



HCM 232

**MENU DEVELOPMENT AND
PLANNING**

Course Code	HCM232
Course Title	Menu Development and Planning
Course Developer/Writer	Mrs. Jumoke Omozuwa Kwara State Polytechnic Ilorin
Programme Leader	Dr. O. J. Onwe National Open University of Nigeria Lagos
Course Co-ordinator	Abdullahi S. Araga National Open University of Nigeria Lagos



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

National Open University of Nigeria
Headquarters
14/16 Ahmadu Bello Way
Victoria Island
Lagos

Abuja Office:
NOUN Building
No. 5, Dar es Sallam Street
Off Aminu Kano Crescent
Wuse II
Abuja, Lagos

e-mail: centralinfo@nou.edu.ng
URL: www.nou.edu.ng

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MODULE 1

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Unit 2	Kitchen and Personal Hygiene
Unit 3	Kitchen Equipment and Tools
Unit 4	Basic Principles of Cookery

UNIT 1 FOOD AND NUTRITION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the major characteristics of living things - plants and animals (including man) - is their struggle for existence. Right from the days of the early man, the search for food has been one of man's major pre-occupations. This only shows that, food is very important in the day-to-day life of man. *The Chamber Dictionary* defines food as "a substance, that a living thing feeds on; a substance; which, when digested, nourishes. The body; anything that nourishes or promotes growth or activity". Food also regulates all the body systems.

Food items are able to perform these functions because of the chemical substances they contain. The chemical substances are called nutrients. For any material to be called food, therefore, it must contain at least one nutrient. The study of the various nutrients in relation to their effect upon the human body is called nutrition. Nutrition can simply be seen as the science of food and its relation to human health.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of food and nutrition;
- Describe the classes of food nutrients;
- Describe the functions, sources and deficiency effects of each of the food nutrients;
- Describe the foods that make up each of the food groups; and
- Classify any given variety of foods into the food groups.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Food and Nutrition

3.1.1 Foods

The human body maintenance and regular repair to work effectively. These needs are met by the food we eat. It is therefore, important that you know the different types of food nutrients, their functions and sources so that you can combine them well to have a balanced diet.

Food is any liquid or solid material, which when eaten and digested, can provide the body with nourishment. The body requires it for efficient functioning. Food performs one or more of the following functions:

1. It provides the body with heat and energy;
2. It helps in the growth and repair of body tissue;
3. It protects the body from disease;
4. It aids bowel movement and prevents constipation; and
5. It is necessary for good health and vitality

3.1.2 Nutrition

Nutrition is the sum of the processes by which our body takes in food nutrients for nourishment. As a discipline, nutrition deals with the food we eat and how it nourishes our body. Some food items provide more energy and nourishment for the body than others. So every time you choose to eat a kind of food, you are really deciding whether you will have good nutrition or poor nutrition. Good nutrition means eating food substances that help keep the body healthy, while poor nutrition means eating too much or too little or eating too much of the food that leads to poor health. Through good nutrition you can look your best, feel your best, act your best, and sound your best.

Most people eat whatever they want. But remember eating what you want may not mean eating what is best for healthy living. Food items that give good nutrition are delicious and can be easy to prepare as meals or snacks. Good nutrition it can improve the quality of your life by helping you to look well, feel well and act well. For the body to obtain the maximum benefits from food, it is essential that the people concerned with the buying, storage, cooking, and serving of food and those compiling the menus have a good knowledge of nutrition.

3.2 Food Nutrients

The food substances we eat contain various nourishing elements called nutrients. Each nutrient makes a special contribution to health. As mentioned earlier nutrients are the chemical substances that promote growth, supply energy and regulate all the body processes. The nutrients are classified into six major groups:

1. Carbohydrates
2. Protein
3. Fats and oil
4. Vitamins
5. Minerals
6. Water

3.2.1 Carbohydrate and Protein

Carbohydrate is one of the macronutrients required by the body. It is made up of three main elements. These are: (1) Carbon (2) Hydrogen and (3) Oxygen. Carbohydrate is produced by plants through the process known as photosynthesis. Animals, including man, obtain carbohydrates by consuming those produced by and stored in the plants. These are also classified into three:

1. Monosaccharide e.g. glucose or grain sugar, fructose or fruit sugar and galatose;
2. Disaccharides referred to as double sugar e.g. sugar and beet sugar, lactose which is milk sugar, and maltose; and
3. Polysaccharides. A polysaccharide is made up of many monosaccharides which are chemically joined together e.g. An example is starch.

Functions of Carbohydrates

- 1 The primary function of carbohydrates is to provide the body with heat and energy.
2. It also spares protein

3. It assists in completing oxidation of fats and oil in the body
4. It adds bulk to faeces
5. Lactose, for instance, favours the growth of certain intestinal bacteria that synthesise some of the vitamin B – complex in the large intestine.
6. Starches and sugars give flavour and variety to the diet.

Food Sources of Carbohydrate

1. Sugar is obtained from all types of sugar - syrup, fruit, honey, milk, vegetables such as carrots, sweets, etc.
2. Starch is obtained from cassava, yam, potatoes, rice, maize, millet, wheat, bread, etc.
3. Cellulose is obtained from husks of cereals, fruits and vegetables.

Deficiency and Effects

Deficiency means a state in which there is a lack of or inadequate supply of something. The lack of inadequate supply of carbohydrate in an animal normally causes the body of the affected animal to use the body protein in the muscles. This in turn leads to muscle waste and incomplete metabolism of fats and oils. Excessive consumption also causes dental problems and obesity.

Protein

Protein is an important component of both plant and animal cells. Plants can manufacture their own protein, but man and other animals must obtain their own protein indirectly by feeding on plants and/or other animals. All proteins are composed of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen. Many proteins also contain sulphur and phosphorus in small amount.

Protein can be classified into two groups:

1. First class protein (protein of high biological value) obtained from such food item as egg, fish, meat, milk and cheese.
2. Second class protein or vegetable protein is obtained from legumes such as aborted types of beans e.g. soya, broad, runner beans, groundnuts, Banana nut, peas, and whole cereals.

Functions of Protein

1. It is the only nutrient that promotes growth and repair of worn out tissue.

2. It serves as a source of energy in the absence of carbohydrate and fats.
3. It is responsible for the transmission of hereditary characteristics from parents to offspring.
4. It is the major component of enzymes. It is therefore a responsible catalysis in the body.
5. The hormones and antibodies are proteins in nature and have they assist in the regulation of the body processes and fighting against diseases and infections.

Food Sources of Protein

The major food sources of proteins are beef, poultry, eggs, milk, fish and legumes.

Over-ingestion

Deficiency and its effects on the body: A person deficient in protein will experience poor growth and development, a condition known as kwashiorkor.

3.2.2 Fats and Oils, and Vitamin

Fats or lipids are the most concentrated form of energy. They are available in two forms;

1. Oil, which is liquid at room temperature and
2. Fats, which are solid at room temperature.
Fats are made up of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. These elements, however, occur in proportions different from those in carbohydrate.

Fats can be broadly classified into two as:

1. Animal fats, which are stored in parts of the body of most animals, including man.
2. Vegetable fats which are stored in the seeds and fruits of plants.

Food Sources of Fats

Animal fat can be obtained from meat, oily fish, milk, butter, and egg yolk. Vegetable fat can be obtained from groundnuts, palm oil, margarine, olive oil, Soya bean oil, bread fruit oil, etc.

Functions of Fats

1. They can supply the body with a large amount of heat and energy.
2. Fats can be easily stored as fuel reserve in the adipose tissues under the skin. They are poor conductors of heat. Thus, they help to insulate the body and keep it warm.
3. The fat stored around some delicate tissues such as the kidneys helps to protect them.
4. The essential fatty acids are necessary for a healthy skin and hair
5. Fats act as carriers of Vitamin. A, D, and K to the tissues.
6. They contribute to flavour and palatability of food.

Food Sources of Fats and Oils

Food sources are lard, butter, margarine, fatty-fish, nuts and vegetable oils.

Vitamins

Vitamins, unlike protein, carbohydrate and fats are not required in large quantity by the body. When they are lacking in the body, various deficiency diseases occur. Vitamins are classified as fat soluble, e.g. vitamins A, D, E and K and water soluble vitamins e.g. vitamin B complex.

General Function of Vitamins

Vitamins assist in the regulation of the body's processes. For instance:

1. It promotes the growth of children
2. It also protects man against diseases

Fat Soluble Vitamins

1. Vitamin A functions in the following way:

- a. It assists in children's growth;
- b. It helps the body to resist infection;
- c. It enables people to see better in the dark; and
- d. It is necessary for a health, skin, healthy bones and teeth.

Sources of Vitamin A: Sources of vitamin A include codliver oil, liver, butter margarine, cheese, eggs, herrings, and milk. Carotene is a secondary source of vitamin A.

Deficiency and its Effects

- a. Growth in children is retarded;
- b. Inability to see in dim light;
- c. Dryness of the skin and lining membranes; and
- d. Reduction in resistance to infection.

2. Vitamin D (Cholecalciferol)

Vitamin D functions in the following ways:

- a. It works with calcium and phosphorus in the formation of healthy bones and teeth.
- b. It helps the absorption and distribution of calcium in the body

Sources

Vitamin D can be obtained by the body in two ways:

- a. Directly from food items such as egg yolk, palm oil, fish liver, cod liver oil, margarine and butter.
- b. By the action of sunlight on the skin.

Deficiency and its Effects

- a. Lack of vitamin D in children results in rickets. Rickets causes malformation of bones in children.
- b. Lack of vitamin D in adults results in osteomalacia which is the adult counterpart of rickets.

3. Vitamin K

Vitamin K is important in the formation of prothrombin, which is a protein essential for the normal clotting of blood.

Sources

- a. Dietary sources include liver, green vegetables, eggs and milk
- b. It is also manufactured by the bacteria present in the intestine

Deficiency and its Effects

Vitamin K deficiency results in the inability of the blood to clot. This is called haemophilia or hemophilia (a disease in which a person's blood does not clot properly). Those suffering from hemophilia would bleed for a very long time when they are injured.

B. Water Soluble Vitamin

1. Vitamins B complex

The whole B complex plays a part in the release and utilisation of energy in the body. The B complex includes vitamin B (thiamine); B₂ (riboflavin), nicotinic acid (niacin), B₆ (pyridoxine), folic acid and B₁₂ (cyanocobalamin). These vitamins are unstable. They are therefore, easily destroyed. They are soluble in water and are affected by heat.

Table 1.1 Sources of Vitamin B

Thiamin (B1)	Riboflavin (B2)	Nicotinic Acid
Yeast	Yeast	Meat extract
Bacon	Liver	Brewers' yeast
Oatmeal	Meat extract	Liver
Peas	Cheese	Kidney
Whole meal bread	Egg	Beef

Functions of Vitamin B

Vitamin B, which may be lost during cooking, is required to:

- keep the nervous system alert
- enable the body to obtain energy from the carbohydrates
- encourage the growth of the body

Deficiency and its Effects

Lack of vitamin B results in the following:

- Loss of appetite and tiredness
- Retarded growth in children
- Extreme cases of beri-beri
- Inflammation and soreness of the mouth, tongue and eyes
- Skin disorders; and
- Serious cases of pellagra.

Folic Acid

Folic acid is essential for the function of red blood cells. It also helps to prevent nutritional anaemia.

Sources of Folic Acid

Folic acid is got from beef, cereals, egg, and green vegetables.

Folic Acid Deficiency and its Effects

Lack of or inadequate supply of folic acid results in anemia. This is commonly seen in pregnant women, hence, pregnant women are often required to increase their absorption of iron.

2. Vitamin C. (Ascorbic Acid)

Vitamin C is often called the anti-scurvy vitamin. its functions, includes the following:

- a. It helps in the development and maintenance of healthy tissue;
- b. It is required for the formation of collagen and the healing of wounds;
- c. It prevents infection;
- d. It prevents scurvy;
- e. It aids effective absorption of iron by the body; and
- f. It helps in the release of energy in the body and effective functioning of the adrenal glands

Sources

Source of vitamin C include: fruits such as oranges, black currants, papaw, guava and green leafy vegetables, cabbage and carrots.

Vitamin C is the most unstable of the vitamins. It is easily lost in cooking; therefore, the rules that apply to the cooking of food items that contain vitamin B complex also apply to the cooking of those vegetables containing vitamin C.

Deficiency and its Effects

Lack of or inadequate supply vitamin C can cause any of the following:

- a. Diseases of the skin, gum, and teeth;
- b. Scurvy in severe case;
- c. Retarded growth in children;
- d. Susceptibility/vulnerability to infections and poor healing process; and
- e. Tiredness and irritability.

3.2.3 Minerals and Water

Minerals are inorganic elements, which are necessary for the formation of body structures and maintenance of good health.

The most important minerals are iron, calcium, phosphorous, potassium, sulphur, sodium, chlorine, and magnesium. Those that are required in minute amounts are referred to as “trace elements”. These include iodine, copper, zinc, cobalt, fluorine and manganese.

1. Iron

Most of the iron utilised by the body is needed by the bone marrow to make hemoglobin for new red blood corpuscles. The remaining iron is stored in the liver, spleen, and bone marrow. In the lungs the oxygen becomes attached to the iron and is then carried in the blood to each cell in the body.

Deficiency and its Effects

Lack of or inadequate supply of iron leads to:

- a. Tireless and loss of appetite; and
- b. Unserious cases anemia.

During the reproductive period of a woman’s life, the loss of iron is inevitable. It happens during:

- a. the monthly menstrual period;
- b. the transfer of iron to the infant, when in the uterus;
- c. At the child-birth;

Thus women of productive age, and adolescents, heed to make up for the iron loss.

Sources

Iron can be obtained from meat, green vegetables, liver, kidney, cereals, egg yolk and pulse vegetable.

2. Calcium

Calcium is required in the body for:

- a. Building bones and teeth;
- b. Effecting blood clotting; and
3. The working of the muscles.

Notice that the body’s utilization of calcium depends on the presence of vitamin D.

Sources

Calcium can be found in:

- a. Milk and milk products;
- b. Bones of finned oily fish;
- c. Whole meal bread and white bread;
- d. Vegetables (greens); and
- e. Drinking water.

Although calcium is present in certain food items (e.g. spinach and cereals) the body is unable to make use of it as it is not in soluble form and cannot be absorbed. Because of the need for an effective growth of bones and teeth, infants, adolescents, expectant and nursing mothers have a greater demand for calcium.

Deficiency and its Effects

Calcium is requisite in the growth of the bones and teeth. Infants, adolescents, expect and nursing mothers need it in high doses. Its deficiency therefore results in:

- a. Weakness of bones and teeth;
- b. Irritability and tuescular spasm
- c. Abnormal clotting of the blood
- d. (Rickets in children and osteomalacia in adults (in extreme cases)).

3. Phosphorus

Phosphorus is required in the body for many reasons among which are:

- a. Building the bones and teeth (in conjunction with calcium and vitamin D);
- b. Controlling of the structure of the of brain cells; and
- c. Helping in the release of energy from food.

Sources

Phosphorus is present in most of the dishes we prepare and eat, e.g. liver, cheese, kidney, bread, eggs and fish.

4. Sodium

Sodium is required in all body fluid, and is found in salt (sodium chloride). Excess salt is continually lost from the body in urine. The

kidney controls this loss. We also inevitably lose sodium through sweating.

Functions

- a. It is necessary for maintaining the correct water balance and acid alkali balance in the blood.
- b. It is also essential for all body fluids.

Sources

It is present in most of the dishes we prepare and eat. Excess sodium can cause hypertension (high blood pressure) in middle age.

Sodium Deficiency and its Effects

Deficiency of sodium causes muscular cramps, headaches, tiredness and nausea.

5. Water

Water is not only an important food nutrient, it is also essential to life. It accounts for approximately two thirds of body weight.

Functions

Water is required in the body for:

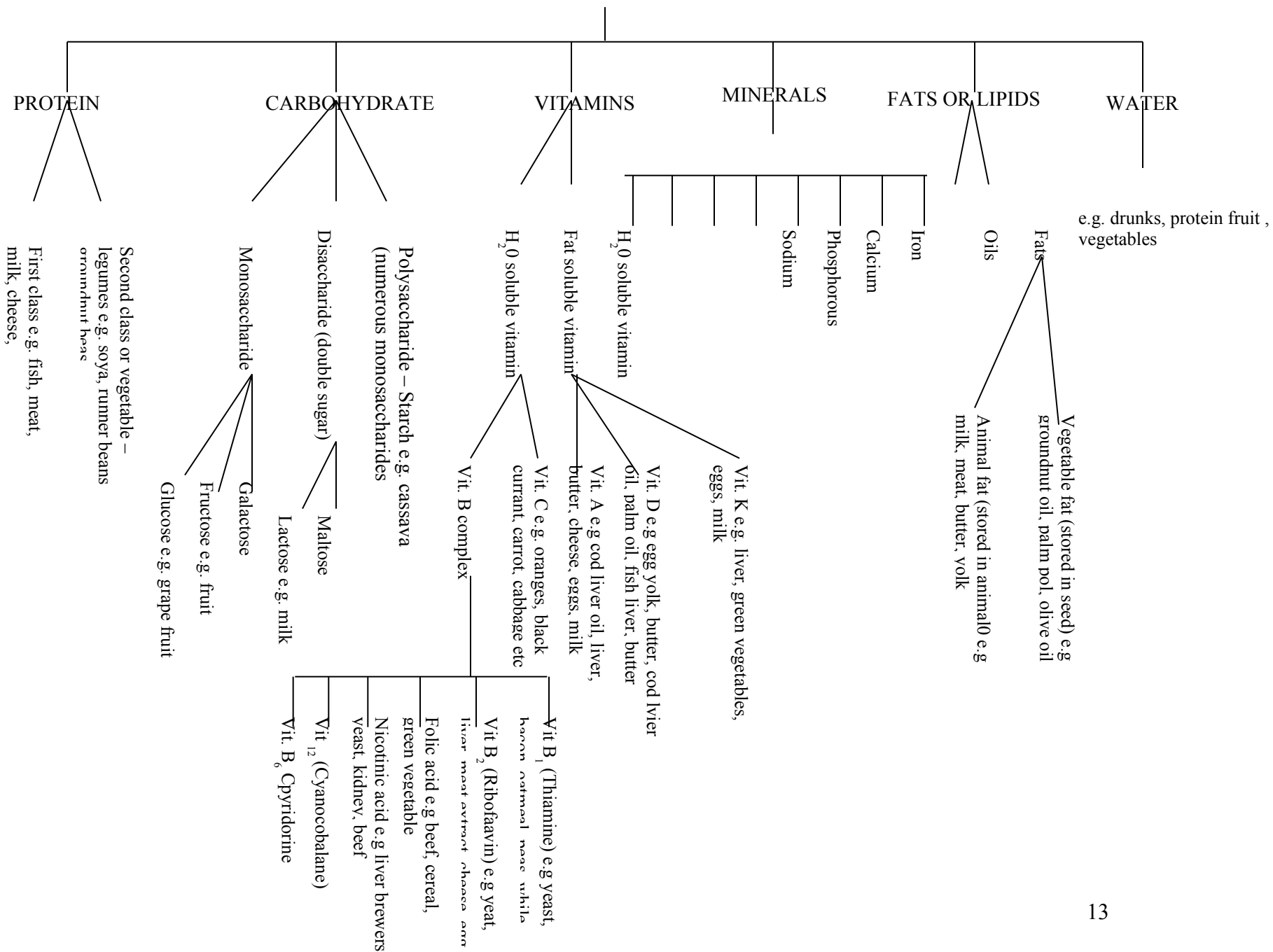
- a. Regulating body temperature through evaporation of perspiration
- b. All the body fluids
- c. Digestion
- d. Absorption
- e. Metabolism
- f. Excretion
- g. Secretion

Sources

- a. Drinks of all kinds
- b. Foods such as fruits, vegetables, meat and eggs
- c. Combustion or oxidation: when fats, carbohydrates and protein are used for energy a certain amount of water (metabolic water) is produced within the body.

Fig 1.2

CLASSIFICATION OF FOOD NUTRIENTS



3.3 Food Groups

For healthy living, we need to eat meals that contain the different food nutrients in the correct proportions. This involves the selection of different food stuffs rich in the nutrients, as you plan your daily meals. To facilitate this selection you need some guide. One of these guidelines is the grouping of food items in terms of their nutritional values. Several systems can be adopted in categorising food into four, five or more groups.

The aim of all the systems remains the same, i.e. to facilitate the selection of food that meets any of these nutritional needs:

1. Protein, which builds and repairs the body;
2. Carbohydrate and fats which supply the body with energy; and
3. Vitamins and minerals which protect and vitalise the body.

3.3.1 Classification of Food Groups

Food is classified into five groups as follows:

1. Group I: Leafy Green Vegetables.

Food in this group includes such vegetables as spinach, lettuce, pumpkin leaves, cabbage, Cauliflower and solanium.

Foods in this group are rich in vitamins A and C, and some minerals like iron. Individuals need to eat foods from this group at least three times daily. A serving for an adult could be half a cup of coked or one cup of raw vegetables, where one cup is equivalent to a 200 gram margarine tin.

2. Group II: Fruits

Group II includes citrus fruits such as orange, grape fruit, lemon, lime, tangelo, and tangerine. Other fruits in this group are guava, soursop, pawpaw, mango, banana, pineapple and tomatoe. These foods are rich in vitamin A and C. It is vitamins A and C to take fruits at least three times every day, preferably before or after meals.

3. Group III: Protein Rich Foods

This group is made up of foods which are rich in protein. These include (1) animal sources (first class protein) e.g. meat, milk, eggs, fish, snail, crabs, crayfish; (2) the plant sources (second class protein), e.g. pulses, such as beans, soya beans, African oil-bean, groundnut, etc. These foods are sources of protein needed for body building and the repair of tissues.

Some of them are also sources of iron and some vitamins. Each of the three daily meals must contain protein in sufficient quantities for the proper growth of individuals.

4. Group IV: Carbohydrate Rich Foods

Foods in this group are important as sources of energy in the body. They include tubers such as yam, cassava, sweet potato, irish potato, cereals such as maize, millet, soghum, wheat and products from these such as bread, biscuit, etc.

5. Group V: Fat Rich

Foods in this group provide the body with energy. They include foods from (1) animals, e.g. butter, pork, cod liver oil, fatty meat and fish, (2) foods from plants sources: - different types of vegetable oil, margarine, coconut, groundnut etc. Excessive consumption of these foods can lead to obesity.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. List the different foods in your area.
2. Group them under the various categories identified above.
3. a. Which of the food items are available to all? Which ones are scarce to come by? Which ones are costliest?
 - b. Can you see any relationship between the average growth, look and health of the people in the area and the type of food they available or unavailable to them or that which they can (not) afford?

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have found out that the food items/substances that we eat are diverse and each of them contains various nourishing elements called nutrients. Each of the nutrients makes special contribution to our well-being. We also discussed the functions, the sources and the deficiency effects of the food nutrients. And on the basis of how they share the characteristics, the food substances are grouped into five from which you may choose to satisfy your body needs.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit introduces HCM232 entitled, “menu development and Planning”. It has been preoccupied with explaining the two basic concepts to menu development and planning:

More importantly, it has shown the relationship between food and nutrition and how they relationship determines the classification of foods into five groups. This is done in the hope that you will now be able to confidently develop a menu from a thorough knowledge of foods and their nutritive value. Vitamins and minerals protect the body and help it to function properly. Therefore, foods are classified according to the nutrients they contain and the functions they perform. In the next study unit, we shall discuss kitchen and personal hygiene.

ANSWER SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Different Food in Your Area

(i) Eggs (ii) Yam (iii) Cassava (iv) Sweet potatoes (v) Maize (vi) Meat (vii) Pork (viii) Fish (ix) Groundnut (x) Cabbage (xi) Orange (xii) Crayfish (xiii) Snail (xiv) Beans (xv) Crab (xvi) Africa oil beans (xvii) Biscuit (xviii) Lemon (xix) Milk (xx) Tomatoes.

2. Various Categories of Food

Group 1	Cabbage, leaves.
Group 2	Orange, guara, grape, tangelo, lemon.
Group 3	Eggs, meat, milk, fish, meat, snail, beans.
Group 4	Cassava, yam, sweet potatoes, maize, broad, biscuit e.t.c
Group 5	Pork, groundnut, fish, coconut, butter.

3a. (a) Foods Available to All

Beans, orange, banana, bread, yam, tomatoes, fish, groundnut.

(b) Foods Scarce to Come by

Snail, sour sop, crab, African oil beans

(c) Costliest Ones

Meat, eggs, snail, milk

3a. (i) In the area where protein rich food is scarce or where they cannot afford it, the children will not grow and develop well. This leads to kwashiorkor.

b. Lack of food rich in iron in some areas affects mostly women of reproductive age. Lack of adequate supply of iron leads to tiredness and loss of appetite and in some cases anaemia. Example of iron rich foods are green vegetables, kidney and pulse vegetable etc.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Why is protein of great importance in the diet?
2. List the foods which are good sources of protein
3. How are the following terms related? (a) Nutrition; (b) Diet; (c) Food; and (d) Nutrient.

7.0 REFERENCES/FUTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 KITCHEN AND PERSONAL HYGIENE

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- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Personal And kitchen hygiene as a course unit is compulsory for all students in Hotel and Catering Management, Many deaths and sicknesses have been traced to dirty habits, unsanitary living conditions, infected consumable items like water and other drinks and food which enter the body. Health is a complete state of mental and body well being; also health is wealth. Personal and kitchen hygiene is crucial to good living which in turn leads to higher life expectancy rate and socio-economic development of the individual and that of the nation at large.

The work of NAFDAC is to ensure hygienic production of all consumable goods and the environment in which such products are made and sent out for sale. The caterer's kitchen is no exemption.

The essence of catering is to promote good health. Personal and kitchen hygiene aims at the general principles of hygiene where food and nutrition is concerned.

Hygiene is the science and practice of preserving health. It is also the study of heath and prevention of diseases. Germs or bacteria found in and on the body could be transferred into anything with which the body comes in contact. Such contact is capable of causing food poisoning and food infection, hence the need to take hygiene seriously.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the importance of personal hygiene in the prevention of the spread of germs through the care of the skin, hair, hand, feet and teeth;
- Describe the inter-relationship between personal, kitchen and equipment hygiene; and
- Explain the problems of food poisoning and infection as a result of poor hygiene.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Focus on Personal Kitchen and Equipment Hygiene

We have to emphasise the point that hygiene is the basis of Hotel and Catering Management. The focus on personal, kitchen and equipment must be clear enough to illustrate the inter-relationship between the three and that failure at one point affects the overall standards of the Hotel Business.

3.1.1 Essentials of Personal Hygiene

Personal cleanliness is necessary with every food handler. Persons who are not clean and suffering from ill-health should not handle food. Here are some essential aspects of personnel hygiene.

1. Bathing: Anybody handling food should bathe everyday (at least once daily).
2. Hands: They should be washed thoroughly after visiting the toilet and before handling food. Hands should be washed with hot water and detergent. They should be rinsed and dried with a clean towel. Those handling food should not wear watches and jewelry because not only can these items trap food particles, they may contaminate the food.
3. Finger nails: they should be kept clean and cut short as dirt can easily lodge under the nails and contaminate the food. Cooks should not use nail polish.
4. Hair: It should always be kept short (for men) and washed regularly to remove dandruff. Hair should always be covered when cooking in the kitchen and food handlers should never scratch or comb their hair in the kitchen.
5. Nose: Do not touch your nose during food preparation. If you must handle a handkerchief wash your hands.

6. Mouth: Brush your teeth daily. Never sticks your fingers or cooking utensils into your mouth. Taste the food with a teaspoon and wash it afterwards. Do not cough over food.
7. Ear: Clean your ears daily. Do not poke your fingers into your ears while cooking.
8. Teeth: This should be kept clean always and visit dentist regularly so that the teeth can be kept in good condition.
9. Feet: Feet should be washed regularly and in order to avoid stress and tiredness, use low heeled shoes. Keep all cuts burns, sores and scratches with water proof dressing. Ideally, staff suffering from such should not handle food.
10. Cosmetics: There should be little or no cosmetics in the kitchen. Wash your hands immediately after applying cosmetics.
11. Smoking: Avoid smoking cigarettes in the kitchen because germs can easily be transferred from the mouth to the fingers and onto food.
12. Spitting: It should be avoided as germs can easily be spread by spitting.
13. Clothing: Wear clean and protective clothes and underwear because dirty clothes spread germs easily. Cotton materials are suitable, as they absorb perspiration easily.

3.2 Essentials of Kitchen Hygiene

Kitchen premises and equipments should always be kept clean. Any negligence in any part will result in food infection. Kitchen hygiene is important to the following categories of people:

1. Those who work in the kitchen because it is more comfortable to work in a clean environment than in a dirty environment.
2. The proprietor because it attracts customers
3. The customers for safety reasons, because they would not want to eat food prepared in a dirty kitchen to avoid food poisoning.

3.2.1 Kitchen Premises

Ventilation

Kitchen premises should be well ventilated so that fumes from stoves are taken out of the kitchen. Extractor fans should be installed. Windows used for ventilation should be screened to prevent entry of dust and insects.

Lighting

Good lighting is important so that people working in the kitchen do not strain their eyes to enable them see into the corners so that the kitchen can be properly cleaned.

Plumbing

Cold and hot water must be available always for keeping the kitchen clean, cleaning of equipment and for staff use during the preparation of food. Suitable toilets should be available and such facilities should not be close to the kitchen. A wash hand basin, different from the kitchen sink should be available for washing the hands after using the toilet.

Cleaning of Toilets and Sinks Units

Food handlers must never be allowed to clean the toilet. Sinks and wash hand basins should be washed properly.

Floors

In choosing flooring for the kitchen, certain things must be taken into consideration.

1. It should be easy to clean
2. It should be smooth, but not slippery.
3. It should be even.
4. There should be no cracks and open joints.

Properly laid quarry tile floors are suitable for the kitchen. The cleaning of the floor should be done by sweeping, and washing with detergent with very hot water, and by drying. These could be done by machine or by hand.

Walls

They should be strong, smooth, washable and light in colour. The joints between the walls and the floor should be rounded for easy cleaning.

Ceilings

This must be free from cracks and flaking and should not harbour dirt.

Doors and Windows

They should fit correctly and be clean. The glass should be clean inside and outside so as to admit enough light.

Food Lifts

It should be kept clean, food particles should not be allowed to accumulate in the lift to disallow rats gaining access into the kitchen through the lift.

3.3. Essentials of Kitchen Equipment Hygiene

The care and maintenance of kitchen equipment should be strictly followed. It is very important that anybody handling food should know the importance of hygiene because of the danger of food poisoning.

It is important that kitchen equipment and utensils are kept clean hygienically. Materials used in the construction of kitchen equipment must be

1. Hard so that it does not absorb food particles
2. Smooth so as to be easily cleaned.
3. Resistance to rust
4. Resistance to chipping

Kitchen equipment must not be made from toxic materials such as lead. All metallic equipment should be cleaned immediately after use by immersion in hot, liquid detergent water. They should be cleaned with a hard bristle brush, rinsed thoroughly and dried.

Marble and Wood

These should be scrubbed with a bristle brush and hot water and then dried.

China, earthenware should not be cleaned with abrasives. They should be washed in hot soapy water and rinsed very well in hot water.

All other categories of equipment should be cleaned by soaking hot soapy water, rinsed in hot water and dried immediately.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

We have discussed to a good extent the essentials of hygiene of persons in the kitchen and equipment hygiene. You are required to explain the inter-relationships of the three and indicate how failure at one end could lead to health hazards in general. Illustrate with examples.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed hygiene at personal, kitchen and equipment levels. We also tried to establish the linkage or the inter-relationship between the three levels. We saw that failure at one level could negatively impact on other levels and that health hazards could result.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit explains why hygiene is important in Hotel and Catering Management. The focus has been on the essentials of hygiene at personal, kitchen and equipment levels. This forms a good background to the understanding of food hygiene to be treated in the next unit.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

The inter-relationship between personal, kitchen and equipment hygiene are as follows:

- Persons who are not clean or and those suffering from ill-health cannot handle food or work in the kitchen because germs could be transferred to food.
- Kitchen premises should always be kept clean for the safety of those to eat the food, to keep those working there healthy and to attract more customers.
- Kitchen equipment should be kept clean and neat to avert food poisoning.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Why is hygiene important
2. Mention the relationship between personal, kitchen and equipment hygiene.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

David Foskett, Victor Ceserani and Ronald Kinton (2003). *The Theory of Catering*. Book Power.

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UNIT 3 KITCHEN EQUIPMENT AND TOOLS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Kitchen Equipment and Utensils
 - 3.1.1 Types of Kitchen Equipment
 - 3.1.2 Large Equipment
 - 3.1.3. Mechanical Equipment
 - 3.1.4. Small Equipment
 - 3.2 Equipment Selection
 - 3.2.1 Principles for Equipment Selection
 - 3.3 Characteristics, Uses and Care of Different Materials Used for Making Cooking Equipment and Utensils.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Kitchen equipment is the backbone of any busy catering operation it is the key to catering success and quality. Kitchen equipment are expensive. In order to justify their cost it is essential that maximum the owners make sure properly. Also, such equipment should be cared for.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the various types of cooking equipment and utensils found in a modern kitchen;
- Explain the general principles for equipment selection; and
- Describe the various materials used for manufacturing the cooking equipment and utensils

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Kitchen Equipment and Utensils

A kitchen should have certain basic equipment. The kind and size of the equipment would depend on the size of the kitchen and the level of

cooking that goes on there. For example industrial kitchens would need heavier equipment than family kitchens.

Equipment may directly affect food volume, the quality of food produced, and how much profit is made from the business.

Large equipment will produce large quantities of food. Also, equipment in good working condition will produce good food. This is because the quality of the equipment will determine the quality of food it will produce.

