

EFFECTS OF SUBSTITUTION OF *ACHA* AND SOYBEAN ON ALPHA-AMYLASE ACTIVITY, SUGARS AND TOTAL FREE AMINO ACID DURING PRODUCTION OF MAIZE *MASA*

Adekunbi Adetola Malomo, Sumbo Henrietta Abiose, Hezekiah Adekanmi Adeniran

Address(es):

Department of Food Science and Technology, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile - Ife, Nigeria.

*Corresponding author: <u>adepojuadekunbi@gmail.com</u>

doi: 10.15414/jmbfs.2019/20.9.3.534-538

ARTICLE INFO	ABSTRACT
Received 16. 8. 2018 Revised 13. 5. 2019 Accepted 30. 5. 2019 Published 1. 12. 2019	Food insecurity and malnutrition are the major problems facing developing countries. The aim of this research was to determine alpha- amylase activity, total reducing sugar, individual sugar and total sugar contents of <i>masa</i> at six hour interval during fermentation. In this study, different ratios of <i>acha</i> was substituted for maize in the production of soybean fortified <i>masa</i> to reduce its sugar content and increase the amino acid content. The result showed that α -amylase activity, total reducing sugar, total sugar and total free amino acid were within the range of 4.63 - 9.30 E.U., 13.66 - 37.58 mg glucose/g., 133.25 - 391.56 mg glucose/g and 3.92 - 12.99 mg glycine/g,
	respectively. Alpha-amylase activity and total reducing sugar increased with increase in maize and were highest in <i>masa</i> produced from 100 % maize. Sugars identified during fermentation of <i>masa</i> were glucose, galactose, maltose and raffinose. Substitution of maize with <i>acha</i> and soybean reduced the sugar contents and α -amylase activity of <i>masa</i> while total free amino acid increased with increase in fortification with soybean. <i>Masa</i> produced from 60% maize, 20% <i>acha</i> and 20% soybean had the highest free amino acid and lowest sugar content.
	Keywords: Fortification g-amylase sugar free amino acid masa acha

INTRODUCTION

Masa, a fermented food in Nigeria is made from common cereal such as maize, rice and millet. It is popular in the North and South-West (Ayo et al., 2007; Igwe et al., 2013; Sanni and Adesulu, 2013). Maize (Zea mays) is an important cereal grain in the world and it has a diverse form of utilization including human food uses, animal feeds formulation and raw materials for industries (Sanni and Adesulu, 2013). Maize can be processed in so many ways depending on the desired product. It can be eaten boiled or roasted, fermented into traditional food products such as ogi, banku, kunnu and masa, processed into meal or flour and/ or used as adjunct in breweries (Oladejo and Adetunji, 2012). Acha (Digitaria exilis), an underutilized cereal of West African origin is abundant in the North-Central part of Nigeria (Philip and Itodo, 2012) and is considered to be the oldest West African cereal with cultivation dating back to 5000 BC (Haq and Ogbe, 1995; Lasekan et al., 2001). They are perhaps the world's fastest maturing cereal, producing grains six to eight weeks after they are planted (Ibrahim, 2001). Acha has the potential of providing enough food for the increasing population of poor people in West Africa and in the world at large (Kwon-Ndung and Misari, 1999; Ibrahim, 2001; Oyetayo and Agbaje, 2012). It does not contain any glutenin or gliadine proteins which are the constituents of gluten, making this cereal suitable for people with gluten intolerance (Jideani, 1999; Ayo et al., 2014).

Fermentation is one of the oldest methods of food processing. It is one of the important techniques employed to extend the shelf-life of raw food materials (Isabel et al., 2005). It is important in improving the rheological properties, acidification, taste and flavour of food (Hammes et al., 2005). Improvement in starch digestibility during fermentation can be related to enzymatic properties of fermenting microflora that brings about the breakdown of starch. This enzyme brings about cleavage of amylose and amylopectin to maltose and glucose (Mugula et al., 2003; Kohajdová and Karovičová, 2007). Fermentation of cereals by lactic acid bacteria has been reported to increase total free amino acids and their derivatives by proteolysis and/or by metabolic synthesis (Mugula et al., 2003).

