In vitro digestibility and amino acid composition of pearl millet (Pennisetum typhoides) and other cereals

(pepsin digestibility/protein fractionation/protein quality)

G. EJETA*, M. M. HASSEN, AND E. T. MERTZ

Department of Agronomy, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN 47907

Contributed by E. T. Mertz, June 1, 1987

ABSTRACT The purpose of this study was to compare in vitro digestibility, protein distribution patterns, and amino acid composition of pearl millet with other major cereals, Digestibility values for the pearl millet varieties were higher than that of sorghum and comparable to that of maize. In contrast to sorghum, digestibility of pearl millet and maize did not decrease significantly upon cooking. Protein distribution patterns of uncooked pearl millet and shifts in the different fractions as a result of cooking also resembled that of maize and not sorghum. The amino acid profile of pearl millet is more favorable than that of normal sorghum and normal maize and is comparable to the small grains, wheat, barley, and rice. On the basis of these findings, it appears that pearl millet is a nutritious and well-digested source of calories and proteins for humans.

Pearl millet (Pennisetum typhoides) (Burm.) is one of the major cereal crops of the semiarid regions of Africa and Asia and, because of its drought tolerance and hardiness, it is certainly the mainstay for millions of people in the Sahel. Unlike maize [(Zea mays (L.)] and sorghum [Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench], the other important coarse grains of the tropics, very little millet is grown in the developed world. As a result, agricultural research on pearl millet lags behind maize, sorghum, and other food grains. Similar to maize and sorghum, pearl millet is often identified with the poorest of the poor in Africa, where it comprises a significant percentage of the daily food intake prepared in the form of a cooked gruel.

Nutritional studies on sorghum both in vivo (1) and in vitro (2) have shown that sorghum gruels have a significantly lower protein digestibility compared with rice, wheat, and maize gruels. Nwasike et al. (3) and Okoh et al. (4) separated whole-grain samples of pearl millet varieties into five fractions by the Landry-Moureaux (5) method and showed that the distribution of proteins in the five fractions was similar to that in maize and not to that in sorghum. Because maize meal when cooked as a porridge has a digestibility that is much higher than that found with sorghum [73% for maize and 47% for sorghum in children as shown by Graham et al. (6) and 80% for maize and 60% for sorghum as shown by Hamaker et al. (7) using a pepsin method], it was of interest to determine the digestibility of pearl millets.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The whole-grain samples used were two sorghum varieties, P-721N (normal) and P-721Q (high-lysine opaque), from the 1985 crop at Purdue University Agronomy Farm. The millet samples were Kordofani, a widely cultivated Sudanese variety with a bold yellow grain, grown at Purdue Agronomy

Farm in 1985, and a popular food grain variety from the 1985 Niger crop called Zongokolo. Maize samples were not included for the fractionation and in vitro pepsin digestion tests inasmuch as adequate data on this cereal were available from previous studies in this laboratory (7, 8). However, for the total amino acid profile assays, several cereals including maize (Zea mays), barley (Hordeum vulgare), wheat (Triticum aestivum), and rice (Oryzae sativa) were compared with the same pearl millet and sorghum varieties listed above.

Whole-grain proteins were sequentially extracted into five fractions following the Landry-Moureaux method as described in detail by Misra et al. (9). Samples (1 g) of finely ground, defatted, cooked and uncooked flour were suspended in ¹⁰ ml of ^a 0.5 M NaCl solution and stirred for ⁶⁰ min at 4°C. The mixture was then centrifuged and the extract saved. The residue was treated again with the same amount of saline and stirred for another 30 min. The extraction was repeated for the third time for 30 min. Finally, the residue was extracted with the same volume of water for another 15 min, and this process was repeated once again for 15 min. The five extracts were then combined to give fraction I. The residue was then treated with 10 volumes of 70% isopropyl alcohol at 20° C for three 30-min periods as outlined by Misra *et al.* (9) to give fraction II. The residue was then reserved for isolation of fraction III, etc. Fraction ^I contains the albumins and globulins, free amino acids and small peptide fragments, and any other saline-soluble compounds. Fraction II contains the prolamins, and fraction III contains prolamin-like proteins that are soluble in alcohol after the disulfide bonds of the protein have been reduced with 2-mercaptoethanol. Fraction IV, which contains proteins soluble in an alkali borate buffer containing 2-mercaptoethanol, has some of the characteristics of glutelin and may be classified as glutelin-like. Fraction V contains the true glutelin, which is ^a complex, high molecular weight mixture of proteins that can be solubilized only by treatment with a reducing agent and a detergent, NaDodSO4, at alkaline pH. Nitrogen was determined by the micro-Kjeldahl method using the Technicon analyzer.

