Production of improved infant porridges from pearl millet using a lactic acid fermentation step and addition of sorghum malt to reduce viscosity of porridges with high protein, energy and solids (30%) content

M.L. Thaoge^{1,2,3,*}, M.R. Adams⁵, M.M. Sibara^{2,3}, T.G. Watson⁴, J.R.N. Taylor¹ and E.M. Goyvaerts^{2,3}

Received 21 August 2002; accepted 25 November 2002

Keywords: Fermentation, pearl millet, sorghum malt, weaning porridge and survival of Escherichia coli

Summary

With the aim of improving the safety and nutritional quality of traditional African weaning porridge, the reduction of the viscosity of a high solids fermented pearl millet porridge by addition of sorghum malt (amylase rich flour, ARF) was investigated. The effect of fermentation, cooking, malt addition and recooking on the microflora of, and the survival of an inoculated pathogen were determined. Addition of 5% (w/v) sorghum ARF to the gelatinized millet porridge gave an acceptable viscosity of 2500–3000 cP at a high solid content of 30%. Fermentation inhibited the growth of microorganisms in the porridge and recooking the fermented porridge after sorghum ARF addition further eliminated (<10² c.f.u./g) the moulds and coliforms that were introduced with the sorghum ARF. The recooked, fermented millet plus sorghum ARF porridge prevented the proliferation of the inoculated *Escherichia coli* and reduced it to <10² c.f.u./g within 18 h. The porridge could supply children under 3 years with the daily required protein using 1.4 feedings per day and required energy with 4 feedings a day.

Introduction

Malnutrition, mostly protein-energy malnutrition (PEM) is the cause of over 50% of childhood mortality in developing countries (Grigsby 2002). In South Africa, about 2.5 million children under the age of six are undernourished (South African Labour and Development Research Unit 1994). Stunting has been indicated among 15% of children under 12 months and higher rates (23%) were shown in weaning children of 12-23 months. According to Maclachlan & Khuzwayo (1997), the highest rate (34%) of malnutrition cases occurred in the Limpopo Province. Malnutrition results from infections/diseases (e.g. diarrhoea) caused by foodborne pathogens and/or inadequate dietary consumption due to weaning and/or feeding practices. One out of 10 children in developing countries dies due to dehydration caused by diarrhoea (Pelletier 1993). Infections are a common occurrence in rural communities often because of the lack of appropriate storage facilities (e.g. refrigerators), proper sanitation facilities and water supply.

Controlled fermentation with lactic acid bacteria (LAB) gives food a longer shelf life. It inhibits growth,

survival of and toxin production by pathogenic bacteria, due to rapid growth of LAB, production of acids and the concomitant decrease in pH (Yusof *et al.* 1993; Kingamkono *et al.* 1994; Olsen *et al.* 1995). Some food fermentations also raise the protein content or improve the availability of essential amino acids (Mbugua 1984), improve *in vitro* protein digestibility (Lorri & Svanberg 1993a), enhance carbohydrate digestibility (Oyewole 1995), or provide an optimum pH condition for the degradation or reduction of phytates or tannins thus improving the bioavailability of iron (Khetarpaul & Chanhan 1989; Svanberg *et al.* 1993).

Traditional weaning foods in Eastern and Southern Africa are generally based on the local staple cereal (maize, millet, sorghum or rice) and starchy tubers (cassava, potato or plantain). Gruels or porridges made from these foods are diluted to a flour concentration of about 5–10% to attain viscosities of less than 3000 cP, the consistency suitable for feeding children younger than 3 years, and thus provide them with an energy density of only about 0.836 kJ/g, which is too low to meet their energy requirements (Mosha & Svanberg 1990; FAO/WHO 1995).

¹Department of Food Science, University of Pretoria, 0002 Pretoria, South Africa

²Biotechnology Unit, University of the North, Private Bag X 1106, Sovenga 0727, South Africa

³Department of Microbiology, University of the North, Private Bag X 1106, Sovenga 0727, South Africa

⁴Bio/Chemtek, CSIR, PO Box 395, Pretoria 0001, South Africa

⁵School of Biological Sciences, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey GU2 7XH, UK

^{*}Author for correspondence: Tel.: +2712-420-4299, Fax: +271212-420-2839, E-mail: mthaoge@postino.up.ac.za

Nutrient density can be increased by thinning the prepared thick porridge with malt flour, also known as Amylase-Rich Flour (ARF), or Power Flour (PF). Small quantities of ARF (mostly wheat, maize and sorghum) when added to freshly prepared thick gruels (mostly maize and sorghum) liquefy them due to the action of α -amylase, which digests starch to dextrins and maltose (Priest & Campbell 1996). The viscosity of the gruels is then reduced without lowering their nutrient and energy density (Efiuwevwere & Akona 1995; Gimbi *et al.* 1997; Den Besten *et al.* 1998). No reports thus far have combined the use of fermented pearl millet with the addition of small quantities of sorghum ARF.