Fermentation improves absorption of nutrient especially plant product by enzymatic splitting of cellulose, hemicellulose, and related polymers that are not digestible by humans into simpler sugars and sugar derivatives (**Parker, 2018**). Most of these enzymes are naturally present in cereal grains but at low levels (**Poutanen, 1997**). Starch hydrolysis by amylases, an enzyme that breaks down starch into sugar, is the basic tool for various industrial processes like preparation of glucose syrups, bread making and brewing. Increase in amylase activity has been reported to increase the level of fermentable and reducing sugars in the flour and dough, thereby promoting yeast fermentation (Goesaert *et al.*, 2006; Saranraj and Stella, 2013).

Cereal is generally deficient in tryptophan and lysine which is abundant in legume. Fortification of *masa* with locally available and cheap source of protein such as soybean will increase the amino acid balance of *masa* products. The study evaluated the effect of *acha* substitution and soybean fortification on the sugar and amino acid contents of *masa* during fermentation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Acha was obtained from Sabon Gari market, Zaria, Nigeria and identified at the herbarium of the Department of Botany, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile - Ife. Quality Protein Maize (Ile-1-OB) and soybeans (TGX 1740 2E) were obtained from Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, Ibadan, Nigeria and chemicals and reagents used were of analytical grade (BDH, England).

Preparation of masa

Masa was produced using modified method of **Owusu-Kwarteng and Akabanda (2014)**. Maize and *acha* were cleaned, weighed, washed, steeped in water for 12 h at ambient temperature $(27 \pm 2 \,^{\circ}\text{C})$, washed and drained. Soybean was cleaned and steeped in water for 2 h at room temperature $(27 \pm 2 \,^{\circ}\text{C})$, blanched for 20 min in boiling water and dehulled by hand and hull was separated from the cotyledon and drained. Maize, *acha*, and soybean seeds were mixed at ratios: 100:0:0, 0:100:0, 70:20:10, 60:30:10, 60:20:20, 50:40:10, 50:30:20, 40:40:20 and then milled. The batter obtained was divided into three portions. One third of each ground sample was mixed with equal amount of water and then pregelatinized. The pregelatinized portions were mixed with the uncooked two third portions and resulting batter from the mixtures were spontaneously fermented for 24 h at ambient temperature $(27 \pm 2 \,^{\circ}\text{C})$ and then fried in a stainless steel frying pan containing hot vegetable oil (Bleached Palm Olein) until brown crust is obtained.

Determination of α-amylase activity

Alpha-amylase activity of the fermenting masa samples were determined as described by Adeniran and Abiose (2007). Each fermenting masa sample (5 g) was weighed at 0, 12, 18 and 24 h of fermentation and homogenised in 50 ml of 0.2 M sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.0). The homogenate was transferred into conical flask and was mechanically shaken at 150 rpm for 10 min at room temperature in a Gallenkamp orbit shaker (3597 C2-2, England). The suspensions were transferred to centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 30 min in centrifuge (Bosch Model No TDL-5, Germany) and the supernatant was collected as crude enzyme for enzyme assay. The substrate for assay was 0.5 ml of 0.5 %soluble starch, buffered with 0.2 ml of 0.2 M sodium acetate (pH 5.6). Crude enzyme extract (0.3 ml) was added to the mixture, mixed and incubated at 40 °C for 30 min in Gallenkomp water bath (HH-S6, England). The reaction was terminated by the addition of 2 ml of 3, 5 Dinitrosalicyclic acid (DNSA) and boiled for 5 min in water bath. The mixture was cooled under running water and 7 ml of distilled water was added. Blank that consisted of 0.3 ml distilled water, 0.5 ml of 0.5 % soluble starch and 0.2 ml of buffer received similar treatment. The optical density of the resultant solution was read at 540 nm in UV Spectrophotometer (Spectrumlab 752S, YM1206PHB2, China). Reducing sugar in the samples was estimated from a standard curve of known concentrations of maltose (0-1000 μ g/ml). One unit of α -amylase was defined as the amount of enzyme required to produce 1 microgram of reducing sugar equivalents per minute measured as maltose from soluble starch under the experimental conditions.

