Physicochemical characteristics of starch from Indonesian Numbu and Genjah sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L. Moench)

Azis Boing Sitanggang, Slamet Budijanto and Marisa

*Cogent Food & Agriculture* (2018), 4: 1429093
Physicochemical characteristics of starch from Indonesian Numbu and Genjah sorghum (Sorghum bicolor L. Moench)

Azis Boing Sitanggang1,2*, Slamet Budijanto1,2 and Marisa1

Abstract: Within this study, several physicochemical properties of starch from Indonesian Numbu and Genjah sorghum (Sorghum bicolor L. Moench) were investigated. This characterization is of importance to find the prospective applications of those starches. Based on the analyses of pasting, and gelatinization properties, starch from Numbu was suitable as an ingredient for dairy products, mayonnaise and salad dressings, while Genjah could be properly used as ingredient for noodles, soup and sauces. For both types of sorghum, the starch gelatinization temperatures were 75.97 and 77.30°C, respectively for Numbu and Genjah variety. It was higher compared to corn starch (i.e. 62–72°C). Herein, these starches conclusively require a longer cooking time and a larger thermal energy whenever used as ingredients for producing food products.

Subjects: Food Additives & Ingredients; Food Chemistry; Food Engineering

Keywords: sorghum; starch; gelatinization; pasting properties; amylose; amylopectin

1. Introduction

Sorghum is cultivated extensively in Asia and Africa since it is used in a wide range of applications—energy (bioethanol production), feeds and foods (processed and semi-processed foods) (Ali & Hasnain, 2014). Sorghum is usually resistant to drought, pests and diseases, owing a high production yield (can be up to 6 t/ha) with relatively inexpensive production costs (Indahsari & Wibowo, 2013;
Suryaningsih, 2014; Tsuchihashi & Goto, 2004). In Indonesia, it is normally cultivated as monoculture or intercropping systems, distributed in the areas of Java, Sumatera, Nusa tenggara barat (NTB) and Nusa tenggara timur (NTT) (Suryaningsih, 2014).

In terms of processed foods, sorghum is normally used as an ingredient for bakery products and as functional ingredients (Awika & Rooney, 2004; Hugo, Rooney, & Taylor, 2003; Kulamarva, Sosle, & Raghavan, 2009; Serrem, de Kock, & Taylor, 2011). Processing sorghum as semi-processed foods, in forms of starch and flour is mostly done to improve the utilizations of sorghum, extend shelf life, ease or simplify the mixing, fortification and cooking process (Kulamarva et al., 2009; Youssef et al., 1990; Zhu, 2014). Considering Indonesia is having a large annual consumption of carbohydrate, which is imposed mainly on the rice production; sorghum can be used as the alternative (Tsuchihashi & Goto, 2008). On the other case, to fulfill the need of starch in industrial process, sorghum can be used as a complementary source/food ingredient as it has a high starch content, of 70% (Zhan et al., 2003).

In general, starch derived from different sources (grains, tubers, etc.) has different granule structures, sizes, molecular weight distributions, and ratios of amylose to amylopectin (Oladunmoye, Aworh, Mazija-Dixon, Erukainure, & Elemo, 2014). This consequently will influence the thermophysical, pasting and other physical characteristics (Castro, Dumas, Chiou, Fitzgerald, & Gilbert, 2006; Kulamarva et al., 2009). The properties of starch substantially determine the proper utilizations of starch, either for food, feed, or textile industries (Shewayrga, Sopade, Jordan, & Godwin, 2012; Zhou, Shi, Meng, & Liu, 2013). Hence, this research was aimed to characterize the starch extracted from Indonesia sorghum varieties. The characterizations were highlighted on the amylose and amylopectin contents, thermophysical and pasting properties.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials
Sorghum variety of Numbuh and Genjah were obtained from Mt. Kidul, Yogyakarta, southern area of central Java, Indonesia. Other chemicals for the starch extraction and analysis purposes were analytical grade and purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Germany).

2.2. Starch isolation
A method described by Pérez Sira and Lares Arnaiz (2004) to isolate starch at laboratory scale was adopted with minor modifications. The polished sorghum grains (ca. 1 kg) were soaked in 0.25% (wt) NaOH for overnight. The grains were washed with water to neutralize the pH. The wetted grains were crushed for 2 min. The homogenate was screened through an 80 Mesh sieve for four times and followed by a single screening using 100 and 200 Mesh sieve. The filtrate was rested overnight. The resulted starch was washed with distilled water and eventually was dried overnight in a drying oven at 45°C.