Pearl millet, an indigenous African cereal, is cultivated and available to communities in the Limpopo Province for human food and as forage. It possesses higher energy (1517 kJ/100 g), protein (11.8%) and fat (4.8%) than sorghum (1382 kJ, 10.4% protein and 3.1% fat content) and maize (1504 kJ, 9.2% protein and 4.6% fat) (FAO 1995).

The objective of this study was to examine the use of the combination of fermentation of pearl millet and the use of sorghum ARF to produce a microbiologically safe and nutritious weaning food.

Materials

Pearl millet grain was obtained from the Northern Transvaal Cooperative in Polokwane in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. To prepare the millet flour, the grains were washed, dried and milled using a coffee grinder. The flours were stored in sealed polyethylene bags at 2–4 °C. Sorghum malt flour was obtained from the Bio/Chemtek Division of the CSIR, South Africa.

Methods

Preparation of porridges

Nonfermented millet porridge with sorghum ARF (NP) Twenty-five percent (w/v) pearl millet flour in boiling water was cooked with continuous stirring at 95 °C for about 15 min. The gruel was then put in a water bath to cool down to 35 °C. Sorghum ARF was added to a cooled porridge and was left to stand for 15 min at room temperature. At the end of 15 min, the preparation was further boiled for 5 min.

Fermented millet porridge with sorghum malt (FP)

Twenty-five percent (w/v) pearl millet flour was soaked in distilled water for 64 h at 30 °C. The slurry was then cooked with continuous stirring at 95 °C for 15 min. It was then put in a water bath to cool down to 35 °C before sorghum ARF addition. Sorghum ARF was added to a cooled porridge and was left to stand for 15 min at room temperature. At the end of 15 min, the preparation was further boiled for 5 min.

Viscosity

NP and FP were prepared as described above with the addition of different amounts of sorghum malt flour (2, 2.5, 10 and 15% (w/v)). Viscosities were measured after 15 min using the Haake Rotovisco Model RV3 viscometer with a SV1 Rotor at a shear rate of 54 rev/min.

Microbial population

Samples (10 g) were placed in sterile bags and homogenized in 90 ml sterile diluent (0.1% peptone, 0.85% NaCl), for 30 s. Tenfold serial dilutions were prepared in triplicates of appropriate dilutions and plated onto MRS (Oxoid) for LAB count, PCA (Oxoid) for total aerobic count, PDA (Oxoid) for yeast and mould count and MacConkey (Oxoid) for coliforms. MRS plates were incubated at 30 °C for 48 h, PDA plates at 25 °C for 64 h and MacConkey plates at 37 °C for 24 h before colony enumeration (Kandler & Weiss 1986).

pH and titratable acidity

The pH of the samples (10% slurry in distilled H₂O) was measured. The titratable acidity (TA), reported as % lactic acid equivalent was determined by titration of a 5 g sample mixed with 50 ml distilled H₂O against 0.1 M NaOH to an end point of pH 8.5 while stirring continuously. TA was then expressed as % lactic acid.

Inoculation with Escherichia coli

To 50 g NP and FP, 1 ml (about 10^6 c.f.u./ml) of *Escherichia coli* (ETEC, ATCC 25922) was added. The porridges were incubated with controls at 37 °C. Samples (1 g) were taken after 0, 4, 8, and 18 h for pH and TA determination (Olsen *et al.* 1995).

Nutritional profile

The feed volumes to meet the energy and protein requirements of infants and older children were calculated using Recommended Dietary Allowances tables for children, birth to age three (Food and Nutrition Board 1989).

Statistical analysis

Paired and unpaired *T*-tests were performed using MS-Excel to determine the probabilities of populations having the same or different mean values.