Both uncooked flour and cooked (1:10 ratio of flour to water in a boiling water bath for 20 min) pearl millet and sorghum samples were digested with pepsin by the method developed by Axtell et al. (2) and modified by Mertz et al. (10). Thirty-five milliliters of enzyme (pepsin, Sigma P-7000; activity, 120 units/mg of protein) solution (1.5 g of enzyme per liter of 0.1 M KH₂PO₄ buffer, pH 2.0) was added to a 200mg flour sample, and the resultant mixture was incubated for 2 hr at 37° C in a shaking water bath. The digest was filtered through no. ³ Whatman paper. The residue was resuspended in buffer, centrifuged, dried at 80'C, digested, and colorimetrically assayed for nitrogen content (Technicon Analyzer, AACC 1983). Digestibility was calculated by subtracting residue nitrogen from total nitrogen, dividing by total nitrogen, and multiplying by 100. The pepsin-indigestible residues

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

^{*}To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

Table 1. Nitrogen distribution in whole seed of pearl millet, sorghum, and maize

Cereal	Variety	% protein in seed	Fraction, % of total protein					
				н	Ш	IV		Recovery, %
Millet	52731*	14	22	41		9	21	100
Millet	Kordofani	12	27	40			11	88
Millet	Zongokolo	12	29	38	0	9	16	92
Sorghum	$Redlan^{\dagger}$	13	10	16	31	4	29	90
Sorghum	P721-N	11	17	15	21		31	91
Sorghum	P721-Q	12	24	6	11		45	93
Maize	Yellow dent [‡]		20	34	10	10	16	90
Maize	$SX52\$	11	17	39	10	10	20	96
Maize	Opaque- 2^{\S}	10	39	12	6	12	32	101

*Ref. 3.

tRef. 12.

‡Ref. 7; % protein not reported.

 $$Ref. 8.$

were then subjected to the Landry-Moureaux procedure described above.

Amino acid determinations of the various cereals were made after acid hydrolysis (6 M HCl at 110° C for 24 hr) of individual samples on an automated analyzer (Beckman) as described by Spackman et al. (11).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The protein distribution patterns in whole kernels of pearl millet, sorghum, and maize varieties are shown in Table 1. The data confirm the finding of Nwasike et al. (3) that pearl millet resembles maize in its distribution of proteins, especially with regard to fractions II and III. Fraction II contains the true prolamins, which are soluble in alcohol, and fraction

Table 2. Effect of cooking on pepsin digestibility of millet, maize, and sorghum

		Protein digestibility,* %			
Cereal	Variety	Uncooked	Cooked		
Millet	Kordofani	91 ± 1.8	87 ± 2.3		
Millet	Zongokolo	89 ± 3.9	85 ± 2.5		
M aize [†]	Yellow dent	82	82		
Sorghum	P721-N	82 ± 0.2	56 ± 0.2		
Sorghum	P721-O	88 ± 0.9	73 ± 0.9		

*Mean of four determinations. tRef. 7.