3.1.1 Types of Kitchen Equipment

Kitchen equipment can be divided into three categories:

1. **Large equipment:** These are pieces of equipment that occupy fairly large floor space. Examples of such equipment are gas/ electric cookers, ovens, steamers, sink units, tables, fish fryers, hot cupboards, etc
2. **Mechanical equipment:** These are pieces of equipment that are needed for some basic kitchen operations. They include potato peelers, food mixers, refrigerators, and dishwashers, e.t.c
3. **Utensils and small equipment:** These are materials that are easily moved about in the kitchen. They include pots, pans, egg whisks, knives, spoons, forks wooden ladle, e.t.c

3.1.2 Large Equipments

1. **Stove:** Different types of stoves are available. While some are operated with gas, others are operated with electricity, kerosene, coal or fire wood. They are used for cooking while the oven section is used for roasting or baking. For maintenance, the top should be washed or wiped clean with a pad. It is advisable to apply a little grease after cleaning.
2. **Boiling pans:** They may be heated by gas or electricity, and are used for boiling or stewing large quantities of food. After use, the boiling pan and its lid should be washed with a mild detergent solution and then rinsed. The tilting operations should be greased occasionally and checked to see that it tilts easily.
3. **Hot Cupboard and Bain Marie:** Hot cupboards are used for heating plates and service dishes and for keeping food hot. It can be gas, electricity or steam operated. The tops of most hot, cupboards are used as serving counters. They should be cleaned thoroughly after use. Bain-maries are open wells of water used for keeping food hot and are available in many designs. After use,

the heat should be turned off the water should be drained and the bain should be cleared inside and outside with hot soapy water. It should be rinsed and dried. Any drain off tap should be shut.

4. **Grills and Salamander:** The grills or salamanders can be heated by either gas or electricity. They are used for grilling tender cuts of meat, chicken and other food items. The salamander bars and draining trays should be cleaned regularly with hot water containing a little detergent. After rinsing, they should be replaced and the heat turned on for a few minutes to do the bars.
5. **Sink units:** the importance of a sink unit in the kitchen can not be over emphasised as all wash-up operations are carried out in it. The sinks, drainers, waste and over flow outlets should be cleared and rinsed after use. Occasionally boiling water should be poured into the sinks to clear the drains.

3.1.3 Mechanical Equipment

1. **Refrigerators:** They are used for preserving raw or cooked food items and other materials that are easily perishable. Hot food should not be kept inside the refrigerator. The refrigerator requires very careful attention, for maximum performance. It should be maintained as follows:
 - a. Do not open the door for too long or else warm air will enter, thus giving it additional work.
 - b. Defrost weekly.
 - c. Food should be arranged inside the refrigerator in such a way that cold air can circulate all round. Excessive packing of food into a refrigerator should be avoided
 - d. A qualified service engineer should be called at the first sign of any defect.
 - e. Never remove materials from the freezer compartment with sharp objects
 - f. The refrigerator should be cleaned thoroughly at regular intervals
2. **Food Mixers:** These are important labour saving devices. They are electrically operated and can be used for many purposes e.g. mixing pastry, clues, mashing potatoes, beating, egg white making mayonnaise, and chopping vegetables and meat. All the compartments, as well as the main machine should be thoroughly washed and dried. Care should be taken to see that no rust occurs on any part.
3. **Food Slicers and Chopper:** Food slicers are used for any kind of slicing operation e.g slicing meat, fish, onions, potatoes, e.t.c.

The choppers are used for chopping or dicing items of food like onions, spinach e.t.c. The blade should be sharpened regularly. Each section that comes in contact with the food should be cleaned and carefully dried after use. The rotating joints should be lubricated, while taking care that does not come in contact with the food.

4. **Mashers:** They can either be hand or electrically operated. They are used for mashing fish, thoroughly dried immediately after use.

3.1.4 Small Equipment

1. **Frying Pans:** These vary in sizes. When new, they should be seasoned. This is done by spreading a thick layer of salt in them and placing them on a hot stove or in hot oil for about 15-20 minutes. The salt in them is removed and a little fat or oil is added, then they are wiped clean with a cloth.
2. **Baking Sheets or Tins:** They are of various sizes. Before using baking sheets, grease them slightly with fat.
3. **Colander:** It is a perforated bowl used for straining vegetables.

Other small pieces of equipment are scales, spoons, plates, cups, chopping boards. The general process of cleaning small equipment and utensils include scraping, soaking, in soaping water, washing and drying. At the end of these operations the equipment should be stored properly on shelves.

3.2 Equipment Selection

Equipment value is based on the degree to which the equipment is needed and the degree to which it satisfactorily fulfils the functions for which it is needed. Food standards, volume, and financial success may be directly affected by the production equipment.

3.2.1 Principles for Equipment Selection

The selection of equipment to yield the best values for food preparation will be based on:

1. **Essentiality of Needs:** Need should be evaluated in terms of whether the equipment is required to improve quality, handle quantity, or reduce cost and time of the preparation. A cooking range may not be needed in a school kitchen where the bulk of the food is prepared over a regular cooker.

2. **Cost:** Most cooking equipment can be bought in Nigeria, therefore, when you think of selection, these are some points to consider (as regards the cost of equipment): evaluating the immediate and ultimate cost of equipment. (a) the initial price, (b) installation expenses (d) maintenance expenses, (e) operating cost, and (f) values lost versus those created. You should make a comparison of market price and selection specifics. Make a record of performance that will aid evaluation. For example and is the item durable and inexpensive to use or is it inexpensive and fragile. Is the manufacturer reliable and prompt in supplying parts and repairs?
3. **Performance:** Equipment is selected to fulfill specific functions and selection should be based on the degree of satisfaction it can to give and how long it is likely to last. If for instance it is to slice or chop, will it make a clean cut or bruise and tear the food? If it is to transport, will it move easily and safely or break down under normal load? Is the machine easy to operate or must one follow a complicated book of instructions? It should be easy to assemble and disassemble and easy to clean thoroughly. Workers will use a slow method of preparation rather than handle equipment that is complicated to clean. The value of its performance should be closely related to its remaining in good working condition. Equipment that gets out of adjustment easily may be costly to maintain.
4. **Satisfaction of Specific Needs:** The selection of equipment for the various sections of a specific food facility calls for care. A detailed analysis of needs is necessary. The main form in which food is to be processed and the number and type of persons to serve will determine the type, quality and quantity of equipment to be bought. Careful analysis is necessary to avoid under or over equipping a kitchen. Get advice from firms or establishments but choose the equipment that suits the particular establishment requiring it.
5. **Appearance and Design:** Equipment should be attractive in design and workmanship. It should be in harmony with the standards of the facility, its purpose and other pieces of equipment. The design should stress the following: function, simplicity and maximum utilisation of space. It should be attractive and in agreement with the standard of the kitchen. It should be easy to clean.

- 6. Safety and Sanitation:** When selecting equipment, consideration should be given to its freedom from hazards. For an equipment to be safe, it must be made of non toxic materials that will with stand normal wear. Also, it should be thoroughly cleanable. All sharp edges and moving parts that are hazardous should be guarded and be free from surprise features that may be the cause of injury. Sanitary features of equipment will affect customers reaction as well as influence food quality and production cost. You need to keep food at proper temperatures to avoid bacterial growth. Equipment should help to eliminate chances of food contamination. Avoid having equipment with rough surfaces and inaccessible areas requiring clearing. Wooden table tops have been replaced by metal surfaces and cutting boards that are impervious because they are much easier to clean. Food slicers, cutters, and similar equipment requiring thorough cleaning should be easy to take apart and reassemble.
- 7. General Utility Value:** it is advisable to buy equipment that actually save labour and time. It is also important to consider one that would require less space.

3.3 Characteristics, Uses and Care of Different Materials Used for Making Cooking Equipment and Utensils

Cooking equipment and utensils are made from different types of materials such as glass, wood, metals and plastic. The table below shows some materials for making the utensils, their characteristics, uses and care:

Table 3.1 Characteristics of cooking equipment and utensils

	Material	Characteristics	Uses	Care
1.	Aluminum	A very good conductor of heat. It does not rust easily	Used for many kinds of equipment like kettles, sauce pans, frying pans, water filters e.t.c	- Wash with warm soapy water and rinse thoroughly. - Dry with a soft kitchen cloth
2.	Iron	- It conducts heat well - It is strong, heavy and durable - It can rust	Cooking pots, kettles, sauce pans, stoves, cooking hobs, e.t.c	- Wash with soapy water - Scour stubborn spot with abrasive powder or

		easily coated unless		soap - Rinse thoroughly - Dry thoroughly - Rub unsalted oil over the surface to prevent rusting
3.	Stainless steel	- It is a poor conductor of heat - It is strong and durable - It does not rust	Tea sets, trays, plates, kitchen sinks, cutlery, cups, frying pans and sauce pans, pots, etc.	- Wash with warm soapy water - Rinse well - Scour with mild abrasive soap when necessary.
4.	Earthen ware	- It is porous - It is a poor conductor of heat - It takes time to get heated	Cooking pots, water pots, jugs, coolers, traditional special bowls for serving traditional food.	- Wash with soapy water - Rinse with warm water - Dry with a soft, clean cloth
5.	Silver	- It is soft and expensive - It is easily scratched or dented - It can be combined with other metals to make it strong	Table ware: trays cutlery, tea pots, coffee pots, ornament e.t.c	- Wash in hot soapy water and rinse in hot water - Dry immediately with a clean, soft cloth. - Wrap in tissue paper, or cloth before storing it - Store articles in separate compartments.
6.	Tin	- It does not tarnish. - Wears well - May be used as coating on iron to prevent	Cake tins, baking tins, jelly mould, food cans e.t.c	- Wash in hot soapy water - Rinse thoroughly - Dry with a soft cloth.

		rusting		- Avoid abrasives and sharp objects.
7.	Chromium	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is a hard metal - It is resistant to acid - Does not scratch easily - Used to coat other metals 	Spoons, forks, water taps, e.t.c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do not use abrasive - Wash in warm soapy water - Rinse thoroughly - Dry well - Polish with a soft duster.
8.	Enamel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rust proof - Can chip if dropped 	Sauce pans, jugs, pie dishes, basins, buckets, plates, e.t.c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wash in warm soapy water - Rinse thoroughly in clean water - Dry well - If an enamel saucepan is burnt, boil water with soda in it.
9.	China (porcelain or bone china)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It is not porous - It is a poor conductor of heat. 	Plates, tea-sets, mugs, oven ware, e.t.c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wash with warm soapy water - Rinse well - Dry with a clean dishcloth.
10.	Glass	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Some can withstand heat. - Others can not withstand heat. 	Oven wares, table ware, bowls, measuring cups, dishes, e.t.c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wash in hot soapy water - Rinse with hot water - Drip dry.
11.	Plastic ware	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Available in various colours and qualities - They scratch easily - Some tend to retain odour, oil and stains and colour 	Bowls, bucket,, table wares, trays, measuring cups, dustbin, e.t.c	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wash with warm water - Rinse in cold water - Dry with a dish cloth

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They are light in weight - They can not withstand high temperature 		
12	Wood	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wood can be plain, painted or vanished 	Mortars and pistles, spoons, forks, spatula, trays, rolling pins, chopping boards, bread boards, etc	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Wipe vanished wood with a dry clean cloth. - Wash plain and painted wood with warm soapy water - Rinse with cold water - Dry thoroughly - Air properly - Plain wood can be scrubbed along the grain

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed generally the various kitchen equipment and utensils used in the catering industry. We also mentioned how food preparation at affects the choice of cooking equipment. Also we have examined the selection of kitchen equipment, taking into consideration the following: the need cost, performance, appearance and design and satisfaction of specific needs.

Finally, we tried to identify some of the various materials used for making kitchen equipment cooking and utensils and including their characteristics, uses and care.

5.0SUMMARY

This unit has treated the various cooking equipment used in the catering industry. It also submits that equipment that has been wisely chosen and well constructed should function satisfactorily. Some of the general points to be considered when selecting equipment were also examined.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Name the different types of kitchen equipment you know and give three examples of each.
2. Mention the various factors that should be considered when acquiring equipment for a kitchen.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Foskett David, Ceserani Victor and Kinton Ronald (2003). *The Theory of Catering*. (10th ed.). Hodder Arnold.

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UNIT 4 KITCHEN ORGANISATION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives of the unit
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Principles of Kitchen organisation
 - 3.1.1 Types of Kitchen Organisation
 - 3.2 Duties and Responsibilities of the Kitchen Staff
 - 3.3 Kitchen Service.
 - 3.3.1 Kitchen Service in a Large Hotel
 - 3.3.2 Kitchen Service in a Small Hotel
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit intends to introduce students to an important aspect of catering which is kitchen organisation. This depends largely on the size of the hotel or restaurant.

The aim of kitchen organization is to produce the right quantity of food at the best standard for the correct number of people at the correct time by the most effective use of staff, equipment and materials.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define the concept of kitchen organization;
- Describe different types of kitchen organization; and
- Explain the best suitable kitchen organisation in relation to the different types of hotels and restaurants.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Principles of Kitchen Organisation

Kitchen organisation may be defined as the arrangement of staff and all allocation of duties so that all the sections integrate and work as one in the kitchen, whether it is a large organisation employing over a hundred kitchen staff or a small restaurant employing only a few staff. A well

organised kitchen will function efficiently and consequently achieve profitability. Kitchen organisation differs due to the size and type of the establishment.

The principle of kitchen organisation is to produce the right quantity food at the best standard for the correct number of people at the correct time by the most effective use of staff, equipment and materials.

3.1.1 Types of Kitchen Organisation

The kitchen of a hotel or a restaurant is organised and directed by the head chef who divides his total kitchen staff into sections, each one of which is responsible for a particular contribution to the entire food production system. The number of different sections necessary to ensure the efficient operation of a kitchen is decided by the head chef.

There is no set of rules which decides how many sections and how many staff a particular kitchen requires. Each establishment has different factors that have to be taken into consideration, such as the extent of the menu, the number of persons to be served, the number of days per week it is opened and the decision of the management of the establishment.

A large and busy kitchen will require several sections, the work load can thus be evenly distributed among all the staff.

In a smaller kitchen, there will be fewer sections, yet the work load can still be shared equally.

The name used to describe a section in the kitchen is “par-tie”. The full compliment of “par-tie” consists of a chef de par-tie who is the senior person to the par-tie together with a number of assistant cooks known as “commis”. The chef de par-ties takes full responsibility for all the work done by his staff and is answerable to the chef de cuisine for the standard of food production of his par-tie.

The commis cooks are graded in seniority according to their skill and experience. The first commis is the senior assistant, the second commis is the next in line and frequently there will be a third commis and a number of undesignated trainees and apprentices.

The chef de par-tie allocates the work of the par-tie to his assistants according to their ability and supervises their work as well as doing the more important tasks himself. Each par-tie carries out its duties in accordance with the menu and must be ready to serve its particular part of the menu when called to do so.

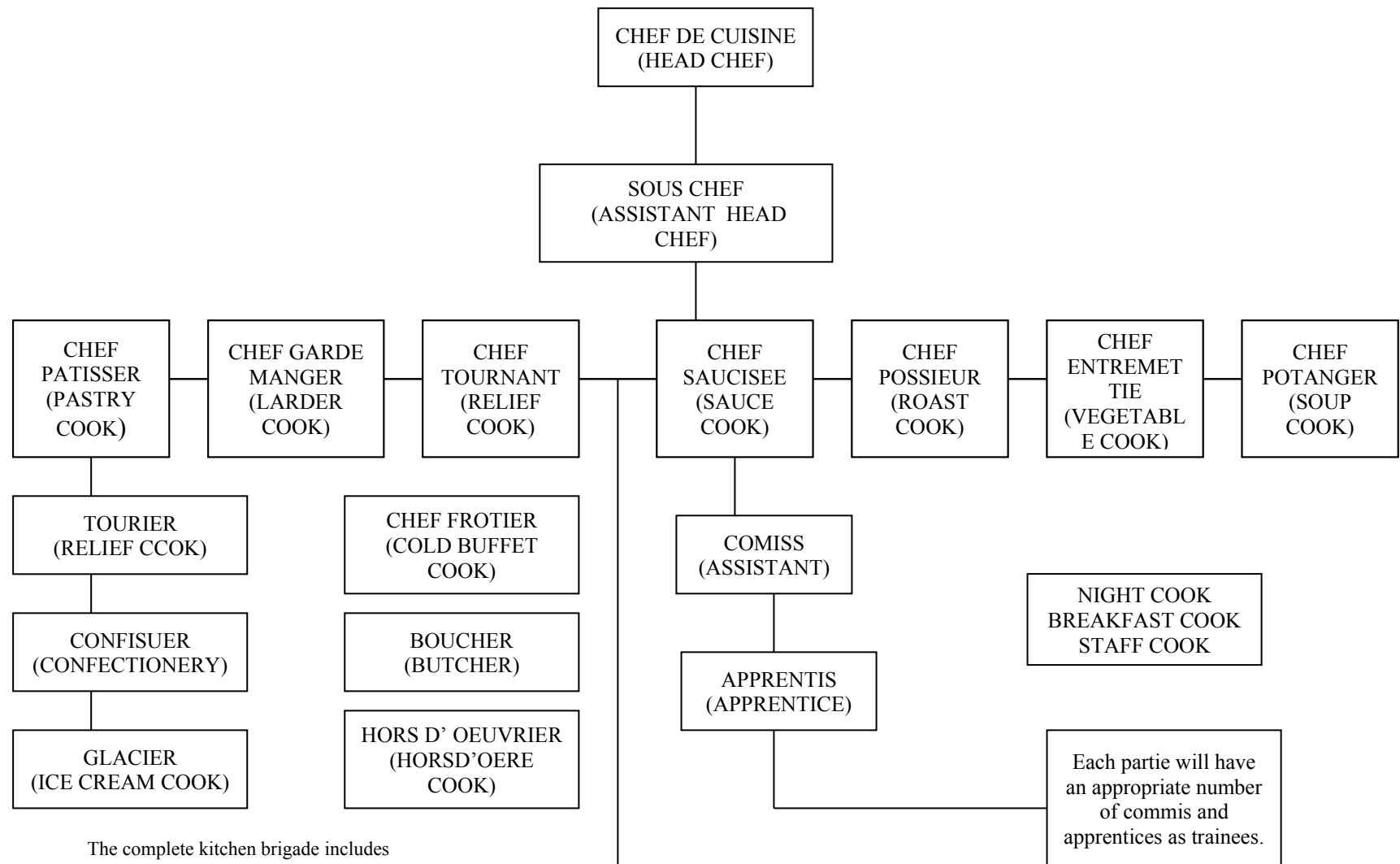
The number of staff in a section is determined by the amount of work to be done and this is generally decided by the importance of the section's contribution to the menu. For example the service section produces the main dishes and usually needs more staff than some of the other par-ties.

There is close co-operation between the various sections, with a par-tie producing the requirements of another par-tie because it would normally be making these items and there would be no sauce in the same things being produced in the two different sections.

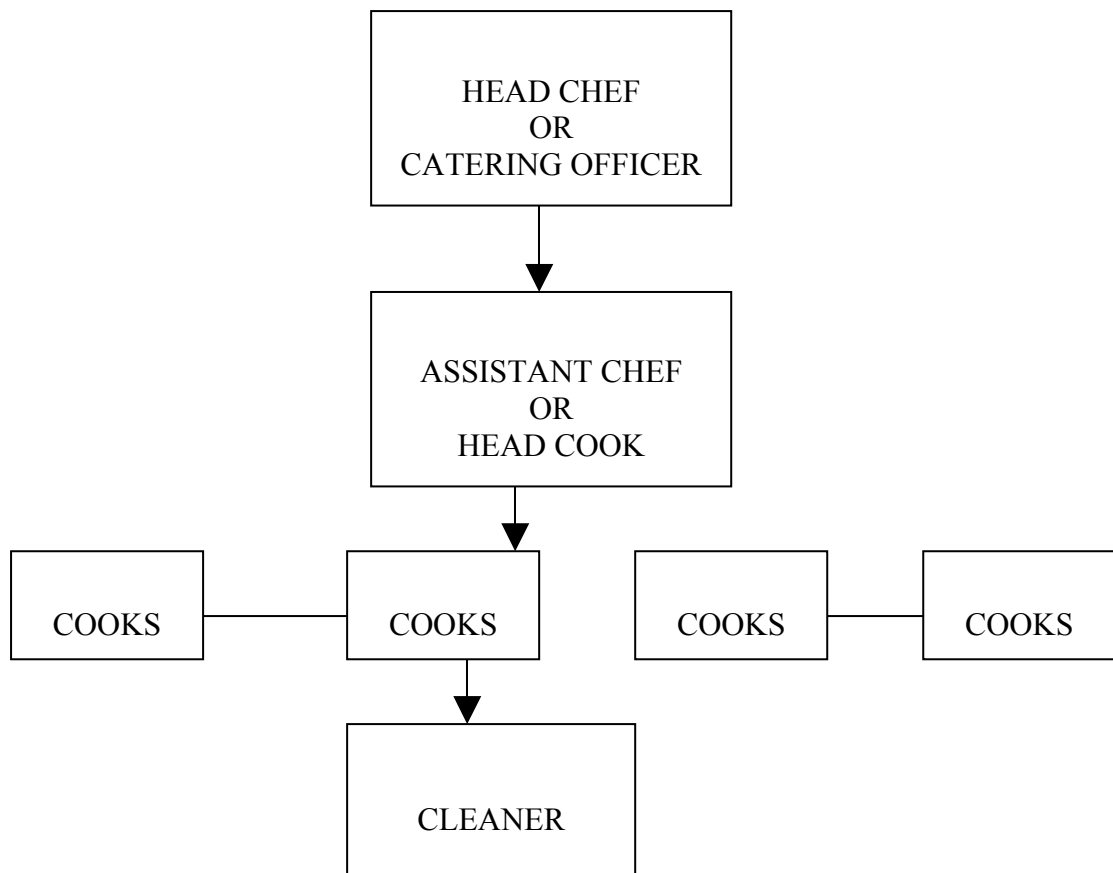
Thus, when the chef entremettler requires some sauce to accompany his vegetables, he will obtain this from the chef saucier. Foods cooked by certain specific methods are often cooked by the section which specialises in those methods. For example, all deep fried foods are cooked by the chef rotisseur because he has the necessary equipment.

This system of kitchen organisation is used not only in hotels and restaurants but also in many other branches of the catering industry such as hospitals, staff canteens, hostels and departmental stores because it is readily adaptable to the particular conditions of each establishment. In smaller kitchens, the duties of two or more sections are usually combined. The section chef will have a wider range of duties to cover, but this will be weighed against the greater degree of efficiency and economy.

The value of organising a kitchen on the par-tie system lies in the clearly defined areas of responsibility, the equitable sharing of the work load and the elimination of wasted effort on the part of highly skilled staff.

Fig. 4.1 The Complete Kitchen Brigade in a First Class Hotel

The complete kitchen brigade includes the following ancillary personnel:
 Kitchen clerk and aboyeur
 Kitchen porters
 Plongeur (pot washer)
 Stallroom Assistant
 Store man

Fig 4.2 KITCHEN BRIGADE IN SMALL HOTEL

3.2 Duties and Responsibilities of the Kitchen Staff

The duties and responsibilities of the kitchen staff vary according to their ranks and the sections to which they belong within the kitchen.

The Head Chef (Chef de Cuisine)

The chef de cuisine in any establishment has the overall responsibility for the organization and the productiveness and efficiency of the kitchen. The larger the establishment the wider the scope and the more administrative the role becomes, but in the main, the head chef has responsibility for: -

1. Menu planning
2. Engaging staff
3. Kitchen organisation and delegation of duties for the staff
4. Providing management with full information on the efficiency of the kitchen operation.
5. Ensuring that the required kitchen profit target is attained.
6. Advising management on kitchen equipment requirements.

7. Overall supervision of the kitchen especially at service times.
8. Ensuring that all staff are instructed on specifications, standards and portion control.
9. Ordering of food stuff
10. Seeing that 1st class standards of hygiene both with personal and in the kitchen are maintained.

The Second Chef (le Sous Chef)

The second chef relieves the head chef when he is off duty. He is mainly responsible for the efficient day to day running of the kitchen.

The Chef de Par-tie

The chef de partie is in charge of a section of the work in the kitchen. Usually the chef in charge of the sauce “partie” is next in status to the sous chef, and the larder chef being responsible for the perishable foods is often considered of a higher status than the other chefs except the pastry chef. This is the job of the specialist. The chef de partie organises his own section, delegates the work to his own section, delegate the work to his assistants and in fact the backbone ‘backbone’ of the kitchen.

Chef Saucier

The sauce cook is responsible for the production of all dishes of meat, poultry and game cooked by boiling, poaching steaming, stewing, braising, poeleing and shallow frying.

He is also responsible for the production of all hot sauces for meat, poultry and game with the expectation of those sauce used in accompanying roasts.

Chef Poissonnier

The fish cook is responsible for the production of all fish dishes and sauces other than deep-fried or grilled fish.

Chef Rotisseur

The roast cook is responsible for the production of all roasts and grills of meat, poultry, game, grilled and deep fried fish, deep-fried vegetable and potatoes and most savouries. He is also responsible for the production of sauces, accompaniments and garnishes for roasts and grills. In large establishments, grilled items are the responsibility of the grill cook.

Chef Entremettier

The vegetable cook is responsible for the production of vegetables and potatoes and some times egg and farinaceous dishes.

Chef Potager

The soup cook is responsible for the production of soups and sometimes egg and farinaceous dishes.

Chef Garde-Manger

The larder cook is responsible for the preparation of all meat, poultry, game and fish in readiness for cooking, the cold buffet work, horsd'oeuvre, salad sandwiches, canapies and horsd'oeuvre cocktail Horsdoeuvre. In large establishments, cold buffet work is done by the chef foitier the horsdoeuvre and salad by the harsdoeuvre and the bouchery of meat by the boucher.

Chef Pâtissier

The pastry cook is responsible for all hot and cold sweets, cakes and pastries, petit four, special display work and the supply of pastry to the main kitchen.

Chef Tournant

The relief cook is responsible for replacing any of the above chef de partie, with the exception of the chef pâtissier on their day off or when otherwise absent.

The Assistant Cooks (Commis Chefs)

The chef de partie is assisted by commis or assistants, the number varying with the amount of work done by the party e.g. the vegetable party is larger than the first party due to the quantity of work to be done. The first commis is usually capable of taking over a great deal of responsibility and in some cases will take charge of the partie when the chef is off duty.

The Apprentice (l'Apprent)

The apprentice is learning his trade and is moved to each of the parties to gain knowledge of all the sections in the kitchen.

The Kitchen Clerk and Aboyer

These two duties are usually performed by one person. The kitchen clerk is responsible for much of the chef's routine clerical work and is in fact the chef's secretary. During service times he will often call out the orders from the hot plate. Abogeur means baker, caller or announcer.

Kitchen Porters

Kitchen porters are responsible for general cleaning duties. Large parties such as the pastry larder and vegetable parties may have one or more porters to assist the chefs. They may prepare bread crumbs, chop parsley, peel vegetables and carry food from one section to another. When several porters are employed, one is usually appointed head porter and he may be responsible for extra duties like changing laundry etc.

3.2 Kitchen Service

Kitchen service is the service of food from the kitchen to the restaurant through the waiter or waitress. The system used in a first class hotel kitchen differs from that of a small hotel kitchen or restaurant.

3.3.1 Kitchen Service in a Large Hotel

In the larger kitchen the triplicate checking system is used for control purposes.

To help understand the organisation of the kitchen, it is best to follow what happens from the time the customer gives his order to the waiter to the time he receives his meal. This will vary from place to place.

Examples: If the customer orders: -

Cauli flower soup

(20 minutes)

Grilled kump steak serves with
Fried potatoes, stuffed tomatoes

Strawberry ice cream

Coffee

Then the waiter makes out his order in triplicate and this is the procedure:

1. A copy is taken to the kitchen hot plate.
2. It may then be stamped with the time, so that of the customer reads on his menu that he would have to wait for say 20 minutes for his steak to be ready, then if he is kept waiting longer than the time or if the waiter wishes to collect the steak too soon or before the stipulated time the kitchen would have proof of how long or short the time was or at what time the steak should have been ready.
3. The aboyeur will call out the soup and main course and vegetables.
4. The soup will be sent immediately to the hot plate by the soup cook.
5. The aboyeur will tick his check as he gives it to the waiter so that he knows it has gone to the customer.
6. The roast cook on hearing the order for steak orders it from the larder sort the butcher and it is sent out to be cooked. The roast cook puts it on to cook.
7. When the waiter is ready he returns and the roast cook will be asked by the aboyeur for the steak.
8. The vegetable cook will be asked for the vegetables.
9. The aboyeur passes them on to the waiter and he ticks off his check. If he keeps a note of the various main dishes served, he will mark off his chart so that he knows how many portions have been sold.
10. When the waiter requires the sweet he takes a separate check to the pastry in exchange for which he receives the ice cream or the sweet.
11. When he is ready for the coffee he takes another check to the still room.

3.3.2 Kitchen Service in a Small Hotel

In the small hotel kitchen, the duplicate checking system is used in popular price restaurants, it is used where a table d'hôte menu is in operation and sometimes a very limited a'la carte menu. There are two copies of each of these food checks, each set being serially numbered. The copy of food check is usually carbon backed.

As the service of a meal commences, the waiter/waitress tears off from the top of copy of the food and drinks, check the perforated slip showing the first course ordered.

This is taken to the hot plate and the required dish is put up. As soon as this happens, the aboyeur will tear off the waiter's number on the slip and place it with the dish concerned. This then shows which waiter it is for. If there is no waiter's number at the end of the perforated slip then the perforated slip itself is left with the order until collected by the waiter. The aboyeur will then return the slip showing the course just served. As soon as the first course is served and allowing time for his course to be consumed, the second perforated slip is taken to the hot plate by the waiter. This dish will then be collected as required. This same procedure is carried on throughout the meal.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the duties and responsibilities of the chef saucier and chef poissonnier in a large organisation.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed kitchen organisation broadly and also the principles behind the types of kitchen organizations. We tried to explain how the sizes of hotels and restaurants determine the types of kitchen organisation that is put in place.

This unit also deals with the different sections and all the personnel that work at the identified sections of the kitchen. The total number of staff that work in a particular kitchen is determined by the size of the kitchen.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit treats an important aspect of catering i.e. kitchen organisation. An attempt was made to describe kitchen organization, types of kitchen organization and the different sections in the kitchen.

This unit also highlights the specific duties of different staffs in the kitchen.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. The Chef Saucier: This is the sauce cook who is responsible for the production of all dishes of meat, poultry and game cooked by boiling, poaching, steaming, stewing, braising, poeleing and shallow frying and also all the hot sauces to accompany the cooked meat, poultry and game.

2. The Chef Poissonnier: The fish cook is responsible for the production of all fish dishes and sauces other than deep-fried or grilled fish.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Draw the organisational chart of a first class hotel kitchen.
2. Discuss the role and responsibilities of the chef de' cuisine in a large organisation.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 2

Unit 1	The Kitchen Planning
Unit 2	Basic Principles of Cookery
Unit 3	Convenience Foods
Unit 4	Portion Control

UNIT 1 THE KITCHEN PLANNING

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Types of Kitchen
3.1.1	Factors Influencing Kitchen Planning and Design
3.2	Principle of Kitchen Design
3.3	Kitchen Layout
3.3.1	Food Preparation Areas
3.3.2	The Choice of Layout
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5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

A standard kitchen department should function smoothly along with other sales departments of the hotel industry. The ideal thing is that any hotel that sells accommodation must provide and operate an efficient restaurant with a well managed kitchen. Hotel products are not complete is the catering services are not available. The restaurant and the kitchen make up the catering industry as they provide and serve food and beverages.

The kitchen can be defined as a factory where raw food items and partly or wholly processed food substances are hygienically prepared and or cooked for customers' consumption in the restaurant. The ultimate goal of a kitchen is to provide an appropriate service of a high quality and attractive, wholesome food pleasing to the potential customers at a reasonable and affordable price. The kitchen should be well planned and arranged to prevent accidents, provide comfort to the kitchen staff and prevent disturbances and hazards during cooking.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At The end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of kitchen and describe the various types of kitchen;
- Describe the factors which influence kitchen planning and design;
- Identify the various kitchen layout; and
- Explain safety practice necessary in a Kitchen.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Kitchens

The kitchen can be described as the production centre where all cooking takes place. The design and planning depend on the type of family or establishment wishing to use it. Thus, broadly, there are two types of kitchen: (1) The family kitchen (b) The industrial kitchen.

The Family Kitchen: This type of Kitchen is found in our homes. The size of the kitchen varies from one house to another and it depends on the following factors:

1. The size of the building itself
2. The type of equipment/utensils to be used in the kitchen
3. The type of menu to be prepared in the kitchen
4. The family size and
5. The economic status of the family.

The Industrial Kitchen: This is the types of kitchen often found in hotels, restaurants, institutions, e.g. universities, colleges and hospital, fast food centres (e.g. Mr. Biggs) and industrial canteens. The kitchen should be large enough to meet the needs of the establishment. The extent of work determines the number of workers and the amount of equipment required. Similarly, the size of the kitchen is determined by the number of meals produced and served.

3.1.1 Factors Influencing Kitchen Planning and Design

When a new catering industry is being built, a catering consultant would be called at the start to advise on the proper placing of the machinery and equipment, which he does after finding out exactly how it is intended that these should be used. Most of the planning therefore, is done before ever a plan is actually drawn; there are certain fundamental

questions to which the planner must find answers before beginning and it is the interpretation of these answers that makes the difference between a well planned, labour-saving kitchen and the one that is a constant source of annoyance to its user.