Results and discussion

Porridge viscosity

Addition of different amounts (2, 2.5, 5, 10 and 15% (w/v)) of sorghum ARF to NP and FP rapidly (within

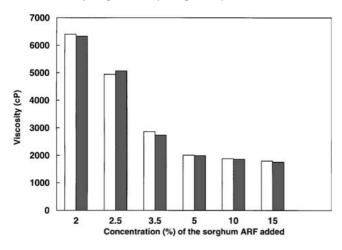


Figure 1. Effect of sorghum ARF addition on the viscosity of a 25% (w/v) pearl millet porridge. Averages of two experiments are shown. Relative standard deviation is <6%. NP (\square) – non-fermented product; FP (\blacksquare) – fermented product.

10 min) reduced their viscosities. The amount of reduction was related to the ARF concentration (Figure 1). The optimum reduction was obtained when 5% (w/v) sorghum ARF was added, when the viscosities of NP and FP were reduced to semi-liquid consistencies of 2864 and 2731 cP, respectively. Semi-liquid porridge consistencies of 2500-3000 cP are regarded as preferable for feeding young children (Mosha & Svanberg 1983). Mosha & Svanberg (1983) also demonstrated that addition of a small amount (5%) of germinated sorghum flour to cooked sorghum porridge decreased the viscosity to a semi-liquid consistency suitable for child feeding. Thick porridge (over 10,000 cP) can be liquefied in this way, and the energy density can be increased while an acceptable low viscosity of 2500-3000 cP is maintained. There were differences in the viscosity reduction between the fermented and unfermented sample after the addition of ARF with the viscosities of FP samples being generally slightly lower. This may have resulted from amylase production by microorganisms during fermentation or the fact that microbial amylases have been shown to work better in acidic environments (Lorri & Svanberg 1993b).

Microbial population

Table 1 shows the total count, LAB, yeast, moulds and coliforms from samples taken at different stages in the

preparation of fermented pearl millet plus sorghum ARF porridge, i.e. the non-fermented and fermented pearl millet flour, fermented cooked pearl millet porridge, the porridge with added sorghum ARF and the recooked millet + sorghum ARF porridge. Raw pearl millet flour possessed a high microbial load with a total count of 2.4×10^5 c.f.u./g, LAB 1.1×10^4 c.f.u./g, yeast 6.0×10^3 c.f.u./g, moulds 1.2×10^5 c.f.u./g, and coliforms at 1.8×10^4 c.f.u./g. Fermentation of the millet flour for 64 h resulted in a higher total count of 10⁸ c.f.u./g, with LAB increasing to 10⁷ c.f.u./g, whereas the yeast, moulds and coliforms numbers were reduced to below detection level of <10² c.f.u./g. As would be expected, cooking substantially decreased the LAB and total count to 103 c.f.u./g and the yeast, moulds and coliforms remained undetectable. The addition of sorghum ARF brought about an increase in the total counts to 10⁷ c.f.u./g, the LAB to 10⁶ c.f.u./g, the yeast to 106 c.f.u./g, and moulds and coliforms both to 10⁴ c.f.u./g. Subsequent recooking of the millet porridge plus sorghum ARF mixture profoundly decreased the microbial load, to a total count of 10³ c.f.u./g, LAB of 10² c.f.u./g, yeast of 10² c.f.u./g, and moulds and coliforms to an undetectable level.

The high microbial load in the pearl millet flour probably resulted from contamination during storage and processing of the millet grains. Fermentation reduced yeast, moulds and coliforms to below the detectable level, as they did not survive the low pH (3.7) reached after 48 h fermentation (Kingamkono et al. 1994) and possibly because of other inhibitory substances which can be produced by LAB (De Vuyst & Vandamme 1994). Olukoya et al. (1994) and Kingamkono et al. (1994) have demonstrated the inhibition of different pathogens and other microorganisms by fermented sorghum and maize gruels. Cooking the fermented millet flour to produce porridge further reduced the microbial load, though the yeast, moulds and coliforms had already been eliminated by fermentation. The low microbial levels obtained after cooking were similar to those obtained by Mensah et al. (1991) when cooking a fermented maize dough. Addition of the sorghum ARF increased the microbial load of the porridge to very high, unacceptable levels (10⁷ c.f.u./g). The high microbial load of the raw sorghum malt was introduced during the malting process, whereby the sorghum grains are sprouted, dried and then ground to flour without being sterilized (Rabie & Lübben 1984).

