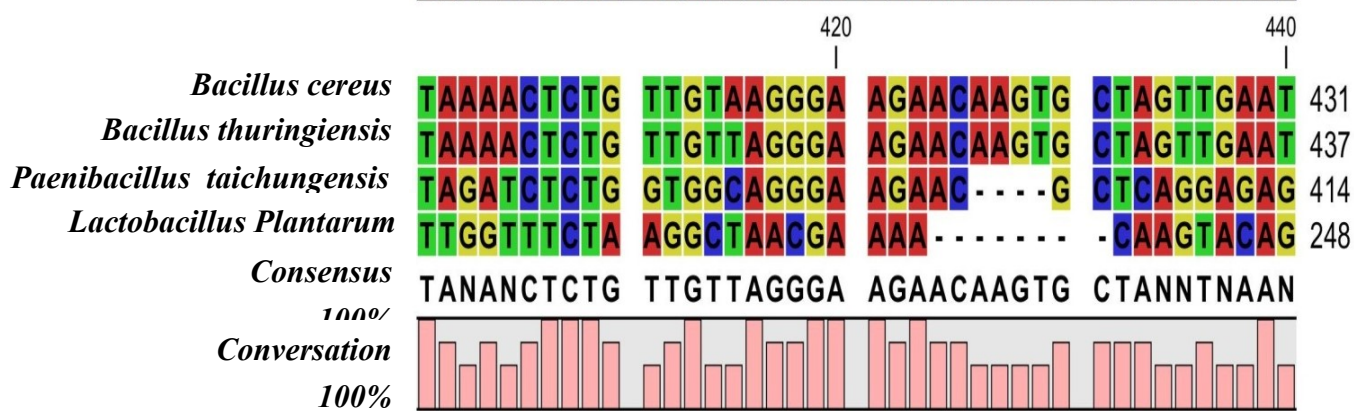
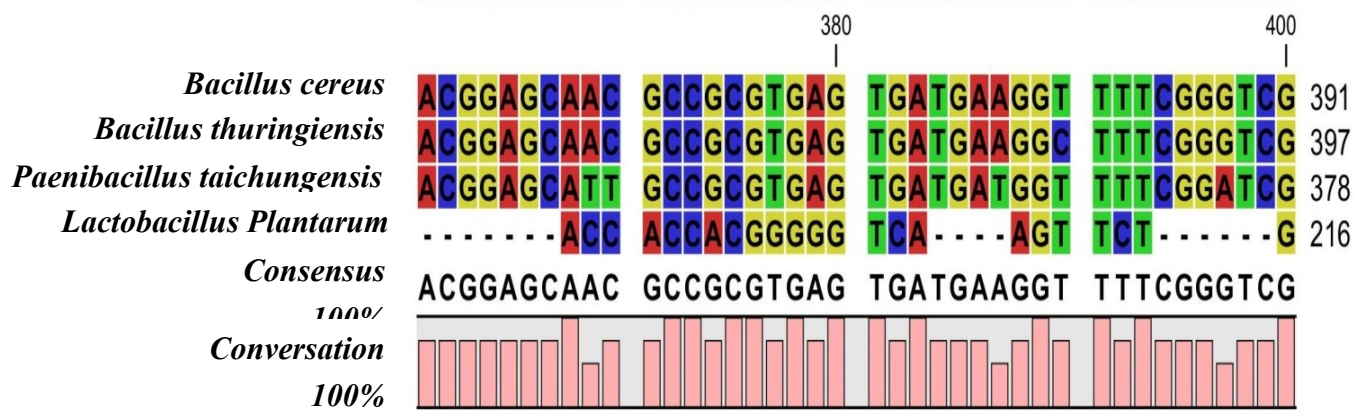
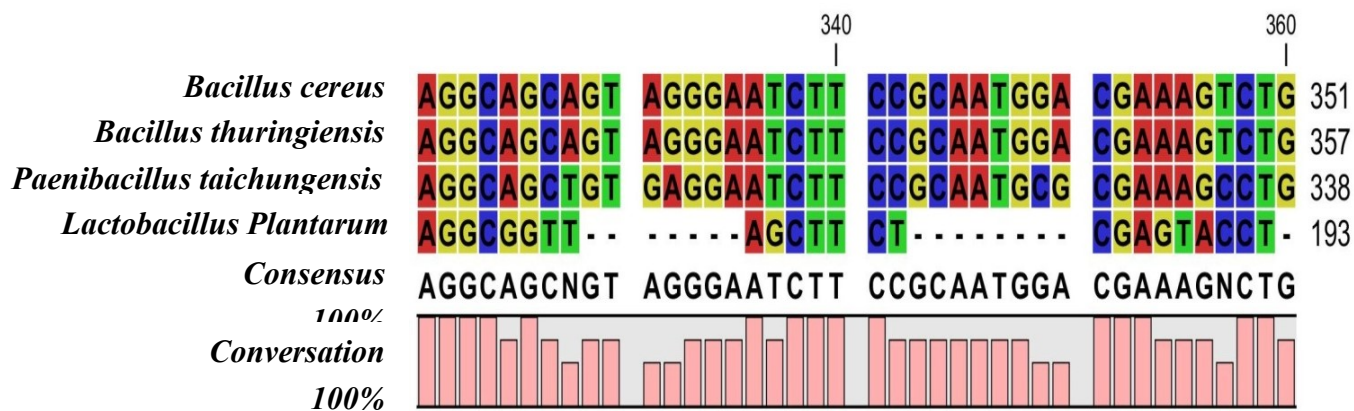
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*Bacillus Thuringiensis* JQ289048.1