There are a number of factors which influence kitchen planning and design. These include:

1. The size and extent of the menu and the market it serves;
2. Services – gas, electricity and water;
3. Labour – skill level of staff;
4. The amount of capital expenditure, cost;
5. The use of prepared convenience foods;
6. Types of equipment available;
7. Hygiene and the food safety Act of 1990/01-5;
8. Design and décor; and
9. Multi usage requirements.

The Size and Extent of the Menu

Before the kitchen is planned, the management must know its goals and objectives in relationship to market strategy. In other words, what markets are you aiming at and what style of operation are you going to operate? The menu will then determine the type of equipment you will require in order to produce the products that you know (from the market research) that the customer will buy. You also need to know target numbers that you intend to service.

Services: Examples are gas, electricity and water. The designer must know where the services are located and how efficient use can be made of them

Labour and Skill Level: What kind of people does the company intend to employ? This will have an effect on the technology and equipment to be installed.

Amount of Capital Expenditure: The design has to work with a detailed capital budget. Often it is not always possible to design, then worry about the cost afterwards. Finance will very often determine the overall design and acceptability. Because space is at a premium, kitchens are generally smaller, equipment is therefore being designed to cater for this trend, becoming more modular and streamlined and generally able to fit into less space. This is seen as a cost-reduction exercise. Labour is a significant cost factor, so equipment is being designed for ease of operation, maintenance and cleaning.

The Use of Prepared Convenience Foods: A fast-food menu using prepared convenience food will influence the planning and equipment very differently from an 'la carte or cook-chill kitchen. Certain factors will have to be determined:

- Will sweet and pastries be on the premises?
- Will there be a need for a larder or a butcher?
- Will fresh and frozen food or a combination of both be used?

Type of Equipment Available: The type, amount and size of the equipment will depend on the type of menu being provided. The requirement must be suitably sited. When planning a kitchen, standard symbols are used which can be produced on squared paper to provide a scale design. Computer aided design (CAD) is now often used.

Hygiene and Food Safety Act of 1990/91/95: Design and construction of the kitchen must comply with the hygiene and food safety Act of 1990/91/95. The basic layout and construction should enable adequate space to be provided in all food handling and associated areas for equipment, as well as working practices and frequent cleaning to be carried out.

Design and Décor: The trend towards provision of more attractive eating places, carried to its utmost perhaps by the chain and franchise operators has not been without its effect on kitchen planning and design.

One trend has been that of bringing the kitchen area totally or partially into view, with the development of back bar type of equipment for example when grills and griddles are in full public view and food is prepared on them to order. While there will be a continuing demand for the traditional heavy duty type of equipment found in larger hotel and restaurant kitchens, the constant need to change and update the design and décor of modern restaurants means that the equipment life is generally shorter, reduced, perhaps by ten years or five or even less, to cope with the demand for change and development. This has resulted in the generally improved design and catering equipment with the introduction of modular – units.

Multi-Usage Requirements: Round the clock requirements such as in hospitals, factories, the police and armed forces, communities have also forced kitchen planners to consider designing kitchens with a view to their partial use outside peak times. To this end, kitchen equipments are being made more adaptable and flexible, so that whole sections can be closed down when not in use, in order to maximise savings on heating, lighting and maintenance.

3.2 The Principles of Kitchen Design

Kitchens must be designed so that they can be easily managed. The management must have easy access to the area under their control and have good visibility in the areas which have to be supervised. Larger operations should work on separate work floors, for reasons of efficiency and hygiene.

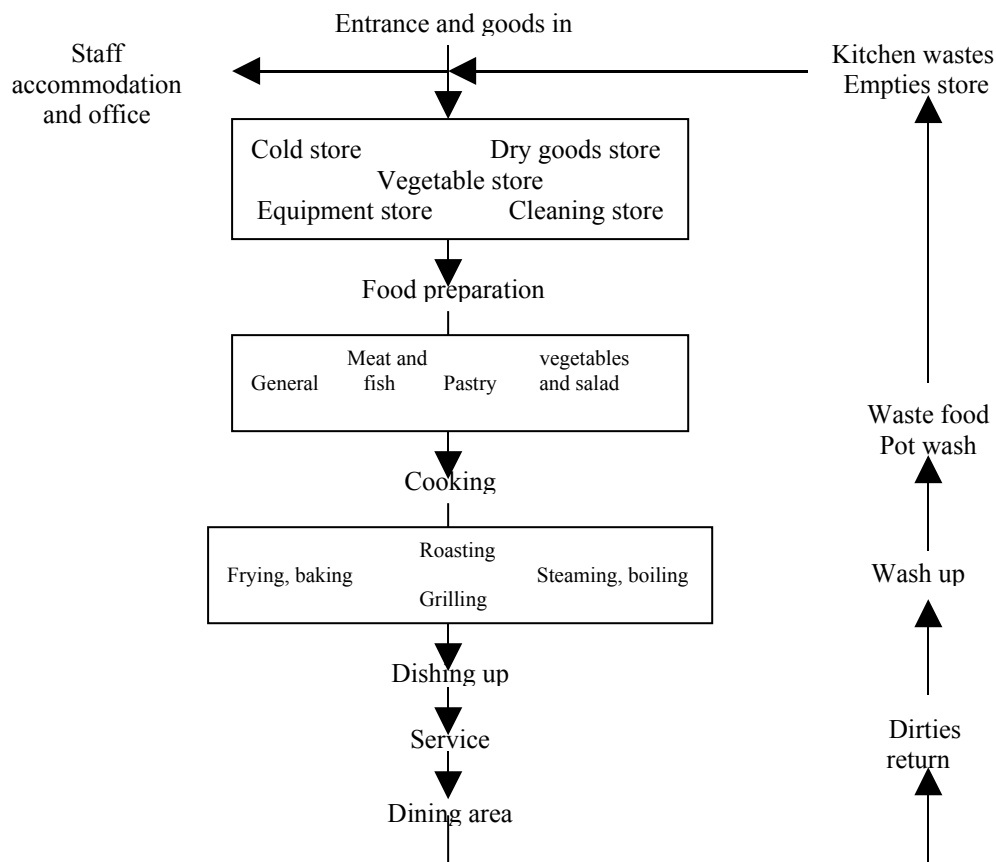
- Products – Raw material to finished product
- Personnel – How people move within the kitchen: for example, staff working in dirty areas (areas of contamination) should not enter areas of finished products or where blast chilling is taking place.
- Containers/equipment/utensils – Equipment should where possible, be separated into specific process areas.
- Refuse – Refuse must be kept separated and should not pass into other areas in order to get to its storage destination.
- Product Flow: Each section should be divided into high risk and contaminated sections. High risk food is that which during processing is likely to be easily contaminated. Contaminated food is that which is contaminated on arrival before processing, examples are unprepared vegetables and raw meat. Back tracking or cross-over of materials and product must be avoided.

Work Flow: Food preparation room should be planned to allow a work flow whereby food is processed through the premises from the point of delivery to the point of sale or service with minimum obstruction. The various processes should be separated as far as possible and food intended for sale should not cross paths with waste food or refuse. Staff time is valuable and a design which reduces wasteful journeys is both efficient and cost-effective.

The overall sequence of receiving, storing, preparing, holding, serving and clearing is achieved by:

- Minimum movement
- Maximum use of space
- Maximum use of equipment with minimum expenditure of time and effort.

Fig. 5.1 Work Flow incorporating delivery, storage, preparation, cooking and service



Work Space: Approximately 4.2m (15sq ft) is required per person; too little space can cause staff to work in close proximity to stove, steams, cutting blades, mixers, etc, thus causing accidents. A space of 1.37m (4½ ft) from equipment is desirable and aisles must be adequate to enable staff to move safely. The working area must be suitably lit and ventilated with extractor fans to remove heat, fumes and smells.

Working Sections: The size and style of the menu and the ability of the staff will determine the number of sections and layout that is necessary. A straight line layout would be suitable for a snack bar while an island layout would be more suitable for a hotel restaurant.

Access to Ancillary Areas: A good reviewing area needs to be designed for easy receipt of supplies with nearby storage facilities suitably sited for distribution of foods to preparation and production areas. Hygiene must be considered so that kitchen equipment can be cleaned and all used equipment from the dining area can be cleared, cleaned and stored. Still room facilities may also be required.

Equipment: The type, amount and size of equipment will depend on the type of menu being provided. Not only should the equipment be suitably situated but the working weight is very important to enable the equipment to be used without excess fatigue. When a kitchen is being planned, standard symbols are used which can be produced on squared paper to provide a scale design. Wash hand facilities and storage of cleaning equipment should not be omitted. Kitchen equipment manufacturers and gas and electricity suppliers can provide details of equipment relating to output and size.

The various preparation processes require different areas depending on what food is involved. A vegetable preparation area means that water from the sinks and dirt from the vegetables are going to accumulate and therefore adequate facilities for drainage should be provided. Pastry preparation on the other hand entails mainly dry processes.

Whatever the processes, there are certain basic rules that can be applied which not only make for easier working conditions but which help to ensure that the food hygiene regulations are complied with.

3.3 Kitchen Layout

3.3.1 Food Preparation Areas

Proper design and layout of the preparation area can make a major contribution to good food hygiene. Staff generally respond to good working conditions by taking more pride in themselves, in their work and in their working environment.

Adequate work space must be provided for each process and every effort must be made to separate dirty and clean processes. Vegetable preparation and wash up areas should be separated from the actual food preparation and service areas. The layout must ensure a continuous work flow in one direction in order that cross-over of foods and any cross-contamination is avoided. The staff should not hamper each other by having to cross each other's paths more than is absolutely necessary.

Actual work-top areas should be adequate in size for the preparation process and should be so designed that the food handler has all equipment and utensils close to hand.

Accommodation must be based on operational need. The layout of the kitchen must focus on the working and stores area, and the equipment to be employed. These areas must be designed and based on the specification of the operation.

Kitchens can be divided into sections: these must be based on the process:

1. Dry areas: for storage.
2. Wet areas: for fish preparation, vegetable preparation, butchery and cold preparation.
3. Hot wet areas: - for boiling, poaching, steaming. Equipment needed will include:
 - a. Atmospheric steamers
 - b. Pressure steamers
 - c. Combination oven
 - d. Bratt pans
 - e. Steam jacketed boilers.
4. Hot dry areas: For frying, roasting, grilling. Equipment needed will include:
 - a. Cool zone fryers
 - b. Salamanders
 - c. Pressure fryers
 - d. Induction cookers
 - e. Bratt pans
 - f. Halogen cookers
 - g. Roasting ovens
 - h. Microwave ovens
 - i. Charcoal grills
 - j. Cook and hold ovens
5. Dirty areas: for refuse, pot wash areas, plate wash. Equipment needed will include:
 - a. Compactors
 - b. Dish washers
 - c. Refuse storage units
 - d. Glass washers
 - e. Pot washing machine

Size of Kitchen and Food Preparation Areas

Size is determined also by purpose and function.

1. The operation is based on the menu and the market it is to service
2. The design and equipment is based on the market

3. Consideration must be given to the management policy on buying raw materials. Choice will determine kitchen plans on handling raw materials.

Prepared food will require different types of equipment and labour requirements compared to partly prepared food.

Examples of prepared food are soups, cook/chill cook/freeze and prepared sweets. Examples of partly prepared food are peeled and cut vegetables, convenience sauces and soups, portioned fish/meat. Examples of raw state food examples are unprepared vegetables, meat which requires butchering and fish requiring filleting and portioning.

Consideration must also be given to the service policy on using all plate service or a mixture of plate and silver service or self service, and how all these will affect the volume and type of dish washing.

Planning and Layout of the Cooking Area

Because “raw materials” enter the cooking section from the main preparation areas (vegetables, meat and fish, dry goods), this section will be designed with a view to continuing the flow movement through to the servery. To this end, roasting for example, is best sited close to the meat preparation area and the steamers adjacent to the vegetable preparation area.

Layout is not, however just a question of equipment sitting and selection, much depends on the type of management policy on the use of prepared foods and operating cycle. Clearly the working section should contain no through traffic lanes, used by other staff to travel from one section to another. The layout should be so planned that raw food stuffs arrive at one point, are processed in the cooking section and are then dispatched to the servery. There should be a distinctive progression in one direction.

As with other areas, the cooking section should be designed with a view to making maximum use of the available area and to provide economy of effort in use.

Island Groupings

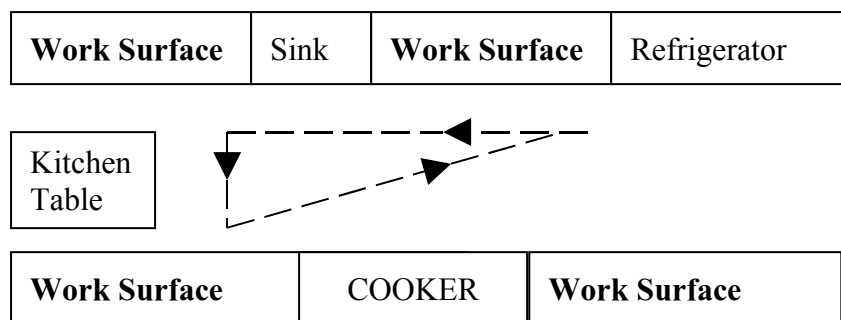
In an island arrangement, equipment is placed back-to-back in the center of the coking area. There should be sufficient space to allow for this, including gangways around the equipment and space to place other items along the walls.

Wall Sitting

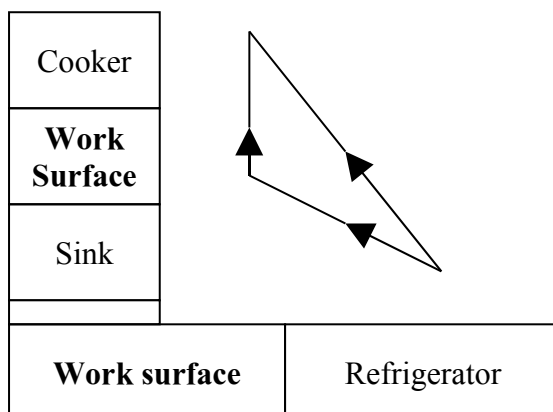
An alternative arrangement involves sitting equipment along walls. This arrangement is possible when travel distances are reduced and it normally occurs in smaller premises (or section thereof).

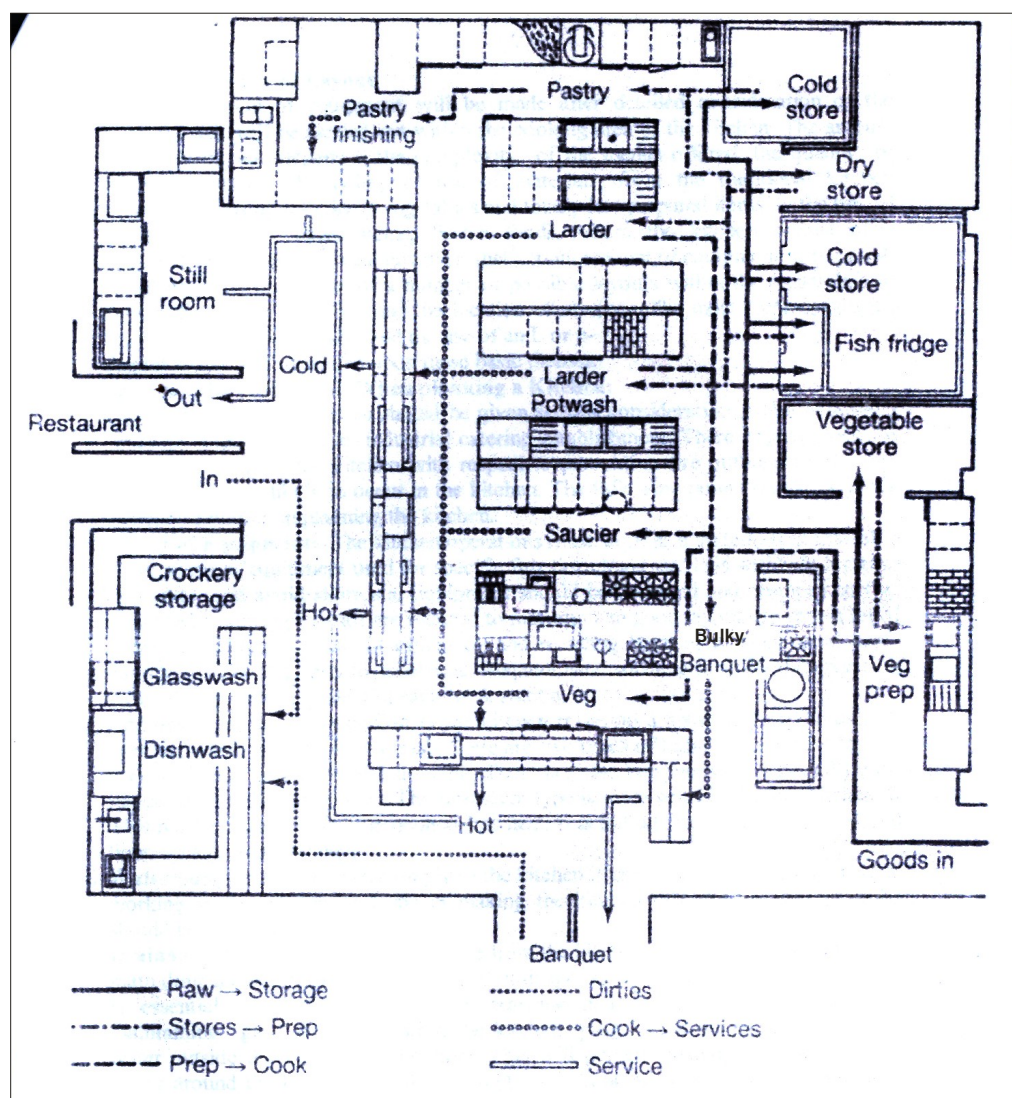
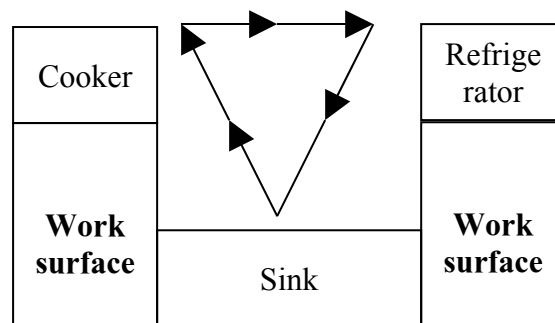
The L- or U-Shaped Layouts

L- or U-shaped arrangements create self-contained sections that discourage entry by non-authorised staff and can promote efficient working with distances reduced between work centres. When planning the layout of the cooking section, the need to allow sufficient space for access to every equipment such as ovens should be borne in mind. Opening doors creates an arc that cannot be reduced and the operators must have sufficient room for comfortable and safe access. It is likely also that trolleys will be used for loading and unloading ovens or rolling tables drawn into position in front of the oven.



L – Shaped



U-shaped*Design for a Well-Planned Basic kitchen***Fig. 5.2 The Parallel Kitchen**

3.3.2 The Choice of Layout

A section of equipment will be made after detailed consideration of the functions that will be carried out within the cooking area of the kitchen. The amount of equipment will depend on the complexity of the menus offered, the quantity of meals served and the policy of use of materials, from the traditional kitchen organisation using only fresh vegetables and totally less prepared items, to the use of prepared foods, chilled items, frozen foods, where the kitchen consists of a regeneration unit only. Given, however, that a certain amount of equipment is required, the planner has the choice of a number of possible layouts within the constraints of the building shape and size, and the location of services. The most common are the island groupings, wall sitting and the use of an L or u- shaped layout and variations upon these basic themes.

Factors to be Considered When Planning a Kitchen

The need to plan the kitchen should be given serious consideration when building a house or when building an industrial catering establishment. There is great need for careful planning of the kitchen with respect to preventing fire outbreaks and other kinds of accident, that are likely to occur in the kitchen. The following points should be given due consideration in planning the kitchen.

Sitting of Equipment: The kitchen operations must work as a system. It is advisable to site items of equipment used for specific functions together. This will help increase efficiency and avoid shortcuts. Equipment should be designed and arranged so that lifting and carrying by staff are reduced to the minimum. A good layout can save a lot of money by increasing labour efficiency and reducing breakages. Wash-hand basin must be sited strategically to encourage frequent hand washing in all food preparation areas. One should be evident at each work station.

Lighting System: All operations in the kitchen rely on a great deal on the use of the eyes so, proper lighting is essential. There are two types of lights. The natural light is very important especially to our health. There are also two types of artificial lights: florescent and filament (bulb). The florescent type is more suitable for the kitchen. It does not form shadow and it generates less heat. It is not advisable to have a coloured light system in the kitchen.

Water Supply: A good water supply to the kitchen is essential for efficient and quick working in the kitchen. It helps in making the kitchen tidy. The supply of water should be continuous.

Drainage: Drainage is where used water from the kitchen sink can pass through to the main drainage out of the kitchen. A good drainage system running across the kitchen is essential to facilitate scrubbing, washing and drainage floor. Apart from maintaining good drainage within the kitchen, proper channelisation of the used water outside the kitchen is important. This will prevent development of offensive odour around the kitchen and also prevent easy contamination of food. A sieve or metal gauze must be placed over the sink outlet, to prevent its blockage. The kitchen drainage should be constructed in such a way that it can easily be reached by the plumbers. This will make easy for clearing in case of blockage.

Ventilation: Good ventilation contributes to the maintenance of comfort in the kitchen. Adequate provision must be made for cross-ventilation to get rid of the heat generated during the cooking process. Good ventilation will help to prevent the development of undesirable odour, keep the temperature in the kitchen conducive to the working processes and prevent the development of high humidity, generated by steam emanating from cooking. Adequate ventilation can be enhanced by the installation of hoods and extractor fans. The hood is usually erected over the cooking equipment. It helps to extract the heat generated by the equipment. Extractor fans are usually installed at strategic positions in the kitchen. However, they should not be close to the fire for obvious reasons. All the openings like windows and doors should be protected with good mosquito nets to reduce entrance of flies, insects and other foreign objects which are pathogenic to the food items.

Walls: The walls should be strong, impervious and easy to clean. They should have good paint preferably light coloured. The corners should be sharp in order not to harbour dust and dirt.

The Floor: It should be made of concrete, or terrazzo or even tiled. It must not be too slippery and should be easy to clean. The flooring should be hard wearing, non-absorbent to grease, not easily damaged or discoloured by heat utensils either by cleaning or by weight of heavy equipment, not slippery under normal conditions or when hot. The floor should be reasonably resilient.

The Ceiling: The kitchen ceiling must be free from cracks and flaking. It should not harbour dust and insects. The ceiling should be reasonably far from the fire place and should not absorb moisture. It should be constructed with materials that do not chip easily.

Office and Staff Room: Since kitchen work also requires a bit of administrative work, the chef de cuisine's office should be of adequate proportion, suitably furnished and well placed or positioned so that the

whole of the kitchen operation can be in view. It is necessary to have a room for the kitchen staff, containing toilet facilities. Such a room should be adequately furnished. Individual clothes lockers are very desirable for the kitchen staff who will otherwise deposit their shoes, handbags, etc all over the kitchen.

Entrance: The kitchen entrance should be positioned to permit easy delivery of sacks it should a wide passage way to, facilitate the movement of snacks and bulky packages to their storage areas.

Storage: The food stores should be cool, well ventilated and lighted, with preferably natural light; and free from condensation.

3.3.3 Safety and Care of the Kitchen

The kitchen, by virtue of the activities performed in it, usually contains different types of equipment and utensils. It involves the use of electricity, sharp objects like knives, hot liquid e.g. hot water and frying oil etc. Different types of accidents are therefore likely to occur in the kitchen.

Whoever uses the kitchen must therefore take adequate precautions to circumvent the occurrence of any type of accident.

The following precautions should be taken in the kitchen:

1. Do not wear high heeled shoes in the kitchen to prevent falling.
2. Make sure that spilled liquids on the kitchen floor are mopped up immediately.
3. Peel from food stuff such as bananas, plantain, yam, potatoes etc should not be allowed to litter the floor.
4. Always wear gloves or any hand protector whenever you are removing pots from the cooker or stove.
5. Do not allow children into the kitchen.
6. Make sure that windows in the kitchen are opened to prevent suffocation.
7. Carry out all cuttings in the kitchen on the chopping board to prevent knife cuts
8. Do not place hot water or heated oil carelessly in the kitchen
9. When using an electrical appliance, observe the following precautions:
 - a. Never pull the flex or wire to remove a plug out of the socket
 - b. Always switch off the socket before and after plugging the electric appliance.

- c. If a socket becomes loose from the wall have it repaired at once.
 - d. Do not use too many appliances for one socket
 - e. Replace cracked plugs immediately
 - f. Do not touch switches or plugs with wet hands
 - g. If a plug becomes warm during usage, have it and appliance examined before using again.
 - h. If one appliance “cracks” or “sparks” do not use it until it has been inspected and repaired.
 - i. Never repair a blown fuse – always replace it with a new one
 - j. Check the flex for any exposure of the live wire particularly where it’s attached to the plug or the appliance.
 - k. Do not pin anything e.g. decorations, to the electrical cables.
10. All kitchen utensils, especially glassware should be handled with extreme care.
11. Read and understand the directions about the use of any appliance before using it.

Care of the Kitchen

Both modern and industrial kitchens require good care. Dirty kitchens will attract disease carrying flies which can cause food contaminations.

The following points will assist you in taking care of the kitchen

- 1. Open the windows to air the kitchen.
- 2. Sweep down the cob-web and dust from the ceiling, walls, doors and windows according to types.
- 3. Sweep the floor and food store.
- 4. Clean the sink, drainboard and the wall around it.
- 5. Clean and wipe the stove or cooker thoroughly after use.
- 6. Scrub and mop the floor according to type.
- 7. Empty the dustbin and dispose of all of the refuse properly.
- 8. Scrub the dust bin, rinse thoroughly with water and leave to dry
- 9. Arrange the utensils properly after use.
- 10. Defrost and clean the cooling unit (fridge, freezer, coldroom) when necessary

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

You are required to pay a visit to at least two industrial kitchens in your area. Observe the kitchen layout of the establishment. Draw the kitchen layout and indicate the positions of the kitchen equipment.

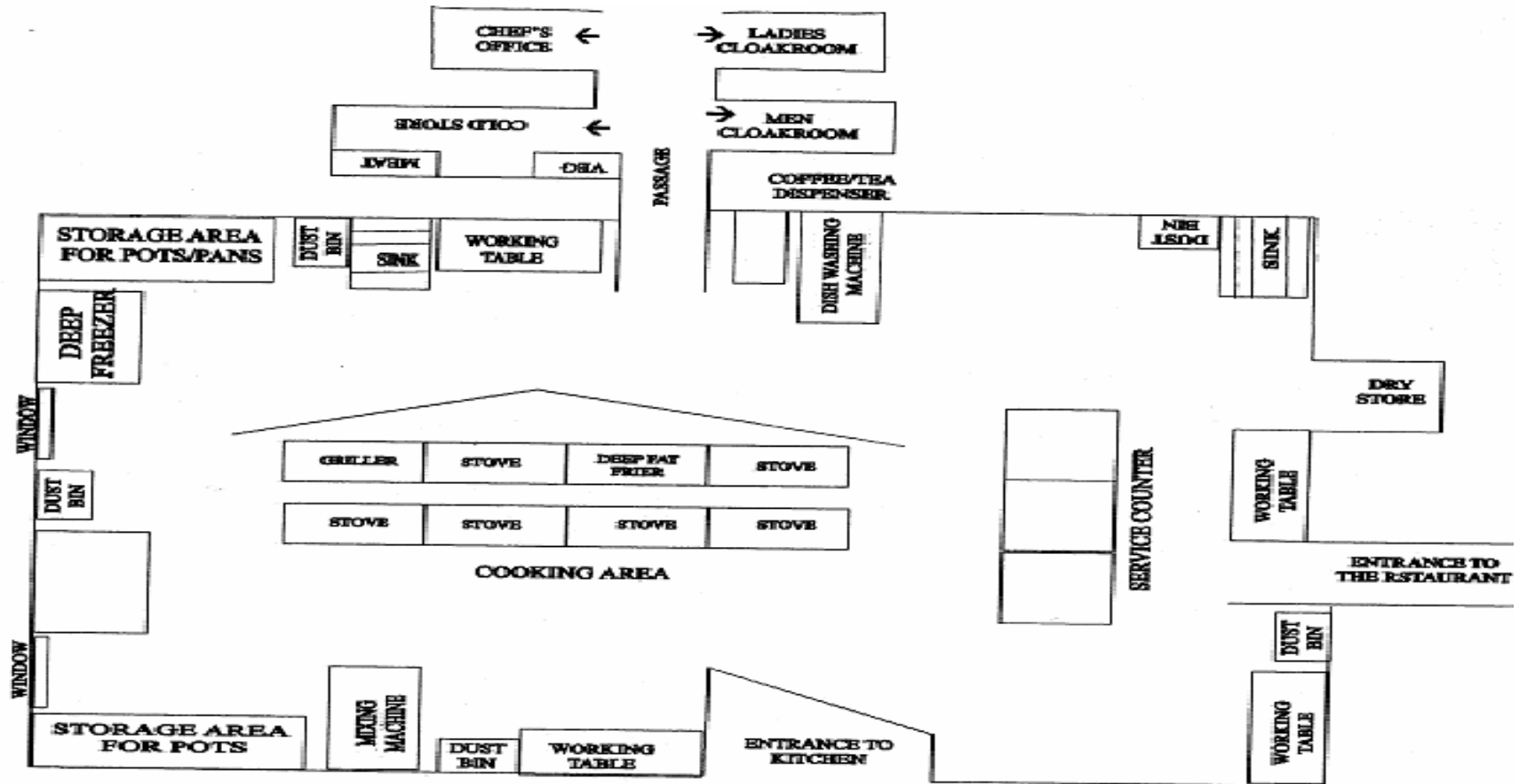
4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit, it has extensively discussed the fact that the kitchen is the nerve centre of the operations in household, hotel catering institutions, where people spend several working hours. It has identified the requirement of the kitchen was as regards the type of food prepared and types of services to be carried out considering the availability of raw materials. Considerable attention was also given to the design and construction of the building and equipment to ensure high standard of sanitation and safety of guests. The unit examined the arrangement and installation of kitchen equipment and the general maintenance of the kitchen.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit shows why it is important to plan the kitchen in a properly in order to enhance the performance of workers, which will lead to the production of high quality food. It also compares the kitchens from the family settings to industrial settings and shows how optimum success can be achieved in meeting the customer's needs and demands, and in making profit.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE



6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Outline the factors that influence kitchen planning and design.
2. State 5 ways in which you can care for the kitchen.

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UNIT 2 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF COOKERY

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Basic Principles of Cookery
 - 3.1.1 Reasons for Cooking Food
 - 3.1.2. Effects of Cooking on Food
 - 3.2 Methods of Cooking.
 - 3.2.1 Cooking in Water
 - 3.2.2 Cooking in Oil (Frying)
 - 3.2.3 Cooking in Dry Heat
 - 3.3 Point to Consider when Choosing a Cooking Method.
 - 3.3.1 Problems Associated with Some Cooking Methods
 - 3.3.2 Advantages of the Cooking Methods
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This course unit is compulsory for all students in Hotel and Catering Management. It centers on the basic method of cooking and outlines the principles that are essential for the attainment of correct results with whatever type of meal that is to be cooked.

Some foods are eaten raw because in this way, we get the maximum food value from them. Man however cannot enjoy eating all his foods raw. The majority of the foods we eat have to be cooked to make them acceptable to the body and easy to digest.

Some methods of cooking has been discovered which are commonly practiced all over the world. These are boiling, frying, stewing, steaming, roasting and baking.

Under the basic principles of cookery, students are required to know why we cook foods, the different methods of cooking, points to consider when choosing a cooking method, problems associated with each of the cooking methods and the advantages of each cooking method.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit course, you should be able to

- Explain reasons why foods are cooked;
- Describe different methods of cooking;
- Identify the various points that should be considered when choosing a cooking method; and
- Prepare different types of meals using the various cooking methods.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Basic Principles of Cookery

Cooking greatly impacts upon the nutritive value of a given food. This explains why this course unit is very important to students in Hotel and Catering Management. Food must be properly cooked before it is eaten. Different food requires different methods of cooking.

The method of cooking can affect the nutritive value of a given food. The way in which the cooked food is served also determines the ease with which it is eaten and the joy derived from eating it.

It is therefore important that students are exposed to the various methods of cooking and the reasons for such cooking methods.

3.1.1 Reasons for Cooking Food

Cooking makes food:

1. Easier to eat, become softer and more digestible.
2. More appetising and palatable.
3. Easier to digest.
4. Safe to eat by destroying any harmful micro-organisms in the food.
5. Keep longer.

Effects of Cooking On Food

Cooking has different effects on different foods:

1. Protein: When protein foods, such as eggs, meat, and fish are cooked, they coagulate or harden and shrink. Further cooking makes them tender and more digestible.

2. Carbohydrate: When starchy foods such as yams, are cooked, the starch grains swell, break up, become softer and more digestible. No one can chew raw yams.
3. Fat & Oils: Fats are normally solid at room temperatures. Upon being heated, heating, they become liquid. Excessive heating causes fats to decompose.
4. Roughage: Roughage forms part of plant foods, it becomes softer and easier to chew and swallow when cooked.
5. Fat-Soluble Vitamins; A and D: They are unaffected by cooking at normal temperature. But the water soluble vitamins B and C are easily lost during cooking.
6. Minerals and Salt: They are not usually destroyed by the cooking process, although some of them undergo chemical changes when heated during cooking. The cooking of iron-rich foods usually increases the ease with which the body can absorb the mineral.

3.2 Methods of Cooking

Cooking methods can be grouped into three, each involving the heating of the food in a specific medium.

- Cooking in water
- Cooking in oil
- Cooking in dry heat

3.2.1 Cooking in Water

Food can be cooked in water through any of the following methods.