Table 1. Effect of cooking, fermentation and sorghum ARF addition on the microflora of pearl millet porridge (c.f.u./g).

Sample	Total count	LAB	Yeast	Moulds	Coliforms
Pearl millet flour	2.4×10^{5}	1.1×10^{4}	6.0×10^{3}	1.2×10^{5}	1.8×10^{4}
Fermented pearl millet dough	5.0×10^{8}	8.2×10^{7}	$<10^{2}$	$<10^{2}$	$<10^{2}$
Cooked fermented millet porridge	4.8×10^{3}	4.2×10^{3}	$<10^{2}$	$<10^{2}$	$<10^{2}$
Cooked fermented millet porridge + sorghum ARF	2.0×10^{7}	1.9×10^{6}	1.3×10^{6}	2.4×10^{4}	4.8×10^{4}
Recooked fermented millet porridge + sorghum ARF	1.1×10^{3}	6.3×10^{2}	5.0×10^{2}	$< 10^{2}$	$<10^{2}$

A high level of fungi carries the risk of the presence of mycotoxins (Briggs 1998). Recooking the porridge after the malt addition eliminated fungi and coliforms, though yeast were still detectable.

Survival of pathogens

When *E. coli* (Figure 2) was inoculated into unfermented porridge (NPE) it increased from 10⁷ to 10⁹ c.f.u./g after 18 h, whereas the LAB increased from undetectable to about 10⁵ c.f.u./g (Figure 3). When *E. coli* was

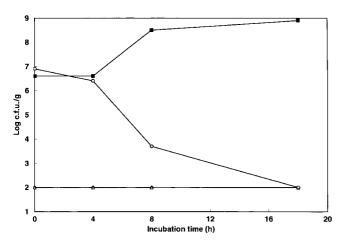


Figure 2. Growth pattern of *E. coli* in non-fermented and fermented pearl millet plus sorghum malt porridges with and without *E. coli* inoculation. Averages of two experiments are shown and the relative standard deviation is < 5%. NP (\spadesuit) – non-fermented without *E. coli* inoculation; NPE (\blacksquare) – non-fermented with *E. coli* inoculation; FP (\triangle) – fermented without *E. coli* inoculation; FPE (\bigcirc) – fermented with *E. coli* inoculation.

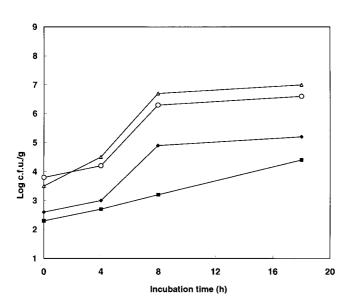


Figure 3. Growth pattern of LAB in non-fermented and fermented pearl millet plus sorghum malt porridges with and without *E. coli* inoculation. Averages of two experiments are shown and the relative standard deviation is < 5%. NP (\spadesuit) – non-fermented without *E. coli* inoculation; NPE (\blacksquare) – non-fermented with *E. coli* inoculation; FP (\triangle) – fermented without *E. coli* inoculation; FPE (\bigcirc) – fermented with *E. coli* inoculation.

inoculated into fermented porridge (FPE) it was reduced from 10⁷ to undetectable levels after 18 h of incubation (Figure 2) and the LAB increased from 10⁴ to 10⁶ c.f.u./g (Figure 3). *E. coli* was not detected in uninoculated samples, unfermented (NP) and fermented (FP) throughout the whole experiment (Figure 2), whereas the LAB increased from being undetectable to a count of about 10⁴ c.f.u./g for NP and from 10³ to about 10⁷ c.f.u./g for FP within 8–18 h (Figure 3).

The decrease in the numbers of $E.\ coli$ in the fermented porridge (FPE) coincided with lower pH values (Figure 4) of ≤ 3.9 and higher levels of titratable acidities (1.9–2.1% lactic acid) (Figure 5), as compared to pH of ≤ 5.9 and titratable acidities of between 0.8 and 1.6% lactic acid of an unfermented porridge (NPE) over a period of 18 h. Thus a cooked fermented pearl millet plus sorghum ARF porridge is incapable of supporting growth of an enteropathogen such as $E.\ coli$ after being contaminated at the stage of consumption. Simango & Rukure (1991) also reported that $E.\ coli$ showed a marked decrease in numbers 24 h after inoculation in mahewu, a fermented maize gruel. Inhibition of $E.\ coli$ added to a prefermented rice-based weaning food model has also been demonstrated by Yusof $et\ al.\ (1993)$.