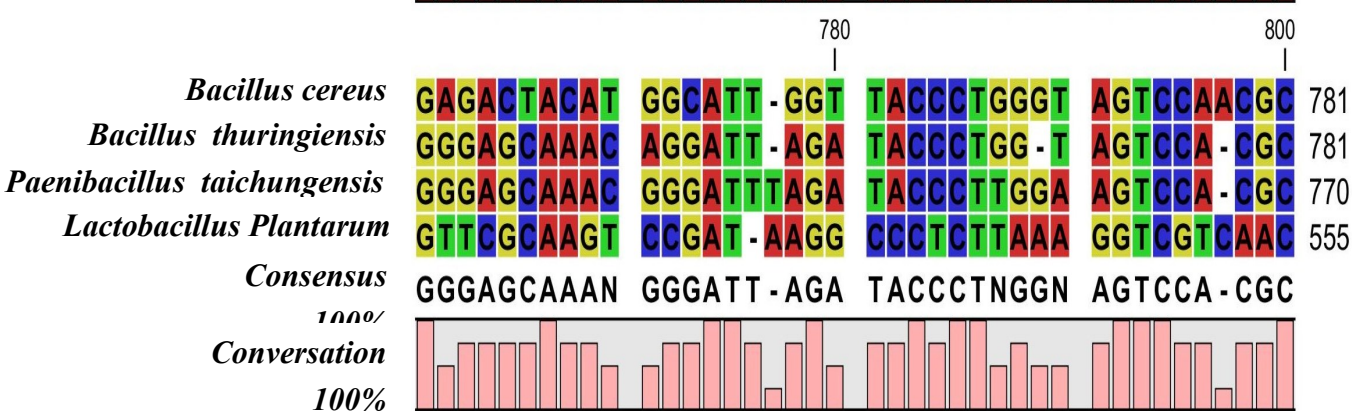
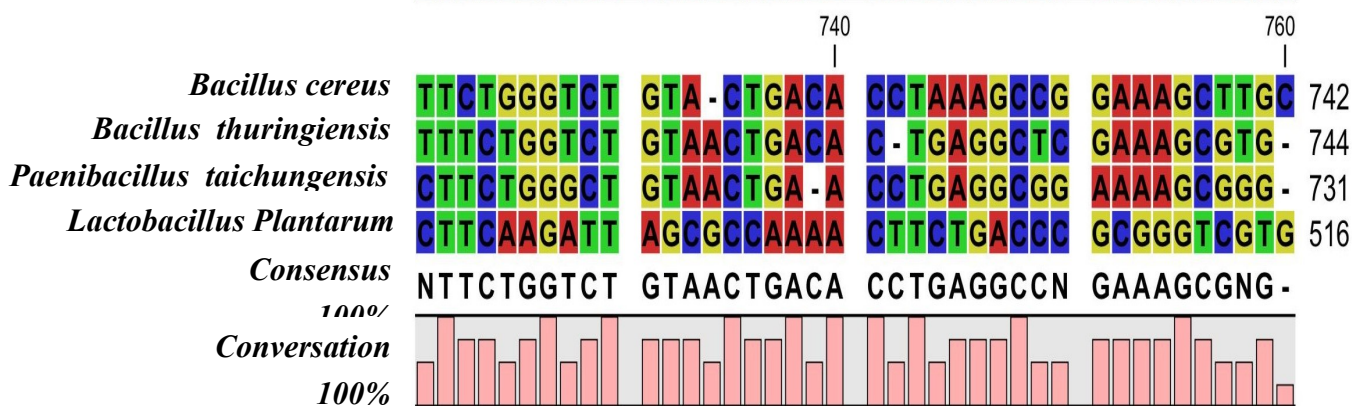
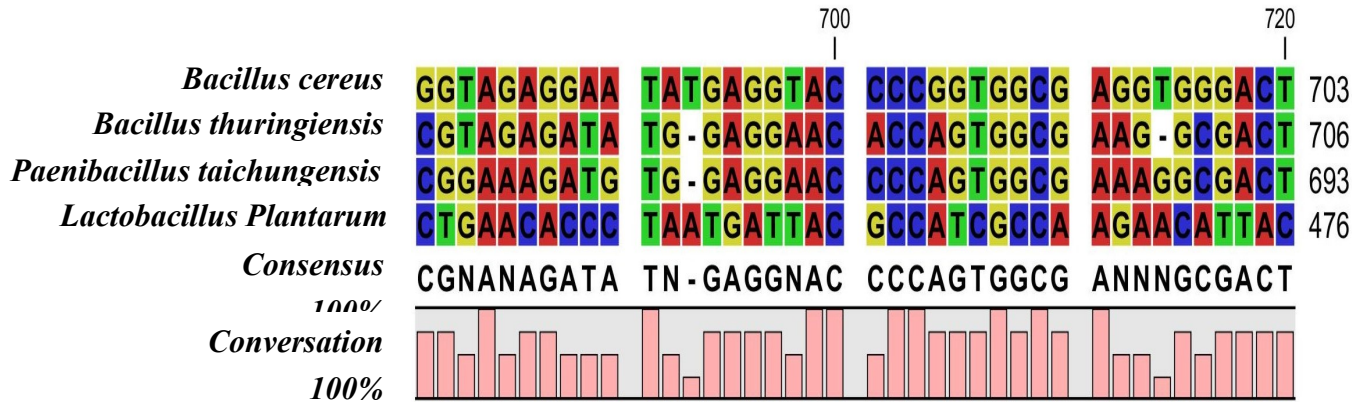
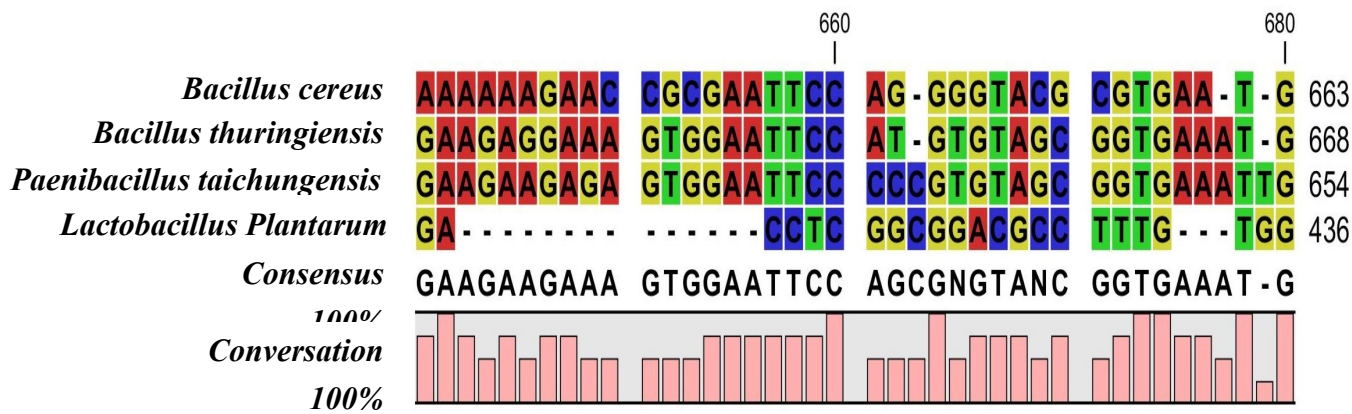
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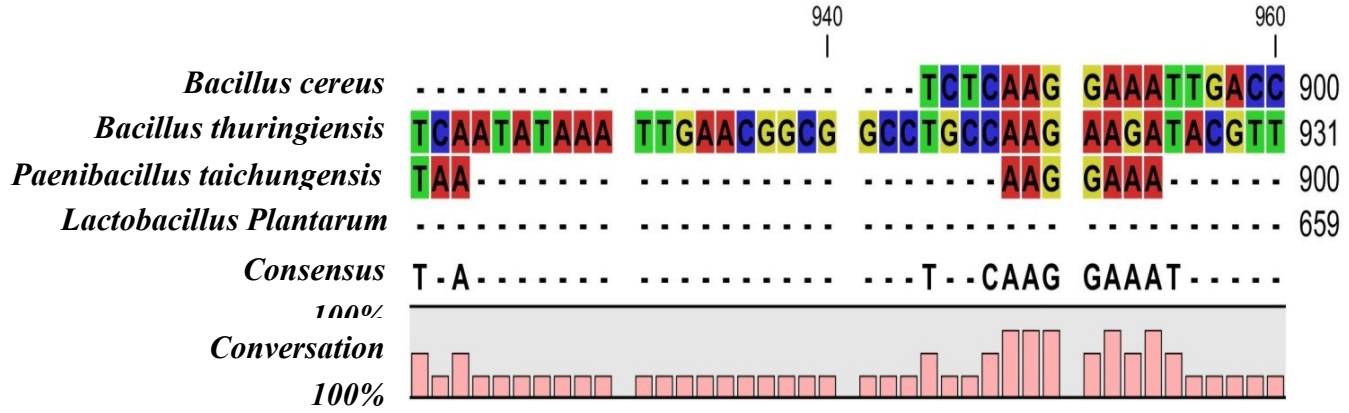