2.3. Starch characterizations

2.3.1. Proximate and starch content analysis
Proximate analyses were carried out based on the official methods of analysis of AOAC International (AOAC, 2006) Starch content was determined using Luff Schoorl method (Drogba Alexis & Gnopo Jean, 2012; Sahoré, Nemlin, & Kamenan, 2007).

2.3.2. Amylose content
The stock solution was made by putting 4.0 g amylose standard into 100 mL volumetric flask, added with 1.0 mL ethanol 95% v/v and 9.0 mL 1 N NaOH. This solution was heated at 95°C for 10 min. After heating, such amount of distilled water was added into the flask to reach 100 mL of solution. A standard curve was made by taking as much as 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, and 5.0 mL of stock solution and added with (respectively) 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, and 1.0 mL 1 N C₂H₄O₂. As much as 2 mL iod solution
(containing 0.2 g I₂ and 2 g KI in 100 mL distilled water) was eventually added to the prepared standards. The standards were then rested for 20 min and measured using spectrophotometer at 625 nm. The amylose content of the isolated starch was prepared and measured with the same procedure sample as above with the sample weight of 100 mg.

2.3.3. Bulk density and whiteness measurement
Bulk density was determined using a method developed by Okezie and Bello (Okezie & Bello, 1988). A 10 mL graduated cylinder, previously tared, was gently filled with sample. The bottom of the cylinder was gently tapped on a laboratory bench several times until there was no further diminution of the sample level after filling to the 10 mL mark. Bulk density was calculated as weight of sample per unit volume of sample (g/mL). Starch’s whiteness was determined using KETT Digital Whiteness Meter Model C-100, PT. Damarus, Indonesia.

2.3.4. Pasting, morphological and thermophysical properties
Rapid Visco Analyzer (RVA) (TechMaster2, Perten Instruments, USA) was employed to measure the pasting properties of starch according to Singh, Kaur, Sandhu, Kaur, and Nishinari (2006). A temperature-time cycle (heating rate) was conducted as following: sample was heated at 30°C for 1 min, followed by heating to reach 95°C (~7.5 min) and this value was kept for 5 min. After that, sample was cooled down to 50°C within 7.5 min and kept for 2 min. Parameters, such as pasting temperature, peak viscosity, minimum viscosity, final viscosity, breakdown, and setback were recorded (Sang, Bean, Seib, Pedersen, & Shi, 2008).

Morphological properties were determined according to the method reported by Colussi et al. (2014). A scanning electron microscope (SEM) (Model JSM - 5310 LV, Deben, UK) was employed to view the morphologies of the samples. Starch was attached onto double-sided adhesive tape and coated with gold-palladium prior to analysis. There were ten samples analyzed for each sorghum flour.

For thermal properties measurement, starch (1.5 mg) was put on the aluminum pan, sealed hermetically and analyzed using differential scanning calorimeter (DSC) Model 60, Shimadzu Scientific Instruments (Singh, Inouchi, & Nishinari, 2006; Singh, Sodhi, & Singh, 2010).