Nutritional profile

A survey (results not shown) showed that the most common weaning foods in the three investigated areas of the Limpopo Province are the thin maize, sorghum and sometimes millet porridges containing about 10% solids. On a dry basis the protein content of 100 g of

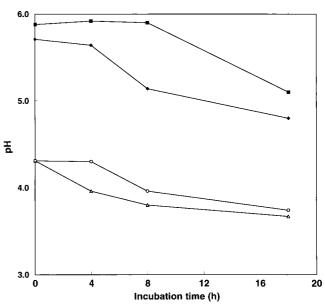


Figure 4. Changes in pH during incubation of non-fermented and fermented pearl millet plus sorghum malt porridges with and without $E.\ coli$ inoculation. Averages of two experiments are shown and the relative standard deviation is <3%. NP (\spadesuit) – non-fermented without $E.\ coli$ inoculation; NPE (\blacksquare) – non-fermented with $E.\ coli$ inoculation; FP (\triangle) – fermented without $E.\ coli$ inoculation; FPE (\bigcirc) – fermented with $E.\ coli$ inoculation.

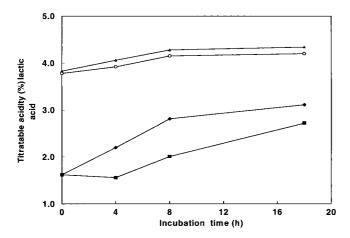


Figure 5. Changes in titratable acidity (TA) during incubation of nonfermented and fermented pearl millet plus sorghum malt porridges with and without $E.\ coli$ inoculation. Averages of two experiments are shown and the relative standard deviation is <3%. NP (\spadesuit) – nonfermented without $E.\ coli$ inoculation; NPE (\blacksquare) – non-fermented with $E.\ coli$ inoculation; FP (\triangle) – fermented without $E.\ coli$ inoculation; FPE (\bigcirc) – fermented with $E.\ coli$ inoculation.

Table 2. The RDA of protein and energy for children under 3 years and the nutritive value of the traditional porridges foods as compared with the proposed porridge (g/100 g dry weight of edible food).

	Protein (g) ^a	Energy (kJ) ^a
RDA ^b		
0–0.5 year	12	2722
0.5–1 year	13	3704
1–3 years	16	5569
Traditional porridges		
10% Maize	1.05	173
10% Sorghum	1.18	157
10% Millet	1.34	173
Proposed porridge		
(30% millet plus sorghum ARF)	3.94	512

^a Calculated using the composition tables published by the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO 1995).

pearl millet is 22% higher than that of maize and 12% higher than that of sorghum (Table 2). Pearl millet seems to be superior to maize and sorghum with respect to protein content. However, its protein quality has raised some concern because of low lysine content (Serna-Saldivar *et al.* 1991). The protein quality of pearl

millet is superior to that of other cereals and pearl millet has greater potential to meet the lysine requirements of growing children than most cereals (FAO 1995). Its energy content is 9% higher than that of sorghum and equal to that of maize. The estimated protein and energy content of the proposed 25% (w/v) millet plus 5% (w/v) sorghum ARF porridge is higher than that of the traditional porridges made from 10% (w/v) maize, sorghum and millet porridges. It should be noted that in the absence of nutrient composition data for fermented millet and sorghum ARF, the data for unfermented millet and ungerminated sorghum flours were used to estimate the protein and energy contents. Thus the estimates do not include any changes in the protein and energy content due to fermentation of millet or germination of sorghum.

According to the RDA (recommended dietary allowances) of energy and protein for children under 3 years, volumes ranging from 970 ml (0-6 months) to 1524 ml (1-3 years) a day are required to satisfy a child's needs for protein with the traditional 10% maize, sorghum and millet porridges (Table 2). On the other hand, infants (0-6 months) can consume a maximum volume of 130 ml of porridge per feed whereas toddlers aged 6-12 months and 1-3 years can consume maximum volumes of 260 and 300 ml, respectively (Pipes & Trahms 1994). This implies that a child will have to consume 5– 10 feedings a day of the traditional 10% (w/v) maize or sorghum porridges and 4-9 feedings a day of the 10% millet porridge to meet their daily protein requirements (Table 3). Mothers do not always have the time and fuel to prepare meals up to 12 times a day. With the proposed 25% (w/v) millet plus sorghum ARF (5% w/ v), lower volumes of 329 ml (0-6 months), 355 ml (0.5-1 year) and 406 ml (1–3 years) will meet the daily protein requirements and volumes of 531 ml (0-6 months), 723 ml (0.5–1 year) and 1088 ml (1–3 years) will meet daily energy requirements. Therefore children would generally have to consume 3-4 feedings a day to obtain their protein and energy requirements.