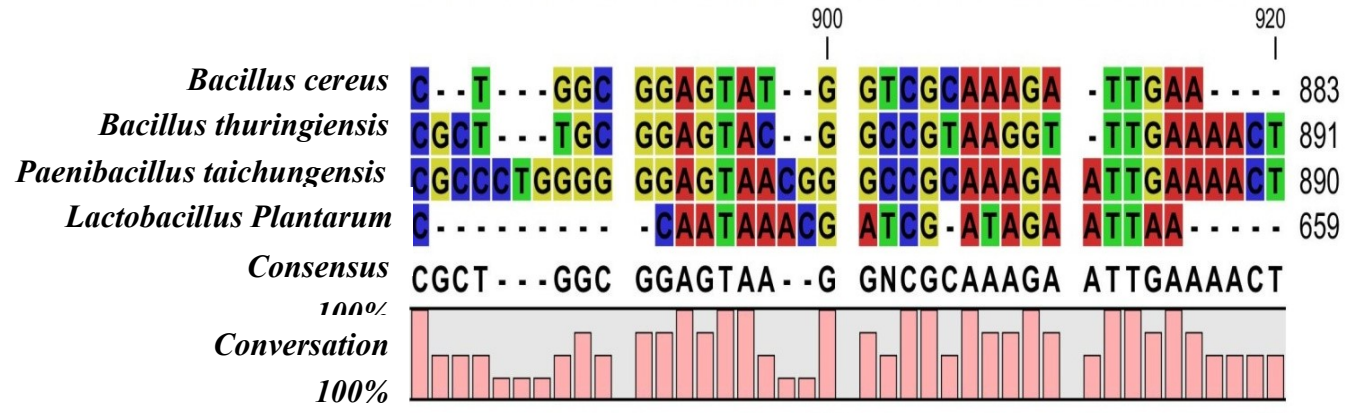
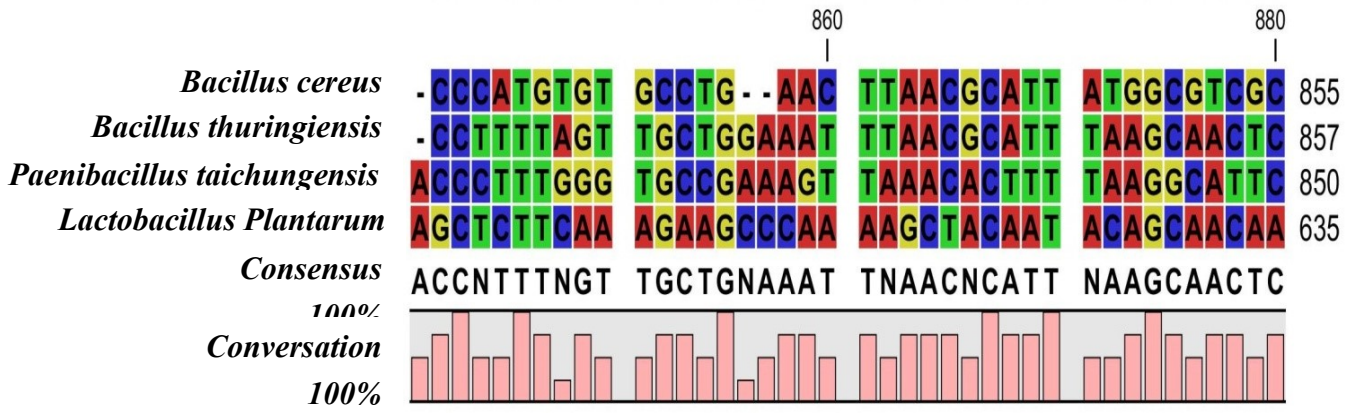
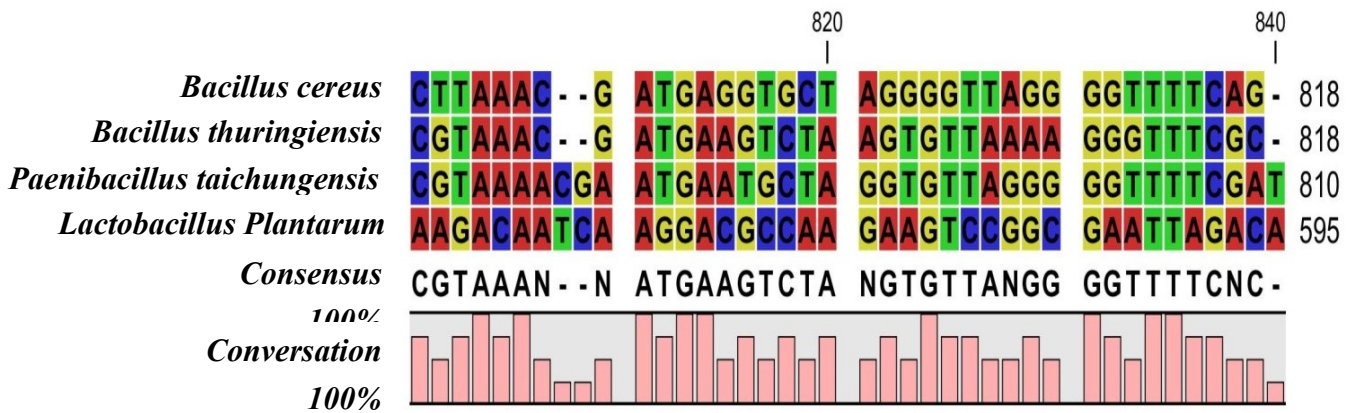
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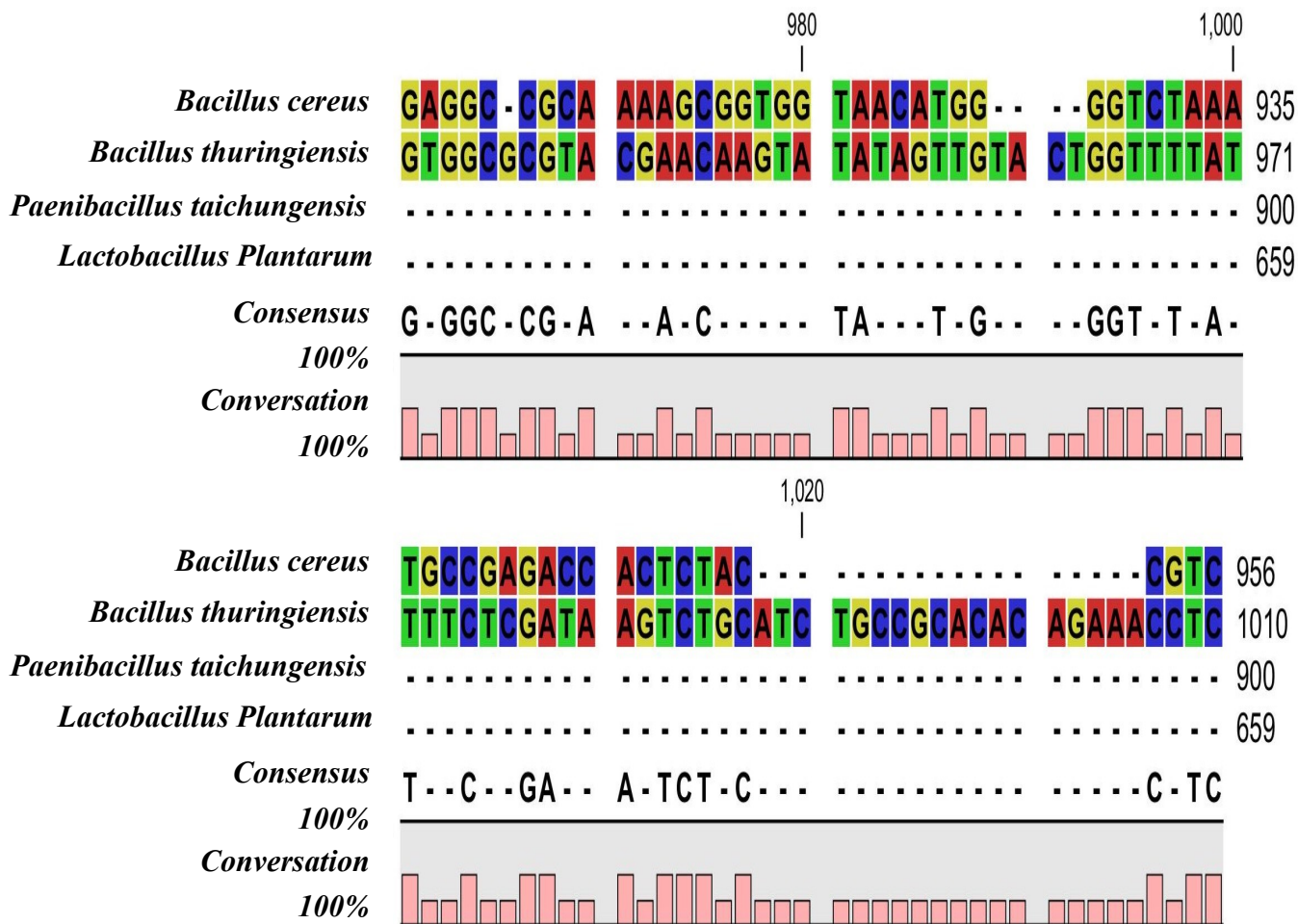