1 enzyme unit (E.U.) = $1 \mu g$ of maltose produced/min

Extraction of sugar from masa samples

Dried ground sample (5 g) was weighed into 250 ml conical flask and 50 ml of 80 % ethanol v/v was added. The suspension was mixed properly and 10 ml of petroleum ether was added. The ethanol-petroleum ether suspension was stirred at room temperature for 30 min in Lab line magnetic stirrer (Lab-line, Model No 1580-1, U.S.A.). The mixture was transferred into centrifuge tubes (Bosch Model No TDL-5, Germany) and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 30 min. The petroleum ether phase was discarded and the clear ethanol phase was used as the sample extract (Omafuvbe et al., 2000).

Determination of total reducing sugar

Ethanolic extract (1 ml) was measured into each test tube; 2 ml of Dinitrosalicyclic acid reagent was added and boiled for 5 min at 100 °C in Gallenkamp water bath. After boiling, each tube was thoroughly cooled under running water and 7 ml of distilled water was added. The absorbance was read against reagent blank at 540 nm in a UV Spectrophotometer (Spectrumlab 752S, YM1206PHB2, China) and the amount of reducing sugar in the samples was extrapolated from a standard curve of known concentrations of glucose (0-1000 µg/ml) (Adepoju et al., 2016).

Identification of sugars

Thin layer chromatography was employed in identification of sugar. Sugar standard was prepared by dissolving 0.5 g of each standard sugar (maltose, glucose, fructose, galactose, xylose, sucrose, and raffinose) in 100 ml distilled water. The solvent system was prepared by mixing ethyl acetate, glacier acetic acid, ethanol and distilled water at ratio 60:15:15:10. Standard sugar solutions (10 µg) and extract (10 µg) were spotted on the plate and dried at room temperature before placing in the chromatograph tank containing the solvent system. The chromatograph plate was positioned upright in the tank and the experiment was run for 1 h. Plate was removed from the tank and allowed to dry at room temperature. Detection agent containing 0.2 ml of concentrated sulphuric acid, 20 mg of naphthol resorcinol and 10 ml of 90 % ethanol was sprayed on the

|--|

chromatograph plate, and dried in the Gallenkamp hot air oven (Model OV-440) at 100 °C for 30 min (Adepoju et al., 2016).

Determination of total sugar

Total sugar was determined using the anthrone reagent method of Morris (1948). Stock solution was prepared by dissolving 0.01 g of glucose in 100 ml of distilled water. Standard was prepared by dispensing 0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 0.9 and 1.0 ml into test tubes and made up to 1ml with distilled water. Ethanolic extract (1 ml) was added to 4 ml of anthrone reagent, heated in boiling water bath (Gallenkomp, HH-S6, England) for 10 min and rapidly cooled. Optical density (O.D) of the solutions was read at 620 nm against a reference blank in spectrophotometer (Spectrumlab 752S, YM1206PHB2, China) and the amount of sugar liberated was obtained from the standard curve based on known concentrations of glucose (10-100mg/l) (Omafuvbe et al., 2000).

Determination of total free amino acid

Samples (5 g) were weighed into 250 ml conical flask and 50 ml of 80 % ethanol v/v was added. The suspension was mixed properly and 10 ml of petroleum ether was added. The ethanol-petroleum ether suspension was stirred at room temperature for 30 min using a magnetic stirrer (Lab-line, Model No 1580-1, U.S.A). The mixture was transferred to centrifuge and centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 30 min. The petroleum ether phase was discarded and the clear ethanol phase was used as the sample extract (Omafuvbe et al., 2000). The ninhydrin method described by Rosen (1957) was used for determination of free amino acid. The ethanolic extract of the fermenting masa (3.9) samples was diluted appropriately. A 0.5 ml of cyanide acetate buffer (pH 5.4) and 0.5 ml of 3.0 % ninhydrin solution (3 g of ninhydrin in 100 ml of 2 methyl ethanol) was added to the extract (1.0 ml) in a tube. The tube was heated in a boiling water bath (Gallenkomp, HH-S6, England) for 15 min after which 10 ml of isopropyl-alcohol (Propan-2-ol) water mixture (1:1) was added rapidly and the solution was allowed to cool to room temperature (27 \pm 2 $\,$ °C). The optical density of the solutions was read at 570 nm using spectrophotometer (Spectrumlab 752S, YM1206PHB2, China). Total free amino acids in the samples were estimated from a standard curve of known concentrations of glycine (10-100µm/ml) (Omafuvbe et al., 2000).