nitrogen than in sorghum and is comparable to that of maize. The average level of fraction III proteins in normal sorghum (Table 1) is 2-5 times that in normal maize and 6 times that in pearl millet. Similar to both normal maize and normal sorghum, the total alcohol-soluble proteins (fractions II and III combined) in millet account for 38-48% of the total proteins. High-lysine sorghum and maize have lower levels of these two fractions, both of which are low in lysine. Okoh et al. (4) also reported a similar large percentage of prolamins in seven early- and late-maturing pearl millet varieties. Fraction IV protein levels are low and similar in all the

III contains prolamins that are soluble in alcohol only after addition of a reducing agent. The true prolamin fraction (fraction II) in millet accounts for a larger portion of the

three cereals. Millets resemble maize in having about twothirds of the level of fraction V found in sorghum. The albumin-globulin (fraction I) concentration in pearl millet is higher than in both normal sorghum and normal maize and is comparable to that in high-lysine sorghum.

The ratio of fraction II to fraction III in sorghum is the inverse of that in maize and pearl millet. Hamaker et al. (13) suggest that the disulfide cross-linking (primarily in fraction III) may be related to the decrease in digestibility of sorghum on cooking in water. They found that reducing agents added prior to cooking prevent most of the decrease in digestibility. In this process (i.e., chemical reduction), fraction III proteins are converted to polypeptides with the same electrophoresis characteristics as chemically reduced fraction II proteins

*ME, 2-mercaptoethanol.

Table 4. Percent total nitrogen in Landry-Moureaux fractions of pepsin-indigestible residue

		% total nitrogen					
			Millet	Sorghum			
Fraction		Kordofani	Zongokolo	P-721N	P-721Q		
	Raw						
	Cooked						
Н	Raw						
	Cooked						
Ш	Raw						
	Cooked	8		8			
IV	Raw						
	Cooked						
v	Raw				9		
	Cooked	13		30	28		

(14). We hypothesized that if higher levels of fraction III proteins are responsible for reduced digestibility after cooking, then pearl millet should resemble corn and be less affected than sorghum by the cooking procedure. Table 2 shows that this hypothesis is correct. The trend in in vitro protein digestibility in millet resembles that of corn rather than sorghum in that pepsin digestibility values on individual millet samples decreased upon cooking only slightly if at all. Digestibility values for the two pearl millet varieties studied (Kordofani and Zongokolo) were >25% higher than for normal sorghum. High-lysine sorghum (P-721 opaque) was significantly superior in in vitro pepsin digestibility compared with normal sorghum when cooked. Though not previously reported, the higher protein digestibility of cooked highlysine P-721 opaque sorghum gruel over normal sorghums presented in Table 2 has been consistently observed in this laboratory. MacLean et al. (1) also have shown better nitrogen absorption and retention of P-721 opaque in nitrogen-balance studies on preschool children fed with P-721 opaque high-lysine and normal sorghum varieties.

Table 3 shows the effect of cooking on solubility of the proteins in pearl millet, normal sorghum, and high-lysine sorghum lines. Upon cooking, the proportions of fractions ^I and II were drastically reduced in both millets and sorghum. Whereas fraction III was also decreased by about 50% in normal sorghum, there actually was an increase of fraction III in millets and high-lysine sorghum. Changes in fraction IV were small in both sorghums and millets. Cooking also resulted in ^a large increase in fraction V of pearl millet $($ >50%), and normal sorghum (19%) but only 5% in P-721 opaque, high-lysine sorghum. Nonextractable proteins (fraction VI) increased by ≈ 4 -fold in millets as well as sorghum. The pronounced shifts in fraction II and fraction V of pearl millet varieties as a result of cooking resemble those of maize reported by Hamaker et al. (7). The protein profiles of the pepsin-indigestible residues of the uncooked and cooked millet and sorghum are shown in Table 4. The overall profiles are similar except in fraction V, where the level of protein in millets is only half that of both normal and high-lysine sorghums.