Appendix 4 b: Pigeon-pea Isolates Alignment at 28±2 °C

## Appendix 5 a

### 16SrRNA Sequence of Pigeon-pea Isolates at 37±1°C

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*Lactobacillus fermentum*

CP011536.1

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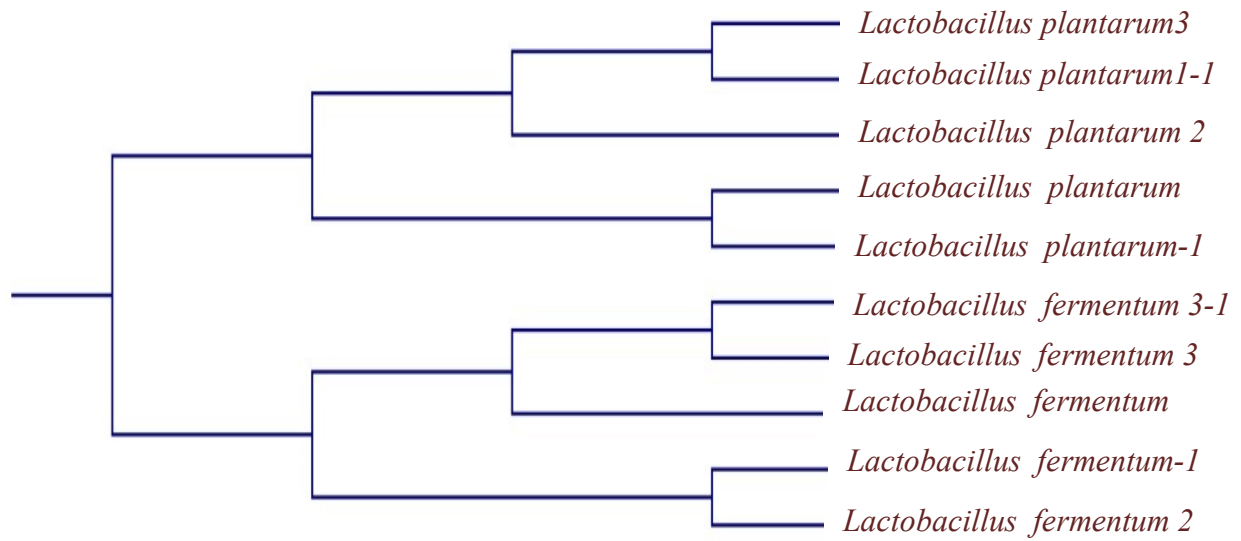
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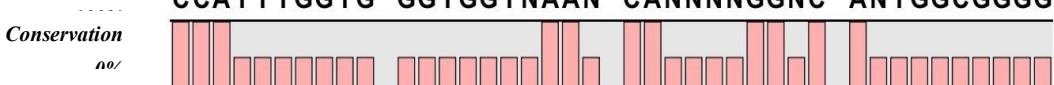
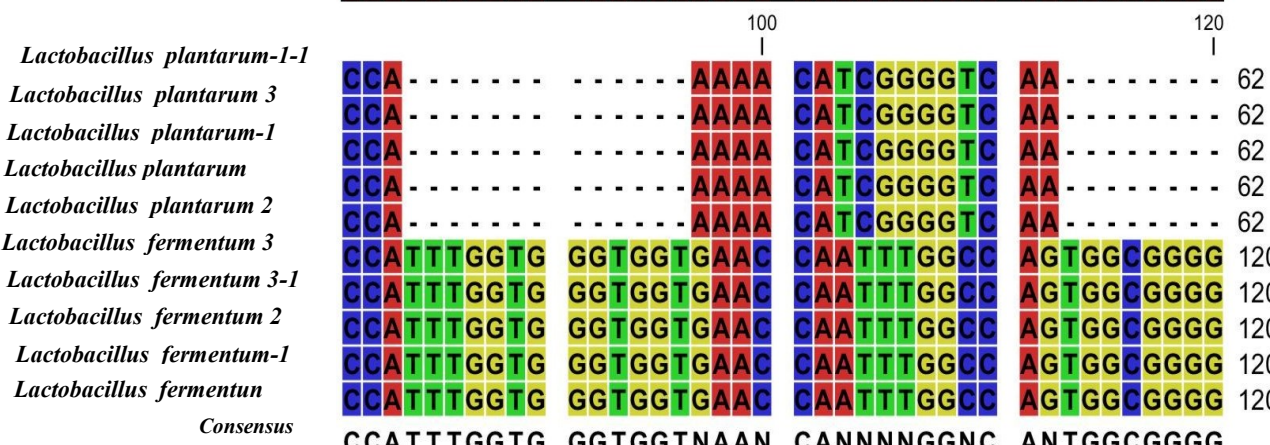
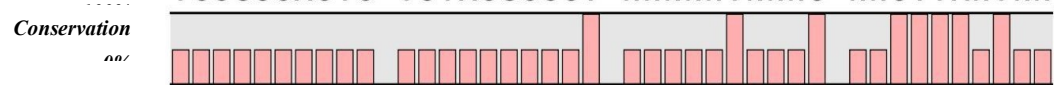
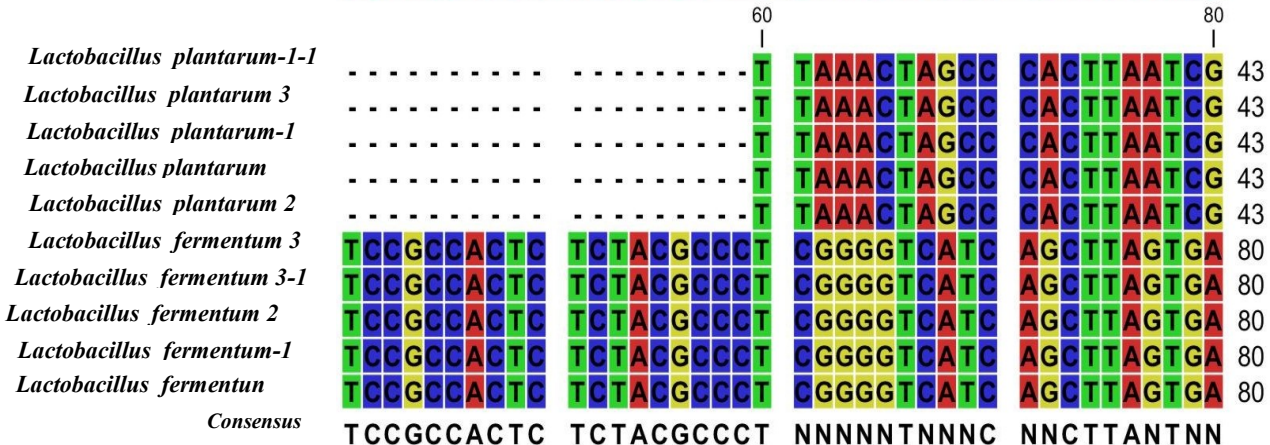
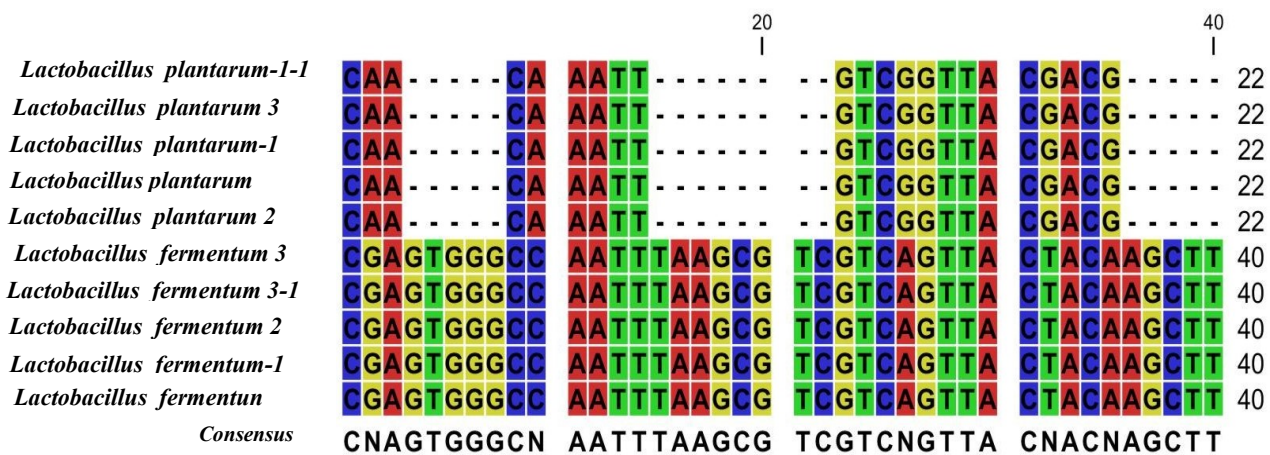
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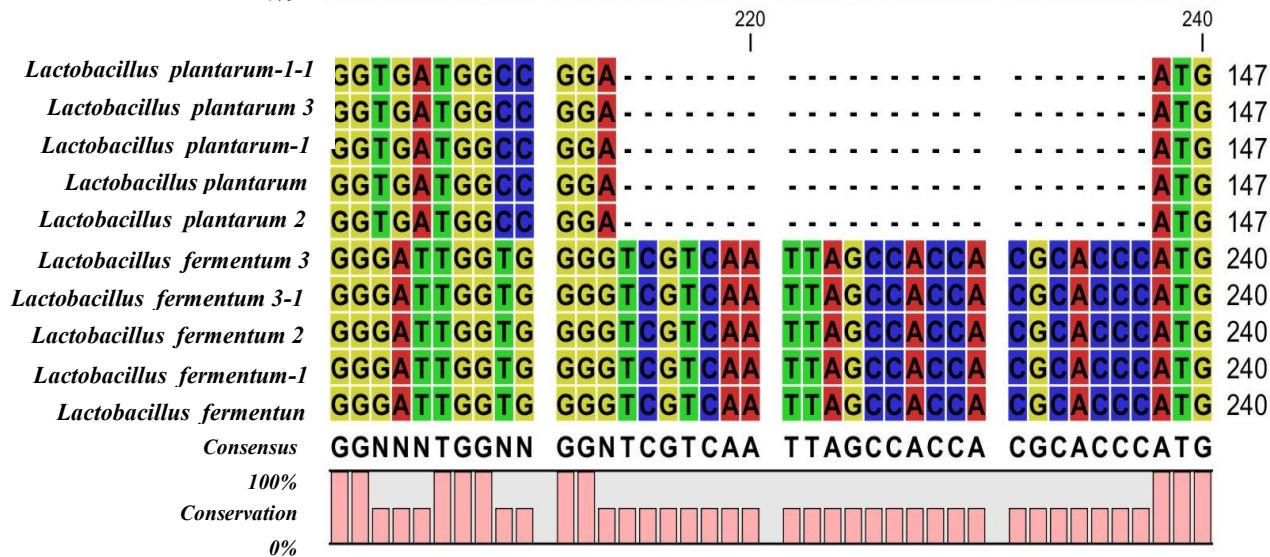
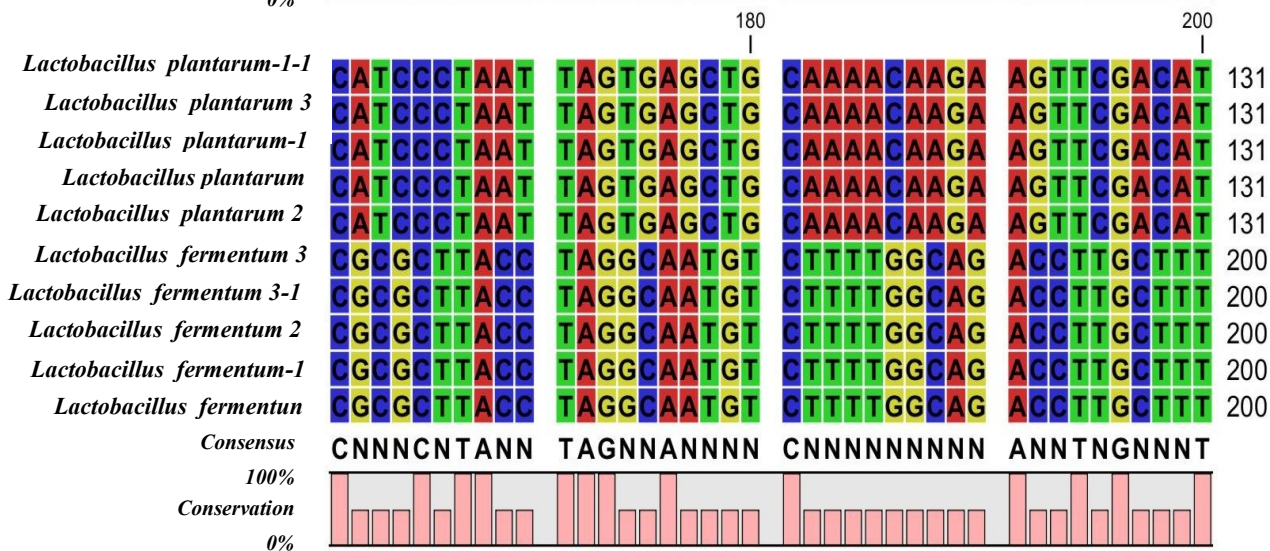
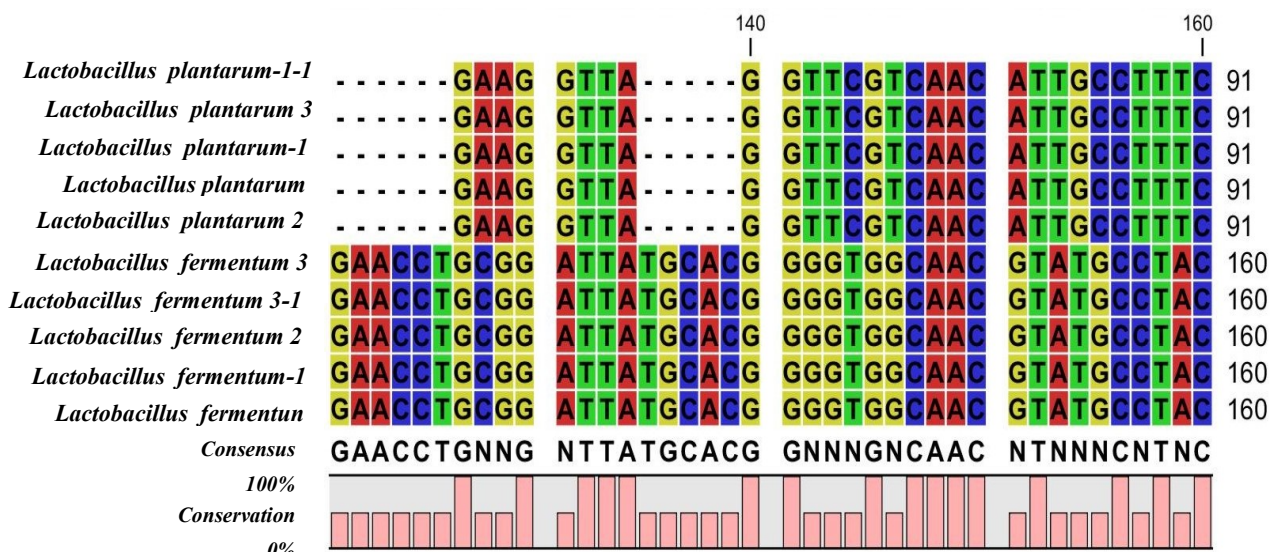
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*Lactobacillus plantarum* CP016071.1