Statistical analysis

Data obtained were subjected to Analysis of Variance using SPSS (version, SPSS, Inc., USA). Means of samples were separated using Duncan Multiple range Test (SAS Institute, 1985).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Alpha-amylase activity during fermentation of masa

Alpha-amylase activity of the fermenting masa increased during the period of fermentation as shown in Table 1. It was within the range of 4.63 and 9.30 E.U. during the period of fermentation. It was higher in masa produced from 100 %maize (6.00 - 9.30 E. U) than 100 % acha (4.63 - 6.07) throughout the period of fermentation and was also higher in masa samples fortified with 10 % soybean (5.27- 8.97 E. U) than 20 % soybean (4.97 - 7.70 E. U). It increased with increase in addition of maize and decreased with increase in soybean fortification. This may be due to low carbohydrate content of soybean as reported by Samuel et al. (2015). Alpha-amylases act by randomly hydrolysing α -1, 4glucan linkages in the starch polymers: amylose and amylopectin, and then convert all amylose to maltose while glucose, maltose and alpha-limit dextrins are released from the breakdown of amylopectin (Helland et al., 2002).

Table 1 Alpha-amyrase activity of masa during rementation					
Maga Sample			Hour of fermentation	on	
Masa Sample	0	6	12	18	24
100 % M	6.00 ^e ±0.03	6.33 ^d ±0.04	7.00°±0.05	8.40 ^b ±0.03	9.30 ^a ±0.03
100 % A	5.07°±0.01	$4.67^{d}\pm0.02$	4.63 ^d ±0.03	5.33 ^b ±0.06	$6.07^{a}\pm0.02$
70 % M: 20 % A: 10 % S	5.87 ^e ±0.04	$7.23^{d} \pm 0.03$	7.50°±0.01	7.93 ^b ±0.04	9.13 ^a ±0.04
60 % M: 30 % A: 10 % S	5.57°±0.05	6.13 ^d ±0.06	6.97°±0.05	7.27 ^b ±0.05	$8.97^{a}\pm0.05$
60 % M: 20 % A: 20 % S	5.27°±0.03	5.67 ^d ±0.03	5.77°±0.01	$6.40^{b}\pm0.01$	$7.57^{a}\pm0.03$
50 % M: 40 % A: 10 % S	5.23°±0.02	$6.00^{d} \pm 0.05$	6.67°±0.02	$6.96^{b}\pm0.05$	$8.67^{a}\pm0.06$
50 % M: 30 % A: 20 % S	5.13°±0.06	$5.86^{d}\pm0.02$	6.00°±0.06	6.83 ^b ±0.02	7.70ª±0.02
40 % M: 40 % A: 20 % S	4.97°±0.04	5.80°±0.05	5.63 ^d ±0.02	6.00 ^b ±0.03	$6.60^{a}\pm0.05$

M: Maize; A: Acha; S: Soybean. Values are means of three replicates ± standard error: Means followed by different superscript in the same row are significantly different at p < 0.05

Total reducing sugar of masa during fermentation

Total reducing sugar of fermenting masa samples is shown in Table 2. It generally increased and was higher in masa produced from 100 % maize (29.93 -36.98 mg/g of glucose) than 100 % acha (11.97 - 15.53 mg/g of glucose) throughout the period of fermentation. Addition of acha and fortification of masa with soybean decreased the total reducing sugar content. Acha is reported to relatively evoke low sugar on consumption, an advantage for diabetics (Ayo et al., 2007). Samples fortified with 10 % soybean had higher amount of total reducing sugar than samples fortified with 20 % soybean. This decrease could be due to the low carbohydrate content of soybean. Soybean is a legume crop with low carbohydrate (35 %), high protein content (40 %) and high oil (20 %) (Osho, 2003). Increase in α -amylase activity could be responsible for increase in the total reducing sugar and utilization of these sugars as carbon source by fermenting microorganisms could be responsible for the decrease. Increase in amylase activity increases the level of fermentable and reducing sugars in flour and dough, thereby promoting yeast fermentation (Goesaert et al., 2006). Adepoju et al. (2016) also reported increase in total reducing sugar in fura de nunu during storage.