Table 5 shows the amino acid compositions of whole-grain samples of two varieties of pearl millets, normal sorghum, high-lysine sorghum, normal maize, opaque-2 maize, barley, wheat, and rice. These major cereal foods of the world and their mutant types have basically similar amino acid profiles except for lysine, tyrosine, leucine, isoleucine, and tryptophan. The level of lysine, an essential amino acid, in pearl millet is higher than that in normal sorghum and normal maize and is comparable to that in high-lysine sorghum and opaque-2 maize. The level of tryptophan in pearl millet is probably close to that in high-lysine sorghum based on a calculated value from its fractions. The tyrosine level in pearl millet is lower than that in sorghum, maize, and rice but is comparable to that in barley and wheat. The isoleucine/leucine ratio in pearl millet is lower than that in sorghum and maize and compares favorably to the ratio in small grains (wheat, barley, and rice). This favorable amino acid balance with a high level of essential amino acids, coupled with the superior

*Ref. 14.

tRef. 15

 $*$ Ref. 16.

Applied Biology: Ejeta et al.

in vitro pepsin digestibility values, suggests that pearl millet is a nutritious and well-digested source of calories and protein for humans.

This work was supported by the U.S. Agency for International Development, International Sorghum and Millet Collaborative Sorghum Research Program Project Grant AID/DSAN/XII-G-0149. This is journal paper no. 11,165 of the Purdue Agricultural Experiment Station.

- 1. MacLean, W. C., Lopez de Romana, G., Placko, R. P. & Graham, G. G. (1981) J. Nutr. 111, 1928-1936.
- 2. Axtell, J. D., Kirleis, A. W., Hassen, M. M., D'Croz-Mason, N., Mertz, E. T. & Munck, L. (1981) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78, 1333-1335.
- 3. Nwasike, C. C., Mertz, E. T., Pickett, R. C., Glover, D. V., Chibber, B. A. K. & VanScoyoc, S. W. (1979) J. Agric. Food Chem. 27, 1329-1331.
- 4. Okoh, P. N., Nwasike, C. C. & Ikediobi, C. 0. (1985) J. Agric. Food Chem. 33, 55-57.
- 5. Landry, J. & Moureaux, J. (1970) Bull. Soc. Chem. Biol. 52, 1021-1036.
- 6. Graham, G. G., MacLean, W. C., Morales, E., Hamaker,

B. R., Kirleis, A. W., Mertz, E. T. & Axtell, J. D. (1986) J. Nutr. 116, 978-984.

- 7. Hamaker, B. R., Kirleis, A. W., Mertz, E. T. & Axtell, J. D. (1986) J. Agric. Food Chem. 34, 647-649.
- 8. Misra, P. S., Barba-Ho, R., Mertz, E. T. & Glover, D. V. (1973) Cereal Chem. 50, 184-190.
- 9. Misra, P. S., Mertz, E. T. & Glover, D. V. (1975) Cereal Chem. 52, 161-166.
- 10. Mertz, E. T., Hassen, M. M., Cairns-Whittern, C., Kirleis, A. W., Tu, L. & Axtell, J. D. (1984) Proc. Nati. Acad. Sci. USA 81, 1-2.
- 11. Spackman, D. H., Stein, W. H. & Moore, S. (1958) Anal. Chem. 30, 1190-1206.
- 12. Jambunathan, R., Mertz, E. T. & Axtell, J. D. (1975) Cereal Chem. 52, 119-121.
- 13. Hamaker, B., Kirleis, A. W., Butler, L. G., Axtell, J. D. & Mertz, E. T. (1987) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84, 626-628.
- 14. Guiragossian, V., Chibber, B. A. K., VanScoyoc, S. W., Jambunathan, R., Mertz, E. T. & Axtell, J. D. (1978) J. Agric. Food Chem. 26, 219-223.
- 15. Mertz, E. T., Bates, L. S. & Nelson, 0. E. (1964) Science 145, 279-280.
- 16. Hassen, M. M., Mertz, E. T., Kirleis, A. W., Ejeta, G., Axtell, J. D. & Villegas, E. (1986) Cereal Chem. 63, 175-176.