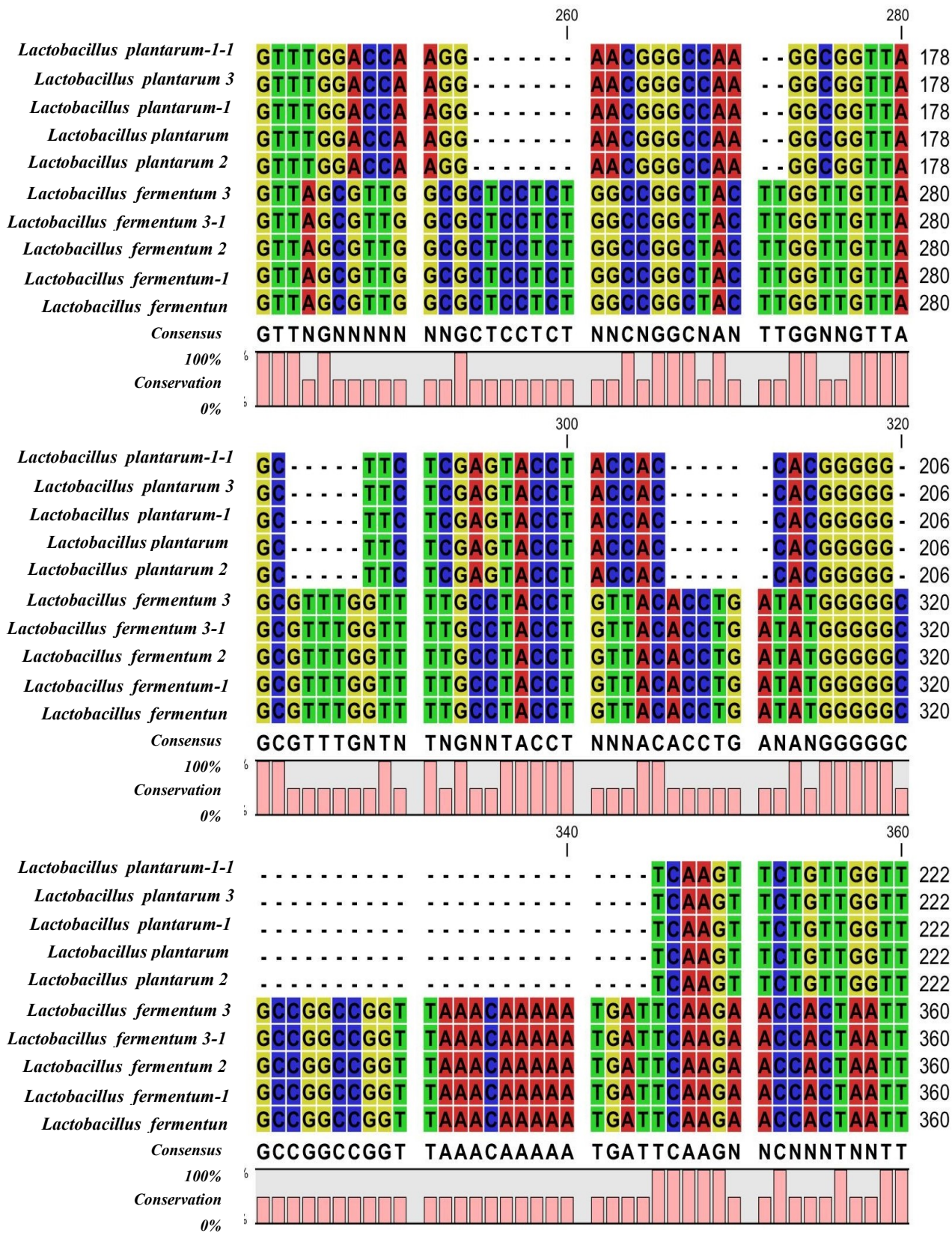


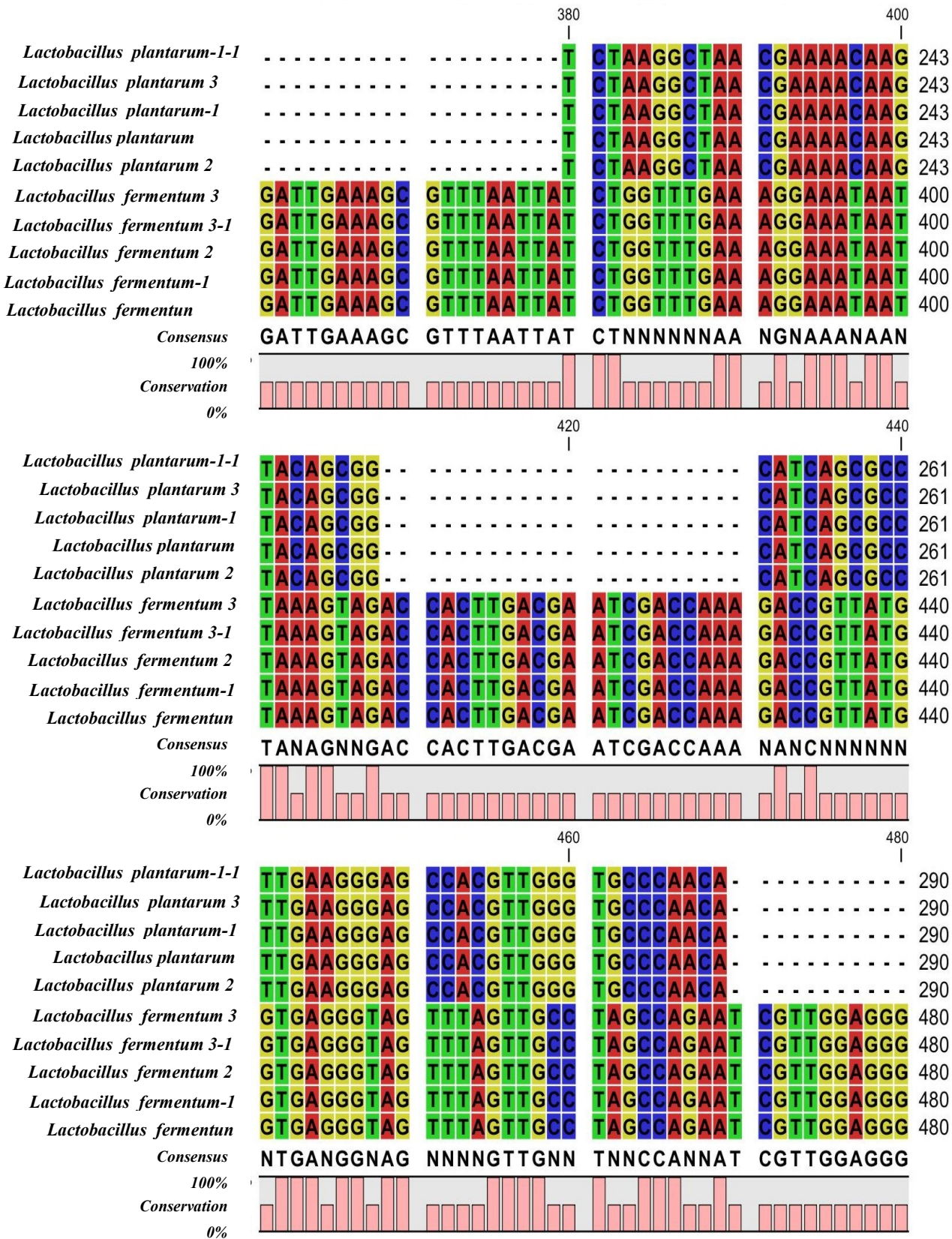
**Appendix 5 b: Phylogenetic Tree of Pigeon-pea Isolates at 37±1°C**