1. Boiling

This is the subjection of food to the action of heat in a liquid at 100°C. The state of boiling is determined by a bubbling movement of liquid which may be rapid or gentle. Gentle boiling is referred to as simmering.

Foods cooked by boiling include meat, fish, yam, eggs and some vegetables.

2. Stewing

This method involves cooking food slowly or over low heat in a small quantity of water for a long time. This is the method commonly used in

making soups. Soups involve the use of tough meat and are best cooked gently or at simmering point.

In stewing, a simmering temperature of about 90 – 96°C is maintained but in boiling the temperature of 100°C is reached. For effective stewing:

- a. Food should be cut up into small pieces in order to expose as much surface as possible to heat.
- b. Stewing should be done in a sauce pan with a good lid or cover to prevent loss of flavour and evaporation.

3. Steaming

With this method, the food is cooked in the steam from boiling water and there is no direct contact between the food and the boiling water.

Steaming can be done in the following ways:

- a. The food to be steamed is wrapped in special leaves or aluminum foil and placed them above the boiling water on a platform made from sticks. The water remains under the platform and the pot is tightly covered to prevent the escape of steam.
- b. The food can be steamed in a special steamer. These steamers are made of two or more pans. The lowest or bottom sauce pan is for holding the water while the food is placed into the other.

A colander or special basket can also be used for steaming. The food is placed in the colander which in turn is placed in a pot containing water. The colander should not be in the water. The pot should be tightly covered to prevent the steam from escaping. Food such as steam pudding and moin-moin are steamed.

NOTE: Whichever method of steaming used, the water should be boiling before the food is placed in it and the pot should be fitted with a good lid cover. The boiling water should not be allowed to dry before the pot is refilled and refilling should be done with hot water in order to prevent lowering the steam temperature.

4. Poaching

This is the subjection of food to the action of heat in very little liquid hardly to be seen, held as close to boiling point as possible. Mostly the temperature for poaching is 93 – 95°C; Eggs and fish can be poached.

5. Braising

This is the method of cooking food by a combination of steaming, stewing and roasting in a covered dish. Root vegetables can be cooked by braising.

3.2.2 Cooking in Oil (Frying)

Cooking food in hot oil or fat is referred to as frying. Fry can be done in the following ways:

1. **Shallow Fat Frying:** Food is fried in a little oil or fat. A frying pan is used and the oil just covers the bottom of the pan. Foods that can be cooked by shallow frying include meat, fish, eggs and pancakes.
2. **Sautéing:** This method involves tossing food lightly in a small amount of fat or oil. The food absorbs the oil in which it is being tossed. Sautéing is often the method used in the preliminary cooking of stews and some soups.
3. **Deep Fat Frying:** Foods that are meat to rise or meant to be round are best fried by this method. A deep sauce pan is used and at least half or often over half of the sauce pan is filled with fat. Examples of foods fried with this method are *Akara*, puff-puff, buns, yam balls etc.

A deep fat sauce pan with a frying basket is useful for easy frying. To ensure even browning, the food to be fried can be put in the basket and dipped in the oil at the same time and removed together.

When Frying:

- a. Ensure that the oil is hot enough before putting in the food.
- b. Fry only a small quantity of food at a time; otherwise the temperature of the oil will fall and your product will be poor.
- c. Drain as much water as possible from such foods as meat, fish, and yams before placing them in hot oil.
- d. Do not turn the food frequently when it is frying to avoid breaking. Turning should be done carefully.
- e. Do not cover fried food when it is hot; otherwise, steam will accumulate and make the food soggy or wet.
- f. Fried food should be served hot in order to enjoy its full flavour.

3.2.3 Cooking in Dry Heat

Food can be cooked in dry heat by roasting, baking, grilling and poelering.

1. Roasting:

Roasting is a method of cooking food:

- a. By an open fire or over heated charcoal, e.g. roasted maize and roasted plantain.
- b. In heated sand or ash, e.g. roasted yams, potatoes and cocoyams.
- c. In an oven or an enclosed space with hot fat or oil used as a basting agent, e.g. roasted chicken, large pieces of meat.

Roasting, like frying, browns the surface of food and retains the moisture.

2. Grilling

This is the subjection of food placed on grill bars, to the action of radiated heat. The heat may be directed from above or below. The source of heat may be charcoal, coke, gas or electricity. With the authentic grill the heat source is located below the grill bars. When the source of heat is located above the grill bars, the grilling equipment is usually referred to as a salamander. Grilling is suitable for cooking good quality meat and fish. The fish or meat should be properly seasoned and brushed with fat before grilling.

3. Baking

This is the subjection of food to the action of dry heat in an enclosed space or oven. The degree of dryness of the heat may be modified by the amount of steam produced from the items being baked. Baking can be done in modern gas or electric ovens, clay ovens, or improvised kerosene tins or iron pot ovens. Baking is suitable for making bread, cakes, biscuits, scones and some desserts like egg custard.

When Baking:

- a. The oven must be clean and heated to the correct temperature before putting the food.
- b. Baking sheets and pans must be cleaned and greased properly (before use).
- c. Pans must be properly or evenly distributed in the oven for even circulation of air. Overcrowding of the oven must be avoided.

- d. Avoid frequent opening of the oven. This causes cold air rush in.
- e. Time your baking.

3.3 Points to Consider when Choosing a Cooking Method

Cooking is an art which should be a source of joy to every woman. A number of methods can be employed in preparing a single dish. For instance, to make sauce for yam or rice, it might be necessary to boil the meat, then fry it, and boil rice.

The following points should be considered in selecting suitable cooking methods:

1. The type of food and the desired product determine the type of method to use. For instance, cakes and bread can only be baked.
2. The people to eat the food must be considered in choosing a cooking method. e.g. only methods that produce easily digested food should be used for children, the aged, the invalids and convalescents.
3. Time available also determines the method to be used. Some methods are more time-consuming than others.
4. The cooking facilities or equipment must be considered in choosing a cooking method. When ovens are unavailable and cannot be improvised, baking would be impossible.
5. The skill of the cook or caterer determines the method she will use. The cook will always tend to use only those methods with which she is familiar. It is necessary to experiment with unfamiliar methods. Cookery books can be useful.

3.3.1 Problems Associated with some Cooking Methods

There are recognised problems associated with some of the cooking methods:

1. **Boiling**
 - a. Some food nutrients, such as water soluble vitamins and some minerals can be lost in the boiling water.
 - b. Boiling can spoil the colour and flavour of the food.
 - c. Boiling can be time-consuming.

2. Stewing

- a. It is a long and slow method of cooking.
- b. It requires more attention than boiling, to ensure that the food does not burn.
- c. The prolonged cooking involved in stewing can destroy some food nutrients such as vitamin C in fruits and vegetables.

3. Braising

- a. Braised food can be greasy unless excess fat is removed.

4. Frying

- a. Frying requires careful and constant attention.
- b. It is only suitable for soft foods.
- c. Fried foods are less easily digested. It is therefore not suitable for cooking foods for invalids and convalescents.
- d. Fried foods become greasy and unappetizing when cold.

5. Roasting

- a. Roasting in open fire requires constant attention.
- b. Food tends to shrink during roasting.
- c. Tough foods cannot be successfully cooked by roasting.

6. Grilling

- a. It requires careful and constant attention.
- b. Only fine-fibred meat which is often can be cooked by grilling.

7. Baking

- a. It requires constant attention.
- b. It also requires careful temperature control.

3.3.2 Advantages of the Cooking Methods

The advantages of the cooking methods are as follows:

1. Boiling

- a. It is an easy quick method of cooking.
- b. It does not require constant attention.

- c. It makes food soft and easy to digest. It is therefore suitable for cooking foods for children, invalids, convalescents, and the aged.
- d. Many types of food can be cooked in this way.
- e. Liquid obtained after boiling can be used for soups and sauces.

2. Stewing

- a. The nutrients of stewed foods are conserved. What escapes into the broth is served with the food, thus nothing is lost.
- b. It enables the flavours of food to be retained.
- c. By the slow moist heating or simmering, tough foods such as tough pieces of meat dried meat and roughage in plants are made tender and easy to digest.
- d. Stewing makes protein coagulates without over-hardening.
- e. It does not require excessive heat, thus less fuel may be consumed.

3. Steaming

- a. Steamed foods are easily digested. It is therefore, a suitable method for preparing meals for children, invalids and pregnant women.
- b. There is no loss of food nutrients into cooking water.
- c. It is an economical method of cooking because more than one dish can be cooked in the same steamer at the same time.
- d. It is not common to overcook foods by the steaming method.

4. Braising

- a. It can be used to soften tough tissues of cheaper cuts of meats.
- b. It can be used to develop a good flavour in food.
- c. The liquid in which the food is being cooked can be served; e.g. gravy.
- d. It is a simple method of cooking which does not require much attention.

5. Frying

- a. It is the quickest method of cooking.
- b. Frying produces foods that look appetising

6. Roasting

- a. Roasting develops good flavour in food
- b. Roasting in oven requires little attention

- c. Roasting by open the fire is an easy method of cooking and it consumes less time.
- d. Some food items cook faster by roasting than by boiling. An example is maize.

7. Grilling

- a. It is a quick method of cooking
- b. Grilled foods can digest easily.

8. Baking

- a. It develops good flavour in foods.
- b. Many foods can be baked at once, thereby saving fuel.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the effects of cooking on: (1) Protein (2) Carbohydrates, (3) water soluble vitamins.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We discussed to a good extent the basic principle of cookery, methods of cooking, reasons for cooking, the points to consider when choosing a cooking method and the effect of cooking of foods.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit treats why foods are cooked and various cooking methods, the problems associated with each cooking method, points to consider in choosing any cooking method and the advantages and disadvantages of each of the cooking methods.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Effect of cooking on:

1. Protein

When protein foods, such as eggs, meat and fish are cooked, they coagulate or harden and shrink. Further cooking makes meat tender and more digestible.

2. Carbohydrates

When starchy foods such as yam are cooked, the starch grains swell, break up, becomes softer and more digestible.

3. Water Soluble Vitamins

Water soluble vitamins B and C are easily lost during cooking.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. List five points you must consider when choosing a cooking method.
2. Describe any two suitable methods for cooking foods for children, invalids and the aged.

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UNIT 3 CONVENIENCE FOODS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Convenience foods are largely but not wholly a recent development in catering, as the word “convenience” encompasses a wide range of prepared and partly prepared food. This means that certain stages or steps in the process have been eliminated thus, less labour is required in their preparation.

A dictionary definition of convenience is “fit to use”, handy, suitable, not troublesome, what suits one.

The unqualified person may think of convenience food as “those in packets” whilst others may include tinned food(s) which do not require cooking. The range of convenience food available to the caterer is expanding all the time, as new technology becomes available to food manufacturers, and as there continues to be an increased demand for a wide variety of products from the caterer.

The final definition given to convenience food is “Those foods which saves the caterers’ work” and require a range of skills for their preparation and service.

The caterer must make a full assessment of what product would be suitable to use in specific situations. Whether the customers will accept the product for preparation and service will also have to be reviewed because of its very importance.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of convenience food and the various categories available;
- Describe the various factors to be considered when deciding on; convenience food and identify their merits and demerits;
- Explain the different types of convenience food.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Convenience Food

Convenience foods are those foods which are completely or partly prepared by the manufacturers. They are therefore, easy or convenient to use, they need little or no preparation before eating Convenience food. It could also be defined a semi-prepared food or wholly prepared food, which makes work in the kitchen neat and easy to do. Examples of convenience foods are Geisha, Sardine, Cornflakes, readymade jollof rice and taste cheese (a mixture of sugar and flour). Convenience food can go with snacks or main dishes, as there are some which cannot be eaten alone. They have to go with other dishes. Examples are sardine and bread.

However, convenience food can be categorised into canned and bottled foods, dried foods, packet foods and dry mixes, frozen foods and portion controlled food e.g. butter portions and cheese portions.

3.1.1 Canned and Bottled Foods

Most canned and bottled foods have been subjected to a heating process in which sterilization has taken place. They are therefore partly cooked and require less or no cooking before serving. They are usually ready for service and so no preparation work is required. They can be stored in a normal, cool, dry store and have the advantage of always being available for use in an emergency. Cans can often be kept in a good store for many months without any danger of deterioration.

3.1.2 Dried Foods

We would suggest that dried food can fall under three categories:

1. Those which are dried to produce a special item of food. In this, we would list currants and other dried fruits. They are never reconstituted to form the original fruit, but are used in their dried form. It could be argued that these are not properly classified under convenience food.
2. Those which, in the drying process produce a food which is rather different from original one. These would include such items as marrow fat-peas, butter and lima beans, primes etc. They are readily prepared for use and after the appropriate soaking, can often be used in the same way as they could when fresh. However, the resultant product is not the same as the original one.
3. Dehydrated and accelerated freeze dried foods. These are processed in such a manner that all of the original flavour, texture and eating quality are retained. They usually required a shorter cooking period than the fresh item and require no preparation before cooking other than to add the water in which they are to be cooked. In the case of many brands of dried potato, the only work required is to add boiling water and whisk for a short time to produce mashed potatoes. Many of the accelerated freeze dried vegetables are of high quality and can be used in a great many catering situations, as a large variety of vegetables can be stored for a lengthy period.

Another type of foods which are dehydrated or subjected to AFD processing are soups and beverages. Various methods of dehydration are used in processing them. The soup or beverage is made from the original ingredients and then the water content is extracted in various ways, often using a vacuum pan so as to avoid damage to the dish. In some cases, a short cooking period is required and in some, none at all. All of these are comparatively recent development in food production

3.1.3 Packet Foods and Dry Mixes

The main foods under this heading are various soup powders and sauce, mixes cake, pudding, scone and pastry mixes. Their use is divided into two different categories.

1. Soup Powders and Sauce Mixes

Powders from which soup and sauces can be made by the addition of liquids have been in use for many years. The powders are made and the required flavourings added. Sometimes, the recipe would include a proportion of the named commodity in its dried form. In others, the flavour only will be added. The cooking period varies with these dishes. A modern development is the use of processed starches which require less cooking and thus, enable the product to be made into soup or sauce within a few minutes. At other times, a longer period of cooking, up to 20 or 30 minutes is required. The advantage of these items, (in addition to the obvious saving in labour and time over the preparation from a traditional recipe) is that the flavour is always constant even with different members of staff undertaking the task on different days. When prepared carefully and with full attention paid to detail a very good dish can be produced.

2. Cake, Pudding and Pastry Mixes

These are made from the ingredients which would normally be used in the original recipe. Eggs and meats are often added in dried form. All the instructions printed on the package may indicate that these should be added as the mixing is being done. The price should reflect this point. They are designed for use in general kitchen work where no pastry chef or baker is employed for this specialised purpose. They enable a cook who does not have the high skill of the patissier to undertake this work and obtain good results. They are different from most of the other convenience food because they require exactly the same cooking period as would the same dish made from the basic ingredients. Their advantage is that small quantities of food, even down to single portions can be made easily and without any error too. Their disadvantages, is that there is often a tendency to purchase large numbers of different mixes in powdered form with the result that a large storage area will be required to store them. A final point is that experienced cooks or bakers can vary the pastry, cake or pudding mixes at will to produce items suitable for use in any situation.

3. Prepared Custard Powders

The corn flour is mixed with colour, flavour, sugar and milk powder. When required all that needs to be added is boiling water to produce custard ready for service.

3.1.4 Frozen Foods

These are used in many establishments and they provide a very good supply of easily prepared commodities. The food is prepared ready for cooking and is often blanched in the preparation process, and so a shorter cooking period is required. While some can be used straight from the storage unit, others require a period of thawing before use. In the vast majority of frozen foods, single portions may be easily used without the need to prepare a larger quantity of the dish. Great use is being made of this type of food in those establishments with a large menu choice frozen food are possibly the most common convenience foods used in the catering industry today. Full prepared meals or dishes are also available in frozen form.

3.2 Factors to be considered if Convenience Food are to be Used

The factors to be considered if convenience foods are to be used are many and are as follows:

1. **LABOUR** – Using convenience food reduces labour.
2. **TIME** - Convenience foods are helpful because the time required between starting production and presenting the dish to be eaten requires specification.
3. **QUALITY** - The quality should be comparable with that of fresh foods
4. **Space** - Where to keep the convenience foods should be considered. For example deep freezers would be needed to store chickens.
5. **Convenience** - How convenient is the convenience food?

Before use	-	Apply it or use it
During use	-	How does it look like and how appealing?
After use	-	Its convenience, did you get the value?
6. **Hygiene** – the material must be hygienic.
7. **Cost** – Is it affordable? Is it overly expensive?

3.2.1 Advantages of Convenience Food

1. It reduces movement in the kitchen since all the materials to be used are already made.

2. It saves time in preparation and cooking. Besides, there is little washing up to do. For example a beef stew that should take 30 minutes to prepare and perhaps hours to cook, takes only a few minutes to remove from a can and heat on a stove.
3. It provides adequate nutrition.
4. The shelf life of convenience food is higher than that of fresh foods.
5. It helps to control portioning. Portion control is standardised.
6. It saves labour.
7. It is easy to prepare.
8. It requires little skill in preparation and cooking.
9. It is easy to carry home from market.
10. The quality is consistent.
11. It adds variety to the food.
12. It can be stored in a cupboard for long periods.
13. There is no waste.
14. It can easily be served as refreshment for visitors.

3.2.2 Disadvantages of Convenience Food

1. It is very expensive.
2. Some types may be poisonous.
3. Some lack flavour, they are untreated and should be used with discretion.
4. Vitamins and minerals may be lost during processing.
5. A lot of convenience foods are not available in Nigeria.
6. It may be packed half-way; e.g. Semovita.

7. It makes housewives lazy.

3.3 Types of Convenience Foods

1. Basic Level of Convenience

The basic stages have been completed such as in peeled potatoes or carrots; but slicing, chopping or dicing still has to be carried out.

2. Pre-Assembly Convenience

All the basic stages have been completed, together with dicing, chopping, slicing etc.

3. Pre-Service Convenience

The products only have to undergo minimal processing prior to service, such as defrosting prior to service (gateaux), or defrosting followed by cooking and service. The products may simply have to be cooked for a relatively short period in a conventional oven or a microwave oven.

4. Full-Service Convenience

This is where all the products are ready to be served when nothing more (in certain cases) is required than opening a box or can.

A guide to convenience food is shown below:

Table Fig. 7.1 A Guide to Convenience Food

Type	Packaged items where food is cooked or prepared	Beverages	Packaged items where food is not cooked or fully prepared.
Full Convenience	Butter portions, jam portions, slices of bread potted, shumps gateaux salad dressings.	Fruit juices	Frozen fruits
Pre-Service Convenience	Ice cream, canned fruit, canned meats, canned soup, fruit pies.	Tea bags, liquid coffee	Frozen fruit.
Pre-Cooking	Canned steak,		Uncooked

Convenience	dehydrated soup sausage rolls, fish fingers croquettes.		frozen pies, pastries, bread crumbed scampi, scallops, portioned meat, supreme of chicken
Pre-Assembly Convenience	Canned steak, frozen pastry, fruit pie fillings, pastry products	Ground coffee	Sponge mixes Pastry mixes, Unfrozen scampi, Fish fillets, portioned meat.
Basic Convenience.		Coffee beans (to be ground)	Peeled vegetables, dried fruits, jointed meats, mince meat, sausages.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- i. Make a market survey of various types of convenience food in your locality.
- ii Group them into various categories.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Convenience foods are foods that save the caterer's time and labour and at the same time add variety to food. There are various categories and types of convenience food. Convenience food is a recent development in catering and it aids food preparation.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit treats the definition of convenience food. It also explains different categories convenience food and such as basic level of convenience, pre-assembly convenience, pre-service convenience and full service convenience. It also examines the factors to be considered if convenience foods are to be used; their advantages and disadvantages.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Various types of convenience food in our locality.

Sardine, Geisha, tin tomatoes, Ketchup (tomato), starkest, canned fruits, frozen chicken, plantain chips, vegetables, green peas, soup powder, smoked fish, cake. Fresh fish. custard, cornflakes, dehydrated soup, canned meat, baked beans, pastry mixes, sponge mixes, frozen fruit, butter portions, jam portions, cake, pudding, dried potato, beverage.

2. Various Categories of convenience food.

- a. Frozen foods: - Frozen chicken, frozen fruit. frozen pastry, frozen chips.
- b. Packet food and dry mixes: Pastry mixes, sponge mixes, custard powder, cake mixes, pudding mixes, cornflakes.
- c. Dehydrated and accelerated freeze dried food: Dehydrated soup, dried potato, dried vegetables, beverage.
- d. Portion controlled food: Jam portions, butter portions, cheese portions.
- e. Canned and bottled food: Sardine, geisha, starkfish, tomato ketchup, tinned tomato, canned fruit, corned beef, baked beans, luncheon meat.
- f. Dried foods: Currants, fish, fruits, prawns, butter and lima beans, peas.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.
 - a. What is convenience food?
 - b. What factors would you consider when using convenience food in the hotel establishment?
2. Enumerate the advantages and the disadvantages of convenience food.

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UNIT 4 PORTION CONTROL

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit treats portion control. This means controlling the sizes or quantity of food to be served to each customer. The amount of the food allowed depends on the type of customer or establishment; the quality of the food; and the buying price of the food. Portion control should be closely linked with the buying of the food. Without a good knowledge of the food bought it is difficult to state fairly how many portions should be obtained from it. To evolve a sound system of portion control each establishment (or type of establishment) needs individual consideration. A golden rule should be “A fair portion for a fair price”.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the meaning of portion control and the various factors to be considered when deciding on the portion sizes to serve;
- Identify the various equipment used for controlling portion sizes;
- Describe portion control methods; and
- Explain how to control the preparation of food and beverages.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Portion Control and Determinants of Portion Sizes

One of the sources of income of a hotel is the sales of food. Food sold has to be costed. The basis of costing food or dish(es) is the portion size. The cost of each dish has to be decided by the management. Once the size is decided, there must be portion control so that the basis of food costing is not invalidated. The portion size must be fair. It must be up to the value of money paid for it. Except this is done, there will be loss of good will from customers. As earlier mentioned, portion control means controlling the portion or sizes of food to be served to each customer.

3.1.1 Determinants of Portion Sizes

The following are the determinants of portion sizes in the hotel industry.

1. Type of Customers Catered For

The type of customers catered for affects portion size. Laborers or green collar workers, should be served large portions. This type of people would normally eat basic food items with little variety. The food portions for white collar workers are relatively smaller since they will normally prefer a menu with varieties.

2. Types of Menu and Varieties in Menu

With basic food, portion sizes of the constituent dishes are smaller or average.

3. Price Charge on Menu

The price charge on menu is a function of portion sizes. If the quality of menu remains the same, then the higher the price charged, the large the size of the portion and vice versa. This is economically rational.

4. Cost of Ingredients Used

The cost of ingredients used affects portion size. If the quantity of a dish remains the same, then the higher the cost of ingredients used the costlier the portion size becomes and vice-versa, provided the hotel or restaurants maintain the same level of profitability on the dish

5. Agreement between Clients and the Hotel for Special Functions

An agreement between clients and the hotel during special functions affects the size of the portion served to the guests. The client and the

hotel have to agree on what should constitute the portion sizes of the dishes to serve. These portion sizes, together with the variety in the menu and scope of activities the client wants the hotel to perform, will be the basis of costing and the eventual charge of the client.

6. Customer Turn Over

Sometimes, the customer turnover in some of the hotels and restaurants can affect the portion sizes of some dishes. For instance, the presence of a large number of people in a canteen or restaurant may cause the proprietress of the canteen or restaurant to reduce the portion size of some dishes, if she knows that maintaining the standard portion size will prevent result in a scarcity of the dishes. The intention here is to maintain some good will with customers. If such practice of reducing, portion size during peak periods continues in an establishment, it may lead to the loss of good will when guests realize what is happening.

7. Customers' Purchasing Power

The size of the portion of a dish will depend on how much the customers can pay. Customers' purchasing power is considered by a hotel as an important factor when fixing the prices of food. The prices in turn, are affected by the size of the portions served. The larger the portions, the higher the prices, all other factors being constant. Since customers can not spend more than their purchasing power, portion sizes must be fixed at what the customers can afford.

8. Competition

Competition among hotels has not been considered with all seriousness in this country. This is because of the large demand, and the relatively low supply of hotel products and services in the country. However, competition should be considered as a factor that will definitely, in future, affect the portion sizes of dishes. For instance, if the portion sizes of dishes in a restaurant are small relative to the portion size of dishes in another restaurant, most customers tend to move to the latter. With the passage of time, competition among hotels will be a determinant of portion sizes.

3.1.2 Equipment for Portion Control

Some of the equipment for portion control are:

- Scoops, for ice-cream or mashed potatoes.
- Ladles, for soups and sauces.
- Butter pat machines, regulating pats from 7g upwards.

- Fruit juice glasses, 75 – 150g.
- Soup plates or bowls, 14, 16, 17, 18cm.
- Milk dispensers and tea-measuring machines.
- Individual pie dishes, pudding basins, moulds and coupes.
- Some others are scales, slicing machines, graded scoops and measuring jugs.

3.1.3 Portion Amounts

The following list is of the approximate number of portions that are obtainable from various foods:

- Soup: 2-3 portions to the ½ litre.
- Hors-d'oeuvre: 120-180g per portion.
- Smoked salmon: 16-20 portions to the kg when bought by the side; 20-34 portions to the kg when bought sliced.
- Shellfish cocktail: 16-20 portions per kg.
- Melon: 2-8 portions per melon, depending on the type of melon.
- Foie gras: 15-30g per portion.
- Caviar: 15-30g per portion.

1. Fish

- Plaice, cod, haddock fillet 8 portions to the kg
- Cod and haddock on the bone 6 portions to the kg
- Plaice, turbot, brill, halibut, on the bone 4 portions to the kg
- Herring and trout 1 per portion (180-250g fish)
- Mackerel and whiting 250-360g fish
- Sole for main dish 300-360g fish
- Sole for filleting 500-750g best size
- Whitebait 8-10 portions to the kg
- Salmon (gutted, but including head and bone) 4-6 portions to the kg
- Crab or lobster 250-360g per portion
- (A 500g lobster yields about 150g meat; a 1 kg lobster yields about 360g meat).

2. Sauces

8 – 12 portions to ½ litre:

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------|
| • Hollandaise | • Custard |
| • Béarnaise | • Apricot |
| • Tomato | • Jam |
| • Any demi-glace, reduced stock or | • Chocolate |

just-lie

10 – 14 portions to 1.2 litre:

Apple, cranberry, bread

15 – 20 portions to 1 1/2 litre:

Tartare, vinaigrette, mayonnaise

3. Meats

Beef

- Roast boneless 6-8 portions per kg
- Boiled or braised 6-8 portions per kg
- Stews, puddings and pies 6-10 portions per kg
 - Rump 120-250g per one portion
 - Sirloin 120-250g per one portion
 - Tournedos 90-120g per one portion
 - Fillet 120-180 per one portion

Offal

- Ox-liver 8 portions to the kg
- Sweetbread 6-8 portions per kg
- Sheep's kidney 2 per portion
- Ox-tongue 4-6 portions per kg

Lamb

- Leg 6-8 portions to the kg
- Shoulder boned and stuffed 6-8 portions to the kg
- Loin and best-end 6 portions to the kg
- Stewing lamb 4-6 portions to the kg
- Cutlet 90-120g
- Chop 120-180g

Pork

- Leg 8 portions to the kg
- Shoulder 6-8 portions to the kg
- Lion on the bone 6-8 portions to the kg
- Pork chop 180 – 250g

Ham

- Hot 8-10 portions to the kg
- Cold 10-12 portions to the kg
- Sausages are obtainable 12, 16 or 20 to the kg
- Chipolatas yield approximately 32 or 48 to the kg
- Cold meat 16 portions to the kg
- Streak bacon 32-40 rashers to the kg
- Back bacon 24-32 rashers to the kg

Poultry

- Poussin 8 portion 360g (1 bird)
2 portions 750g (1 bird)
- Ducks and chickens 360g per portion
- Geese and boiling fowl 360g per portion
- Turkey 250g per portion

4. Vegetables

- New potatoes 8 portions to the kg
- Old potatoes 4-6 portions to the kg
- Cabbage 6-8 portions to the kg
- Turnips 6-8 portions to the kg
- Parsnips 6-8 portions to the kg
- Swedes 6-8 portions to the kg
- Brussels sprouts 6-8 portions to the kg
- Tomatoes 6-8 portions to the kg
- French beans 6-8 portions to the kg
- Cauliflower 6-8 portions to the kg
- Spinach 4 portions to the kg
- Peas 4-6 portions to the kg
- Runner beans 6 portions to the kg

3.2 Methods of Purchasing

There are three main methods for buying, each depending on the size and volume of the business.

- **The Primary Market:** Raw materials may be purchased at the source of supply, the farmer, producer or manufacturer, or from

central markets. Some establishments or large organisations will have a buyer who will buy directly from the primary markets. Also, a number of smaller establishments may adopt this method for some of their needs (the chef patron may buy his fish, meat and vegetables directly from the market).

- **The Secondary Market:** Goods are bought wholesale from a distributor or middle man; the catering establishment will pay wholesale prices and obtain possible discounts.
- **The Tertiary Market:** The retail or cash and carry warehouse is a method suitable for small companies. A current pass obtained from the warehouse is required in order to gain access. This method also requires the user to have his or her own transport.

3.2.1 Portion Control Methods

The methods of portion control include the following:

1. Preparation of standard recipe.
2. Instructing the staff on the correct use of portion control equipment.
3. Regular spot checks on the food being served for portion charts.
4. Display of portion charts.
5. Comparing the expected portions of a dish with the actual portions of the dish served.

1. Standard Recipe

The standard recipe prepared should be used every time so that there will be consistency in the weight and quality of the portion sizes prepared. Except this is done, portion sizes are most likely going to be out of control.

2. Instructing Staff on the Correct Use of Portion Control Equipment

Staff should be well trained on the correct use of portion control equipment. Lack of adequate training in this regard always leads to serving oversized or undersized portions. The implication of these things to both customers and the caterers are important for the survival of the business.

3. Regular Spot Checks

Another method of controlling portion sizes is by the supervisor or manager having a regular spot check of the portion sizes served in the restaurant. With this, those concerned with the portioning of the dishes will be careful in doing so, since they are aware of such checks.

4. Display of Portion Charts

Portion charts showing the standard portion sizes of the dishes can be displayed to help in controlling the portion sizes of the dishes.

5. Comparing the Expected Portions with the Actual Portions Served

By comparing the expected portions served with the actual portions served, one can know whether portion control is effective or not.

3.3 The Preparation of Food

There are four major stages in controlling the preparation of food and beverages which together should reduce over-production (and possibly waste), loss from inefficient purchasing and processing, and loss from excessive portion sizes. The operation of the four stages in a food and beverage control system should aid the management in controlling cost efficiency and maximising the profitability of the operation, as well as assisting in setting the standards for the establishment and ensuring overall customer satisfaction.

3.3.1 The Four Stages in Controlling Preparation of Food and Beverages

1. Volume forecasting
2. Standard yields
3. Standard recipes
4. Standard portion sizes

1. Volume Forecasting

This is often referred to in other industries as production planning. It is a method of predicting the volume of sales of an establishment for a specified future period. The sales of the establishment are broken down into the sales of each selling outlet, and then broken down into the sales

per main item. Volume forecasting is not a perfect method of prediction but with study and application, and with the collection of the analysis of all sales information, a high land of accuracy of prediction is possible, helping to minimise the common protein of the shortage or over-production of items.

2. Standard Yields

The term “standard” is synonymous with “what it should be”. Standards are aids to management for the measurement of efficiency, particularly of kitchens and bars.

It is necessary to establish the standard number of portions that are obtainable from all the major items that appear on an establishment’s food and beverage menus, e.g. the standard percentages obtained between meat, fat and bone, and between specific standard joints when buying meat. The standard number of say 4oz portions of meat obtainable from a roast saddle of lamb: the number of “six out” portions obtainable from a bottle of spirits, etc. Having established the standard yields for all major items, it is possible to be much more accurate with menu costing and pricing, as well as being able to convert the volume forecasts for specific items into raw material requirements.

The term “yield” may be defined as the edible or the usable part of a food item which is available after preparation, and cooking.

A standard yield is the yield obtainable when an item is processed in the particular standard methods of preparation, cooking and portioning of an establishment.

The main objectives of standard yields are:

- a. To establish a standard for the quantity and number of portions obtainable from a specific food item.
- b. To establish a standard for comparison with operating results, and thereby measure the efficiency of the production departments.
- c. To establish an objective method of further evaluating standard purchasing specifications.
- d. To establish a standard cost factor for the item of food.
- e. To assist in menu costing and pricing.
- f. To assist in converting forecast requirements into raw material requirements.

Standard yields can be worked out for all commodities, but it is more usual that they will be prepared only for the more expensive items such as vegetables. The method used in determining the standard yield of a commodity is one of experimentation in order to arrive at an acceptable product for the customer, and an acceptable commodity cost and labour cost to the establishment.

3. Standard Recipes

The standard recipe may be defined as a written formula for producing a food or beverage item of a specified quality or quantity for use in a particular establishment. It should show the precise quantities and qualities of the ingredients to be used, together with the sequence of preparation and service of the item.

It is a common practice for photographs of the finished product to be produced and placed with the standard recipe, to show not only the finished item but also its method of service presentation.

The objectives of preparing standard recipes are:

- a. To pre-determine the quantities and quality of the ingredients to be used, stating the standard purchase specification wherever possible.
- b. To pre-determine the food cost per portion. This can be accurate when known quantities and qualities of ingredients will be used for a particular job.
- c. To pre-determine the yield obtainable from a recipe if a standard yield has not been prepared.
- d. To pre-determine the nutritional value of a particular dish. Again this can be accurate when known quantities and qualities of ingredients will be used.
- e. To facilitate menu planning: This is achieved by knowing precisely what the ingredients of each dish are, and then being able to restrict the dominance of a meal by a particular colour, ingredient, flavour or texture.
- f. To facilitate purchasing and internal requisitioning: An approved standard recipe establishes the quality and quantity of the ingredients used.
- g. To facilitate food preparation: This is achieved by using standard products for a particular dish and processing them by a standard method. This ensures a standard quality of a particular dish for the customer at all times.