Conclusions

The study resulted in a weaning porridge with a total solids content of 30% made from fermented 25% (w/v)

Table 3. Maximum stomach capacity of children under three with the estimated volumes (ml) and number of servings per day (in brackets) to meet the RDA for protein and energy of children using the traditional porridges and the proposed millet plus sorghum ARF porridge.

Age (years)	Maximum stomach		Porridges			
	capacity/meal (ml)		10% (w/v) maize	10% (w/v) sorghum	10% (w/v) millet	30% millet plus sorghum ARF
0.0–0.5	130	Protein	1238 (9.5)	1102 (8.5)	970 (7.5)	329 (2.5)
		Energy	1573 (12.1)	1734 (13.3)	1573 (12.1)	531 (4)
0.5–1	260	Protein	1333 (5.1)	1186 (4.6)	1045 (4.0)	355 (1.4)
		Energy	2141 (8.2)	2359 (9.1)	2141 (8.2)	723 (2.8)
1–3	300	Protein	1524 (5.1)	1356 (4.5)	1194 (4.0)	406 (1.4)
		Energy	3258 (10.9)	3547 (11.8)	L3258 (10.9)	1088 (3.6)

b Adapted from the Food and Nutrition Board (FNB 1989).

pearl millet plus 5% (w/v) sorghum ARF with a semiliquid consistency of 2500–3000 cP which is suitable for feeding young children. Recooking the porridge eliminates moulds and coliforms that are introduced with the addition of sorghum ARF. Inoculated *E. coli* could not grow in the final porridge that was ready for consumption. The porridge could supply children under 3 years with the daily required protein and energy levels at a feasible feeding regime of 3–4 feedings a day, depending on their age.

Acknowledgements

The authors will like to thank the UK/SA British Council, the NRF and the CSIR for their financial assistance and Dr J Webster for the support and advice that she provided during this study.

References

- Briggs, D.E. 1998 Malts and Malting, 1st edn. pp. 269–270. London: Blackie Academic and Professional Publications. ISBN 0412298007.
- Den Besten, L., Glatthaar, I. & Ijsselmuiden, C. 1998 Adding α-amylase to weaning food to increase dietary intake in children. A randomised controlled trial. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics* **44**, 4–9.
- De Vuyst, L. & Vandamme, E.J. 1994 Bacteriocins of Lactic Acid Bacteria. pp. 91–14. Norwell Massachusetts, Chapman and Hall. ISBN 0751401749.
- Efiuwwevwere, B.J.O. & Akona, O. 1995 The microbiology of kununzaki, a cereal beverage from the northern Nigeria, during the fermentation (production) process. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology* 11, 491–493.
- FAO. 1995 Sorghum and Millets in Human Nutrition. pp. 4–25. Rome. United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation ISBN 9251033811
- FAO/WHO. 1995 In Proceedings of a Workshop on Fermentation as a Household Technology to Improving Food Safety in Collaboration with the Department of Health. pp. 11–15. Pretoria.
- Food and Nutrition Board. 1989 Recommended Dietary Allowances, 10th edn. pp. 24–43. Washington, DC: National Academy Press. ISBN 039040418.
- Gimbi, D.M., Kamau, D. & Almazan, A.M. 1997 Improved corn and millet based weaning foods: formulation, viscosity and nutritional and microbial quality. *Journal of Food Processing and Preservation* 21, 507–524.
- Graham, G.G., Maclean, W.C., Morales, E., Hamaker, B.R., Kirleis, A.W., Mertz, E.T. & Axtell, J.D. 1986 Digestibility and utilization of protein and energy from nasha, a Sudanese fermented sorghum weaning food. *Journal of Nutrition* 116, 978–984.
- Grigsby, D.G. 2002 Malnutrition, eMedicine Journal 3. www.emedicine.com/ped/topic1360.
- Kandler, G. & Weiss, N. 1986 Genus Lactobacillus. In Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology, vol II, ed. Snconsumeh, P.H.A., Mair, N.S., Sharpe, M.E. & Holt, J.G. pp. 1209–1234. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins. ISBN 0683078933.
- Khetarpaul, N. & Chanhan, B.M. 1989 Effect of fermentation by cultures of yeast and lactobacilli on phytic and polyphenol content of pearl millet. *Journal of Food Science* 54, 780–781.