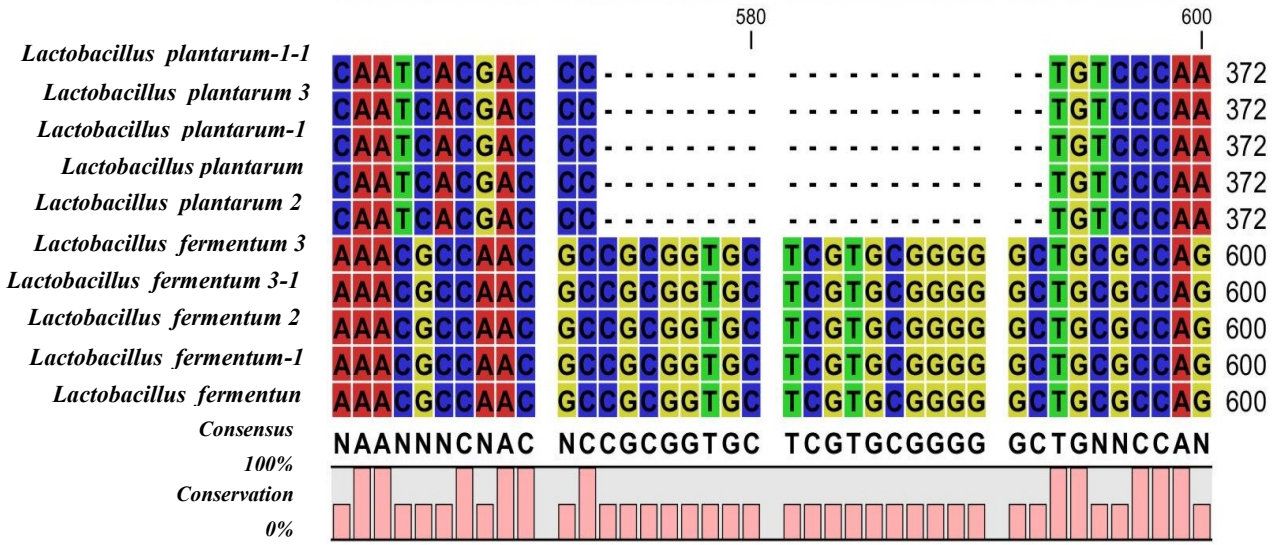
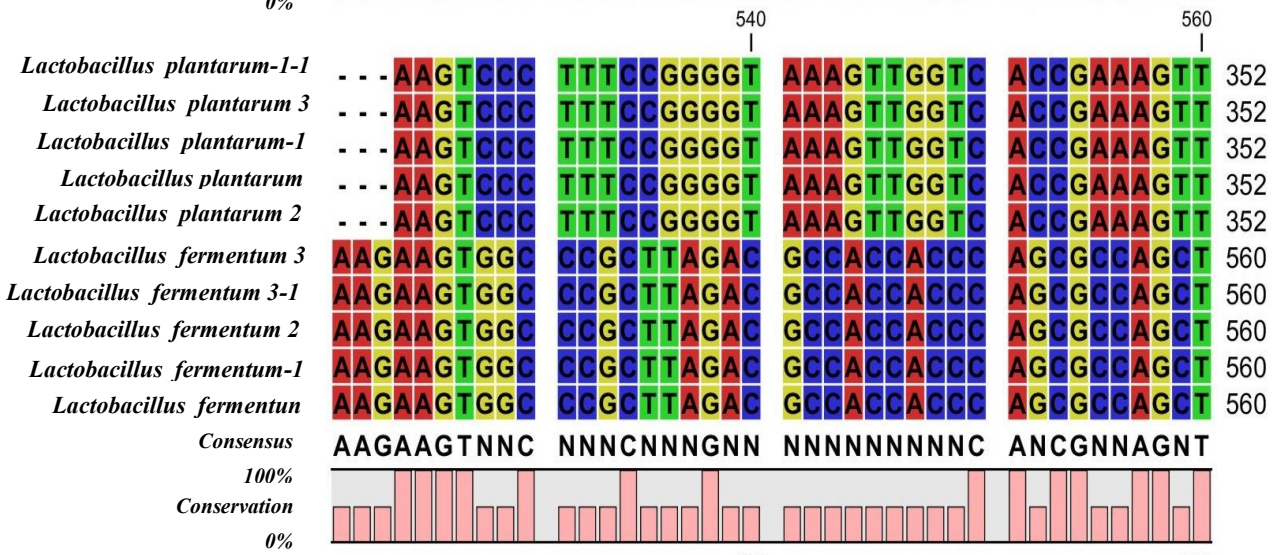
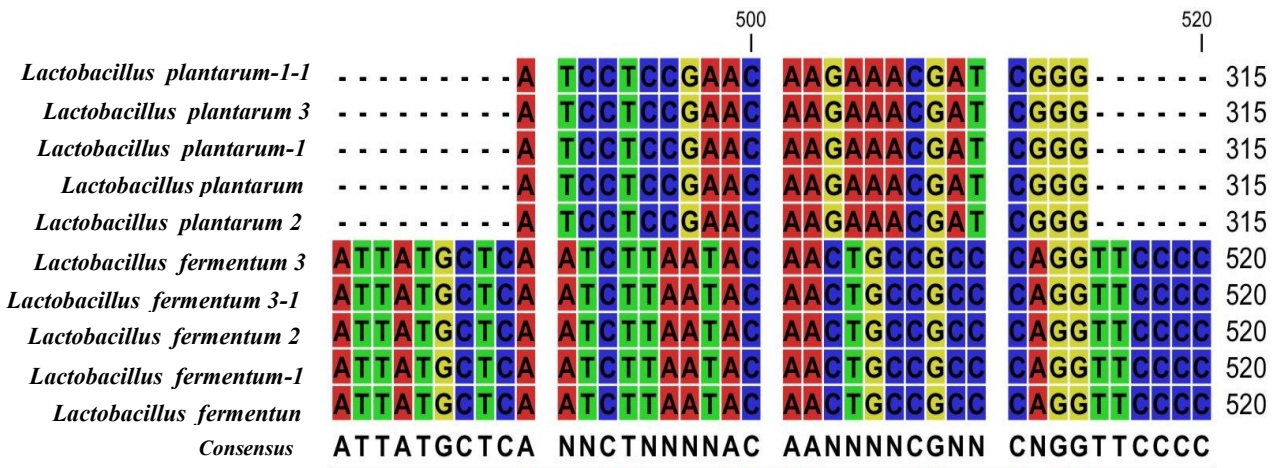


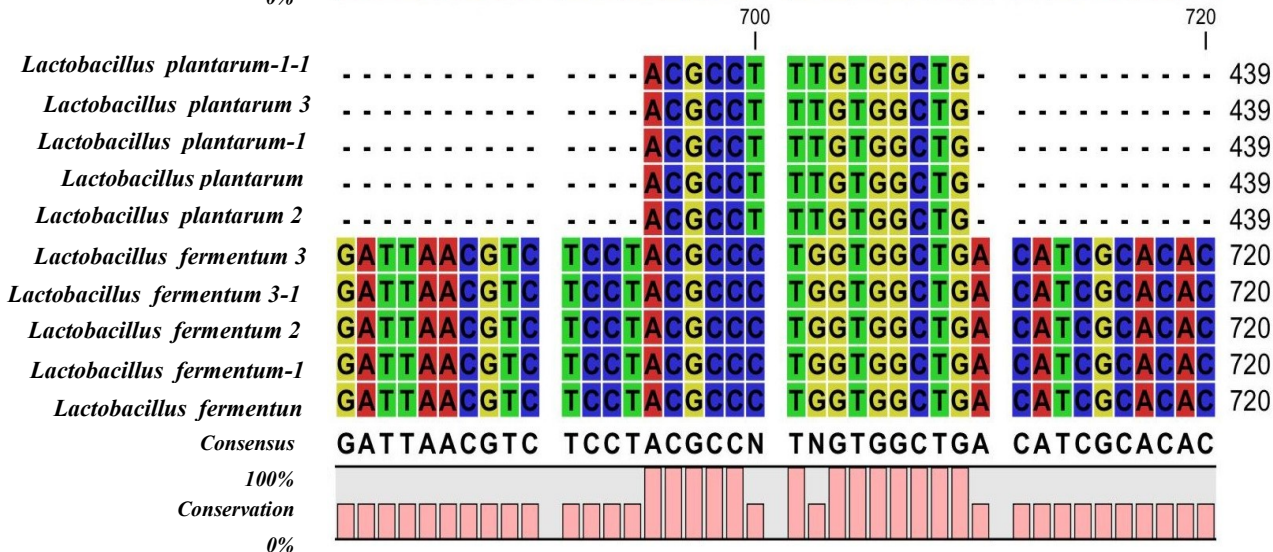
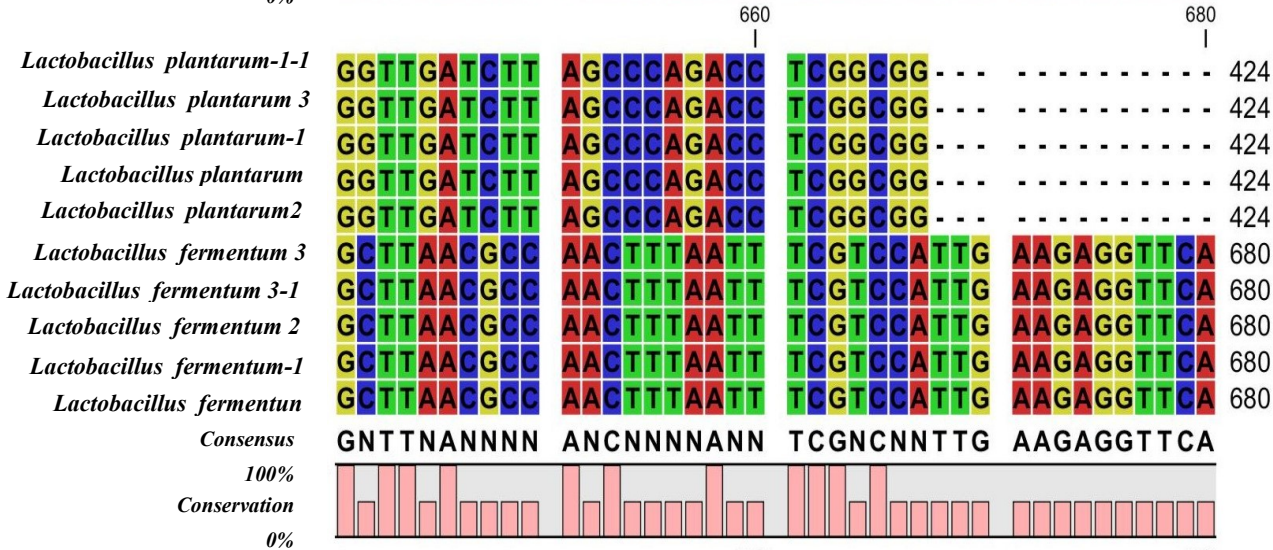
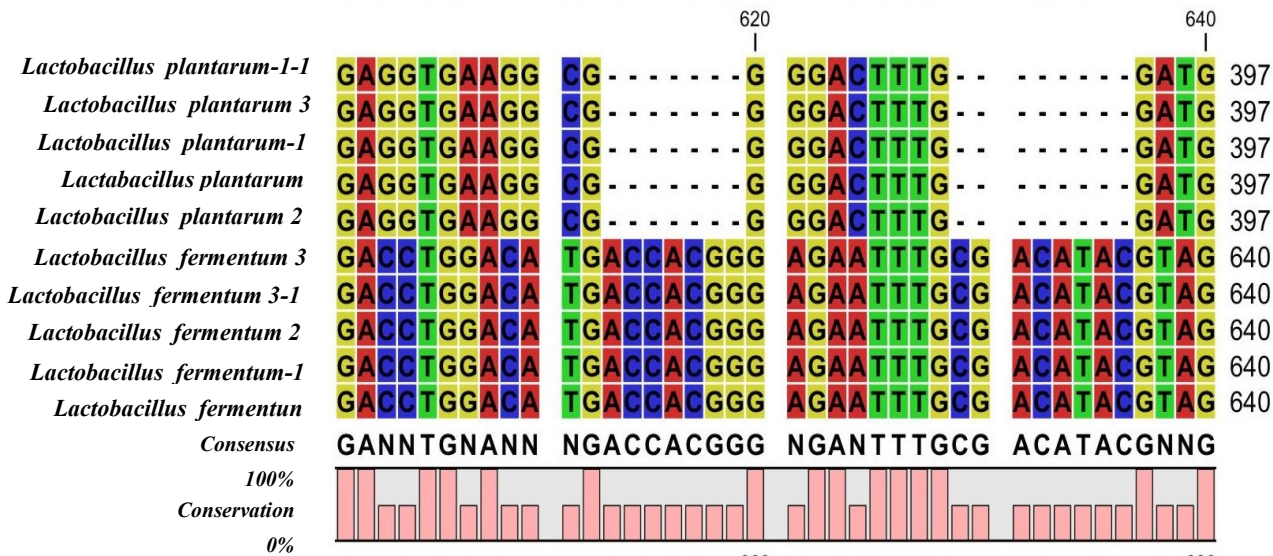