- h. To facilitate portion control: The standard recipe sets out the portion of a dish in one of three ways:
 - i. as a “raw weight” figure (often abbreviated to R.T.C. or ready to cook) or
 - ii. as a “cooked/finally prepared” figure (often abbreviated to R.T.E or ready to eat) or
 - iii. as a “purchased” figure (abbreviated to A.P). The cast needs little, if any, preparation before serving, and a precise portion weight may not be possible, necessary or desirable e.g. an individual purchased portion of potted shrimps, a whole fresh hot-house peach, etc.
- i. To provide an accurate source of reference to all staff concerned. The standard recipe manual would be available in particular to the control office staff (for costing purposes), the food and beverage manager, and all kitchen and restaurant staff.

4. Standard Portion Sizes

A standard portion is the established number of ounces of a food or beverage item to be served to a customer in relation to the food or beverage cost and the selling price of an item. The standard portion size is usually established when the standard recipe is being prepared. The portion size is determined by the management of the establishment in conjunction with the head chef and restaurant or canteen supervisor.

There may well be two standard portion sizes for the same commodity in an establishment, depending on whether the commodity is being offered on table d’hôte or an à la carte menu.

Standard portion sizes are important for two reasons:

- a. All customers should be served as accurately as possible the quantity of food for which they are paying. Irregular portion sizes of an item served to customers eating at the same table may lead to customer dissatisfaction. Too small a portion will usually result in the loss of a customer, whereas a correct and fair portion may well result in repeat business being secured.
- b. As the standard portion size is related to the price to be paid for an item, any excess in portion size causes a higher food cost for that dish and a reduced gross profit.

3.3.2 Review of Portion Sizes

Sometimes it becomes imperative to review portion sizes of dishes in hotels or restaurants. Some reasons account for such reviews.

Those reasons include:

1. Change in the price of the ingredients used and the hotel not making enough profit.
2. Increase in the quality of produce
3. Seasonality of some menu

These are all rational economic reasons, since hotels, like all other businesses, will attempt to maximise profit. If there are changes in price of ingredients, definitely, there will be changes in portion sizes, if the hotel still hopes to maintain the same level of profitability. An increase in the quality of a dish will result in the increase in the production cost of such product. Therefore, to retain the price of the product, the size of the portion of the product may be reduced, so as to maintain the same level of profit. Seasonality can also result in changes in prices of the ingredients used for the menu. Changes in the prices of the ingredients used will, in turn, result in changes in the portion sizes.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Assume you are preparing lunch for 20 white collar workers. Studying the menu below, list out the necessary portion control equipment required for accurate measurement for the varieties of food prepared.

Suggested Menu for White Collar Workers

Goat head pepper soup.
Meat stew
Boiled rice
Fried plantain
Fruit salad/ice cream

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit examines ‘portion control’ and factors that affect portion control in various important ways.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has explained what portion control is and the determinants of portion sizes. It has discussed the equipment used and the amount due to the kind of food prepared, along with portion control methods. The unit also looks at the preparation of food, stages in controlling the preparation of food and their objectives.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Portion control equipment required:

- a. Mould (Rice).
- b. Ladle (Pepper soup, stew)
- c. Soup bowl
- d. Scoop (Ice cream)
- e. Dicing machine
- f. Slicing machine
- g. Scales
- h. 6-8 portion per kg (Meat)
- i. Measuring jug
- j. Standard recipe chart

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1. Enumerate the determinants of portion sizes in the management of a hotel.
- 2. What are the methods of controlling portion sizes in a hotel?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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MODULE 3

Unit 1	Food Preservation and Storage
Unit 2	Planning and Designing the Menu
Unit 3	Menu Composing
Unit 4	Food Purchasing

UNIT 1 FOOD PRESERVATION AND STORAGE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction.
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3.1.2	Food Classification:
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Food is preserved in order to keep it for latter use and to keep it from wasting. In the rainy season plenty of food is grown while little are grown during the dry season. surplus food such as vegetables and fruits should be preserved to bridge the gap between the time seasons

Although fruits and vegetables fresh from the garden taste much better than those that have been preserved or stored, it is not always possible to have a continuous supply of these essential foods. For this reason, some methods of keeping them when they are out of season had to be developed. You can buy the most nutritious food available, but if you don't store it properly, it would loose quality and nutrients and may even spoil.

Food storage is the art of keeping food for some time before consumption. It is quite different from food preservation which is the art

of keeping food for a longer period before consumption. In most cases, food preservation may involve the addition of other substances, such as chemicals. It may also involve or changing from food stuff to another food through processing.

However, food “storage” and “preservation” are often erroneously used interchangeably. Proper storage protects nutrients, flavour, colour and texture. It protects the food from the enemies of nutrients – light, heat, air and moisture. Keep moist food moist and dry food dry; keep out dirt, dust and insects and other pests; and keep food at proper temperature so it does not spoil quickly.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Describe the various causes of food spoilage;
- Explain the principles of food preservation;
- Describe the various methods of food preservation and storage; and
- Distinguish between food preservation and storage.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Food Spoilage

When a bowl of *Eba* (cooked Gari) or cooked rice is left in the open for about three days, mould will start to grow on it, it will be slimy to touch and it will produce an offensive odour. At this stage, the food will be regarded as spoiled. Thus food spoilage usually refers to undesirable changes taking place in the food which eventually leads to its rejection and therefore to wastage. Unless foods are preserved, they deteriorate. It is therefore necessary to know the causes food spoilage in order to keep food in an edible condition.

3.1.1 Causes of Food Spoilage

Food spoilage can be caused by the following factors:

1. Action of micro-organisms such as bacteria, yeast, moulds
2. Insects
3. Food enzymes
4. Chemical reactions in food
5. Physical changes due to freezing, burning, drying, pressure and so on.

Enzymes and micro-organisms cause food to spoil. Enzymes speed up chemical changes in food especially in fruits and vegetables. They lose flavour and colour. Fruits soften, vegetables get tough and fibrous.

Micro-organisms are small organisms that can be seen only through a microscope. They include bacteria, yeast and moulds. Many are helpful; others are harmful and cause food to spoil. Micro-organisms grow only under certain conditions. They need moisture and food. Most also need warm temperatures. Micro-organisms can not move around by themselves but are carried by insects, animals, and people on the object.

Bacteria are micro-organisms that grow rapidly by dividing in half. One can multiply into 33,000 in just five hours. They spoil food by attacking it, leaving waste products or by producing poisons in the food. Their growth is checked by refrigeration and they are killed by heat. Certain bacteria (spores) are more resistant to heat than others and require higher temperature to kill them. Example – pressure cooking destroys heat resistant bacteria provided the food is cooked for a sufficient length of time.

Moulds are microscopic plants that grow as fuzzy patches on foods. They are of different colours, depending on the mould. Some mould like cold temperatures, therefore moulds will grow on refrigerated food if it is kept too long. Mould gives food an unpleasant odour and flavour and causes food to taste musty and to be wasted. Proper storage in a dry cold store prevents moulds from forming. Not all moulds are destructive; some are used to flavour cheese (stilton roquefort) or to produce antibiotics (penicillin, streptomycin).

Yeast is a small plant that multiplies by sending out buds. Yeast can spoil some food by causing it to ferment. It grows on moisture and sugar. Foods containing a small percentage of sugar and a large percentage of liquid, such as fruit juices and syrups, are liable to ferment because of yeast. Although it seldom causes disease, yeast increases food spoilage. Food should be refrigerated if it may be spoiled by yeasts. Yeasts is also destroyed by heat.

3.1.2 Food Classification

It must be pointed out that food which is unfit for consumption for sanitary reasons is, as a rule, not referred to as spoiled.

Foods can be classified into three major groups:

Perishable foods or high moisture foods: These are foods which begin to deteriorate almost immediately unless preserved in some way,

because of their high water content. Examples of such foods are milk, meat, sea-foods, many vegetables and fruits.

Semi-perishable foods or intermediate moisture foods: These are foods which can be kept for some time before they go bad. Their water content is low. Examples are root vegetables and tubers.

Non-perishable foods or low moisture foods: These are foods which can be kept for a reasonably long period without their getting spoiled due to their low water content. Examples are nuts, dried legumes and cereals.

The most obvious difference between foods in these classes is their water content which is high in perishable foods and low in non-perishable foods.

3.2 Food Preservation

Food spoilage refers to undesirable changes taking place in the food we eat. It is in the bid to prevent these undesirable changes (which eventually lead to spoilage) that people preserve food.

Foods are preserved for the following reasons:

1. To avoid wastage, especially when there is plenty of food.
2. To allow foods in off-season to be used.
3. To eliminate the purchase of foods when they are most expensive
4. To have a variety of foods available for an emergency situation.

3.2.1 Principles of Food Preservation

Food preservation is based on the following principles:

1. Destruction of micro-organisms.
2. Prevention of the entry of micro-organisms into the food.
3. Arrest of the action of food enzymes.
4. Prevention of chemical reactions in the food.

These can be achieved by:

1. The removal of heat from food and maintaining the food at a very low temperature as in refrigeration and deep-freezing.
2. The removal of moisture from the food by drying. This can be drying in the sun, artificial dryers, smoking, or freeze-drying.
3. The removal of air by vacuum sealing in bottles or cans.

4. The destruction of micro-organisms by pasteurization and sterilization.
5. The destruction of micro-organism by the addition of chemicals.
6. The inactivation of food enzymes by heating, addition of chemicals and removal of moisture.
7. The prevention of chemical reactions by the addition of specific chemicals such as antioxidant.

3.2.2 Methods of Food Preservation

Based on the above stated principles, food may be preserved by the following methods.

1. Drying
2. Dehydrating
3. Chilling
4. Freezing
5. Canning
6. Bottling
7. Pickling
8. Salting
9. Smoking
10. The use of chemicals
11. Gas Storage
12. Radiation.

1. Drying

This is the process by which the water content of the food is reduced. This method of preservation is achieved by extracting the moisture from the food, thus preventing moulds, yeast and bacteria from growing. This was done by drying foods, such as fruit in the sun. Today, many types of equipment are used and the food is dried by the use of air at a regulated temperature and humidity.

Accelerated freeze drying: This is a process of dehydration whereby food requires no preservation (refrigeration) yet when soaked in water retains its original shape and flavour. It can be applied to every kind of food. The food is frozen in a cabinet, the air is pumped out and the ice vaporized. This is called accelerated freeze drying and it is the drying of frozen foods by sublimation under conditions of very low pressure.

Sublimation is the action of turning from solid to gas without passing through a liquid stage. In this case, it is ice to steam without firstly turning to water. The food when processed in this way does not lose a great deal of its bulk, but it is very much lighter in weight. When water is added, the food gives off its natural smell.

The Advantages of Drying

- a. If kept dry, food keeps indefinitely.
- b. Food preserved by this method occupies less space than food preserved by other methods.
- c. Dried foods are easily transported and stored.
- d. The cost of drying and the expenses incurred in storing are not as high as that of other methods of preservation.
- e. There is no waste after purchase, therefore portion control and cooking are specified. Foods preserved by drying include vegetables, peas, carrot, cabbage, potatoes, beetroot, lentils, herbs; egg, milk fruit apples, pears, plums, apricot, grapes, raising, meat and fish.

2. Chilling and Freezing (application of low temperature)

This is the process of keeping the food at a low temperature. It can take either of the forms (a) Chilling and (b) freezing. In chilling, the food is kept in the refrigerator while in freezing; the food is kept in the freezer.

The difference in the two methods is the temperature of storage. Freezing is keeping the food at a temperature below 0°C or 32°F. The food therefore solidifies. Freezing keeps food longer than chilling, and completely arrests the growth of micro-organisms and the action of food enzymes. Chilling on the other hand does not completely arrest enzyme action and bacteria growth. When preserving food by low temperature, it should be well packaged to prevent absorption of odours from other food in the compartment.

Similarly, food stuff with very strong odours like onion and garlic should not be refrigerated along with other food items. Food items preserved with these methods include: Fish, meat, milk, fruit, and vegetables.

The Advantages of Using Frozen Foods

- a. Frozen foods are ready-prepared; therefore using them saves time and labour.
- b. Portion control and costing are easily assessed
- c. Foods are always in season.

- d. Compact storage
- e. Additional stocks to hand
- f. Guaranteed quality

3. Canning and Bottling

This is the process of keeping the food aseptically in cans or bottles. Before putting in cans or bottles, such foods are usually heat treated to make them sterile. They are then sealed in the vacuum or in the presence of inert gases to prevent oxygen. It is important that such cans or bottles should not leak at any point. Examples of food preserved by this method are fruit juices, meat, fish, fruit puree and beverages.

4. Preservation by Salt and by Salting and Smoking

Micro-organisms cannot grow in high concentration of salt. This method of preservation is used mainly to preserve meat and fish and the advantage lies chiefly in the fact that a wider variety of dishes with different flavours can be put on the menu.

Examples of food preserved by this method are meat-brisket, silver side of beef, ox tongues, leg of pork; fish –salmon, trout, haddock; herrings; cods' roes.

5. Preservation by Sugar

A high concentration of sugar prevents the growth of moulds, yeast and bacteria. This method of preservation is applied to fruits in these forms: jams, marmalades, jellies, candies and glace.

6. Preservation by Acid

This may be preserved in vinegar which is acetic acid diluted with water. Malt vinegar is the one most used, although distilled or white wine vinegar is used for pickling white vegetables such as cocktail onions and also for roll mops (herrings). Foods usually pickled in vinegar are: gherkins, capers, onions, shallots, walnuts, red cabbage, mixed pickles, chutneys.

7. Preservation by the Use of Chemicals

Certain chemicals are permitted by law to be used to preserve certain foods such as sausages, fruit pulps, jam etc., for domestic fruit bottling. campden. Preservative tablets can be used.

8. Preservation by Radiation

Foods subjected to certain rays such as X-rays or Gamma (γ) rays, are preserved and research is being carried out on this method of preserving food.

9. Preservation by Gas

Gas storage is used in conjunction with refrigeration to preserve meat, eggs, and fruit. Extra carbon dioxide added to the atmosphere surrounding the foods increases the length of time they can be stored. Without the addition of gas these foods would dry out more quickly.

Table 9.1 Chemicals Used in Food Preservation

CHEMICALS	SPECIFIC FUNCTION	PRODUCT
Propionate	Retards moulds	Cheese, baked products
Sodium benzoate	Retards bacteria and yeast growths	Soft drinks, acid foods.
Sorbic acid, potassium sorbate	Retards mould and yeast growth	Acid foods, cheese,
Sulphur dioxide	Retards the growth of all organisms and inhibits browning reaction.	Dried fruits wines, baked foods.
Nitrites	Inhibits botulinum growth	Cured meat.
Salt	Controls micro-organisms and retards enzyme browning	Fish, meat, fruit slices.
Sugar	Inhibits growth of micro-organisms	Jam, jelly
Butylated hydroxyl anisole	Prevents oxidation of fats and oils	Margarine, butter, lard.
Butylated hydroxyl Toluene		
Vitamin E (Tocopherols) Gibebereic acid	Delays ripening	Tomato, banana, orange, guava,
Maleic hydroxide		
Vitamin k		mango, tomato
Potassium permanganate		Citrus, fruits, banana.

3.3 Food Storage

This refers to the keeping of the food items for some time before ultimate use. The importance of proper storage of food includes the following:

1. It prevents food from spoilage
2. It prevents loss of nutrients
3. It saves costs
4. It saves the time and energy for going to the market always.

However, the choice of storage to be used is influenced by the following factors:

1. The nature of the food stuff
2. The facilities available.
3. The length of storage required
4. The ultimate use of the food stuff.

3.3.1 Methods of Food Storage

There are two broad methods of food storage: They are traditional method and modern (or the improved) method.

1. The Traditional Method

Long before the advent of modern technology, our forefathers had been storing their food by different methods. In fact, some of the methods are still being used today. The method of storage is however determined by the nature of the food. For example, meat and fish products are usually stored in wire cases or strung on wood or metal bars and displayed over the fire place. The heat emanating from the fire place during cooking, especially in the morning and evening, is used to heat the meat or fish and hence able to keep it until ready for use. Dried fish or meat are also kept in dry containers with lids.

2. The Improved or Modern Methods

As a result of advancement in technology and science, more sophisticated methods of storing food stuff has been developed. The most important and common piece of storing equipment is the refrigerator. The refrigerator is capable of creating a very cold environment which is uncomfortable for most destructive organisms. We can store food for a reasonable length of time before use, by keeping it in the refrigerator.

The deep freezer and freezer compartment in the refrigerator can be used to store our food like meat and fish for longer periods than the chilling section of the refrigerator).

- a. **The Cold Room** - A large catering establishment may have a good cold room for meat, with possibly a deep-freezer compartment where supplies can be kept frozen for a long period. The best temperature for storing fresh meat and poultry (short term) is between 4⁰ and 6⁰C (39 – 43⁰F) with controlled humidity (poultry is stored in a cold room). Fish should have a cold room of its own so that it does not affect other foods. Game, when plucked is kept in a cold room.
- b. **Chill Room** - A chill room keeps food cold without freezing it, and it is particularly suitable for those foods requiring a consistent, not too cold temperature, such as deserts, fruits, salads, cheese, fresh fruit salads and vegetables. These are best stored at a temperature of 4 – 6⁰C (39 – 43⁰F) with humidity that will not result in the loss of water from the leaves, causing them to go limp. Green vegetables should be stored in a dark area to prevent leaves turning yellow.

Other storage facilities for storing food include plastic containers, food cupboards, larders, shelves and racks.

3.3.2 Cleanliness and Safety of the Storage Areas

High standard of hygiene are essential in the store

1. **Personnel must:**
 - a. wear clean clothing.
 - b. be clean in themselves.
 - c. be particular about washing the hands often.
 - d. have clean hygiene habits.
2. **Floors must:**
 - a. be kept clean.
 - b. be cleaned of any spillage at once.
 - c. be in good repair.
3. **Shelves must:**
 - a. be kept clean.
 - b. not be overloaded.
4. **Cleaning materials must be:**
 - a. kept away from food

- b. stored with care and marked “dangerous” if they are dangerous chemicals .
- 5. Windows and where appropriate, doors must be fly and bird proof.
- 6. Walls should be clean and where any access by rodents is possible, sealed.
- 7. Equipment such as knives scales etc must be thoroughly cleaned and stored in order to prevent cross-contamination.
- 8. Cloth for cleaning should be of the disposable type.
- 9. Surfaces should be cleaned with an antibacterial cleaner.
- 10. All bins should have lids and be kept covered.
- 11. All empty cans should be stacked in a safe area with care.
- 12. Waste and rubbish should not be allowed to accumulate
- 13. Empty bottles, waste paper, cardboard etc should be recycled.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Describe the local methods used in your area for the preservation of meat, fish and vegetables.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discussed food preservation and storage. We examined the causes of food spoilage and the organisms and how food spoilage can be prevented.

We also mentioned the groups which food can be classified into. We then discussed principles of food preservation and also explained the methods of food preservation. We looked at food storage and the methods of food storage.

Finally we enumerated and discussed about the cleanliness and safety of storage areas.

5.0 SUMMARY

Food preservation and storage was the main discussion of this unit. We analysed the causes of food spoilage and ways by which this can be prevented. We looked at the principles of food preservation and the methods of food preservation.

We discussed safety the types and methods of food storage. Again, we mentioned the fact that high standards of hygiene and should be observed in the storage area.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Local Methods of Processing Meat, Fish and Vegetable

Sun-drying (For vegetables)

Sun-drying is an easy and cheap way of keeping food for a long time. To get a good result, the following conditions should be observed.

1. Work with clean utensils and clean hands.
2. Use fresh vegetables which are in good condition.
3. Cover the drying food to prevent dust, flies and other insects from contaminating it.
4. Never dry food directly on the ground or on sand.
5. Store dried food in tightly shut containers.

Procedure for Sun-drying Vegetables

1. Wash the vegetables thoroughly.
2. Peel or cut the vegetables.
3. Blanch vegetable in water before drying to kill the enzymes. So that they will not spoil during drying.

Blanching should be done in plenty of hot water. The vegetables are put in the boiling water and heated for a few minutes. This method can be used on vegetables like green beans, cabbage, bitter-leaf, carrots, potatoes, yam, spinach (Tomatoes, green pepper, red pepper, beans, okra, onion need not to be blanched).

4. Spread the vegetables on a clean surface in direct sunlight until it is brittle and dry.
5. Protect the vegetables from dust, dirt and flies by covering it with thin, loosen woven clean cloth or wire screen.

When drying food in the sun, the racks should be kept off the ground and away from animals.

The vegetables need to be turned over, two or three times each day so they will dry quickly as possible. Drying will take several days.

6. Test for dryness by squeezing.
7. When dried, keep in tight containers and store in a clean dry place.

Smoking or Sun-drying for Meat and Fish

Both meat and fish are dried either by sun-drying or smoking.

Meat is cut into thin long stripes about 3cm thick. Fish must be clean for cooking. Meat or fish can be sun-dried on a tray, covered with a thin cloth or mosquito net hung up on a string. When drying meat or fish it is important to place the tray or string out of the reach of animals or insects because they are attracted by the smell

Meat and fish can also be dried in a wire case, which is covered with a lid. Such a case can be suspended from a beam or a tree near the house. The wind and sun can reach the contents from the sides which therefore dries the meat/fish quickly.

Smoking: Instead of sun-drying meat or fish, the meat and fish can be prepared in the same way and then suspended or placed on a rack, over a fire, so that the smoke will dry the Meat.

Drying and smoking can be done quickly in a big drum, which has been specially prepared for the purpose. The fire is made in the bottom part and the rising smoke and hot air dries the food.

Sometimes, salt is added to meat or fish before drying. This helps to dry the food quickly. High concentration of salt drains liquid from it.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1.
 - a. Highlight the various causes of food spoilage.
 - b. Distinguish between food preservation and food storage.
2. State the various methods of food preservation.

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UNIT 2 PLANNING AND DESIGNING OF THE MENU

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Origin of Menu
 - 3.1.1 The Role of the Menu
 - 3.2 Types of Menu
 - 3.2.1 Factors to be Considered at the Early Stages of Menu Planning
 - 3.3 Menu Development
 - 3.3.1 Designing the Menu
 - 3.3.2. Measuring Menu Effectiveness
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The word menu has two quite separate meanings. It can mean the product range that a food service outlet offers or the piece of literature or display used to communicate the product range to the customers.

A menu can be describes as a list of the various dishes served in a food service establishment. It is from this list that the customers make their food selections.

The menu can be presented in print or formats such as boards and backlist boxes. It is an extremely important marketing tool as it facilitates the process of communication between food service operator and customers. It is essentially a list or a representation of what the customer is being offered. In reality, more often that not, the menu also serves as a limit on what a food service operation is willing and able to prepare and serve. It may also dictate the talents of the production and service personnel as well as determine the space and requirements of an operation. Nonetheless, the principal role of a menu is to act as a marketing tool. A well-designed and well produced menu contributes to food service management's chances of success. It is, after all, the only piece of print advert that customer will almost certainly read when using the operation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the origin of menu and the role it plays;
- Describe the type of menu and the various factors to be considered at the early stages of menu planning;
- Explain the principles of menu development; and
- Explain how to design a standard menu and how to measure for effectiveness.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Origin of Menu

Menu is primarily a selling aid. Originally the bill of fare (English) or menu (French) was not presented at the table. It was initially a list of foods in a seemingly random fashion with the food being raw, prepared and cooked. Individual menu came into use early in the 19th century and courses began to be formulated. For a special occasion, seven or more courses might be served e.g. horsd'oeuvre, soup, fish, entrée, sorbet, sweet, savoury. The bill of fare was originally very large and was placed at the end of the table for everyone to read. As time progressed, the menu became smaller in size and a number of copies produced which allowed individuals to read their own copy.

With the formulation of the menu, artistry and flair began to influence the various ways of cooking and dishes were created after the “style of” e.g. a la Francaise or/and given names of important people for when they had been created, e.g. peach, vanilla ice cream and fresh raspberry puree created by Escoffier at the savory for Dame Nellie Melba a famous opera singer.

As the 20th century advanced and more people of the world moved and settled from country to country so began the introduction of styles of food and service from a wide variety of nations resulting in the number of ethnic dishes and ethnic restaurants which abound today. Eating at work, at school in hospitals and institutions lead to the need for healthy, budget conscious food.

Rapid air transport made it possible for foods from all corners of the globe to be available which together with domestic and European produce gives those whose compose menus a tremendous range of choice.

3.1.1 The Role of the Menu

Since the menu is at the heart of the food service operations, marketing activities must not only complement an operation's marketing activities but be designed with its own marketing objectives clearly specified.

First, the menu must be co-ordinated with and seek to further the goals of the marketing concept. This means that the food service operation selects its market position as its response to its understanding of the needs, desires and behavioural characteristics of its targeted customers. If market needs are correctly analysed financial success will naturally result. Conversely if customers are not being satisfied, business volumes will suffer and failure will be the inevitable result. The menu therefore must be designed to appeal to its target audience(s).

Secondly, the menu should act as a means to influence customer demand for menu items. The menu planner can influence customer demand using a variety of tactics such as menu item description, position of items on the menu, clip-ons and creative art work. Popular or profitable items can be highlighted or given more prominent positioning to draw customers, attention to them. The menu should strive not only to maximise sales overall, but also to increase overall profitability.

Thirdly, the menu should contribute to the establishment and maintenance of a positive perceived image of the food service operation. Image is a particularly important aspect of the restaurant, micro-environment.

Fourthly, the menu is a conduit for gaining competitive advantage through branding of products. Many successful food service operations have menu items for which they are noted. Examples are easily recognised amongst the major players in the fast food sector, such as McDonald's Bugerking Fried, and Chicken Tasty and Mr. Biggs, where signature items are promoted heavily.

Additionally, the menu should be used to increase repeat visits and purchases. This can be best achieved by including items that have constantly proven to be popular. It is also important to refresh and revitalise the menu to avoid so called menu fatigue, customers' boredom with menu items and for the operation to continue to attract new customers.

3.2 Types of Menu

There is an extensive range of menu types found in the food service industry. Basically, however, the menu continues to be a list of dishes,

sometimes grouped together into separate courses. The classical menu frame work remains a useful reference point from which to commence the study of menus and their construction. The menu is of such importance that it would be very difficult to sell food without it. The menu is therefore, the reason for production, act as a production sheet in the kitchen and a sales man in the restaurant. Before the development of cafeteria services, the advent of fast foods, the evolution of theme restaurants, there were basically three kinds of menu.

The restaurant a' la carte menu: This provides a wide range of individually priced dishes. It is basically cooked to order, within the classical frame work.

The table d'hote menu: It has a set price for the meal and was usually three or four courses, often the dishes made for that meal service. A choice of dishes may be offered at all courses.

The Banquet menu: It is planned in advance for an agreed number of people. In multi-faced operations, such as hotels, more than one kind of menu will be adopted.

Modern menus are generally much simpler than the a' la carte menu format and with a few selections but their origins clearly stem from the classical framework.

3.2.1 Factors to be Considered at the Early Stages of Menu Planning

This section identifies those factors that food service managements need to consider during the early stages of the menu planning process.

Such factors include the following:

1. **The Customer:** The most obvious factor is the customer. To be successful, a menu must always aim to satisfy the customer; therefore, the food service operations manager must fully understand customers' behaviour to ensure that the menu product/service offering is what is wanted by the target customer group.
2. Once the target customer group's desires are determined, a further consideration is the range, availability and cost of the required food and beverage ingredients that will make up the assortment of products that are to be offered. Many items are seasonal and some items may be difficult to obtain fresh (or in other state) at a

responsible price over a stable time period. Consistent and reliable sources of supply must be located.

3. Distinctive competence, such as the skills and expertise of production and service employees must be considered. However good the planning of the menu if employees are not able to prepare meals to the specified standard, the operation will not be successful.
4. The layout and design of the whole food service operation also need to be examined. The kitchen and dispensing area are of particular importance. A detailed analysis of both capacity is necessary.
5. The menu should be planned to appeal to all the five senses. In attempting to do this, the menu planner has to ensure that no one method of cooking dominates food's characteristics. With foods in particular, every item listed should be contracted with every other item using each of the senses to determine suitability for selection to the menu.
6. The menu should provide customers with the opportunity to select a nutritionally balanced meal. Some Food service operation have the nutritional obligation than others to satisfy the nutritional need of their customers. For instance in hospitals and schools.

3.3 Menu Development

Traditional menus are planned on the basis of clearly established principles using the established frame work of courses and repertoire of dishes available within each category. However, there are many sectors of the industry that focus at a specific market segment that have invented their own style of menu. The process of developing and bringing on to the market new restaurant concepts and menu items have been adapted from other areas of commercial activity and their main significance is that they are structured and bring with them the imposition of what is a highly disciplined routines. The discipline approach is being utilised more frequently by food service management in many sectors of the industry.

Once a frame work is established the food service manager can begin the process of selecting potential menu items for each of the menu's category. Sources of information are numerous and varied. The most commonly utilised sources are trade journals, cookery books, the operator's own experience, and the understanding of existing and potential customer biases. When sufficient items are collected, these can be ranked against set criteria such as customer popularity and

profitability. This process of ranking which includes both quantitative and qualitative analysis will eliminate those items which do not satisfy the food service operation's objectives. Menu items can then be developed.

Other factors which also need to be considered in the overall process are the key trends which are taking place in the market generally, as there are often indicators of what will be demanded in each specific operation.

Information on trends can be obtained from a combination of specific market research data such as keynote and mintel reports, census data, an on-going objective analysis of customers and local competitive environment.

3.3.1 Designing the Menu

Design involves creativity, seeks to optimise profitability and customer satisfaction, is ubiquitous in a corporate environment, and comprises elements of performance, quality durability appearance and cost. This provides the menu designer with a very useful working definition from which to start. If the menu is designed badly, it can damage a business as surly as the steepest recession. The menu, like most form of advertising, is expected to perform a variety of functions such as informing, entertaining, persuading, reminding, complementing, reassuring, reinforcing and attempting to add value to the overall product service offering by changing attitudes to it.

The overriding of a well designed menu is to ensure that what is presented to the customers is clear and makes it easy for them to decide what they want to eat and drink. Whilst there are no hard and fast rules governing what constitute a good design principle to follow, at the beginning it is necessary to consider the image the menu is supposed to portray. The design of a menu cover in particular plays a major part in getting the perceived image across.

The range of written information on the menu will normally include the name of the operation, the title (menu or wine list), opening hours, a welcome, specific order instructions, as well as the menu items and their descriptions. Adequate spacing between menu items is necessary to avoid the feeling of clutter.

Menu copy that is surrounded by a white background will emphasise the black print and make the menu easier to read. Varying the type size will also enhance the overall appeal of the menu. The print font used should be easily distinguished and read by the customer. The food items that are listed on the menu should be organized in a logical sequence so that

the customer can determine rapidly and easily what is on offer. The menu has been given some symmetry and form. It should look balanced to the eye. This can be achieved by using different sized print and by grouping the categorised menu items together.

Insert or clip-ons listing daily specials are a good merchandising tactic and are commonly used throughout the food service industry usually to accentuate specific high profit items. Sales generated from high-profit daily specials listed on an insert can often form a major part of food turnover.

There are other ways to guide customers towards higher-profit items. The location of specific items is a critical aspect of using the menu as a profit tool. It is known for example that the human eye tends to read a menu in a predictable pattern. What catches the eye last and what the eye's attention is subconsciously directed to remain upper most in the customer's mind.

The organisation of the menu by category and the strategic positioning of items within categories, assisted by illustration and symbols, is not the only way to influence the customer's choice. Language also has an important role to play. The primary function of the copy used on the menu is that of all forms of communication. It must ensure that it is meaningful, familiar and attractive to the target audience.

3.3.2 Measuring Menu Effectiveness

The importance of maintaining standards is a major priority for food service operation. Regular testing to determine whether the menu has accomplished its objectives should be carried out. This requires management to establish performance criteria for each menu item and indeed for the menu as a total package.

This enables the operator to evaluate actual performance against the predetermined criteria and allow the menu to be further developed as appropriate. Different methods are used to evaluate menu effectiveness. Analysing the number of items sold daily or by meal occasion within each menu category is perhaps the most common approach. Modern electronic point-of-sale restaurant billing systems can be programmed to provide food service management with this information in an easily readable format.

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit, treats the notion that menu planning and design has a close relationship with the food service organisation's marketing and operational strategies. The idea of a structured and disciplined approach to the planning and design of the menu that involves the setting of objectives and rigorous performance criteria is recommended for all food service operations. The menu is at the heart of the operational aspect of customer communications and is a vital component of the customer's purchasing decision process.

The menu should attempt to give a true reflection of the restaurant's product/service offer in order to reinforce, clarify, and strengthen customer perceptions rather than confuse customer expectation. The menu planning design process meets cost and will need to be evaluated in terms of the benefit derived. Lastly, the monitoring and evaluation of menu performance, using predetermined criteria, is perhaps the most crucial stage of the planning and design process.

5.0SUMMARY

This unit explains menu as a product range that a food service outlet offers: or the piece of literature or display used to communicate the product range to the customer. We looked at how the menu is planned and how the menu in its second sense, a card or display, is designed. The unit examines the overall role the menu plays in the achievement of planned outcomes, especially customer satisfaction. It then goes on to consider the various factors that should be taken into account at the early stages of the menu planning process.

The critical factors involved in the design product production of printed and other forms of menus are then examined with consideration being given to the need for variety, creativity and flexibility in menus. The unit ends with a review of some key issues relating to menu planning and design, the cost of the menu; ethical concerns; and the need to monitor and evaluate menu performance.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Briefly highlight the role of the menu in the food service industry
2. Enumerate the various factors to be considered at the early stages of menu planning.