- Kingamkono, R., Sjögren, E., Svanberg, U. & Kaijser, B. 1994 pH and acidity in lactic-fermenting cereal gruels: effects on viability of enteropathogenic micro-organisms. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology 10, 664–669.
- Lorri, W. & Svanberg, U. 1993a Lactic-acid fermented gruels with improved in vitro protein digestibility. International Journal of Food Science and Nutrition 44, 29–36.
- Lorri, W. & Svanberg, U. 1993b Lactic-acid fermented gruels: viscosity and flour concentration. *International Journal of Food Science and Nutrition* 44, 207–213.
- Maclachlan, M. & Khuzwayo, P. 1997 Bold Choices: Making the South African Nutrition Strategy Work. Paper 128. pp. 101–114. Pretoria: Development Bank of South Africa, Information Business Unit Development.
- Mbugua, S.K. 1984 Isolation and characterization of LAB during the traditional fermentation of uji. East African Agriculture and Forestry Journal 50, 36–43.
- Mensah, P., Tomkins, A.M., Drasar, B.S. & Harison, T. 1991 Antimicrobial effect of fermented Ghanaian maize dough. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 70, 203–210.
- Mosha, A. & Svanberg, U. 1983 Preparation of weaning foods with high nutrient density using flour of germinated cereals. *Food and Nutrition Bulletin* 5, 10–14.
- Mosha, A.C. & Svanberg, U. 1990 The acceptance and intake of bulk-reduced weaning foods: the Luganga village study (UNU) Food and Nutrition Bulletin 12, 69–74.
- Olsen, A., Halm, M. & Jakobsen, M. 1995 The antimicrobial activity of lactic acid bacteria from fermented maize (kenkey) and their interactions during fermentation. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology* 79, 506-512.
- Olukoya, D.K., Ebigwei, S.I., Olasupo, N.A. & Ogunjimi, A.A. 1994 Production of DogiK: an improved Ogi (Nigerian fermented weaning food) with potentials for use in diarrhoea control. *Journal* of Tropical Medicine 40, 108–113.
- Oyewole, O.B. 1995 Lactic fermented foods in Africa and their benefits. Paper presented at the WHO/FAO, December Pretoria, South Africa.
- Pelletier, J. 1993 Severe malnutrition: a global approach. *Children in the Tropics* **208**, 1–80.
- Pipes, P.L. & Trahms, C.M. 1994 *Nutrition in Infancy*, 5th edn. pp. 281–304. St Louis: Mosby. ISBN 0801665671.
- Priest, F.G. & Campbell, I. 1996 Brewing Microbiology, 2nd edn. pp. 114–119. London: Chapman and Hall. ISBN 041259150-2.
- Rabie, C.J. & Lübben, A. 1984 The mycoflora of sorghum malt. South African Journal of Botany 3, 251–255.
- Serna-Saldivar, S.D., McDough, C.M. & Rooney L.W. 1991 The millets. In *Handbook of Cereal Science and Technology*, ed. Lorenz, K.J. & Kulp, K. pp. 270–300. New York: Marcel Dekker. ISBN 082478358-1.
- Simango, C. & Rukure, G. 1991 Survival of Campylobacter jejuni and Escherichia coli in mahewu, a fermented cereal gruel. Transactions of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene 85, 399– 400
- South African Labour and Development Research Unit (SALDRU). 1994 Project for statistics on Living Standards and development (PSPLD). South African Rich and Poor: Baseline Household Statistics. Rondebosch.
- Svanberg, U., Lorri, W. & Sandberg, A.S. 1993 Lactic fermentation of non-tannin cereals: effects on in vitro estimation of iron availability and phytate hydrolysis. Journal of Food Science 58, 408–412.
- Yusof, R.M., Morgan, J.B. & Adams, M.R. 1993 Bacteriological safety of a fermented weaning food containing L-lactate and Nisin. *Journal of Food Protection* 56, 414–417.