2.4. Statistical analysis
Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) 16.0 for Windows was used to analysis the data. Characteristics of Numbu and Genjah varieties were analyzed using independent sample t-test with the level of significance of 95%.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Physicochemical characteristics of sorghum starch (Sorghum bicolor L. Moench) of Numbu and Genjah variety
In Table 1, the independent sample t-test of proximate analysis, starch content, amylose and amylepectin content, bulk density and whiteness between Numbu and Genja variety were tabulated. The moisture, protein, and fat contents of Numbu and Genjah were significantly different at 95% confidence level whereas the ash content of Numbu and Genjah were not. The ash contents measured in this study were lower than those from white and red sorghum starch reported by Olayinka, Olu-Owolabi, and Adebowale (2011). Protein contents of both varieties were quite high (3–4% db) with Numbu protein content was superior. Protein plays an important role in the swelling ability of starch granules. Proteins normally situated in the outer areas of starch granules and thus limit the swelling ability when the gelatinization process taking place (Charles et al., 2007). Moreover, the influence of macromolecule, such as fat will be on the amylograph profile of the starch. Higher content of fat that bonded with starch granules will result in a higher gelatinization peak temperature, which is believed to be an indicator of crystallite quality (Sang et al., 2008). Fat content of Numbu was higher compared to Genjah. Nevertheless, this value was still considered low (0.3–0.5% db).
Starch content of Numbu and Genjah were significantly different, of approximately 80 and 85% db, respectively. Herein, the purity of isolated starch was considerably low. The plausible explanation can be due to higher protein contents of those varieties (3–4% db). The amylose content of Numbu (22.48%) was higher than Genjah (18.62%). Generally, amylose content varies and dependent on the sources of starch, climate and soil conditions during cultivation (Singh et al., 2006; Zhu, 2014). Cited as an example, the amylose content of white and red sorghum starch were 27.1 and 24.80%, respectively, and these values are higher compared to those in this study (Boudries et al., 2009). These types of sorghum (e.g. white and red) were cultivated in Sahara, Algeria with annual temperature ranging from 8 to 45°C, whereas for Numbu and Genjah were cultivated in Mt. Kidul, Yogyakarta which having temperature between 22 and 28°C.

The result of bulk density analysis can also be seen in Table 1. Independent sample t-test showed that the bulk density of Numbu and Genjah were significantly different. Ganorkar and Kulkarni (Ganorkar & Kulkarni, 2013) reported a smaller bulk density of sorghum starch with variety CSH 9, which was approximately 0.58 g/mL. For the whiteness property, variety of Numbu (83.41%) had higher whiteness as compared to Genjah (66.10%). Starch from variety of Genjah had pinkish color. During the isolation, there was not any attempt to whiten the isolated Genjah starch. Compared to the whiteness of white and red sorghum starch which were 81.39 and 77.17%, respectively (calculated according to Stensby whiteness from L, a and b Hunter Color Coordinates), the whiteness of starch variety of Numbu was still higher (Boudries et al., 2009). There are several possibilities to increase the whiteness of sorghum starch during the isolation, such as soaking either with a mixture of 5.25% NaOCl solution and 10.70% KOH or in a mixture of SO2 and 0.5% lactic acid (Pérez Sira & Lares Amaiz, 2004; Wang, Chung, Seib, & Kim, 2000).

3.2. Pasting properties
RVA-viscograms of Numbu and Genjah starch were recorded, where for each variety was analyzed thrice (3 lines were overlayed within one figure). The information from these viscograms was tabulated in Table 2. The higher fat and amylose content of Numbu led to a lower peak viscosity (see also Tables 1 and 2). Amylose can hamper the swelling of starch granules by forming a complex with fat, resulting in a lower peak viscosity at higher pasting temperature (Sang et al., 2008). Genjah variety is a pigmented sorghum grain, where it normally has a higher peak viscosity (Boudries et al., 2009). The results corresponded to this literature where Genjah variety had higher peak viscosity (4959 cP) than Numbu (3927.67 cP). Other factor that could be contributive for a higher peak viscosity is the amylopectin content. According to Ratnayake, Hoover, and Warkentin (2002), amylopectin is a

### Table 1. Physicochemical properties of sorghum starch (Sorghum bicolor L. Moench) of Numbu and Genjah variety

| Physicochemical properties                      | Variety          |
|------------------------------------------------|------------------|
|                                               | Numbu            | Genjah          |
| 1. Proximate analysis                          |                  |                  |
| Water content (% db)                           | 7.44 ± 0.15<sup>a</sup> | 6.78 ± 0.06<sup>b</sup> |
| Ash content (% db)                             | 0.28 ± 0.00<sup>a</sup> | 0.43 ± 0.00<sup>b</sup> |
| Protein content (% db)                         | 4.21 ± 0.13<sup>a</sup> | 3.06 ± 0.06<sup>b</sup> |
| Fat content (% db)                             | 0.47 ± 0.01<sup>a</sup> | 0.32 ± 0.01<sup>b</sup> |
| Carbohydrate content (% db)                    | 87.60            | 89.41            |
| 2. Starch content (%)                          |                  |                  |
|                                               | 79.49 ± 0.37<sup>a</sup> | 85.01 ± 0.62<sup>b</sup> |
| 3. Amylose and amylopectin content             | Amylose (%)      | Amylopectin (%)  |
|                                               | 22.48<sup>a</sup> | 18.62<sup>b</sup> |
|                                               | 77.52            | 81.38            |
| 4. Bulk density (g/mL)                         | 0.76 ± 0.00<sup>a</sup> | 0.79 ± 0.00<sup>b</sup> |
| 5. Whiteness (%)                               | 83.41 ± 0.55<sup>a</sup> | 66.10 ± 0.60<sup>b</sup> |