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UNIT 3 MENU COMPOSING

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Meaning of the Word “Menu”
 - 3.1.1 Essential Considerations Prior to Planning the Menu
 - 3.2 Types of Menus
 - 3.2.1 Table d’hote menu
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 - 3.3.1 Planning the Menu
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- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We learnt about food and nutrition and the value of food to the body. The chef will now understand that his work is to see that meals are:

1. Adequate – i.e. they will satisfy the needs of the body.
2. Conducive to good health.
3. Tempting, so that there will be no difficulty in persuading the guest to eat the food.

Although it is true that good cooking is undoubtedly essential in the production of first class meals, careful planning is certainly the second major consideration. Planning and cooking go hand in hand, but the expert performance of the cook obviously leads the way. No amount of careful planning can redeem a badly cooked meal, whereas even if a meal is not well planned it can still be tolerable if well cooked. Cooking is a craft which cannot be learnt from the textbook alone, for, apart from aptitude and the possession of certain innate qualities of which artistic ability is an important one a considerable amount of practice is essential to acquiring the necessary manipulative skills.

The planning of meals on the other hand is almost entirely a mental exercise, involving both nutritional and psychological problems as well

as others of a more practical nature. Decisions must be based on the appreciation of many factors contributing to sound planning of which a good knowledge of cooking is only one.

Menu composing is one of the most exacting tasks in catering. This is because it is the production sheet, the blue print, upon which the entire catering operation is structured. Meal planning otherwise known as compilation is the process of designing diets with all the right proportions for a specific group of people. A well-planned and balanced meal with correct essential food values promotes growth and protection against ill-health. And ill-planned meals on the other hand can retard good health. What the meal planner produces is referred to as menu. The aim of menu planning is to give the potential guests what they want and not what the caterer thinks they want.

2.0OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the importance of menu composing in the preparation and presentation of food;
- Describe the essential consideration prior to planning menu.
- Identify the various types of menus;
- Explain the principles of menu construction; and
- Compile different menus in accordance with accepted principles.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Meaning of the word “Menu”

We frequently read the word “Menu” on the agenda during marriage receptions, send off parties, naming ceremonies and other social gatherings and engagements where food is provided for the guests.

The word “menu” as sometimes announced by the master of ceremony in such social gatherings refers to refreshment, “small chops” heavy or light foods, snacks, etc.

In the hotel industry, however, the “menu” has a specific and clear meaning to the customers in the restaurant. It simply means types of foods available to eat. “Menu” as understood in the restaurant is a list of different dishes (with prices) that can be prepared, and served either on the table or in the rooms. On the other hand, menu is also a list of different dishes with process ready for service. The menu is of such importance that it will be difficult to sell food without it. The menu is

the reason for production and acts as a production sheet in the kitchen, and a salesman in the restaurant. The ability to compile and arrange varieties of recipes for different methods of cooking to produce palatable, attractive, and appetite-stimulating and nutritious dishes is the secret of menu planning.

Planning a menu is a great responsibility which requires not only good skills but also the accumulated experience of the chef or the food and beverage manager. A satisfactory and delicious menu in addition to good cooking is a major objective of any restaurant. Some customers who understand menu very well will make negative comments if a particular recipe appears predominant in all the courses available, or if all the courses have similar colour, taste, garnishing and nature. This symbolises a lack of experience which may result in poor patronage in future.

3.1.1 Essential Considerations Prior to Planning the Menu

Planning the menu is time consuming, but extremely important if the finished product is to suit the need of the establishment and give the people what they want, when they want it, and the way they want it. The following essential point must be considered prior to planning the menu:

1. **Location:** Study the area in which your establishment is situated and the potential target market. The section of the city or town where a food service establishment is located will dictate to a great degree the type of menus that must be offered, such as business sections, transport sections, residential areas, road side or high way sections, departmental store sections, etc.
2. **Competition:** Be aware of any competition in the locality, including prices, and quality. As a result it may be wiser to produce a menu quite different. Today the competition in the food service sector is very keen and people in the industry must be constantly informed as to what is going around him if he wishes to stay in business.
3. **Type of people:** Analyse the type of people you are planning to cater for. For instance office workers in the city require quick service.
4. **Outdoor catering:** Are there opportunities for outdoor catering or take away food?

5. **An estimate of how much customers spend per head:** Is important when catering. For example are they hospital staff and patients, children in schools, or workers in industries. Whatever level of catering the golden rule should be “offer value for money”.
6. **Modern trends in food fashions:** Should be considered alongside popular traditional dishes.
7. **Decide the range of dishes to be offered and the pricing structure:** Should each dish be priced separately? Or offer to set 2 to 3 course menus? Or a combination of both?
8. **Space and equipment in the kitchens:** This will influence the composition of the menu e.g. overloading the use of deep frying pan, salamanders and steamers.
9. **Member and capability of staff:** Over-stretched staff can easily reduce the standard of production envisaged.
10. **Availability of supplies and reliability of suppliers:** Seasonal foods and storage space.
11. **Cost factor:** This is crucial if an establishment is to be profitable. Costing is essential for the success of compiling any menu. Modern computer techniques can analyse costs swiftly and daily.
12. **Food allergies:** When planning menus for a large function, the chef must think of the danger of food allergies. All waiting staff must be informed of the contents of the dishes, e.g. shellfish peanut

3.2 Menus Types

A menu is a list indicating food and beverage products available in a food service establishment. It is from this list that the customers make their food selections. The kind of food presented on the menu would depend on whether it is a breakfast, luncheon, and dinner or a’la carte menu. There are many different types of food service establishment and each must present a menu that will give customers what they want, in the way they want it, when they want it or they will not be in business very long. This is why we find a difference in all menu types.

A successful menu in one establishment may not prove successful in another. Although all types of menu are different in some respect, the following are the various types.

3.2.1 Table d'hôte Menu

Table d'hôte or set price: This is a menu forming a meal usually of two or three courses at a set price. A choice of dishes may be offered at all courses. This type of menu requires good knowledge in planning. It is a popular menu in many restaurants because of its advantaged over a la carte menu. It has the following characteristics:

1. It has specific and limited numbers of courses; hence customers' choice is restricted.
2. It is easy to plan, prepare and serve than a la carte.
3. The menu has fixed prices for all the available courses.
4. Customers have to pay full amounts whether or not all the courses on the menu are consumed.
5. It is very suitable for transit customers, those who are in hurry e.g. to catch up a flight, and with minors. The main course can be quickly requested for and taken while leaving the first and last courses.
6. All the available courses are already prepared and kept in a warmer in readiness for service at a set time.
7. The menu, though can be planned on a weekly basis, is written out daily. There is no waste of stationery materials.

3.2.2 A la carte Menu

This is a menu with all the dishes individually priced. The customers can therefore compile their own menu, which may be one or two or more courses. A true a la carte dish should be cooked to order and the customers should be prepared to wait. This menu contains varieties of dishes that can be prepared in the kitchen. The ingredients for these dishes are usually prepared in readiness for cooking and serving in the restaurant to prevent a waste of time since the dishes are ordered first before cooking. Good organisational skill demands that a la carte dishes are cooked and served on time so that the customers are not bored at the table. Other characteristics of the menu are:

1. It has different types of courses and therefore, it provides greater opportunity for many choices.

2. Each dish is individually priced because of the skill, experience, the cost of ingredients and availability of the recipe.
3. A customer waits until his order is prepared or he can place an order for the dish and come back later, if he has urgent things to do.
4. It is more expensive than table d'hôte menu and it also provides more profit if there is a high turn-over.
5. There is an effective control of waste, food portioning and costing.
6. It is not suitable for transit customers, and those who are terribly hungry and cannot afford to hold on. It is not suitable for minors who may not have adult-type patience in the restaurant. Some dishes take 20 – 30 minutes to prepare depending on the choice.
7. The ingredients are usually seasonal. Hence, customers may be denied their choice during certain periods of the year.
8. Once the menu is properly compiled and planned on the menu card, it can remain for a period provided there is no change of price. Secondly, the card can be laminated to give it protection and prevent easy destruction, unlike the table d'hôte menu which is written daily (and is therefore not economical).
9. The length of time required to prepare each dish is stated on the card.
10. The menu is suitable for any type of meal – breakfast, lunch or dinner.

Special Party of Function Menus: Menus for banquets or functions of all kinds.

Hospital Menu: This usually takes the form of a menu card given to the patient the day before service so that his or her preferences can be ticked. Both the national health service and private hospitals cater for vegetarian and religious requirements.

Ethnic Specialty Menu: This can have a set price or the dishes priced. It specialises in the food of a particular country or religion or in a specialised food itself. Examples are Chinese, Indian, kosher, African-Nigerian, Caribbean, Greek cuisine.

Menus for People at Work: This kind of menu is served to people at their work place. Such menu varies in standard and extent from one employer to another, due to company policy on the welfare of their staff and work force.

Menu for Children: In schools, there is an emphasis on healthy eating and a balance diet particularly in boarding schools. Those areas with children of various cultural and religious backgrounds have appropriate items available on the menu. Many establishments provide special children's menu which concentrate on favourite foods and offer suitably sized portions.

3.3 Principles of Menu Construction

The task of formulating the menu is the duty of management with the help of the head chef. However before the actual formulation can take place, they must analyse and weigh many important factors within the two required stages for producing a successful menu: (1) takes over planning the menu, and (2) writing the menu.

3.3.1 Planning the Menu

The following points are considered when planning menu:

1. Type and size of the establishment; school, hospital, restaurant, etc.
2. Customer profile: Different kinds of people have differing likes and dislikes.
3. Special requirements: Kosher, Muslim, Christians, vegetarians, etc.
4. Time of the year: Certain dishes accepted in summer may not be so in winter.
5. Special days: Christmas, Easter, etc.
6. Time of the day: Breakfast, brunch, lunch, tea, high tea, dinner, supper, snack, special function.
7. Foods in season: They are usually in good supply and reasonable in price.

8. Price range: Charge a fair price and ensure good value for money as customer satisfaction can lead to recommendation and repeat business.
9. Location of restaurant: The section of the city where the food service establishment is located.
10. The capability of the kitchen staff: There are many excellent cooks male and female whose training is such that they can cope with simple dishes but who might be at a loss if asked to produce highly complicated foreign food.
11. Capability of serving staff: The person who serves the meals should be considered. If the standard of the waiter or waitress is of the highest order then a high standard of garnished dishes can be served because the caterer can be sure that the prepared food will be correctly shown to the customer and that it will be transferred to the customer's plate in a neat and presentable fashion.
12. Language: use menu language that customers understand.

3.3.2 Writing the Menu

The second stage in the construction of the menu is to put the plan in written form. Keep in mind that the menu presented to the guest established an impression of the standard set by the operation, and to some degree will reflect the quality of the food served. It should be written in such a way that it will sell food and enable the guests to make quick and pleasing selections. To obtain the desired results, the followings should be considered when writing the menu:

1. **Variety:** In the food service business, variety is not so much the spice of life, but the key to successful operations. People get tired of the same old thing and are constantly on the look out for new and interesting preparations. Variety can be achieved in four different ways: methods of preparation, ideas for service, kinds of food served and garnishes. Creating a variety for certain food preparation can increase sales and profit.
2. **Colour:** This will stimulate and influence the appetite more than anything else. How desirable would a salad, a plate combination, or a buffet table be without the beautiful and natural colour provided by certain foods? The menu maker should take advantage of the natural food colours and utilise them in an

interesting and attractive manner. When writing the menu always consider colour.

3. **Leftovers:** Before starting to write the menu, a complete refrigerator inventory should be made in order to work off all leftovers and foods that spoil rapidly. It is better to get some returns from your investment than to hold them too long and absorb a heavy loss. The leftovers sometimes present a challenge to the menu maker, but if he can utilise them in desirable preparations that will sell, he would have contributed greatly to the success of the operation.
4. **Form:** Most people can see very little beauty in flat surfaces. It takes hills, valleys, canyons and mountains to bring for the true scenic beauty. This is also true in the preparation and presentation of foods. Items lying flat on a plate are uninteresting and in many cases will cause a loss of appetite. It is for this reason that foods must be presented to the guest in various shapes and sizes, trying to eliminate the flat surfaces whenever possible.
5. **Consistency:** When combining foods to be presented to the guest as a combination, at least one item must be present that the teeth can chew on. A meal of all soft or mushy foods is considered improper and most certainly lacks appeal.
6. **Food temperature:** Regardless of the weather or season of the year, every meal should include one hot or cold item. It is thought that slight varying temperatures will improve digestion. During summer, the menu presented should include many cold items; however, hot items should also be present. In cold season (winter) the reverse is usually true in the presentation of foods, the hot foods prevail. It is also wise for the menu maker to keep in mind that all hot foods must be served hot and cold foods served cold.
7. **On hand supplies:** To keep spoilage and waste to a minimum, the menu maker should be aware of the supplies he has on hand when writing the menu. It is an established fact that very few foods will improve with age.
8. **Balance:** -The menu should be balanced by containing the basic seven foods required for proper daily nourishment. Those customers who know and follow proper dietetic principle can select the food they require and desire. It also makes selection easier for those patrons who may be on some type of special diet.

9. **Flavour:** All foods contain some flavour. The flavour may be strong, mild or delicate, depending on the item being served. If the flavour is strong, such as beef entrees, an accompanying sauce or condiment is not necessary to bring forth more pronounced flavour. On the other hand, if the food has a mild flavour, an accompanying sauce or condiment may be necessary for the item to be enjoyed to its fullest extent.
10. **Foods in season:** A wise menu maker will take advantage of foods in season by offering them on the menu, because when in season they are best and cheapest.
11. **Speed of service:** It is necessary for the menu maker to consider speed of service when writing the menu. He must think in terms of pre-finished items and casserole dishes. These may require more time to prepare, but save time when serving because the dishing up is usually done in advance.

3.3.3 Menu Writing Guidelines

The requirement needed for compiling menu will depend on the occasion, price being paid and the class of catering. Although there are no precise rules for writing the menu, the following tips could prove most helpful.

1. Capitalise all words except explanations and descriptive material.
2. Build the menu around the main dishes.
3. Know you customers and the foods they like to eat.
4. Do not become repetitious when listing foods. That is, for example, do not list apple juice for appetiser broiled pork with apple fritters for the entrée and apple pie for desert.
5. Vary methods for preparing the entrees.
6. Blend the salad to the entrée: Heavy salad, light entrée, light salad, heavy meal.
7. Blend the soup to the entree: Heavy entrée, light soup; light entrée, heavy soup.
8. Work in the leftovers.
9. Keep up with the trends in eating habits.

10. Offer hot rolls and quick breads.
11. Create variety and excitement with garnishes.
12. Choose deserts that blend with the season and the entrée.
13. Offer variety with the vegetable selection.
14. Word each item to stimulate the appetite. The choice of words can produce sales. Examples: Farm fresh eggs, fresh caught brook trout, fresh green beans, vine ripened tomatoes, etc.
15. The language of the menu must be clear.

3.3.4 Examples of Different Menu Types

1. Breakfast
 - a. **The English Break-fast**
 Fruit Juice – Orange, grape, or tomatoes, fresh grape, fruit or orange porridge or cereal.
 Two eggs any style with choice of Ham, Bacon, Chipolata sausages or grilled tomato.
 Croissant, Brioche, Breakfast Rolls or Toast with butter and marmalade, Jam or Honey

 Tea, Coffee, Sanka, Chocolate or Milk.
 - b. **The Continental Breakfast**
 Fresh Orange or Grape fruit juice, pineapple, Tomato or prune juice.
 A Basket of Croissant, Brioche, Breakfast Roll and Toast with butter and marmalade jam or honey.

 Tea, Coffee, Sanka, Chocolate or milk.
 - c. **African Breakfast**
 - i. Fruit or Fruit Juice
 Maize/Corn Porridge (pap, ogi, akamu)
 Moi-moi or Akara

 Tea or Coffee with milk.
 - ii. Fruit and Fruity juice
 Millet Oat
 Fish Stew

Fried Plantain or Boiled yam

Tea or Coffee with Milk.

2. Luncheon Menu

a. **English Lunch**

Ginger Crab Cakes

Rack of lamb with a herb and Shallot Crust

Boulangere Potatoe

Fresh Beans

Chocolate and Rum Pie.

b. **Continental Lunch**

Grape Fruit Cocktail

Fillet of sole Bonne-Femme

Roast surrey chicken

Fresh beans: chateau potatoes

Sherry Trifle.

c. **African Lunch**

i. Home made soup

Pounded Yam, Vegetable Soup

Assorted Meat Stew

Pawpaw Ring.

ii Beef Stock Soup

Rice and Beans with chicken stew

Fried Plantain

Steamed Green Vegetables

Fruit Salad.

3. Dinner Menu

a. **English Dinner**

Smoked fish Ravioli with Dill and mustard cream.

Rump of Lamb with Fried Celeriac

Reform Sauce.

Calvados and Apple Brulee with Palmlers.

b. Continental Dinner

Horsd'oeuvre
Mixed Grill
Brussels sprouts, Fried Potatoes.

Cream Caramel.

c. African Dinner

- i. Nsala Soup
Fish Vegetable Stew/Bean Soup
Agidi or Tuwo

Fresh Fruit.

- (ii) Home Made Soup
Yam Pottage with Meat/Fish Stew
Boiled Spinach

Fresh Fruit.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

The vice chancellor of your university is hosting a co-heads meeting. As a would be catering practitioner, plan a three course menu suitable for lunch, taking into consideration all the factors to consider when writing a menu.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have discussed the principles of menu composing, essential points to consider when planning a menu, the different types of menu and the guidelines of writing a menu. We also discussed the various factors to consider along menu planning.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit covers the principles of menu composing and planning. It highlights the factors to consider when composing and planning a menu. It also highlights the different types of menu that are available and the condition under which a particular menu should be chosen. Lastly, it highlights examples of planned meals that can be used as a reference point for the student in future.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE**1st course****(Starter/Appetizers)**

Tomato Soup with Croutons

Or

Fresh Fish Pepper Soup.

2nd Course**(Main Dish)**

Fried Rice with Peppered Chicken, served with side Salad or Coleslaw.

Or

Pounded Yam, Egusi/Vegetable with assorted Meat Stew.

3rd Course**(Sweet/Desert)**

Baked Egg Custard

Or

Fresh Fruit Salad.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. “Menu planning is such an important feature in catering that many points have to be considered when planning a menu”. Enumerate the various points to be considered when planning a menu.
2. State the different types of menus that are available to customers.
3. Differentiate between a’la carte menu and table d’hote menu.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 FOOD PURCHASING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Once a menu is planned, a number of activities must occur to bring it into reality. One of the first and most important stages is to purchase and receive the materials needed to produce the menu. Skilful purchasing with good receiving can do much to maximise the results of a good menu. When you shop, you are not just purchasing food, you are buying nutrients. By choosing food with care, you can be sure of getting the most nutrition for your money. The food materials we used in cooking our food is expensive and can spoil easily too, it is therefore, necessary that the food purchased are carefully planned by the caterer.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the importance of buying good quality food stuff;
- Understand the guidelines for purchasing good quality food stuff;

- Describe the principles of purchasing;
- Explain the methods of purchasing; and
- Distinguish between perishable and non perishable foods.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Need for Good Purchasing

Food is very important for good health. It is therefore important for the caterers to purchase good quality food to be able to produce nutritious and attractive meals. Good quality food stuff is one that is fresh and has a good appearance. It is not damaged but may be expensive. It is important to buy good quality food stuffs for the following reasons

1. Good quality food stuffs are fresh and wholesome.
2. Their nutrients are still intact.
3. They keep well in storage
4. They are not yet attracted by food spoilage organisms
5. They are appetising and taste good
6. They are economical because there is little or no wastage. This is because they are still fresh.
7. They have good appearance, e.g. fresh fruits.

3.2 Liaison with Food Suppliers.

There are certain important factors involved in a successful working relationship with food suppliers. Both parties have responsibilities that must be carried out to ensure proper food safety and quality. Incidences of foods borne illnesses, regardless of the cause have an impact on their reputation of caterers and suppliers. A good working relationship is a major help in avoiding such incidents.

Suppliers must be aware of what is expected from the product. They must also make sure that the caterer is aware of food safety limitations associated with the product. They are usually stated on all labeling. Such statements may just simply say “keep refrigerated” or “keep frozen”.

Others might well include a graph or chart of the projected shelf life at different storage temperatures. Some products may have manufactured date and expiry date on the label. Meeting these specifications is an important factor in a successful catering operation.

3.3 The Purchasing Cycle

The purchasing cycle is pivotal to overall business performance. Those in authority should put a firm policy in place.

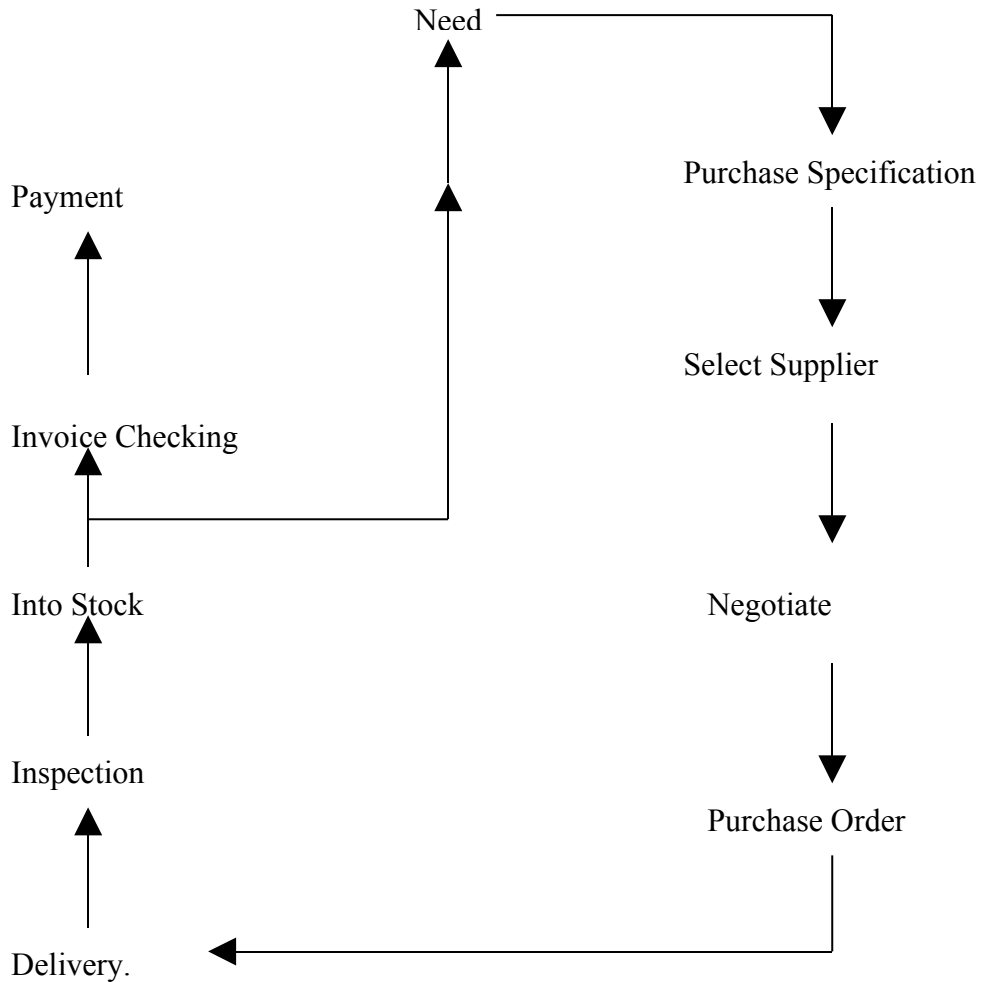


Fig. 12.1 The Purchasing Cycle

3.3.1 Food Purchasing

Skilful purchasing can do much to maximise the result of a good menu. There are six important steps to remember.

1. Know the market
2. Determine purchasing needs
3. Establish and use specifications
4. Design the purchase procedures
5. Receive and check the goods
6. Evaluate the purchasing task

3.3.2 Knowing the Market

Since markets vary considerably, to do a good job of purchasing, a buyer must know the characteristics of each market.

A market is a place in which ownership of commodity changes from one person to another. This could occur using the telephone, at a street corner, in a retail or wholesale establishment or at auction sales.

It is important that the food and beverage purchaser has knowledge of the items to be purchased, such as:

1. Where they are grown
2. Seasons of production
3. Approximate costs
4. Conditions of supply and demand
5. Laws and regulations governing the market and the products
6. Marketing agents and their services
7. Processing
8. Storage requirements
9. Commodity and product class and grade

3.4The Buyer

This is the key person who makes decisions regarding quality, amount, price, what will satisfy the customers but also make a profit. The wisdom of the buyer's decisions will be reflected in the success or failure of the operation. The buyer must not only be knowledgeable about the product, but must have the necessary skills required in dealing with sales people, suppliers and other market agents. The buyer must be prepared for hard and often aggressive negotiations. The responsibility for buying varies from company to company according to the size and management policy.

Buying may be the responsibility of the chef, manager, store keeper, buyer or buying department. The buyer must have the knowledge of the initial organisation of the company, especially the operational needs and he must be able to obtain the product needs at a competitive price. Buyers must also acquaint themselves with the procedures of production and how these items are going to be used in production operations, in order that the right items are purchased.

3.4.1 Buying Methods

This depend on the type of market and the kind of operation. Purchasing procedures are usually formal or informal. Both have advantages and

disadvantages. Informal methods are suitable for casual buying, where the amount involved is not large and speed simplicity are desirable. Formal contracts are best for large contracts for commodities purchased over a long period of time. Prices do not vary much during a year, once the basic price has been established. Prices and supply tend to fluctuate with informal methods.

1. **Informal Buying:** This usually involves oral negotiation, talking directly to sales people face to face or using the telephone. The informal method varies according to market conditions.
2. **Formal Buying:** Known as competitive buying, formal buying involves giving suppliers written specifications and quantity needs. Negotiations are normally written.

3.4.2 Selecting Suppliers

Selecting suppliers is important in the purchasing process. Firstly consider how a supplier will be able to meet the needs of your operation. Consider. (1) Price; (2) Delivery and (3) quality and standard.

Information about the suppliers can be obtained from other purchasers. When interviewing prospective suppliers, you need to question how reliable a supplier will be under competition and how stable under varying market conditions.

3.4.3 Principles of Purchasing

A menu dictates an operation's needs. Based on these, the buyer searches for a market that can supply the company. After the right market is located, the various products available that may meet the needs are then investigated. The right product must be obtained to meet the need and give the right quality desired by the establishment. Other factors that might affect production needs include:

1. Type and image of the establishment
2. Style of operation and system of service
3. Occasion for which the item is needed.
4. Amount of storage available (dry, refrigerated or frozen)
5. Finance available and supply policies of the organisation
6. Availability, seasonability, price trends and supply

The skill of the employees, catering assistant, chefs, must also be taken into account as well as the condition of the product to produce the item or dish required. The storage life of the product should be considered.

3.4.4 Types of Needs

1. **Perishable Food:** For fresh fruits and vegetables, dairy products, meat and fish, prices and suppliers may vary and the informal buying methods are frequently used. Perishables should be purchased to meet menu needs for a short period only.
2. **Staple Food:** Examples are canned, bottled, dehydrated, frozen products. Formal or informal purchasing may be used because items are staple and can be easily stored. Bid buying is frequently used to take advantage of quality price purchasing.
3. **Daily Use Needs:** Daily use or contract items are delivered frequently on per stock bases. Stocks are kept up to the desired level and supply is automatic. Supplies may be daily, several times a week, weekly or less often. Most items are perishable, and therefore suppliers must not be excessive but only sufficient to get through to the next delivery.

3.4.5 Purchasing Good Quality Food Stuffs

Determining quantity and quality of items to be purchased is important. This is based on the operational needs. The buyer must be informed by the chef or other members of the production team of the product needed. The chef and his or her team must establish the quality and they should be required to inspect the goods on arrival. The buyer with this information then checks out the market and looks for the best quality and best price.

Delivery arrangements and other factors will be handled by the buyer. Buyers need to know production and should be able to decide how many portions a given size may yield. Here, they must also understand the various yield. The chef must inform the buyer of the quantities. The buyer must be aware also of different packaging sizes, such as jars, bottles, cans and the yield from each package. Grades, styles, appearance, composition, varieties, quality factors must be indicated; such as colour, shape texture, size, absence of defects, bruising, maturity, irregular.

However, quality standards must be established by the chef and management team. When the menu is planned. Menu and recipes may be developed using standardised recipes which directly relate to the buying procedure and standard purchasing specifications.

The following are guidelines for purchasing good quality food stuffs:

1. Acquire and keep up to date, a sound knowledge of all the commodities to be purchased.
2. Be aware of the different types of commodities that are available.
3. Consider the nutritional contents of the commodities.
4. Plan menu for several days at a time.
5. Keep a sharp eye on price variations. Buy at the best price to ensure the required quality and also an economic yield.
6. Prepare a good shopping list of food commodities to be purchased, based on the list on the menu.
7. Organize an efficient system of ordering with copies of all orders kept for cross checking, whether orders are given in writing, verbally or by telephone.
8. Compare purchasing by retail, wholesale and contract procedures to ensure the best method is selected for your particular organization.
9. Explore ALL possible suppliers. Local market, town or country; small or large.
10. Keep number of suppliers to the minimum.
11. Buy food stuffs that are in season. They are cheapest and at their best.
12. Avoid impulsive buying.
13. Compare values and prices in different stores with different sellers.
14. Issue all orders to suppliers fairly; allowing sufficient time for the order to be implemented efficiently.
15. Buy non-perishable foods in bulk and store properly.
16. Purchase vegetables and fruits as and when needed if possible.
17. Deliveries must all be checked.

18. Ensure that there are adequate storage facilities for the food stuff to be purchased.
19. All invoices must be checked for quantities and price.

3.5 Methods of Purchasing

There are three main methods of buying, each depending on the size and volume of the business.

1. **The Primary Market:** Raw materials may be purchased at the source of supply, the grower, producer or manufacturer or from the central market. Some establishments or large organisations will have a buyer who will buy directly from the primary markets. Also, a number of smaller establishments may adopt this method for some of their needs.
2. **The Secondary Market:** Goods are bought whole say from a distributor or middle man; the catering establishment will pay whole sale prices and obtain possible discounts.
3. **The Tertiary Market:** The retail or cash and carry warehouse is a method suitable for smaller companies. A current pass obtained from the warehouse is required in order to gain access. This method also requires the user to have his or her own transport.

3.5.1 Standard Purchasing Specifications

Standard purchasing specifications are documents which are drawn up for every commodity describing exactly what is required for the establishment. These standard purchasing specifications will assist with formulation of standardised recipes. A watertight specification is drawn up which, once approved, will be referred to every time the item is delivered. It is a statement of various criteria related to quantity, grade, weight, size and method of preparation, if required, such as washed and selected potatoes for baking. Other information given may be variety, maturity, age, colour, shape etc.. A copy of standard specification is often given to the supplier and to the store keeper who are left in no doubt as to what is needed. These specifications assist in the costing and control procedure.

Commodities which can be specified includes:

1. Grown (primary commodities): butchers meat; fresh fish; fresh fruit, and vegetables; milk and eggs.

2. Manufactured (secondary commodities): Bakery goods; dairy products.
3. Processed (tertiary commodities): Frozen foods like meat, fish and fruit, vegetables, dried goods and canned goods.

3.5.2 Bulk Purchasing

Apart from the various methods of purchasing mentioned above, it is important for the buyer to buy food commodities in bulk.

Bulk purchasing is the process of buying food stuffs in larger quantities.

Advantages of Bulk Buying

1. It is economical and saves money. This is because it is cheaper to buy large quantities than small bits.
2. It saves time and energy.
3. It enables the buyer to buy food in season. This means buying and storing food in the period of plenty.
4. It is very useful for food management in institutions, such as schools, hotels, etc.
5. It ensures that food is always available in the organisation.

Disadvantages of Bulk Purchasing

1. It can take much of the income and prevent purchase of other needed commodities.
2. One kind of food purchased in bulk can become monotonous in the menu.
3. Lack of proper storage and management can lead to wastage.
4. Poor quality food purchased in bulk will spoil in storage.

3.5.3 Perishable Foods

Perishable foods are those foods that can spoil easily. Examples of perishable foods are fresh meat, fish, fruit, vegetables, milk and butter.

Hints on Storage of Perishable Foods

1. Fresh meat and fish can be stored in the freezer.
2. Fruit and vegetables can be stored at the lowest part of the refrigerator
3. Prolonged storage of fruit and vegetable in the refrigerator can cause some of them to lose their taste, colours and nutritive value.
4. Perishable foods can also be processed into forms that can store for fairly long periods.

3.5.4 Non-Perishable Foods

Non-perishable foods are those foods that do not spoil easily. These can keep for a long time if stored properly. Non-perishable foods include rice, different types of beans, flour, sugar, yam, dried maize. These foods can be bought in bulk and stored outside the refrigerator.

Hints on Storage of Non-perishable Foods

1. Store only foods that are free from weevils and other insects.
2. Store food in dry and well covered containers.
3. Foods such as beans, maize, soya beans, etc can be stored for very long periods in air-tight plastic containers.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Use your knowledge of the various food commodities and the information on STANDARD PURCHASING SPECIFICATIONS to write out the standard purchasing specifications for the purchase of “fresh hard tomatoes”.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discussed food purchasing. We looked at the importance of buying good quality food stuff and the relationship between a buyer and the seller. We also looked at the purchasing cycle.

The unit also covers methods of buying, the principles of purchasing, the role of the buyer and types of needs. It also states the guideline for purchasing good quality food stuff.

Again this unit discusses the methods of purchasing, standard purchasing specifications and bulk purchasing.