Table 2 Total	reducing sugar	during ferme	ntation of <i>masa</i>

6 6 6		
	Hour of fermentation	
Masa Sample	0	6
100 % M	29.42°±0.12	31.46 ^{bc} ±0.08
100 % A	15.24 ^a ±0.03	14.72 ^b ±0.09
70 % M: 20 % A: 10 % S	30.69°±0.07	$27.47^{d}\pm0.06$
60 % M: 30 % A: 10 % S	28.68°±0.04	31.19 ^b ±0.04
60 % M: 20 % A: 20 % S	27.02 ^b ±0.10	25.66°±0.07
50 % M: 40 % A: 10 % S	29.03ª±0.05	30.51 ^a ±0.06
50 % M: 30 % A: 20 % S	26.94 ^d ±0.02	29.24 ^b ±0.04
40 % M: 40 % A: 20 % S	19.68°±0.09	27.71ª±0.05

M: Maize; A: Acha; S: Soybean. Values are means of three replicates \pm standard error: Means followed by different superscript in the same row are significantly different at p < 0.05

Total sugar of masa during fermentation

Total sugar content of fermenting *masa* samples are presented in Table 3. It ranged between 222.02 and 391.56 mg glucose/g during the fermentation period. Total sugar was generally higher in *masa* produced from 100 % maize than 100 % *acha* from 6 h to 24 h of fermentation. Total sugar content was also higher in *masa* samples fortified with 10 % soybean at the beginning of fermentation than in samples fortified with 20 % soybean. It was lowest in *masa* produced from 100 % *acha* from 6 h to 24 h. The fluctuation in total sugar may be as a result of hydrolysis of complex carbohydrate into simple sugars and utilization as carbon source by fermenting organisms may be responsible for the decrease. According to **Oyarekua and Adeyeye (2009)**, the fermenting microbes could liberate both alpha and beta amylases; because carbohydrates, starch and **soluble sugars** are the principal substrates for fermenting organisms.

Table 3 Total sugar of masa during fermentation

	Hour of fermentat	ion	
Masa Sample	0	6	12
100 % M	335.57 ^a ±0.10	242.59 ^d ±0.04	323
100 % A	342.18 ^a ±0.05	136.50°±0.05	135
70 % M: 20 % A: 10 % S	366.73 ^b ±0.06	329.98°±0.06	329
60 % M: 30 % A: 10 % S	299.42 ^b ±0.09	325.40°±0.09	258
60 % M: 20 % A: 20 % S	304.29 ^b ±0.07	298.39°±0.11	311
50 % M: 40 % A: 10 % S	318.90°±0.11	341.09 ^b ±0.05	391
50 % M: 30 % A: 20 % S	318.36 ^b ±0.05	291.71°±0.10	373
40 % M: 40 % A: 20 % S	314.57 ^b ±0.10	296.71 ^d ±0.07	301

M: Maize; A: Acha; S: Soybean. Values are means of three replicates \pm standard error: Means followed by different superscript in the same row are significantly different at p < 0.05







 ± 0.11 391.97⁴±0.11

GL GA SY FR ML RA XY 12 2.56°±0.04



D



Figure 1 Individual sugars in fermenting *masa* A: 100% Maize; B: 100% *acha*; C: 70 % Maize: 20 % *Acha*: 10% Soybean; D: 60 % Maize: 30 % *Acha*: 10 % Soybean; E: 60 % Maize: 20 % *Acha*: 20 % Soybean; F: 50 % Maize: 40 % *Acha*: 10 % Soybean; G: 50 % Maize: 30 % *Acha*: 20 % Soybean; H: 40 % Maize: 40 % *Acha*: 20 % Soybean; GL: Glucose; ML: Maltose; SU: Sucrose; GA: Galactose; XY: SOR: Sorbitol; RA: Raffinose; ME: Melibiose; Xylose; MA: Mannitol; FR: Fructose; 6: six hours; 12: twelve hours; 18: eighteen hours; 24: twenty four hours.