Notes: Numbers followed by different letters as superscripts in similar row are significantly different with level of significance of 95% (n = 3).
component that is responsible for granules swelling. Hence, the starch with higher amylopectin content will consequently have a higher peak viscosity. Protein content also plays an important role in influencing the ability of starch granule to swell. Protein that surrounds starch granules tends to restrict granules to swell and thus, lowering the peak viscosity (Charles et al., 2007). Additionally, according to Beta and Corke, the peak viscosity and its corresponding time of sorghum starch are remarkably influenced by genotype and environmental conditions (Beta & Corke, 2001). Corresponding to peak viscosity, Genjah starch had a shorter peak time which means a shorter cooking time of starch paste. This starch characteristic is suitable for a fill-viscosity aid in soups and sauces. Fill-viscosity aid generally provides sufficient viscosity at the beginning of cooking process. From Table 2, breakdown viscosity of Genjah was higher compared to Numbu. An increase in breakdown viscosity values showed that the starch was less resistant to heating and stirring (Lee, Baek, Cha, Park, & Lim, 2002). Herein, Numbu variety was conclusively more stable to both cooking and stirring. Taking this characteristic into account, starch from Numbu variety can be used as ingredient in dairy products since the processes for dairy products manufacturing often involve high temperatures and intensive stirring operations. Moreover, it (e.g. starch from Numbu) might be also used as a thickener and stabilizer in mayonnaise and salad dressing preparations (Ali & Hasnain, 2014; Ratnayake et al., 2002; Zhu, 2014).

According to Goodfellow and Wilson (Goodfellow & Wilson, 1990), the proportion of amylose and amylopectin structure has an important role in the speed and degree of retrogradation. Other important parameters affecting retrogradation has been reviewed elsewhere (Zavareze & Dias, 2011). From setback viscosity, the information that could be evaluated is the tendency of retrogradation. Therefore, having a higher setback viscosity (see Table 2), starch of Genjah was likely having higher tendency to undergo retrogradation. This gives a suitability of Genjah starch’s application in noodles since typical starch yields in a higher cohesiveness, hardness, lower stickiness and cooking loss. Genjah variety also had a higher peak viscosity. It is, therefore, contributive for a higher elongation property in noodles as well. Genjah starch tends to experience retrogradation because it had higher setback viscosity. This higher setback viscosity contributes to the higher cohesiveness and hardness of the paste after cooling (Crosbie, 1991). Hereby, Genjah starch is possible to be used as ingredient for making noodles. By having higher cohesiveness and hardness, the noodles will have a lower cooking loss during the production. In addition to this, a higher peak viscosity for Genjah starch will also contribute to the higher percentage of elongation which is needed for noodle production (Beta & Corke, 2001). The same results have been reported elsewhere (Sandhu, Kaur, & Mukesh, 2010), where potato starch noodles were superior to rice starch noodles as they exhibited a higher peak viscosity and setback viscosity, thus, contributing positively to firmness, gel hardness, and chewiness.

### 3.3. Starch granules: Shape and size

The granule shapes of Numbu and Genjah are depicted in Figure 1. Sorghum starch granules from two varieties tend to be rounded and polygonal with some granules had rough surfaces. The size of Numbu starch granule varied from 3.8 to 38.7 μm, whereas for Genjah was ranging from 4.3 to
Sitanggang et al., Cogent Food & Agriculture (2018), 4: 1429093
https://doi.org/10.1080/23311932.2018.1429093

25.0 μm. Compared to the previous study, the sizes of sorghum starch granules have been reported in a range of 5 to 25 μm (Sang et al., 2008).