Finally we examined perishable and non-perishable food stuffs and ways in which they can be stored.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit covers the theory of good purchasing. It enumerates the importance of good quality food stuff, the liaison with food suppliers and the purchasing cycle. We also highlighted the important steps to remember before purchasing food.

It pinpoints the guidelines of purchasing good quality food stuffs. It discussed the buyer and buying methods. The unit also covers the methods of purchasing, standard purchasing specifications and bulk purchasing. Perishable and non-perishable foods.

ANSWER TO SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Standard Purchasing Specification for the Purchase of Fresh Hard Tomatoes

- Commodity: - Fresh hard tomatoes.
- Size: - 50g (2oz) 47 – 57mm diameter
- Quality: Firm. Well formed, good red colour with stalk attached
- Origin: - Dutch, available March – November
- Class/Grade: Super class A
- Weight: - 6kg (13lb) net per box
- Count: - 90 – 100 per box
- Quote: - Per box/Tray
- Purchasing: - Loose in wooden tray, covered in plastic
- Delivery: - Day following order
- Storage: - Temperature 10 – 13°C (50 – 53°F) at a relative humidity of 75 – 80%
- NOTE: Avoid shortage with cucumbers and aubergines

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write short notes on the following:

1. Bulk Purchasing
2. Perishable food stuffs
3. Non-perishable food stuffs
4. The buyer
5. Standard purchase specification
6. State any TEN guidelines for purchasing good quality food stuffs.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

Foskett David, Caserani Victor and Kinton Ronald (2003). *The Theory of Catering*. (10th ed.). London: Hodder and Stoughton Educational. A Division of Hodder Headline. London.

MODULE 4

Unit 1	Meat (Beef) and Poultry
Unit 2	The Kitchen Basics (Stocks, Soups and Sauces)
Unit 3	Culinary Terms

UNIT 1 MEAT (BEEF) AND POULTRY

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Meat is the most important commodity on the menu and except for vegetarians; it plays a part in everyone's diet.

Meat is the muscle derived from animals after slaughtering them. It can therefore be regarded as the post-mortem aspect of animals. There are four main types of meat in general use: lamb and mutton; beef; veal; and pork, (including bacon and ham). These meats including their offal provide the basic commodity for a vast range of dishes. Meat is not a seasonal commodity and in all its forms, it may be included in menus throughout the year. The importance derived from its nutritional value is that it is the most valuable source of protein - that is the substance in the

diet which provides growth and repair of body tissues. All the cooking methods can be applied to meat.

Poultry refers to meat derived from domesticated birds such as fowl, guinea fowl, Turkey, duck and pigeon. Although guinea fowl is classified as poultry, it is usually treated as game bird. Poultry are usually available in fresh, chilled and frozen form. Various sizes and weights of all birds are available and it is usual to purchase birds plucked, cleaned and ready for preparation and cooking. Boiled poached braised and poelected poultry as well as composite dishes are prepared from poultry. The composition and nutritive value of poultry is similar to that of meat from animals.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Classify the different types of meat and poultry;
- Explain the nutritional value of meat and poultry;
- Identify the various methods of cooking meat and poultry; and
- Describe the different ways of preserving and storing meat, and poultry.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Meat Cookery

Meat is generally accepted as being the flesh of animals, excluding fowl and fish, used as food. Meat is probably the most important food that we use accounting as it does for the major share of our total expenditure on food. Since there are different types of animals, it follows that there will be different types of meat. Thus we have meat from cow, goat, sheep, horse, pig, etc. These meats from different animals are usually given specific names e.g. the flesh of cow is known as beef, that from sheep is called mutton, that from a young sheep is called lamb, veal is the flesh of a calf while the flesh from the pig is known as pork. Meats from other bush animals are often called game.

3.1.1 Structure

To cook meat properly, it is important to understand the structure of meat. Lean meat is made of bundles of muscles fibres. Each separate fibre contains water, protein, numerous salts and extractives. The fibres are joined together and connected to the bone of the animals by

connective tissues. The connective tissues are made up of a protein known as collagen which changes to gelatine on boiling.

3.1.2 Food Value

The major nutrient found in meat is protein. The protein found in meat is of high quality because it is rich in all the essential amino acids. Meat is also a valuable source of B. complex vitamins, and iron and contains a little sulphur, calcium, phosphorous, vitamins A and D. Depending on the amount of fat it contains, meat can also provide energy to the body. Meat contains all the essential amino-acids in the proportions required and can readily be absorbed and used by the body. The extractives found in meat do not provide much nourishment but give meat its definite flavour and aids digestion. Meat is however, a poor source of carbohydrate in our diet.

Table 13.1 Nutrient Composition of Meat

	Energy Value (Kcal)	Protein (g)	Fat (g)	Carbohydrate (g)	Calcium (mg)	Iron (mg)	Vitamin A (mg)	Thiamine (mg)	Riboflavin (mg)	Niacin (mg)
Beef	313	14.8	28.2	0	10	4.0	0	0.07	0.20	7.8
Bacon	476	11.0	48.0	0	10	1.0	0	0.40	0.15	4.0
Chicken	144	20.8	6.7	0	11	1.5	0	0.04	0.17	9.5
Kidney	105	16.9	4.2	0	14	13.	300	0.30	2.00	11.
Lamb	331	13.0	31.0	0	10	4	0	0.15	0.25	1
Liver	139	16.5	8.1	0	8	2.0	6000	0.30	3.00	7.7
Pork	408	12.0	40.0	0	10	13.	1.0	1.00	0.20	17.
Tripe	60	11.6	1.0	0	70	9	10	0.10	0.10	1
						10				7.7
						0.7				5.7

Composition per 100g of raw edible portion.

3.1.3. Quality

The characteristics of good quality meat are as follows:

Beef: The flesh should be firm, cherry red and finely grained. The thicker parts should show flecks of fat i.e. marbling. The fat should be firm, smooth and creamy white. Deep yellow fat is usually a sign of an older animal. The bones in young animals are pink and slightly porous.

Lamb: The flesh should be light red and finely grained. The fat in the young animal is white or creamy white and the bones are soft and porous. The carcass as a whole should be evenly fleshed with an even coating of fat.

Mutton: Mutton from animal of 1 to 3 years in age can be tender and of good flavour and can produce excellent joints for roasting and grilling. The flesh is a little darker than that of lamb. The fat is white and bristle and the bones much harder than in lamb. Too large a carcass with an over-abundance of fat and flinty bones indicates an older animal giving tough and stringy meat.

Veal: The flesh should be very pale pink, finely grained and smooth. The outer covering of fat should be thin but the kidney should be well covered with fat. The bones are large in proportion to the size and should be soft, bluish white and porous.

Pork: The flesh should be light pink and finely grained. The skin should be thin, smooth and dry and the fat should not be excessive in proportion to the flesh.

Bacon: This is the best when purchased by the side. It should have a clean, sweet smell and there should be no sign of clamminess.

Ham: These can be obtained cured and smoked, or green. They should be perfectly dry to the touch and should have a clean sweet smell. Any curing mould should be dry.

3.2 Preservation and Storage of Meat

Salting: Meat can be pickled in brine, and this method of preservation may be applied to silverside, brisket and ox tongues. Salting is also used in the production of bacon, before the sides of pork are smoked, and for ham.

Chilling: This means that meat is kept at a temperature just above freezing-point in a controlled atmosphere. Chilled meat cannot be kept in the usual type of cold room for more than a few days and this is sufficient time for the meat to hang enabling it to become tender.

Freezing: Small carcasses, such as lamb and mutton, can be frozen and the quality is not affected by freezing. They can be kept frozen until required and then thawed out before being used. Some beef is frozen, but it is of inferior quality to chilled beef.

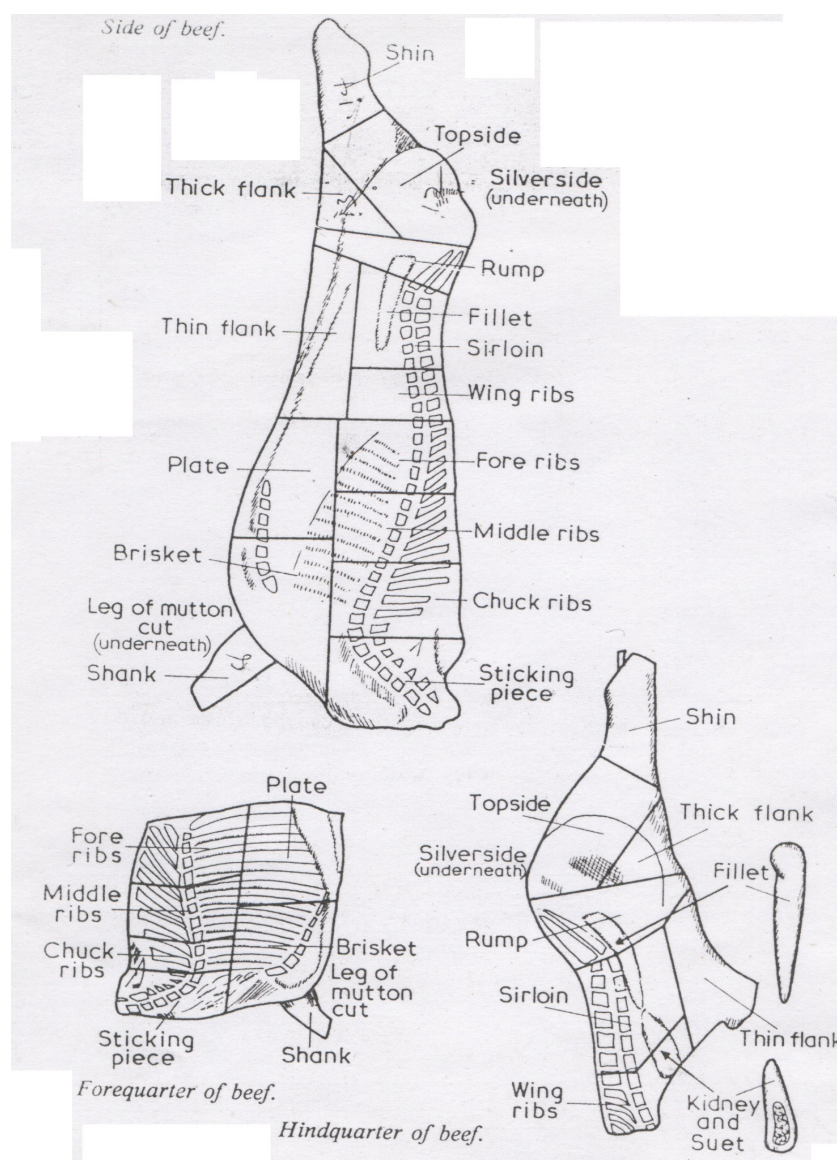


Fig. 13.1 Side of Beef

Canning: Large quantities of meat are canned, and corned beef is of importance since it has a very high protein content. Pork is used for tinned luncheon meat.

Storage: Fresh meat as carcass or as wholesale cuts should be hung in the refrigerator at a temperature of 2°C - 3°C and at an approximate humidity of 80° . Smaller cuts should be laid on the trays and stored at the same temperature, the tray being wiped daily to remove blood which may have drained from the meat. Frozen meat should be stored in a deep freezer at 18°C or below until it is required for use. It should then be removed to normal storage temperature to defrost for 48 hours. Bacon and ham are best stored in a cool room at approximately 10°C . The

utmost care and attention is necessary when storing meat to ensure that it is kept in perfect condition.

3.2.1 Different Cuts of Meat

The meat derived from the different parts of the animal are called the different cuts of meat. Since the different parts of the animal perform different functions. The quality of the cuts differs especially with respect to tenderness or toughness.

Offal

The internal organs of the animal are collectively known as offal. They include liver, kidney, sweetbread, heart, tripe, brain, etc. They of considerable nutritive value... They provide good quality protein and are also good sources of mineral elements and vitamins. Offal is very perishable and should therefore be cooked as quickly as possible if no refrigerator is available. They also require thorough cleaning before cooking. They should be fresh when purchased.

3.3 Methods of Cooking Beef

There are many methods of cooking beef. The method chosen will however depend on two factors:

1. The type of cut.
2. The objective of the cooking and subsequent utilisation of the beef. The various methods of cooking beef are: boiling, frying, stewing, roasting and broiling.

Fig. 13.2 Methods of Cooking Beef

Joint	Use	Menu example
Hindquarter: Shin	Consomme, beef tea, stewing	Consomme royale
Topside	Braising, stewing, second-class roasting.	Beuf braise aux nuilles
Silver side	Pickled and Boiled	Boiled silver side, carrots and sumpings
Thick flank	Braising and stewing	Ragout de beuf aux legumes
Rump	Grilling and frying as steaks	Grilled rump steak
Sirloin	Roasting, frilling and frying as steaks	Contrefilet de beuf Roti Entrecote Grille

Wing ribs	Roasting, grilling and frying as steaks	Cote de beuf Rotil' Anglaise
Thin flank	Stewing, boiling, sausages	Beuf, bouilli a la francaise.
Filet	Roasting, grilling, frying	Touredos chasseur, filet de Beuf bouquetiere
<u>Forequarter:</u> Fore-ribs middle ribs	Roasting, braising	Cote de beuf Roti
Chuck ribs	Stewing, braising	Beef steak pie.
Sticking piece	Stewing sausages	Sausages toad in the hole.
Plate and brisket	Pickled and boiled	Pressed beef
Leg of mutton	Braising and stewing	Halhis de beuf duchesse
Shank	Concome, beef tea	Consomme aux profiteroles.

3.3.1 The Effects of Cooking on Meat

- Cooking makes meat digestible
- It improves the flavour which helps to stimulate the flow of digestive juices.
- It improves the appearance
- Cooking diminishes the amount of water the meat contains. This entails considerable loss of soluble nutrients.
- Cooking helps to remove some of the fat which may be indigestible if too much is eaten.
- It loosens the fibres by converting the connective tissues which hold them into gelatine.
- Considerable shrinkage occurs on cooking due to coagulation of protein, loss of juice and loss of fat.
- Greater shrinkage occurs with a longer cooking period and higher temperature

3.4. Poultry Cookery

Birds and their eggs are not supposed to be poisonous, though they may be, and often become unwholesome because of the food that the birds eat, which at all times greatly changes the quality of the flesh, even birds of the same breed. Poultry is the name given to domestic birds especially bred to be eaten and for their eggs. It includes the different varieties and sizes of chicken, turkey, duck, geese and guinea fowl. Owing to present day methods of breeding poultry, poultry is available the year round either chilled or frozen.

3.4.1 Food Value

The composition and nutritive value of poultry is similar to that of mat animals. In poultry especially chicken and turkey, the fat lies under the skin and around the giblet, it is not embedded between the fibres as in meat. The fibres in poultry flesh are finer and shorter than those of meat. This also makes the poultry flesh more easily digested than meat. Like meat, poultry flesh is rich in protein of good quality. It contains iron and small quantities of the B-complex vitamins, but has virtually no calcium nor vitamins A and D. The legs of chicken and turkey contain considerable more B-complex vitamin, but less nicotine acid than the breast.

3.4.2 Classification

Poultry flesh can be classified into two: white meat and dark meat. The white meat consists of meat derived from the breast and wings of the bird, while dark meat refers to that derived from the legs. The white meat is more digestible than the dark meat. This is because the dark meat is more muscular and of coarser fibre because of the greater muscular activity of the legs. Like beef, the whole carcass of poultry is divided into different cuts.

Table 13.3 Terms used to identify young and mature classes of poultry

Species	Young	Mature.
Chicken	Young chicken, Broiler, fryer Roaster.	Mature chicken Hen Stewing chicken fowl
Turkey	Young turkey Fryer-roaster Young hen	Mature turkey Yearling turkey Old turkey
Ducks.	Duckling Young duckling Broiler duckling Fryer duckling Roaster duckling	Mature duck Old duck.

Poultry is usually classified according to the degree of tenderness which in turn depends on the age of fowl or bird. The classification of poultry is shown above. Young birds should be chosen for barbecuing, frying,

broiling or roasting. Mature birds are appropriate for stewing, for use in soups, salad and other prepared dishes containing chicken. Thus in choosing poultry, plumpness and age are the main points to note.

3.4.3 Quality

Chicken: All chicken should have plump firm breast, with white unbroken skin. The end of the breast bone should be flexible and the legs covered with small scales. Any spurs on the legs should be small. Any blue discoloration with an attendant stickiness and smell is a sign of deterioration in quality. Boiling fowls usually show marked signs of toughness. For example the end of the breast bone is firm and hard and the skin usually shows an abundance of long hairs before singeing. The legs are covered with shiny, large, hard scales.

Turkey: Good quality is determined by a large plump well – firmed breast with small legs in proportion to the size of the bird. The skin should be unbroken and of a white to bluish colour. A clean fresh smell is essential. Any gamey smell will result in a strong flavour when cooked.

Duck and Goose: The young bird should have a well formed breast with unbroken skin and no signs of stickiness. The end of the breast-bone should be pliable and the webbed feet clean in colour and easy to tear.

Guinea Fowl: The breast should be plump with unbroken skin. All other qualities for chicken are applicable. Guinea fowl is at its best during the months of June to December.

3.4.4 Cleaning and Storage of Poultry

Cleaning

- Singe in order to remove any hairs, take care not to scorch the skin.
- Split the neck skin by gripping firm and making a length wise incision on the underside; cut off neck as close to the body as possible
- Cut off the head
- Remove the crop and loosen the intestines and lungs with the forefinger
- Cut out the vent and wipe clean
- Draw out the inwards, being careful not to break the gall bladder, because the green liquid (bile) is bitter and will contaminate the bird.

- Wipe the vent end if necessary
- Split and clean the gizzard
- Cut off the gall bladder from the liver and discard
- Keep the neck and heart for stock.

Storage

Poultry can be stored in two forms: (a) Live and (b) Dressed and Frozen. The live poultry is the one not yet killed, while the dressed chicken or turkey is the killed and plucked one. This type is usually stored in the freezer and maintained in a frozen condition. To ensure good storage of dressed poultry, there should be no power failure.

3.4.5 Cooking Methods

Like meat cookery, there are different methods of cooking poultry flesh depending on the choice of the cook and the purpose for which the poultry is meant. The different methods of cooking that can be used are: boiling, frying, roasting, grilling and stewing.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The unit discussed meat (beef) and poultry. It discussed the structure, nutritional value, preparation, preservation and storage of meat and poultry. It also mentioned the different classes of meat and poultry. It examined factors to be considered before or when buying poultry.

5.0 SUMMARY

Meat is the most important commodity on the menu. The same goes for poultry and fish. Meat can be in form of beef, mutton, lamb, pork etc. Meat also has different cuts and the cuts have methods of preparation. Meat can be preserved by chilling, freezing, salting and canning.

Poultry can be classified into white meat from the breasts and wings and dark meat from the legs. We considered the qualities all poultry should have. We then looked at how it can be cleaned and preserved.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1.
 - a. Briefly discuss the nutritive value of meat and poultry.
 - b. Name six different types of meat cuts and state the best method of cooking each cut.
2. State how to dress and cut poultry appropriately.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 THE KITCHEN BASICS (STOCKS, SOUPS AND SAUCES)

CONTENTS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Stocks is the liquid containing some of the soluble nutrients and flavours of food which are extracted by prolonged and gentle simmering (with the exception of fish stock, which requires only 20 minutes). Such liquid is the foundation of soups, sauces and gravies. Stock is the most important liquid base that is used in the preparation of many dishes such as soups, sauces, stews and braising. When correctly made from fresh ingredients, good stock will enhance the quality of the dish it is to be used for. Stocks are the medium by which nutrients can be conserved and recycled in a variety of ways, thus enriching customers' eating experience.

Sauce is a well flavoured liquid which has been thickened by one or a combination of the following: (a) roux (b) a starch (c) egg yolk (d) beurre-manie and butter.

Sauces play a very important part in cookery. A good sauce can enhance the quality of the food with which it is served. Some sauces are used to aid digestion and act as a contrast to the nature of the dish, such as when apple sauce is served with roast pork.

In this case, the sauce assists in counteracting the fatty nature of the meat and makes it more easily digestible.

Soups play an important part on any menu in which they are featured. Their function is to create appetite and they should not form a meal in themselves. Soup may be served at the beginning of a lunch, dinner or supper. The soup which is the first course of the meal must stimulate the appetite and by the excellence of its flavour excite the gastric juices so that the following courses may be better enjoyed and digested.

A soup served at the beginning of a meal should provide a contrast in flavour, colour, and texture, to the dishes which follow it. Soups are generally served so that they may give a feeling of warmth and well-being.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain the various types and classification of stocks, sauces and soups;
- Identify the accompaniment for soups;
- Describe the methods of making basic stocks, sauces and soups;
- Explain the uses of stocks, Sauces and soups in the meal; and
- Describe how the basic ingredients are used in various ways.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Stocks

Freshly made stocks are essential to fine cookery. Stock is the most important liquid base that is used in the preparation of many dishes such as soups, sauces, stews and braising. Stocks are the medium by which nutrients can be conserved and recycled in a variety of ways thus enriching your eating experience.

These nutrients are in all foods – bones, scraps, carcasses, gravies, unserved portions, vegetable scrapings and trimmings, water in which vegetables have been cooked, leftovers in the refrigerator (strong, vegetables such as cabbage and broccoli are not advisable for use in a stock pot). These scraps need only to be put into a pot, covered with water and for simmered two to three hours with the addition of herbs and seasoning. Stock cubes and proprietary essences are useful in an emergency when there is temporary shortage of stock, but in general these are not suitable for large scale use since they produce stock which being already coloured and seasoned. This is against the rules regarding the use of stock. Stock is very economical to produce in the traditional manner as compared with the cost of instant stock. Stocks are the foundation of many important kitchen operations; therefore, the greatest possible care should be taken in their production.

Guideline for stock preparation as follows:

1. Use clean stock pot.
2. Use fresh ingredients of good quality in the correct amount.
3. Break the bones so that the maximum amount of flavour can be extracted into the stock.
4. Remove scum as it rises to the surface, otherwise, it will boil into the stock and spoil the colour and flavour.
5. Skim fat, otherwise, it will taste greasy.
6. Stock should always simmer gently, for if it is allowed to boil quickly, it will evaporate and go cloudy.
7. It should not be allowed to go off the boil otherwise, in hot weather, it may go sour.
8. Do not add salt to stock.
9. When making chicken stock, if raw bones are not available, then a boiling fowl can be used.
10. If stock is to be kept, strain, re-boil, cool quickly and place in the refrigerator.

3.1.1 Types of Stock

1. White stock made from beef, mutton veal or chicken can be used in white soups, sauces or stews.
2. Brown stocks made from beef mutton, veal, chicken and game can be used in brown soups, sauces, gravies and stews.

3.1.2 General Proportions of Ingredients and Methods for all Stocks Except Fish Stock

Recipe	Quantity
Raw meats bones	2kg

Water	4 litres.
Vegetable (onion, carrot, celery, leek)	1/2kg
Bouquet garni (thyme, bay leaf, parsley stalks)	
Pepper corns	12

Method:

1. Chop up the bones, remove any fat or marrow.
2. Place in a stock pot, add the water and bring to the boil
3. If the scum is dirty, then blanch and wash off the bones; cover again with cold water and reboil.
4. Skim, wipe round sides of the pot and simmer gently.
5. Add washed, peeled, whole vegetables, bouquet garnish and pepper corns
6. Simmer 6 – 8 hours. Skim and strain

NOTE: During the cooking a certain amount of evaporation must take place, therefore add ½ litre (1 pint) cold water just before boiling point is reached. This will also help to throw the scum to the surface and make it easier to skim.

3.1.3 Brown Stocks

1. Chop the bones and brown well on all sides either by
 - a. Placing in a roasting tin in the oven or
 - b. Carefully browning in a little fat in a frying pan.
2. Drain off any fat and place the bones in a stock pot.
3. Brown any sediment that may be at the bottom of the tray, deglaze (swill out) with ½ litre (1 pint) of boiling water, simmer for a few minutes and add to the bones.
4. Add the old water to boil and skim.
5. Wash, peel and roughly cut the vegetables, fry in a little fat until brown, strain add to the bones.
6. Add bouquet garni and pepper corns
7. Simmer for 6 – 8 hours. Skim and strain.

NOTE: for brown stocks a few squashed tomatoes and washed mushroom trimmings can also be added to improve the flavour, as can a calf's foot and or a knuckle of bacon.

3.1.4 Fish Stock

Recipe	
Quantity	
Margarine or butter	50g
Onion	200g

White fish bones (preferably sole, whiting or turbot)	2kg
Lemon juice of	$\frac{1}{2}$
Bag leaf	1
Parsley stalks	
Water	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ litres.

Method:

1. Melt the margarine or butter in a thick-bottom pan.
2. Add the sliced onions, well-washed fish bones and remainder of the ingredients, except water.
3. Cover with grease proof paper and a lid and sweat (cook gently without colouring) for 5 minutes.
4. Add the water, bring to the boil, skim and simmer for 20 minutes then strain. Longer cooking time will spoil the flavour.

3.1.5 White Vegetable Stock (4 portions)

Recipe	Quantity
Onion	100g
Carrot	100g
Celery	100g
Leak	100g
Water	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ litres (3pt).

Method:

1. Roughly chop all the vegetables
2. Place all the ingredients in a sauce pan, add water, bring to the boil
3. Allow to simmer for approximately 1 hour.
4. Skim if necessary. Strain and use.

3.1.6 Glazes

They are made by boiling steadily white or brown beef stock or fish stock and allowing to reduce to a sticky or gelatinous consistency. This is then stored in jars and when cold kept in the refrigerator for up to one week. If it is to be deep frozen, then put into small preserving jars which have been sterilised for 1 hour. The glazes can be kept for several months. Glazes are used to improve flavour of a prepared sauce which may taste bland or may be lacking in strength. They may also be used as a base for sauces such as fish glaze for white wine sauce. Butter and / or cream may be added.

3.2 Sauces

As mentioned earlier a sauce is a liquid which has been thickened by one or a combination of the following:

Roux

Beurremanie (kneaded butter)

Egg yolk

Corn flour, arrow root or starch,

Cream and/or butter added to reduce stock.

All sauces should be smooth, glossy in appearance, definite in taste and light in texture; the thickening medium should be used in moderation.

3.2.1 Roux

A roux is a combination of fat and flour which are cooked together. There are three degrees to which a roux may be cooked, namely: (i) white roux, (ii) blond roux (iii) brown roux. A boiling liquid should never be added to a hot roux as the result may be lumpy and the person making the sauce may be scalded by the steam produced.

White roux is used for white (béchamel) sauce. Fat and or flour are cooked together without colouring for a few minutes to a sandy texture.

Blond roux is used for veloutes, tomato sauce and soups. Equal quantities of margarine, butter or vegetable oil and flour are cooked for a little longer than a white roux, but without catering to a sandy texture.

Brown roux is used for brown (espagnole) sauce and soups. Use 200g dripping or vegetable oil to 250g flour per four litre (1 gal.) of stock, cooked together slowly to a light brown colour.

3.2.2 Other Thickening Agents for Sauces

Cornflour, arrow root or starch, such as potatoes starch are used for thickening gravy and sauces. These are diluted with water, stock or milk, then stirred into the boiling liquid and allowed to reboil for a few minutes and strained. For large scale cooking and economy, flour may be used.

Beurre manie is used chiefly for fish sauces. Equal quantities of butter or margarine and flour are kneaded to a smooth paste and mixed into a boiling liquid.

Egg Yolk is used in mayonnaise, Hollandaise and custard sauces.

3.2.3 Classification of Sauces

Sauces are classified as follows:

1. **Basic Sauces:** These are sauces from which many other sauces are derived and the quality of derived sauces depends to a great extent on the quality of their basic sauce. Strict attention should be paid to their preparation.
2. **Sauces based on demi-glace and jus:** This category includes all the small brown sauces which have either demi-glace or jus as a base and are finished with additional flavouring and garnishes.
3. **Sauces based on Béchamel and velouté:** This category includes all white and blond sauces which have either Béchamel or velouté as a base and are finished with additional flavouring and garnishes.
4. **Egg and butter sauces:** This group includes all the sauces made by the process of emulsifying egg yolks and butter. Sauce Hollandaise and its derivatives and sauce Béarnaise are included in this classification.
5. **Fish sauces:** This type comprises those sauces which are specifically served with fish.
6. **Cold sauces:** This kind is made up of mayonnaise and its derivatives and other cold sauces, mainly English in origin.
7. **Miscellaneous sauces:** This kind includes all the sauces which do not come under the previous classifications, mainly because of the individuality of their colour and flavour.

3.2.4 Basic Sauce Recipes

White sauce (Béchamel)

This is the basic white sauce made from milk and a white roux.

Recipe	(4 portions)	Quantity
Margarine, oil or butter		100g
Flour		100g
Milk		1 litre (1qt)
Studded onion		1

Method:

1. Melt the margarine or butter in a thick bottom pan.
2. Add the flour and mix in
3. Cook for a few minutes over a gentle heat without colouring.
4. Remove from the heat to cool the roux.
5. Gradually add the warmed milk and stir till smooth.
6. Add onion studded with cloves
7. Allow to simmer for 30 minutes
8. Remove the onion and pass through a conical strainer
9. Cover with a film of butter or margarine to prevent a skin forming.

3.2.5 Recipe for Brown Sauce (Espagnole)

Recipe	(4 Portions)	Quantity
Good dripping oil		50g
Flour		60g
Tomatoe puree		25g
Brown stock		1 litre
Carrot		100g
Onion		100g
Celery		50g

Method:

1. Heat the dripping or oil in a thick-bottomed pan.
2. Add the flavour, cook out slowly to a light brown colour, stirring frequently.
3. Cool and mix in the tomato puree
4. Gradually mix in the boiling stock. Bring to the boil.
5. Wash, Peel and roughly cut the vegetables
6. Lightly brown in a little fat or oil in a frying pan.
7. Drain off the fat and add to the sauce
8. Simmer gently for 4 – 6 hours. Skim when necessary. Strain

Note: Care should be taken when making the brown roux not to allow it to cook too quickly, otherwise the starch in the flour (which is a thickening agent) will burn, and its thickening properties will weaken. Over browning should be avoided as this tends to make the sauce taste bitter.

3.3. Soup in the Menu

Soup has been and still is, a mode of preparing food. It forms the first course of all lunch, dinner or supper. The soup that is the fore runner of

the meal must stimulate the appetite and by the excellence of its flavour excite the gastric juices so that the following courses may be better enjoyed and digested. The amount of soup to be served varies, depending on the type of soup and the number of courses to follow.

3.3.1 Classification of Soups

Although, there are hundreds of different soups; they can be divided into a few distinct classes. The two main groups of thick and thin soups may be sub-divided – thin soups into broth and clear soups; while thick soups into puree, cream soups, and thickened soups. There remains quite a large group of soups which fit into no one group. These may be termed mixed or “national” soups.

1. Broths

These are the uncleared soup liquids in which mutton, beef, veal, rabbit, sheep's head or chicken have been cooked. They are not thickened but may have such a large proportion of small pieces of meat, vegetables and pearl barley or rice that they may be confused with thick soups.

2. Clear soups

These are made from good first stock and if cleared with egg white are known as consommé. Consommé must be sparkling clear; they may vary in colour from pale fawn to deep golden brown according to the kind of meat used and they are always garnished. They take their distinguishing names from different garnishes of which there is an enormous variety.

3. Purees

These are soups in which the main ingredients are sieved to make them thick. They may often have an additional thickening, as have thickened soups. Purees are not garnished but are usually served with an accompaniment of croutons of fried or toasted bread, or some form of toasted bread handed separately.

4. Thickened soups

These are thickened by various added ingredients, the chief of which are; cereal foods, such as flour, corn flour, arrowroot, barley or rice flour, semolina or fine tapioca; white or brown roux; kneaded butter and flour; Egg yolk mixed with cream or milk.

5. Cream soups

Any thick soup, whether puree or thickened soup, may be termed a cream soup if cream has been added.

3.3.2 Food Value of Soups

The food value of thick/clear soups is very slight. They contain meat extractives or essences, vitamins of the B group, mineral elements and a little gelatine from the meat and bones used. Their food and body building value is negligible. Meat soup in which all the meat used is served, many contribute a reasonably large proportion of fat and body-building food to the meal. Vegetable soups have the great value of conserving all the mineral elements and provided they are not overcooked – the vitamins of the original vegetable ingredients. They are in fact, the most economical ways of serving vegetables. Soups of the soup-cum-stew variety usually provide a well balanced meal of meat or other protein food, vegetable fat and often starchy foods. The addition of egg and milk or cream to any soup will further increase the food value by adding protein, fat vitamins A and D and traces of calcium and iron.

3.3.3 Accompaniments for Soups

Accompaniments are usually handed separately. They include the following:

- **Forcemeat balls:** They are served with meat puree notably with hare soup.
- **Croutons of bread:** - They are tiny cubes of bread, fried in deep or shallow fat, served hot and golden brown. Baked croutons are made by buttering $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, thick slice of bread, cutting it into cubes, arranging it, butter side up, on a tin and baking it in a moderate oven till golden and crisp.
- **Sippets or croutons of toast:** The toast is to be fairly thin, crisp and golden, cut into fingers or tiny cubes.
- **Fairy toast:** This is bread cut into very thin slices, baked in a slow oven till golden and very crisp
- **Melba toast:** This is bread toasted golden on both sides, then carefully split into two thicknesses and slowly dried till crisp.
- **Pulled bread:** This is the inside of a French roll pulled with a fork out of the crust, torn into rough pieces which are then dried in a slow oven until pale golden and very crisp. The crusts cut into fingers and dried make delicious rusks.

- Grated cheese: It is handed with minestrone and other mixed vegetable soups.
- Sour Cream: It is handed with bortsch and with other Polish, Russian or Hungarian soups.