Table 4 Total Free Amino Acid during Fermentation of Masa (mg glycine/g)

Hour of fermentation Masa Sample 0 6 12 18 24 100 % M 10.07^a±0.02 9.81^b±0.09 8.73°±0.05 6.38^d±0.04 5.69°±0.06 4.21^d±0.05 5.67^b±0.04 6.53^a±0.12 100 % A $3.92^{e}{\pm}0.08$ $5.54^{\mathrm{c}}{\pm}0.07$ 70 % M: 20 % A: 10 % S 12.96^b±0.10 12.07^a±0.11 $8.74^{d}\pm0.08$ $10.90^{\circ}\pm0.07$ $10.89^{\circ}\pm0.11$ 10.85^b±0.09 $7.04^{d}\pm0.08$ 60 % M: 30 % A: 10 % S 11.44^a±0.09 8.08°±0.12 7.22°±0.02 60 % M: 20 % A: 20 % S 12.89ª±0.04 12.99ª±0.11 9.94°±0.08 $9.80^{d}\pm0.03$ 11.88^b±0.08 50 % M: 40 % A: 10 % S 9.37^a±0.10 9.06^b±0.12 8.69°±0.03 8.22^d±0.06 8.92^b±0.05 10.63^b±0.07 10.68^b±0.04 9.63°±0.07 8 46^d±0.09 50 % M: 30 % A: 20 % S 12.29ª±0.07 9.46^{bc}±0.02 40 % M: 40 % A: 20 % S $9.55^{b}\pm0.04$ $8.58^{d}\pm0.11$ $9.43^c\!\!\pm\!\!0.06$ 10.14^a±0.10

M: Maize; A: Acha; S: Soybean. Values are means of three replicates \pm standard error: Means followed by different superscript in the row are significantly different at p < 0.05

10 % soybean (7.22 – 8.92 mg glycine/g) at the end of fermentation period. According to **Ikujenlola (2014)**, legumes contain protein with high amino acid. Increase in total free amino acid has been attributed to hydrolysis of proteins and the activities of proteolytic enzymes during fermentation (**Sripriya** *et al.*, **1997**). Increase in soluble protein improves digestibility of food by increasing the amount of protein that could be readily absorbed in the body (Ng'ong'ola-Manani *et al.*, **2014**).

CONCLUSION

Alpha-amylase activity and total reducing sugar of the fermenting *masa* increased with increase in addition of maize and decreased with increase in soybean fortification. Fortification of *masa* with soybean reduced the sugar content and alpha-amylase activity during fermentation of *masa* but increased the level of total free amino acid content of *masa* thereby increasing the quality of protein. Hydrolysis of starch into simple sugar by the fermenting microorganisms and enzyme α -amylase are important in improving the texture and viscosity of the dough and also absorption and digestibility of food in the gastrointestinal tract. *Acha* and soybean could be incorporated into cereal based food to reduce the glycemic index, the gluten content and also reduce malnutrition. The formulation containing 60% maize, 20 % *acha* and 20% soybean had the lowest amount of sugar and highest free amino acid. *Masa* could the sugar contents and increased the free amino acid.

Acknowledgements: Quality protein maize and soybean seeds for this research were obtained from the Institute of Agricultural Research and Training, Ibadan, Nigeria.

REFERENCES

Adeniran, H. A., Abiose, S. H. 2007. Production of Bacteria Amylase on some Agricultural Residue. *Ife Journal of Technology*, 16(1), 55-63.

Adeniran H. A., Abiose, S. H. 2011. Partial Purification Characterization and Hydrolytic Activities of Amylases from *Bacillus licheniformis* and *Aspergillus niger* Cultured on Agricultural Residues. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 11(6), 1465-147. http://doi.org/10.5897/AJB10.2233.

Adepoju A. A., Abiose, S. H., Adeniran, H. A. (2016). Effect of Pasteurization and Selected Chemical Preservations on *Fura De Nunu* during Storage. *African Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 7(8), 178 – 185. http://doi.org/10.14303/ajfst.2016.102

Changes in individual sugar composition during fermentation of masa

Changes in sugar composition during fermentation of *masa* batter are shown in Figures 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d and 1e. Glucose, maltose and galactose were present in all samples from the beginning to the end of fermentation. At 6 h, glucose, galactose, sucrose and maltose were present in all samples while raffinose was only present in *masa* samples fortified with soybean. The presence of raffinose could be as a result of fortification of *masa* with soybean. **Kumar et al. (2010)** also reported the presence of raffinose in soybean. **Adeniran and Abiose (2011)** reported that glucose and maltose were the prominent sugars in starch hydrolysates.