3.4. Gelatinization characteristics

The gelatinization transition temperature (TO (onset), TP (peak) and TC (conclusion)) and the enthalpy ΔH of Numbu and Genjah starch are presented in Table 3. The peak temperature (TP) of Genjah (77.30°C) was higher than Numbu. Herein, Genjah starch had a higher proportion of long chains in amylopectin, thus, required higher temperature to dissociate the granules (Karim et al., 2007). Moreover, it indicates the stability of starch crystals which consequently related to its applications (Moorthy, 2002). Gelatinization temperatures of sorghum grown in South Africa were in a range of 67 to 73°C, whereas in India between 71 and 81°C (Taylor, Schober, & Bean, 2006). Compared to corn starch, sorghum starch gelatinization temperature is higher, thus, requires a longer cooking time and a larger thermal energy.

4. Conclusions

Genjah variety had a larger swelling capability than Numbu considering its peak viscosity. Evaluation on breakdown viscosity, Numbu was conclusively more stable to heating and stirring process. From the overall analysis of pasting properties, starch from Numbu was suitable as an ingredient for dairy products, mayonnaise and salad dressings, while Genjah can be properly used for noodles, soup, and sauces. Further applications of these two types of sorghum flour should be studied in the future. The shapes of starch granules for both varieties were rounded and polygonal. The granule size of Numbu varied from 3.8 to 38.7 μm whereas for Genjah was in a range of 4.3 to 25.0 μm. Based on the DSC analysis, Genjah starch had a higher proportion of long chains in amylopectin, thus, required higher temperature to dissociate the granules. Such further study is needed to see other physical properties of these starches as well as their functional properties.
Funding
The authors received no direct funding for this research.

Competing interest
The authors declare no competing interest.

Author details
Azis Boing Sitanggang1,2
E-mail: boing.lipan@apps.ipb.ac.id
ORCID ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1378-5367
Slamet Budijanto1,2
E-mail: slamet.budijanto@gmail.com
Marisa1
E-mail: boing.lipan@gmail.com
1 Department of Food Science and Technology, Bogor Agricultural University, Kampus IPB Darmaga, Bogor 16680, West Java, Indonesia.
2 Southeast Asian Food and Agricultural Science and Technology (SEAFAST) Center, Bogor Agricultural University, Kampus IPB Darmaga, Bogor 16680, West Java, Indonesia.

Citation information
Cite this article as: Physicochemical characteristics of starch from Indonesian Numbu and Genjah sorghum (Sorghum bicolor L. Moench), Azis Boing Sitanggang, Slamet Budijanto & Marisa, Cogent Food & Agriculture (2018), 4: 1429093.