3.3.4 Selected Recipes for Soup Making

1. Clear soup (basic recipe) (Consommé) 4 portions

Ingredients	Quantity
Chopped or minced beef	200g
Salt	a pinch to taste
Egg white	1 – 2
Cold white or brown beef stock	1 litre (2pt)
Mixed vegetables (onion, carrot, celery, leek)	100g.
Bouquet garni	
Pepper corn	3 – 4

Method:

1. Thoroughly mix the beef, salt, egg white and ¼ litre of cold stock in a thick-bottomed pan.
2. Peel, wash and finely chop the vegetables
3. Add to the beef with the remainder of the stock, the bouquet garni and the pepper corn.
4. Place over a gentle heat and bring slowly to the boil, stirring occasionally.
5. Allow to boil rapidly for 5 – 10seconds. Give a final stir.
6. Lower the heat so that the consommé is simmering very gently
7. Cook for 1½ - 2 hours without stirring
8. Strain carefully through a double muslin.
9. Remove all fat, using both sides of 8 cm (3inc) square pieces if kitchen paper
10. Correct the seasoning and colour, which should be a delicate amber.
11. Decrease again, if necessary, bring to the boil and serve.

2. Tomatoe Soup

Recipe (4 portions)	
Ingredients	Quantity
Butter or margarine	50g
Bacon trimmings (optional)	25g
Onion, diced	100g
Carrot, diced	100g
Flour	50g

Tomatoe puree	100g
Stock	1 ¼ litres (2 ½ pt)
Bouquet garni	
Salt, pepper	

Croutons:

Ingredients	Quantity
Sliced stale bread	1
Butter	50g

Method:

1. Melt the butter or margarine in a thick-bottomed pan
2. Add bacon, onion and carrot (mire poix) and brown lightly
3. Mix in the flour and cook to a sandy texture.
4. Remove from the heat, mix in the tomatoe puree
5. Return to heat. Gradually add the hot stock
6. Stir to boil. Add the bouquet garni, season, lightly
7. Simmer for approximately 1 hour. Skim when required.
8. Remove the bouquet garni and mirepoix.
9. Liquidise or pass firmly through a sieve, then through a conical strainer.
10. Return to a clean pan, correct the seasoning and consistency. Bring to the boil.
11. Serve fried or toasted croutons separately

3. Vegetable Soup (4 portions)

Recipe	Quantity
Mixed vegetables (onion carrot, turnip, leek, celery)	300g
Butter or margarine	50g
Flour (white or whole meal)	25g
White stock	1 litre
Potato	100g
Bouquet garni	
Salt pepper	

Croutons:

Ingredient	Quantity
Slice stale Bread	1
Butter	50g

Method:

1. Peel, wash and slice all the vegetables (except the potatoes)

2. Cook gently in butter or margarine in a pan with the lid on, without colouring. Cool slightly.
3. Mix in the flour and cook slowly for a few minutes without colouring, cool slightly.
4. Mix in the hot stock
5. Stir and bring to the boil
6. Add a sliced potato, bouquet garni and season. Simmer for 30- 45 minutes. Skim when necessary
7. Remove the bouquet garni
8. Liquidise or pass through a sieve and then through a medium strainer.
9. Return to a clean pan and reboil, correct the seasoning and the consistency.
10. Serve both croutons separately.

4. Cream of Vegetable Soup

Ingredients and method as for vegetable soup. Either replace ½ litre (1 pint) stock with ½ litre (1 pint) béchamel, or finish with milk or ½ litre (1/4 pint) cream. Simmer for 5 minutes and serve as for vegetable soup.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we discussed stocks sauces and soups. We examined their nature, types and classifications. We gave examples of some stocks, sauces and soups and their methods of preparation

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, stocks can be classified into white stock, and brown stock with fish stock. Sauces are liquids which may have been thickened by combinations of the following – roux, béchamel, egg yolk, corn flour or starch and cream or butter.

Sauces can be classified into basic sauces, sauces based on béchamel and veloutes, egg and butter sauces, fish sauces, cold sauces, and miscellaneous sauces. Soups can be broadly classified into thin soups and thick soups. Thin soups can be further classified into both and clear soups while thick soups can be further classified into puree and cream soups and thickened soups.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. (a) Write short notes on the following:
 - i. Stock

- ii. Glazes
 - iii. Sauces
 - iv. Roux
- b. State the various accompaniments for soups.
- 2. Write out the recipe and method of preparing tomato soup for 10 portions.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3 CULINARY TERMS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

International cuisine is a combination of various foreign preparations brought by cooks and chefs who for many years worked in commercial kitchens. Because of this we find many foreign terms gracing our menus and being used in our kitchens today. Some of these terms have even become part of the English language. Terms such as filet, omelet and meringue are examples of this. Listed in this unit are a number of terms.

An understanding of these terms will be quite helpful to you as a student. Some of the terms listed are on this course – “menu Development and Planning” (HCM232). It is therefore important for you to be familiar with these culinary terms and glossary of French menu used in the kitchen.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Identify some of the common culinary terms used in the kitchen;
- Explain the meaning of the listed culinary terms;
- Describe how the culinary terms are used in the menu; and
- Identify glossary of French menu and kitchen terms often used.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 A Glossary of Culinary Terms

Au jus: Served with natural juice.

Au lait: With milk

Au naturel: According to nature, prepared in a plain or simple manner

Aux Croutons: With croutons. Croutons are toasted or fried small cubes of bread. Usually served as a garnish in soups and salads.

Aux Cresson: With watercress

Avocado: A thickened skin pear shaped tropical fruit with a green buttery flesh. Also known as alligator pear.

Baba au rhum: A small rum flavored cake usually served with a topping of whipped cream.

Baked Alaska: Ice cream on cake, completely covered with meringue and delicately browned in a quick oven.

Barbecue: To cook over the embers of an open fire. Also a highly seasoned tomato base sauce.

Barde: To cover poultry or game with thin slices of bacon or salt port when roasting. To inject flavor and juice.

Bar le Duc: A famous jam made from red currants. Imported from France.

Baste: To ladle dripping over a piece of meat that is being cooked as roast to make juicy and prevent dryness.

Batter: A mixture of flour, sugar, egg, milk, etc., which can be poured.

Bavarian: A desert consisting of whipped gelatin and whipped cream folded together. It is placed in a mold and refrigerated until set.

Béarnaise: A sauce, consisting of Hollandaise sauce with a tarragon vinegar mixture added. Used with meat and fish

Beat: To lift a mixture with a whip for the purpose of injecting air and to make the mixture smooth.

Béchamel: A white sauce, usually thin slices of beef tenderloin, poached in a sour cream sauce.

Bercy: A sauce consisting of brown sauce, shallots, lemon juice and white wine. Usually served with meat or fish.

Beurre: French, meaning “butter.”

Bordure: An item served with a ring of vegetables, usually duchess potatoes.

Buffet: A display of ready to eat hot and cold foods. It is self service, with the exception of the hot foods.

Cocoa: Cocoa, chocolate.

Café: French, meaning “coffee”.

Café au lait: A beverage consisting of equal parts hot milk and coffee.

Café noir: Black coffee

Camembert: A soft full flavored, ripened cheese made in the region of Camembert, France; usually served as a desert.

Canadian bacon: Trimmed, pressed smoked loin of pork. May be purchased cooked or uncooked.

Canapé: An appetiser, toasted bread or cracker covered with a savory paste and garnished attractively.

Candyling: To cook certain fruits and vegetables in a heavy sweetened syrup.

Caper: European flower bud seasoning (masturtium bud) or garnish. The buds are pickled in vinegar and packed in small green bottles.

Capon: A castrated young male chicken noted for its fine flavored, tender textured meat.

Caramelize: To cook granulated sugar to a golden brown colour for the purpose of flavoring and coloring other foods.

Carte: Bill of fare (menu).

Carte du jour: Menu of the day

Casaba melon: Large oval shaped yellow skin, white melted melon. A winter melon in season, October to April.

Casserole: An earthen dish or pot in which certain food items are baked and served.

Cavair: The salted eggs or roe of the sturgeon and certain other fish.

Cepes: A type of mushroom, usually canned in a brine.

Champignon: French, meaning “mushroom”.

Deglaze: Adding water to a pan in which meats have been sautéed or roasted to dissolve crusted juices that have dried on the bottom and sides of the pan.

Demi: French, meaning “half”.

Demiglace: A rich brown stock reduced by simmering until it is only half of its original amount.

Demitasse: A small cup of black coffee.

Deviled: An item flavored with hot condiment such as pepper, mustard, Tobasco, etc.

Diable: A term applied to deviled or highly seasoned food.

Diced: To cut in to cubes or squares.

Dissolved: to cause a dry substance to be absorbed into a liquid or become fluid.

Dot: To spot small particles or butter over the surface of an item.

Dough: A thick, soft uncooked mass of moistened flour. Used in association with bread, cookies and rolls.

Dredge: To coat an item with ingredients, usually flour.

Dress: A term usually associated with poultry and fish, meaning to trim and clean.

Drippings: Fat and natural juice that drips from roasting meats.

Du jour: French, meaning “of the day”.

Duchess potatoes: Boiled potatoes whipped with egg yolk and pressed through a pastry tube.

Duglere: With tomatoes; usually the term is associated with a white fish sauce with crushed tomatoes flowing through it.

Dust: To sprinkle an item with flour or sugar.

D’Uxelles: A type of stuffing, consisting of mushrooms, shallots and seasoning. Usually moisture is added to this base in form of tomatoes or brown sauce before it is used to stuff mushroom, tomatoes, etc.

Eclairs: A fairly long, thin hollow center shell made from choux paste and filled with cream filling and iced.

Eggplant: A large, dark purple, pear shaped vegetable.

Eggs Benedict: Poached eggs placed on top of a toasted English muffin and ham, covered with Hollandaise sauce and garnished with truffles.

Emulsify: A liquid mixture suspended in another (usually egg and oil) to prevent separation.

En brochette: To cook on a skewer.

En chemise: With their skin, usually used in association with potatoes.

En coquille: Served in a shell.

Entrée: main course of a meal

Epicure: A lover of food and wine.

Epigramme: An entrée of two pieces of meat prepared differently, but usually cooked and served together.

Farce: French, meaning “stuffing.”

Farci: French, meaning “stuffed”, such as meat or vegetables.

Fermentation: The chemical change of an organic compound caused by the action of living organisms, such as yeast when added to liquid with sugar will produce carbon dioxide

Fillet: A boneless piece of flesh, usually meat or fish.

Fillet de sole: Boneless piece of fish belonging to the sole family of fish.

Fillet mignon: Fillets of beef tenderloin usually free of all fat

Fine herbs: A mixture of three or four herbs chopped very fine.

Finnan haddie: Smoked haddock fish

Flambé: To serve aflame (example: crepe suzette).

Flambeau: To serve on a flaming torch

Florentine: With spinach.

Fold: A part doubled over another.

Foie gras: Fatted goose liver.

Fondant: An icing made by boiling sugar and water to the point of crystallisation then whipping to a creamy mass.

Fondue: A warm cheese dip.

Force meat: Meat or fish ground very fine and highly seasoned. Used for stuffing meat and fish.

Française: In the French style or fashion.

Frappe: Frozen or partly frozen to the consistency of mush. Used with desert items.

Fry: To cook in oil or fat.

Fumet: A stock of fish, meat or game reduced with wine until concentrated.

Galatine: poultry, game or meat boned, stiffed with forcemeat, boiled, cooled, covered with chaud-froid and aspic and decorated. Usually served sliced on buffets.

Garbanzo: Chick peas; can be purchased dried or canned.

Garde manger: French, meaning guardian of cold meats. Cold meat department or person in charge of it.

Garnish: To decorate a dish with an item that will improve its appearance.

Hache: Meaning to hash or mince.

Hasenpfeffer: German rabbit stew.

Head cheese: Jellied, spiced, pressed meat from the hog's head.

Heifer: A young cow that has never borne a calf.

Herbs: Savory leaves such as tarragon, sage, basil, parsley, etc.

Homard: French, meaning "lobster".

Homily: Hulled Indian corn, coarsely ground or broken, used as a cereal food.

Homogenise: To break up fat globules into very small particles.

Hongroise: In the Hungarian style or fashion.

Hors d'oeuvres: Small portions of food served in a first course of a meal. An appetizer, they may be served in many forms either hot or cold.

Hush puppies: Southern deep fried food consisting of corn meal, milk, onions, baking powder, etc. A fried dough.

Indian Pudding: A dessert prepared by combining yellow corn meal, eggs, brown sugar, milk, raisings and seasoning and baking slowly in the oven.

Indienne: Dishes prepared in the style of India and in which curry powder is the main seasoning.

Irish Stew: A white lamb stew consisting of lamb, carrots, turnips, potatoes, onions, dumpling and seasoning.

Italienne: In the Italian style or fashion. Usually the preparation contains some type of pasta.

Jambalaya: A combination of rice and meat or seafood, cooked together.

Jambon: French, meaning "ham".

Jardiniere: Assorted garden vegetables, usually carrots, turnips and celery cut $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick and 1 inch long. Used to garnish meat entrees.

Julienne: To cut into long, very thin strips.

Jus: Natural meat juice.

Karo: A fairly thin light or dark, corn syrup.

Kartoffel Klose: A German potato dumpling.

Kebab: Small cubes of meat roasted on a skewer.

Kipperd: Lightly salted and smoked fish.

Kirsch wasser: A liqueur made from cherries. It is frequently used to flame certain dishes.

Kitchen bouquet: Trade name for a bottle seasoning, used to flavor and color gravies.

Knead: The manipulation of pressing and folding and stretching the air out of dough.

Kohlrabi: Vegetable of the cabbage family with an enlarged edible turnip-like stem.

Kosher: Meat butchered and processed according to prescribed Hebrew religious laws.

Kuchen: German cakes made with sweet yeast dough

Kummel: Liqueur flavored with caraway seed.

Kumquats: A small citrus fruit, about the size and shape of an olive. Resembles a very small orange.

Lait: French, meaning “milk”.

Lamb fries: Lamb testicles.

Langouste: French for lobster or crawfish.

Larding: To insert strips of salt pork into meat to add flavor and prevent dryness while roasting, larding is done by attaching the strip of salt port to a larding needle and drawing it through the meat.

Leek: A plant of the green onion family. It has little or no bulb and has fairly long broad, mils flavored, green stems are used to season or flavor other foods.

Legumes: Vegetables. Also refers to dried vegetables such as beans, lentils and split peas.

Lentils: A flat edible seed of the pea family; it is used in soup.

Limburger cheese: Soft rich, odorous, ripened cheese originally made in Belgium.

London broil: A broiled flank steak, sliced on the bias and usually served with rich mushroom or Bordelaise sauce.

Lyonnais: To prepare and serve the onions (example: lyonnaise potatoes).

Macedoine: A blended mixture of fruit or vegetables.

Madrilenne: A clear consommé with a tomato flavor. It can be served jellied or hot.

Maitre d’hotel: Head of the dining room service.

Maraschino: Cherries preserved in an imitation maraschino liqueur.

Marinade: A brine or pickling solution in which meat is soaked before cooking to change or enrich the flavor.

Marinate: To soak an item in a marinade.

Marmite: An earthenware pot in which soup is heated and served.

Marrow: Soft tissue from the center of beef and veal bones

Marsala: A semi-dry Italian Sherry wine.

Masking: To cover an item completely, usually with a sauce.

Mayonnaise: A rich salad dressing emulsified by whipping together egg, oil and vinegar.

Melba: Applied to servings of whole fruit with ice cream between and covered with a melba sauce.

Melba toast: Very thin, toasted, slices of white tolls of bread.

Menthe: French, meaning “mint”.

Melt: To dissolve or to make liquid by the application of heat

Menu: List of foods served. Bill of fare.

Meringue: Egg whites and sugar beaten together to form a white frothy mass. It is used to top pies and cakes.

Napoleons: A French pastry made by separating layers of puff paste with cream filling and topping with fondant icing.

Navarin: A rich brown mutton stew garnished with carrots and turnips.

Noir: French, meaning “black”

Noisette: Small pieces of loin of lamb or pork (usually the eye of a shop) minus all bone and fat either broiled or sautéed.

Nougat: A confection of pastry consistency, containing sugar, almonds and pistachio nuts

O’Brien: With green peppers and pimientos, usually dices small.

Oeuf: French meaning for “egg”.

Omelet: Beaten eggs, seasoned, fried with butter or grease in a pan until it starts to puff, then rolled or folded over.

Panache: An expression meaning “of mixed colors”; can be two or more kinds of one item in a dish.

Papillote: With paper. Usually the item associated with the word is cooked and served in paper.

Parboil: To partially cook or boil in water.

Parfait: Varicolored ice creams served in a tall parfait glass with syrup and sometimes fruit, garnished with whipped cream, chopped nuts and cherry.

Parisienne: French meaning a female of Paris, but usually used in reference to potatoes cut in small round balls with a Parisienne scoop.

Parmentiere: Served with potatoes. This term is usually used with soup (that is, soups containing potatoes).

Parmesan: A hard Italian cheese, usually sold in grated form.

Parsely: One of the two delicate herbs used mainly to garnish other foods.

Pastry bag: A duck cloth, cone bag with metal tip at the small end. It is used to decorate foods.

Pate: A paste of ground meat or liver.

Paysanne: Peasant style, usually vegetables diced small or shredded.

Persilade: Garnished with parsley

Petite: French meaning “small”

Petite marmite: A strong consommé and chicken broth blended together and served with diamond cut cooked vegetables, beef and chicken.

Puree: Any food cooked to a pulp. Thick soup (pea, tomato, etc).

Quahog: Indian name for the large Atlantic Coast clams.

Quenelle: A meat dumpling, usually of chicken or veal.

Ragout: A thick, savory brown stew.

Ramekin: A small hallow baking dish in which foods are baked and served.

Rasher: A thin slice of bacon; usually a rasher of bacon calls for 3 slices.

Ravigote: Cold sauce, made with a mayonnaise base, chopped green herb and tarragon vinegar, it has a tart taste.

Ravioli: Small square noodle dough cases filled with seasoned ground meat and spinach which are poached in chicken stock and served with a meat sauce.

Reduce: To concentrate a liquid by lightly simmering.

Remoulade Sauce: A highly seasoned cold sauce similar to tartar sauce, but with mustard and ground pepper added.

Render: To cook the grease out of animal fat

Rissole: French, meaning “brown”. This term is generally used with oven brown potatoes (example: rissole potatoes).

Roe: Fish eggs

Romaine: Long narrow, crisp leaves of salad green. The outer leaves are a fairly dark green, the inner leaves are light in color. It has a mild flavor.

Roquefort: A famous French blue vein cheese.

Roti: French meaning “roast”.

Rouge: French, meaning “red”.

Roulade: Meat roll or rolled meat.

Roux: Equal parts of flour and fat used to thicken liquids when preparing sauces, soup and gravies.

Royale: A mixture of cream and eggs baked into a custard to be used as a garnish for consommé and broth.

Saccharin: A coal tar product used as a substitute for sugar. It has no food value.

Saffron: A seasoning. The dried orange colored stigmas of purple crocus. It is extremely expensive.

Salamander: A small broiler-like heating unit with the heat coming from above. Used to brown and glaze individual servings of certain preparations.

Salami: A highly seasoned dried sausage of pork and beef.

Sauerbraten: A sour beef pot roast. The meat is marinated from 3 to 5 days in a vinegar solution to sour the beef. Served with a sour sauce.

Saute: To fry quickly in shallow grease.

Sautoir: A heavy, flat, copper sauce pan.

Scald: To heat milk or cream just below the boiling point until a scum forms in the surface.

Scallion: A green onion with long thick stem but very small bulb.

Scallop: The muscle of a sea mollusk which operates the opening and closing of the two shells.

Scone: A type of Scottish quick bread similar to a biscuit.

Score: To mark the surface of certain foods with shallow slits to improve appearance or to increase tenderness.

Scrapple: A food made by boiling together seasoned chopped meat, usually pork, and corn meal or flour. Served in fried slices.

Scrod: A young cod or haddock fish.

Sear: To brown the surface of meat by intense heat.

Shad: A salt water fish with markings similar to the whitefish. Its IS valuable because of its highly prized roe.

Shallots: A small onion-like vegetable allied to the garlic bulb, has a fairly strong onion flavor.

Tobasco: A brand name for a red pepper sauce, very hot.

Table d'hôte: A complete meal consisting of several courses served for one fixed price.

Tapioca: A starch prepared from the roots of a bitter cassava plant, used in puddings and for thickening some soups. Fine grain tapioca is called "pearl".

Tarragon: A European herb the leaves of which are used in cooking and to flavor vinegar.

Tart: Small individual pies, filled with fruit and cream, without a top crust.

Tartare steak: highly seasoned, raw ground steak, usually served with a raw egg yolk and onions.

Tasse: French for cup.

Tenderloin: A strip of very tender meat lying inside the loin cavity of beef, pork, lamb and veal animals.

Terrapin: Any of several North-American fresh-water turtles, prized as a food

Terrine: An earthenware pot resembling a casserole.

Timbale: A baked drum-shaped mold.

Torte: A fairly small, rich, decorated cake.

Variable: Changeable

Veal birds: Flattened veal fillets rolled around a forcemeat and baked in the oven.

Veloute: French, meaning "velvety"; a smooth, creamy white sauce made by combining stock and roux.

Venison: Deer meat

Vermicelli: Long fine rods of dried flour paste (pasta), similar to spaghetti but thinner.

Vert: French, meaning "green".

Viande: French, meaning "meat".

Vichyssoise: A cream of potato soup served cold.

Vin: French, meaning "wine"

Welsh rarebit: Melted Cheddar cheese, flavored with beer, mustard and Worcestershire sauce, served very hot over toast.

White Wash: A thickening agent consisting of equal parts of flour and cornstarch diluted in cold water.

Whip: To beat rapidly to increase volume and incorporate air.

Weiner schnitzel: A veal cutlet, breaded and fried and usually served with a slice of lemon and anchovy. It is German origin.

Wild rice: The brown seed of a tall northern water grass; usually served with wild game.

Yorkshire pudding: A batter of flour, milk, salt, etc., baked with roast rib of beef and served with each order.

Zest: A rind of lemon or orange.

Zucchini: Italian squash resembling the cucumber in appearance.

3.2 A Glossary of French Menu and Kitchen Terms

Universal respect for French traditions of classical cookery has left a repertoire of French words and terms which are understood and accepted by most professionals. As Italian has been the traditional language for music, so French has been the traditional international language for food, drink and written menus.

Current trends however indicate that the vast majority of menus are written in English. Because certain French words and terms remain and are everyday use in many establishments, the following glossary is included. Some examples are given in brackets.

3.2.1 French Terms and Meaning

<i>l'aile (f)</i>	Wing of poultry or game birds e.g. pheasant or chicken
<i>à la</i>	In the style (of <i>à la mode</i>)
<i>à la française</i>	Dishes prepared in the French way (boiled beef); see Practical cookery
<i>à l'anglaise</i>	In the English style (roast duck)
<i>à la broche</i>	Cooked on a spit (chicken)
<i>à la diable</i>	Develled, a highly seasoned dish (kidneys)
<i>à la carte</i>	Dishes on a menu prepared to order and individually priced.
<i>l'ailoyau (m)</i>	Sirloin of beef (on the bone)
<i>en aspic (m)</i>	In savoury jelly (breast of chicken)
<i>Assorti</i>	An assortment (<i>fromages assortis</i>)
<i>au blue</i>	When applied to meat it means very underdone (fillet steak)
<i>au four</i>	Cooked in the oven (<i>pomme au four</i>)
<i>au gratin</i>	Sprinkled with breadcrumbs and/or cheese and browned (cauliflower)
<i>au vin blanc</i>	With white wine sauce (fillets of sole)
<i>la blanquette</i>	A white stew cooked in stock for which the sauce is made (<i>blanquette de veau</i>)
<i>la bordue</i>	A ring, sometimes of rice or potatoes as a border to a plate or dish.
<i>les bouchees</i>	Small puff-pastry cases.
<i>Bouilli</i>	Boiled

<i>le bouquet garni</i>	A fagot or bundle of herbs, usually parsley stalks, thyme and bay leaf, tied inside pieces of celery and leek
<i>Braise</i>	Braised (beef)
<i>la braisiere</i>	Braising pan
<i>en branche</i>	A term denoting vegetables, such as spinach, cooked and served as whole leaves
<i>la brioche</i>	A light yeast cake
<i>la broche</i>	A roasting spit
<i>la brochette</i>	A skewer
<i>Brouille</i>	Scrambled (<i>ceufs brouilles</i>)
<i>le buffet</i>	A sideboard of food, or a self-served table
<i>le canapé</i>	A cushion of toasted or fried bread on which are served various hot or cold foods (as a base for savouries); when served cold the base may be toast, biscuit or short or puff-paste with the food on top.
<i>la carte du jour</i>	Menu, or bill of fare for the day
<i>en casserole</i>	In a fireproof dish (chicken)
<i>la charlotte</i>	Name given to various hot and cold sweet dishes which have a case biscuits, bread, sponge, etc. (apple charlotte)
<i>la chateaubriand</i>	The head of the fillet of beef
<i>Chaud</i>	Hot
<i>la chaud-froid</i>	A creamed veloute or demi-glace with gelatin or aspic added, used for masking cold dishes.
<i>le civet</i>	A brown stew of game, usually hare (jugged hare)
<i>la cloche</i>	A bell-shaped cover, used for special à la carte dishes (<i>supreme de volaille sous cloche</i>)
<i>la cocotte</i>	Porcelain fireproof dish
<i>la compote</i>	Stewed fruit (<i>compote des poires</i>)
<i>Concasse</i>	Coarsely chopped (parsley, tomatoes)
<i>le consommé</i>	Basic clear soup
<i>le contrefilet</i>	Boned sirloin of beef.
<i>le cordon</i>	A thread or thin line of sauce
<i>la cote</i>	Rib (<i>cote de boeuf</i>)
<i>la cotelette</i>	Cutlet (<i>les cotelettes d'agneau</i>)
<i>Coupe</i>	Cut; also dish in which ice-cream is served.
<i>le court-bouillon</i>	A cooking liquor for certain foods (oily fish, etc); it is water containing vinegar, sliced onions, carrots, herbs and seasoning
<i>la crème fouetee</i>	Whipped cream
<i>la crème chantilly</i>	Sweetened, whipped vanilla-flavoured cream (<i>meringuie Chantilly</i>)
<i>la crepe</i>	Pancake (crepes à l'orange) (orange pancakes)
<i>le croquette</i>	Cooked foods moulded cylinder shape, egg and

	crumbed and deep fried (croquette de volaille or chicken croquettes).
<i>la croute</i>	A cushion of fried or toasted bread which are served various hot foods, (savouries, game stuffing, etc.)
<i>le crouton</i>	Cubes of fried served with soup, also triangular pieces which may be served with spinach and heart-shaped ones which may be served with certain braused vegetables and entrees.
<i>les crustaces (m)</i>	Shellfish
<i>la cuisse de poulet</i>	Leg of chicken (grilled, devilled)
<i>la darne</i>	A slice of round fish cut through with the bone (<i>darne de saumon</i>)
<i>le déjeuner</i>	Lunch
<i>le petti-déjeuner</i>	Breakfast
<i>le fondant</i>	A soft icing for cakes
<i>Fondu</i>	Melted (butter served with asparagus)
<i>le four</i>	Oven
<i>Frappe</i>	Chilled (<i>melon frappe</i>)
<i>les friandises</i>	Petits fours, sweetmeats, etc.
<i>la fricassée</i>	A white stew in which the poultry or meat is cooked in the sauce
<i>Fries</i>	Curled (<i>endive frisée</i>)
<i>Fume</i>	Smoked (<i>saumon fume</i>)
<i>la glace</i>	Ice or ice-cream
<i>Glacé</i>	Iced or with ice-cream (<i>meringue glacé</i>)
<i>Glacer</i>	To glaze under the salamander
<i>gratiner</i>	To colour or to gratinate under the salamander or in a hot oven using grated cheese or breadcrumbs.
<i>grille</i>	Grilled (sole)
<i>Hacher</i>	To chop finely or very finely dice; to mince.
<i>les herbes (f)</i>	Herbs
<i>hors-d'oeuvre</i>	Preliminary dishes of an appetizing nature, served hot or cold
<i>le jambon froid</i>	Cold ham
<i>jardinière</i>	Cut into batons
<i>julienne</i>	Cut into fine strips
<i>le jus-lie</i>	Gravy thickened with arrowroot or cornflour or fecule
<i>masquer</i>	To mask or coat (with a sauce)
<i>medaillon</i>	Foodstuffs prepared in a round, flat shape (<i>medaillon de veau</i>)
<i>le menu</i>	Bill of fare.
<i>mignonette</i>	Coarse ground or crushed pepper
<i>les mille-feuilles</i>	"Thousand leaves", a puff-pastry cream slice

<i>(f)</i>	
<i>à la minute</i>	Cooked to order.
<i>Mirepoix</i>	Roughly cut onions, carrots, celery and a sprig of thyme and bay leaf soft (<i>oeuf mollet</i> or soft boiled egg)
<i>le moule</i>	Mould; also <i>les moules</i> , mussels
<i>la mousse</i>	A hot or cold dish of light consistency, sweet or savoury.
<i>la moutarde</i>	Mustard
<i>mountarde`</i>	To smear with mustard, or to add mustard to a sauce
<i>Mur</i>	ripe, mature
<i>Natives (f)</i>	A menu term denoting English oysters.
<i>Navarin</i>	A brown lamb or mutton stew
<i>le nid</i>	Nest; imitation nest made from potatoes or sugar, etc.
<i>la noisette or noisette</i>	A hazelnut used in confectionery; or small round potatoes cut with a special scoop; or as for noisette butter (nut-brown butter); or a cut of loin of lamb.
<i>la noix</i>	Nut, also the name given to the cushion piece of the leg of veal (<i>noix de veau</i>)
<i>les nouilles (f)</i>	Noodles.
<i>oeuf brouille</i>	A scrambled egg
<i>oeuf en cocotte</i>	Egg boiled and served in its shell
<i>oeuf dur</i>	A hard-boiled egg
<i>oeuf mollet</i>	A soft-boiled shelled egg
<i>oeuf poche</i>	A poached egg
<i>oeuf sur le plat</i>	Egg cooked in an egg dish
<i>oeuf à la poele</i>	A fried egg
<i>l'oignon (m)</i>	Onion
<i>l'orge (f)</i>	Barley
<i>oseille (f)</i>	Sorrel
<i>les pailles (f)</i>	Straws (<i>pomme pailles</i>) or straw potatoes.
<i>les paillettes de</i>	Cheese straws
<i>Fromage (f)</i>	
<i>le pain</i>	Bread
<i>Panache</i>	Mixed (<i>salade panache</i>)
<i>Pane</i>	Flour, egg and crumbed
<i>Panier</i>	Basket
<i>Papain</i>	A proteolytic enzyme sometimes called vegetable pepsin, used as a meat tenderiser.
<i>Papillote</i>	Foods cooked <i>en papillote</i> are cooked in greased greaseproof paper or foil in their steam in the oven
<i>la pate</i>	A dough, paste, batter, pie or pastries
<i>la patisserie</i>	A pastry

<i>la paupiette</i>	A strip of fish, meat or poultry stuffed and rolled
<i>Poele</i>	Pot roasted (beef fillet)
<i>Le pointes d'asperges</i>	Asparagus tips
<i>la praline</i>	Chopped grilled almonds or hazelnuts or crushed almond toffee
<i>Primeurs</i>	Early vegetables (<i>navarin aux primeurs</i>)
<i>printaniere</i>	Garnish of spring vegetables (as for consommé)
<i>profiteroles</i>	Small balls of <i>choux</i> paste for garnishing soups or a sweet course
<i>la puree</i>	A smooth mixture obtained by passing food through a sieve.
<i>la quenelle</i>	Forcemeat of poultry or fish, pounded, sieved, creamed and shaped, then poached
<i>la rable</i>	The back (<i>rangle de lievre</i> or the saddle of a hare)
<i>le ragout</i>	Stew (<i>ragout de boeuf</i>).
<i>le ravioli</i>	An Italian paste, stuffed with various ingredients (meat, spinach, cheese, etc)
<i>le risotto</i>	Italian rice stewed in stock
<i>le ris</i>	Sweetbread (<i>ris de veau</i>)
<i>le soufflé</i>	A light dish, sweet or savoury, hot or cold; whites of eggs are added to the hot basic preparation and whipped cream to the cold.
<i>le supreme</i>	When applied to poultry it means whole wing and half the breast of the bird (there are two <i>supremés</i> to a bird)
<i>table d'hote</i>	A fixed price meal of several courses, which may have a limited choice
<i>la terrine</i>	An earthenware utensil with a lid; a terrine also indicates a pate cooked and served in a terrine
<i>Tomate</i>	Preparations to which tomato puree has been added to enhance the flavor and colour.
<i>tourney</i>	Turned, shaped (barrel or olive shape)
<i>la tranche</i>	A slice
<i>la tronçon</i>	A slice of flat fish cut with the bone (<i>tronçon de turbot</i>)
<i>le veloute</i>	Basic sauce; or soup of velvet or cream consistency
<i>Vert</i>	green (<i>sauce verte</i>) sometimes served with cold salmon
<i>Voiler</i>	To veil or cover with spun sugar
<i>la volaille</i>	Poultry
<i>le vol-au-vent</i>	Puff-pastry case.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit we focused on culinary terms. These terms are used and are useful in kitchens menu, restaurants and hotels. We discussed both general and French culinary terms and their meanings.

5.0 SUMMARY

In summary, this unit has provided the meaning of some general and French culinary terms.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the meaning of the following culinary terms

- (i) Abats
- (ii) A la carte
- (iii) Beurre Manic
- (iv) Croutons
- (v) Demiglace
- (vi) Le Bouquet Garni
- (vii) Menu
- (viii) Mirepoix
- (ix) Mould
- (x) Roux

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READINGS

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