Total free amino acid of *masa* during fermentation

Total free amino acid of *masa* samples (Table 4) ranged between 3.92 and 12.87 mg glycine/g during the period of fermentation. It was higher in *masa* produced from 100 % maize than 100 % *acha* from 0 to 18 h but was higher in 100 % *acha* at the end of fermentation. Total free amino acid increased with increase in soybean fortification. It was higher in samples fortified with 20 % soybean (10.14 – 11.88 mg glycine/g) than

Ayo, J. A, Ayo, V. A., Nkama, I., Adewori, R. 2007. Physiochemical In-Vitro Digestibility and Organoleptic Evaluation of "*Acha*" Wheat Biscuit Supplemented with Soybean Flour. *Nigerian Food Journal*, 25(1), 77-89.

Ary, J. A., Ayo, V. A., Popoola, C., Omosebi, M., Joseph, L. 2014. Production and Evaluation of Malted Soybean-Acha Composite Flour Bread and Biscuit. *African Journal of Food Science and Technology*, 5(1), 21-28. http://doi.org/10.14303/ajfst.2014.010

Goesaert, H., Gebruers, K., Courtin, C. M., Brijs, K., Delcour, J. A. 2006. Enzymes in Breadmaking In: Hui Y. H. (Ed) Bakery Products: Science and Technology. Ames Iowa: Blackwell.

Hammes, W. P., Brandt, M. J., Francis, K. L., Rosenheim, M., Seitter, F. H., Vogelmann, S. 2005. Microbial Ecology of Cereal Fermentations. *Trends in Food Science and Technology*, 16, 4-11.

Haq, N., Ogbe, F. D. 1995. *Fonio (Digitaria exilis* and *D iburua)* In: Williams JT. (Ed) Cereals and Pseudocereals Chapman and Hall London.

Helland, M. H., Wicklund, T., Narvhus, J. A. 2002. Effect of Germination Time on Alpha-Amylase Production and Viscosity of Maize Porridge. *Food Research International*, 35(2), 315–321.

Ibrahim, A. (2001). Hungry rice (*Acha*): A neglected cereal crop NAQAS Newsletter. *A quarterly newsletter*, 1, 4-5. <u>http://doi.org/10.1016/S0963-9969(01)00202-2</u>

Igwe, E. C., Oyebode, Y. B., Dandago, M. A. 2013. Effect of Fermentation Time and Leavening Agent on the Quality of Laboratory Produced and Market Samples of *Masa* (A Local Cereal Based Puff Batter). *African Journal of Food Agriculture, Nutrition and development*, 13(5), 8415-8427.

Ikujenlola, A. V. 2014. Chemical and Functional Properties of Complementary Food Blends from Malted and Unmalted Acha (Digitaria exilis) Soybean (Glycine max) and Deffated Sesame (Sesame indicus L) Flours. African Journal of Food Science, 8(7), 361 – 367. http://doi.org/10.5897/AJMR12.1362

Isabel, C. A., Alexandra, N., Lola, F. D., Antonio, B., Ivonne, D. 2005. Sorghum Fermentation Followed By Spectroscopic Techniques. *Food Chemistry*, 90, 853-859.

<u>Jideani</u>, I. A. 1999. Traditional and Possible Technological Uses of *Digitaria* exilis (Acha) and Digitaria iburua (Iburu): A review. Plant Foods for Human Nutrition, 54(4), 363 – 374. <u>http://doi.org/10.1023/A:1008193503688</u>

Kohajdová, Z., Karovičová, J. 2007. Fermentation of Cereals for Specific Purpose. Journal of Food Nutrition Research, 46(2), 51-57.

Kumar, V., Rani, A., Goyal, L., Dexit, A. K., Manjaya, J. G., Dev, J. Swarmy, M. 2010. *Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry*, 58(8), 5081 – 5085. http://doi.org/10.1021//f903141s.

Kwon-Ndung, E. H., Misari, S. M. 1999. Overview of Research and Development of *Acha (Digitaris exilis* Kippis Stapf) and Prospects for Genetic

Improvement in Nigeria in: Genetics and Food Security in Nigeria GSN Publication Nigeria.

Lasekan, O. O., Teixeira, F. J. P., Salvab, T. J. G. 2001. Volatile Flavour Compounds of Cooked Acha (Digitaria exilis Stapf). Food Chemistry, 75, 333–337.