References
Ali, T. M., & Hasnain, A. (2014). Morphological, physicochemical, and pasting properties of modified white sorghum (Sorghum bicolor) starch. International Journal of Food Properties, 17(3), 523–535. doi:10.1080/10942912.2012.654558
AOAC. (2006). Official methods of analysis of AOAC international (19th ed.). Gaithersburg, MD: Author.
Awika, J. M., & Rooney, L. W. (2004). Sorghum phytochemicals and their potential impact on human health. Phytochemistry, 65(9), 1199–1221. doi:10.1016/j.phytochem.2004.04.001
Beta, T., & Corke, H. (2001). Starch properties as affected by sorghum grain chemistry. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture, 81, 245–251. Retrieved September, 2000, from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/1097-0010(20010115)81:2<245::AID-JSFA805>3.0.CO;2-F/abstract
Boudries, N., Belhanache, N., Nadjemi, B., Deroanne, C., Mathlouthi, M., Roger, B., & Sindic, M. (2009). Physicochemical and functional properties of starches from sorghum cultivated in the Sahara of Algeria. Carbohydrate Polymers, 78(3), 475–480. doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2009.05.010
Castro, J. V., Dumas, C., Chiuo, H., Fitzgerald, M. A., & Gilbert, R. G. (2006). Mechanistic information from analysis of molecular weight distributions of starch. Biomacromolecules, 6(4), 2248–2259. doi:10.1021/bm0500401
Charles, A. L., Huang, T. C., Lai, P. Y., Chen, C. C., Lee, P. P., & Chang, Y. H. (2007). Study of wheat flour–cassava starch composite mix and the function of cassava mucilage in Chinese noodles. Food Hydrocolloids, 21(3), 368–378. doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2006.04.008
Colussi, R., Pinto, V. Z., El Halal, S. L. M., Vanier, N. L., Villanova, F. A., Marques e Silva, R., ... Dias, A. R. G. (2014). Structural, morphological, and physicochemical properties of acetylated high-, medium-, and low-amylose rice starches. Carbohydrate Polymers, 103(1), 405–413. doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2013.12.070
Crosbie, G. B. (1991). The relationship between starch swelling properties, paste viscosity and boiled noodle quality in wheat flours. Journal of Cereal Science, 13(2), 145–150. doi:10.1016/0733-5210(91)80031-3
Ganorkar, P., & Kulkarni, A. (2011). Studies on preparation and functional properties of carboxymethyl starch from sorghum. International Food Research Journal, 20(5), 2205–2210. Retrieved from http://www.ifrj.upm.edu.my/2010/2012/11/1858
Drogbo Alexis, S., & Gnoppe Jean, N. (2013). Changes in biochemical properties of fresh attiéke during its storage. Food and Public Health, 2(4), 99–103. doi:10.5923.j.fph.20120204.03
Goodfellow, B. J., & Wilson, R. H. (1990). A fourier transform IR study of the gelation of amylopectin and amylosepectin. Biopolymers, 30(13–14), 1183–1189. doi:10.1002/1521-379X(199006)30:13<1183::AID-BIOPH3430305495>3.0.CO;2-N
Indahsari, G., & Wibowo, R. (2013). Toward Indonesia’s agroindustries competitiveness: The case of bioethanol development from sugarcane based industries. European Scientific Journal, 24–26. Retrieved from http://www.eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/view/1485
Karim, A. A., Toon, L. C., Lee, V. P. L., Ong, W. Y., Fazilah, A., & Noda, T. (2007). Effects of phosphorous contents on the gelatinization and retrogradation of potato starch. Journal of Food Science, 72(2), C132–C138. doi:10.1111/j.1750-3841.2006.00251.x
Kulamarva, A. G., Sasie, V. R., & Raghavan, G. S. V. (2009). Nutritional and rheological properties of sorghum. International Journal of Food Properties, 12(1), 55–69. doi:10.1080/10942910802252148
Lee, M. H., Baek, M. H., Cho, D. S., Park, H. J., & Lim, S. T. (2002). Freeze-thaw stabilization of sweet potato starch gel by polysaccharide gums. Food Hydrocolloids, 16(4), 345–352. doi:10.1016/S0268-005X(01)00107-2
Moorthy, S. (2002). Physicochemical and functional properties of tropical tuber starches: a review. Starch-Stärke, 54, 559–592. Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/1521-379X(200212)54:12<559::AID-STAR2222559%3E3.0.CO;2-F/abstract
Okezie, B., & Bello, A. (1989). Physicochemical and functional properties of winged bean flour and isolate compared with soy isolate. Journal of Food Science, 53(2). Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1988.tb07726.x/abstract
Oladunmoye, O. O., Awoto, O. C., Mozzy-Dixon, B., Erukaline, O. L., & Elemen, G. N. (2013). Chemical and functional properties of cassava starch, durum wheat semolina flour, and their blends. Food Science & Nutrition, 2(2), 132–138. doi:10.1002/fsn3.83
Olayinka, O. O., Olu-Owolabi, B. I., & Adebowale, K. O. (2011). Effect of succinylation on the physicochemical, rheological, thermal and retrogradation properties of red and white sorghum starches. Food Hydrocolloids, 25(3), 515–520. doi:10.1016/j.foodhydrocol.2010.08.002
Pérez Sira, E. E., & Lores Amaiz, M. (2004). A laboratory scale method for isolation of starch from pigmented sorghum. Journal of Food Engineering, 64(4), 515–519. doi:10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2003.11.019
Ratnoyake, W. S., Hoover, R., & Workeint, T. (2002). Pea starch: Composition, structure and properties – a review. Starch – Stärke, 54(6), 217–234. doi:10.1002/1521-379X(200206)54:6<217::AID-STAR217>3.0.CO;2-R
Sahore, D., Nemlin, G., & Kamenan, A. (2007). Changes in nutritional properties of yam (Dioscorea spp.), plantain (Musa spp.) and cassava (Manihot esculenta) during storage. Tropical Science, 47(2), 81–88. Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/ts.200/abstract doi:10.1002/1521-379X(200212)54:12<559::AID-STAR2222559%3E3.0.CO;2-F/abstract
Sandhu, K. S., Kaur, M., & Mukesh. (2010). Studies on noodle quality of potato and rice starches and their blends in relation to their physicochemical, pasting and gel textural properties. LWT - Food Science and Technology, 43(8), 1289–1293. doi:10.1016/j.lwt.2010.03.003