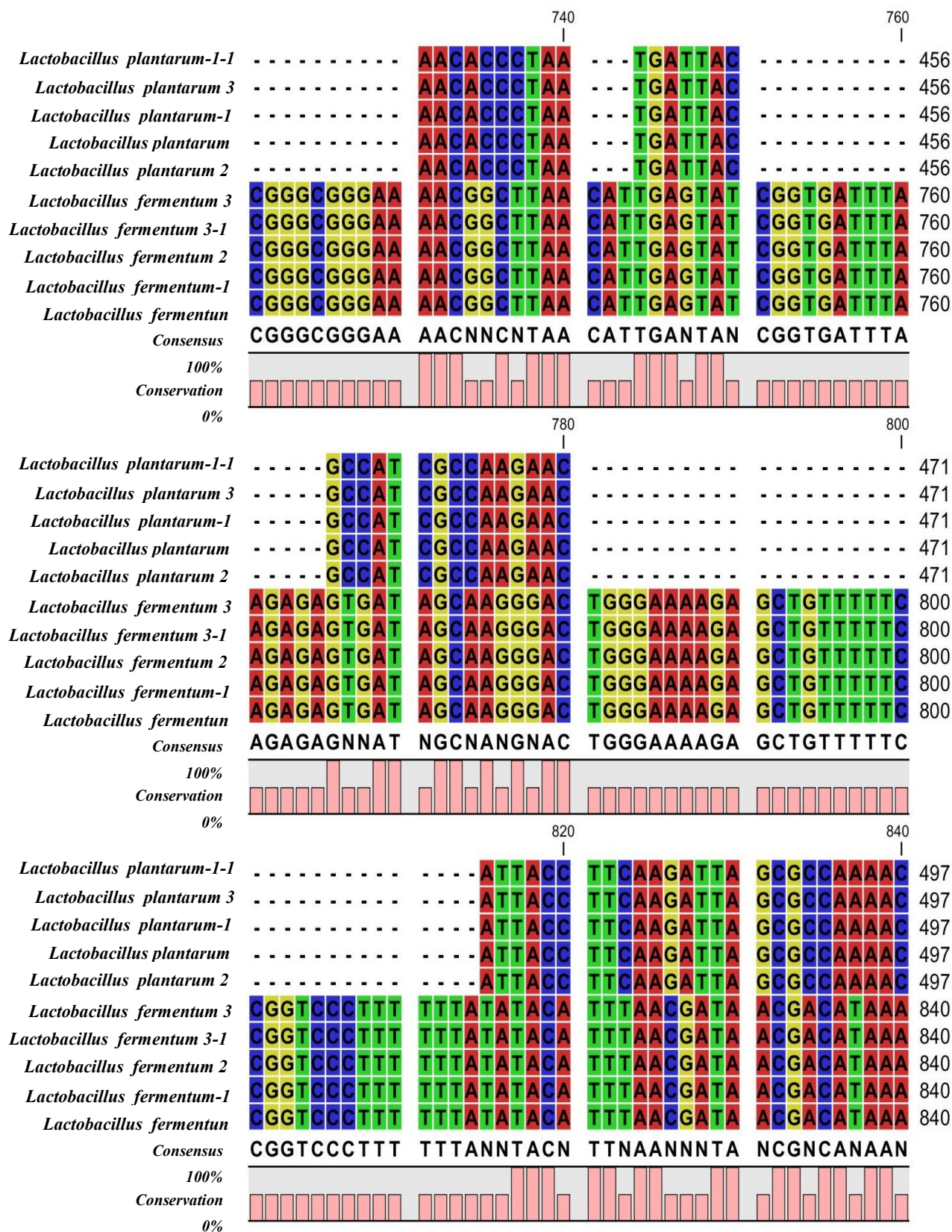




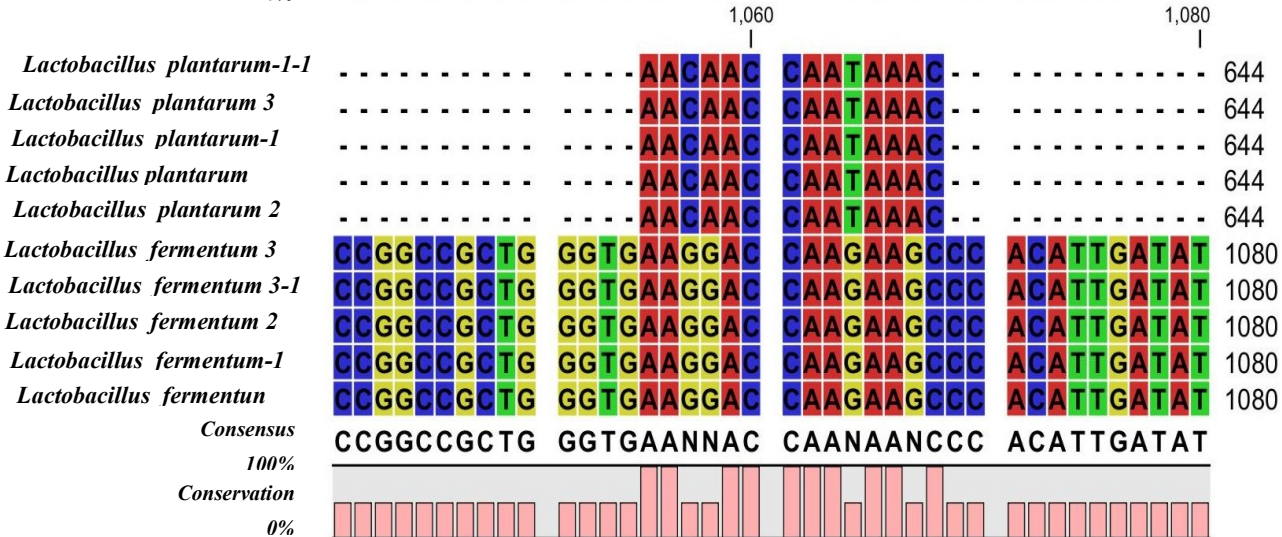
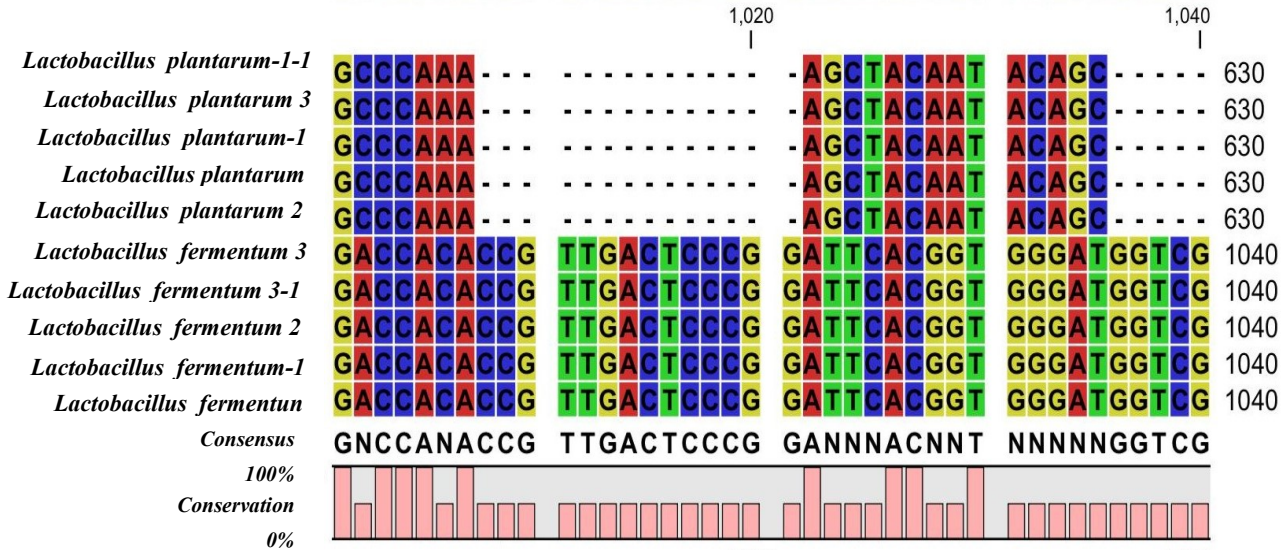
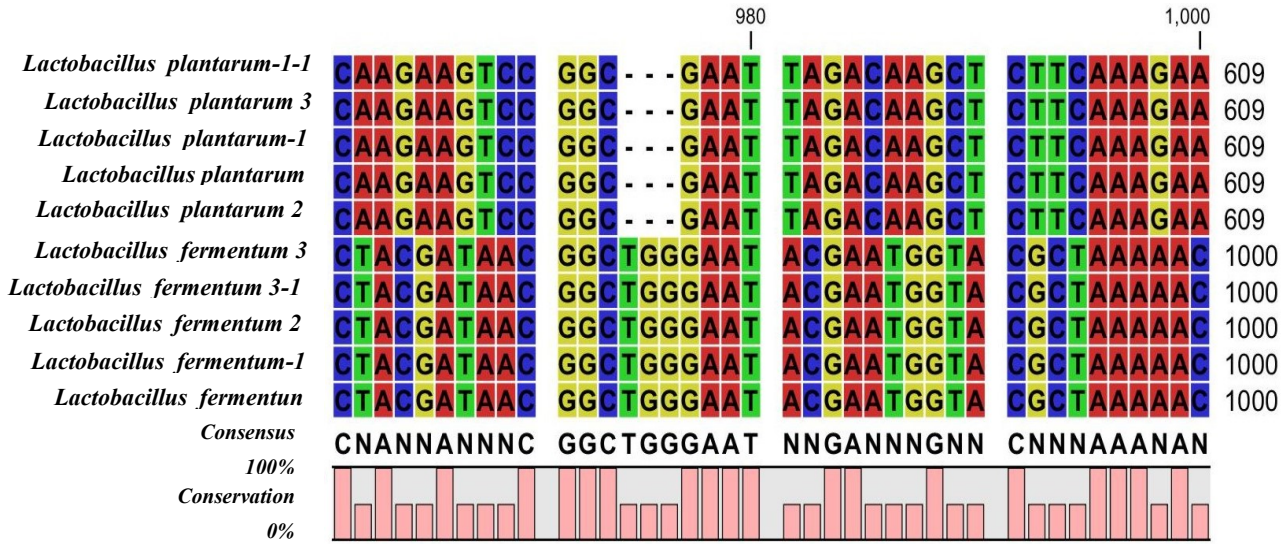