Morris, D. L. 1948. Quantitative Determination of Carbohydrate with Dreywoods Anthrone. *Reagent Science*, 107, 254-255.

http://doi.org/10.1126/science.107.2775.254

Mugula, J. K., Narvhus, J. A., Sorhaug, N. T. 2003. Use of Starter Cultures of Lactic Acid Bacteria and Yeasts in the Preparation of *Togwa* a Tanzanian Fermented Food. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 83, 307-318. http://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605(02)00386-0

Ng'ong'ola-Manani, T. A., Østlie, H. M., Mwangwela, A. G., Wicklund, T. 2014. Metabolite Changes during Natural and Lactic Acid Bacteria Fermentations in Pastes of Soybeans and Soybean–Maize Blends. *Food Science and Nutrition*, 2(6), 768–785. <u>http://doi.org/10.1002/fsn3.171</u>

Oladejo, J. A., Adetunji, M. O. 2012. Economic Analysis of Maize (*Zea mays*) Production in Oyo State of Nigeria. *Agricultural Science Research Journal*, 2(2), 77-83.

Omafuvbe, B. O., Shonukan, O. O., Abiose S. H. 2000. Microbiological and Biochemical Changes in the Traditional Fermentation of Soybean for Soy-Daddawa – Nigerian Food Condiment. *Food Microbiology*, 17: 469 – 474. http://doi.org/10.1006/fmic.1999.0332

Owusu-Kwarteng, J., Akabanda, F. 2014. Soybean Fortification of *Maasa*: A Ghanaian Fermented Millet-Based Cake. *Canadian Journal of Pure Applied Science*, 8(1), 2733-2738.

Oyarekua, M. A., Adeyeye, E. I. 2009. Comparative Evaluation of the Nutritional Quality Functional Properties and Amino Acid Profile of Co-Fermented Maize/Cowpea and Sorghum/Cowpea *Ogi* as Infant Complementary Food. *Asian Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 1, 31-39. http://doi.org/10.3923/ajcn.2009.31.39

Oyetayo, V. O., Agbaje, R. B. 2012. Effect of Different Processing Methods on the Micronutrient and Amino Acid Composition of *Digitaria exilis* (Kippist) Stapf, *Journal of Life Sciences*, 6, 363-367.

Parker, R., Pace, M., Kenny, K. 2018. Introduction to Food System Science. National Agriculture Institute Inc. 70 p. ISBN978-1-312-45875-8

Philip, T. K., Itodo, I. N. 2012. Demographic Characteristics Agricultural and Technological Profile of *Acha* Farmers in Nigeria. *Agricultural Engineering International: CIGR Journal*, 14(1), 1-7.

Poutanen, K. 1997. A Review: Enzymes: An Important Tool in the Improvement of the Quality of Cereal Foods. *Trends in Food Science Technology*, 8, 300-306. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0924-2244(97)01063-7

Rosen, H. 1957. A Modified Ninhydrin Colorimetric Analysis for Amino Acids. Achieve of Biochemistry and Biophysics, 67, 10 – 15. http://doi.org/10.1016/0003-9861(57)90241-2

Sanni A. I., Adesulu, A. T. 2013. Microbiological and Physico-Chemical Changes during Fermentation of Maize for *Masa* Production. *African Journal of Microbiology Research*, 7(34), 4355-4362. http://doi.org/10.5897/AJMR12.1362. Saranraj P., Stella, D. 2013. Fungal Amylase - A Review *International Journal of Microbiology Research*, 4(2), 203 – 211.

http://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.ijmr.2013.4.

Samuel, F. O., Ishola, O. R., Otegbayo, B. O. 2015. Nutritional and Sensory Evaluation of Rice-Based *Masa* Enriched with Soybean and Crayfish. *Food and Nutrition Sciences*, 6, 234-241.

SAS Institute, 1985. User's Guide: Statistics Version 5 ed. SAS Institute Inc Cary NC, USA 956.

Sripriya, G., Antony, U., Chandra, T. S. 1997. Changes in Carbohydrate, Free Amino Acids, Organic Acids, Phytate and HCl Extractability of Minerals during Germination and Fermentation of Finger Millet (*Eleusine coracana*). *Food Chemistry*, 58(4), 345–350. http://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-8146(96)00206-3