Sang, Y., Bean, S., Seib, P. A., Pedersen, J., & Shi, Y.-C. (2008). Structure and functional properties of sorghum starches differing in amylose content. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 56(15), 6680–6685. doi:10.1021/jf080577x

Serrem, C. A., de Kock, H. L., & Taylor, J. R. N. (2011). Nutritional quality, sensory quality and consumer acceptability of sorghum and bread wheat biscuits fortified with defatted soy flour. International Journal of Food Science & Technology, 46(1), 74–83. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2621.2010.02451.x

Shewayrga, H., Sopade, P. A., Jordan, D. R., & Godwin, I. D. (2012). Relationship between physicochemical, morphological, and viscoelastic characteristics of starches separated from normal, sugary and waxy maize. Food Hydrocolloids, 26(6), 923–935. doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2010.09.009

Singh, N., Kaur, L., Sandhu, K. S., Kaur, J., & Nishinari, K. (2006). Structural, thermal and viscoelastic characteristics of starches separated from normal, sugary and waxy maize. Food Hydrocolloids, 20(6), 912–920. doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2005.09.009

Singh, N., Inouchi, N., & Nishinari, K. (2006). Relationships between physicochemical, morphological, thermal, rheological properties of rice starches. Food Hydrocolloids, 20(4), 532–542. doi:10.1016/j.foodhyd.2005.05.003

Singh, H., Sodhi, N. S., & Singh, N. (2010). Characterisation of starches separated from sorghum cultivars grown in India. Food Chemistry, 119(1), 95–100. doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.05.086

Suryaningsih, R. (2014). Bioenergy plants in Indonesia: Sorghum for producing bioethanol as an alternative energy substitute of fossil fuels. Energy Procedia, 47, 211–216. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2014.01.216

Taylor, J. R. N., Schober, T. J., & Bean, S. R. (2006). Novel food and non-food uses for sorghum and millets. Journal of Cereal Science, 44(3), 252–271. doi:10.1016/j.jcs.2006.06.009

Tsuchihashi, N., & Goto, Y. (2004). Cultivation of sweet sorghum (Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench) and determination of its harvest time to make use as the raw material for fermentation, practiced during rainy season in dry land of Indonesia. Plant Production Science, 7(4), 442–448. doi:10.1626/pps.7.442

Tsuchihashi, N., & Goto, Y. (2008). Year-round cultivation of sweet sorghum (Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench) through a combination of seed and ratoon cropping in Indonesian savanna. Plant Production Science, 11(3), 377–384. doi:10.1626/pps.11.377

Wang, F., Chung, D., Seib, P., & Kim, Y. (2000). Optimum steeping process for wet milling of sorghum. Cereal Chemistry. Retrieved from http://cerealchemistry.aaccnet.org/doi/abs/10.1094/CCHEM.2000.77.4.78

Youssef, A., Moharram, Y., Moustaffa, E., Bolling, H., Elbaya, A., & Harmuth, A. (1990). New extruded products from sorghum. Food Chemistry, 37(3), 189–199. doi:10.1016/0308-8146(90)90137-S

Zavareze, E. D. R., & Dias, A. R. G. (2011). Impact of heat-moisture treatment and annealing in starches: A review. Carbohydrate Polymers, 83(2), 317–328. doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2010.08.064

Zhan, X., Wang, D., Tuinstra, M., Bean, S., Seib, P., & Sun, X. (2003). Ethanol and lactic acid production as affected by sorghum genotype and location. Industrial Crops and Products, 18(5), 245–255. doi:10.1016/S0926-6690(03)00075-X

Zhou, Q., Shi, W., Meng, X., & Liu, Y. (2013). Studies on the morphology, crystalline, thermal properties of an under utilized starch from yam Dioscorea zingiberensis CH Wright. Starch-Stärke, 65(4), 442–448. doi:10.1002/star.201200058

Zhu, F. (2014). Structure, physicochemical properties, modifications, and uses of sorghum starch. Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety, 13(4), 597–610. doi:10.1111/1541-4337.12070