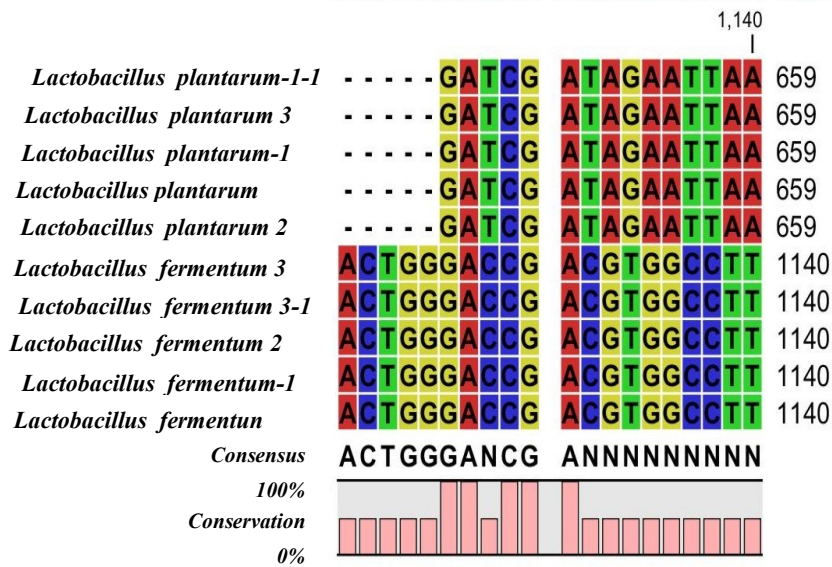
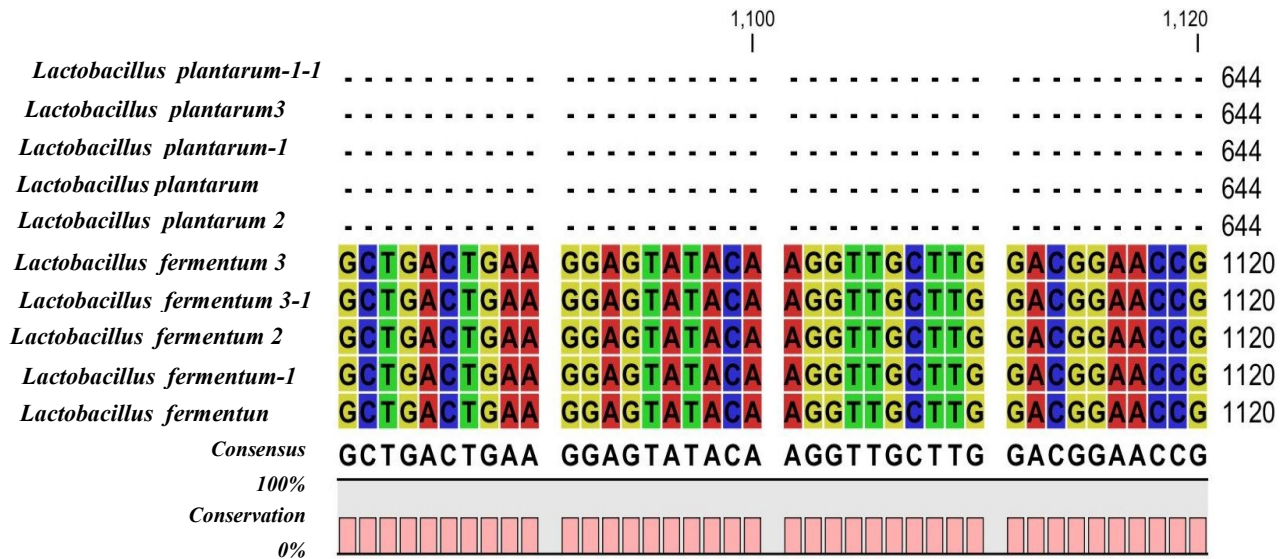












**Appendix 5 c: Pigeon-pea Isolates Alignment at 37±1°C**



## Appendix 6

### Questionnaire for Sensory properties of Breadfruit-Pigeon-pea meal and pizzelle cookie Samples

**Instructions:** Please rank the following samples of breadfruit-pigeon-pea products according to the level of likeness or dislike.

Feelings	Scores
Like extremely	9
Like very much	8
Like moderately	7
Like slightly	6
Neither like nor dislike	5
Dislike slightly	4
Dislike moderately	3
Dislike very much	2
Dislike extremely	1

Samples	Appearance	Taste / Crispiness	Colour	Aroma	Overall Acceptability
551					
552					
553					
554					
555					
556					
557					
558					

Name :

Date :

Signature:

## Appendix 7

### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CIAT	Centro Internacional de Agricultural Tropical
CF	Crude Fiber
cm	Centimeter
°C	Degree
DNA	Deoxy Ribonucleic Acid
DMRT	Duncan Multiple Range Test
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
G/cm <sup>3</sup>	Gram per Centimeter Cubed
G/ml	Gram per Milliliter
G/cc	Gram per Centimeter
g	Gram
HCN	Hydrogen Cyanide
HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography
HCL	Hydrogen Chloride
H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	Hydrogen tetraoxosulphate (VI) acid
h	Hour
ICRAF	International Center for Research in Agroforestry.
kJ	Kilo Joule
kg/ha	Kilogram per Hectares
kg	Kilogram
kcal	Kilo Calorie
KCN	Potassium Cyanide
LGC	Least Gelation Concentration
LLDPE	Linear Low Density Polyethylene
MC	Moisture Content
mm	Millimeter
m <sup>2</sup>	Meter squared

m	Meter
M	Molar
M	Molecular size marker
Mg/g	Milligram/gram
mg	Milligram
Min	Minute
ml	Milliliter
NRCS	National Resources Conservation Service
NCBI	National Centre for Biotechnology Information
No.	Number
OAC	Oil absorption capacity
ppm	Parts per million
p>0.05	Probability greater than 0.05
P<0.05	Probability less than 0.05
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
RVA	Rapid Visco Analyzer
RVU	Rapid Visco Unit
rpm	Revolution per minutes
SD	Standard deviation
spp	Species
Sec	Second
Temp	Temperature
tons/ha	Tonnes per hectares
ug	Micron gram
UV	Ultraviolet
Vol	Volume
w/v	Weight per Volume
WAC	Water Absorption Capacity
WHO	World Health Organization
%	Percentage

