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Title

Iron fortification in parboiled rice – a rapid and effective tool for delivering Fe nutrition to rice consumers

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Introduction

Fortifying Fe in food has been suggested as a means to improve Fe level in food products and human diets (Moretti et al. 2005; Moretti et al. 2006). However, Fe fortifying in raw rice grain has not been successful due to consumers' poor acceptance of the different appearance of the fortified grain mixed with normal grain and removal of the Fe fortified grains before cooking (Cook et al. 1997). Surface coating also tends to be washed away during rinsing, a common practice in rice cooking. In addition, fortification by surface coating also requires not only re-educated consumers, but new industrial infrastructure on a large scale, which are often economically unfeasible.

The success and cost-effectiveness of in vitro Fe-fortification will depend on several key aspects (1) industrial feasibility and associated investment costs; (2) biological effectiveness of Fe fortified; and (3) consumers' acceptance. Parboiled rice production overcomes these constraints and offers an ideal vehicle for Fe fortification.

Parboiling, a ready made industrial process for iron fortification

Parboiled rice production already accounts for about half of the world rice crop and the infrastructure for production and market distribution have been well established without major additional investment. Parboiled rice is the form of rice preferred by the majority of rice consumers in the countries of South Asia (Choudhury 1991; Pillaiyar 1981) and Africa, coincidentally, where most of the Fe-deficient populations are distributed and concentrated. Thailand, where practically no parboiled rice is consumed, exports 2-3 million tons of milled parboiled rice each year, to countries in Middle East and Africa (Rerkasem 2007). Processing facilities are also common in countries where parboiled rice is consumed such as India and Bangladesh. Our survey in Thailand found mills of varying degrees of sophistication, of which many are modern mills fitted with electronic eyes that screen out blacken or discoloured grains. Briefly, the process of rice parboiling involves soaking the unhusked paddy rice, steaming and drying before milling (Bhattacharya 2004). The soaking time varies from 6 to 24 hours, when Fe fortification can be implemented by spiking suitable form and concentration of Fe in the soaking water under the optimal soaking conditions. As a result, this does not require major changes to the existing parboiling rice production process and infrastructure.

Effectiveness of Iron fortification by parboiling

Adding Fe to the paddy rice in the parboiling process significantly increases both total Fe concentration in the white rice grain and the bioavailable Fe fraction (Prom-u-thai et al. 2008; Prom-u-thai et al. 2009). Under laboratory simulated parboiling conditions, Fe fortification increased Fe concentrations in milled rice by 10 to 50 folds, compared to the background level of 4-7 mg Fe kg⁻¹ dry weight, depending on varieties and milling time (Fig. 1). For example, after 60 seconds milling, the cultivars YRF 2 and Opus had the largest increment, with Fe concentration 20 times of those in unfortified raw rice. At 120s milling time, the cultivar Opus, had as much as 50 times of the Fe concentration in the unfortified. Current findings indicate that the optimum rate of Fe fortification in parboiling is about 250 mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice, which can increase Fe concentration from 5 mg Fe kg⁻¹ in unfortified parboiled and raw white rice, to about 27 mg Fe kg⁻¹ white rice, without adverse impact on rice cooking qualities such as color, flavor and textures. The most significant finding is that the fortified Fe remained highly bioavailable and its bioavailability exhibited a close correlation within the total Fe concentration ($r = 0.90$, $p < 0.01$) in the parboiled grains (Prom-u-thai et al. 2009). Parboiled rice can be fortified to contain

more bioavailable Fe than white bean, the standard for high Fe legume grain (Fig. 2) (Prom-u-thai et al. 2009).

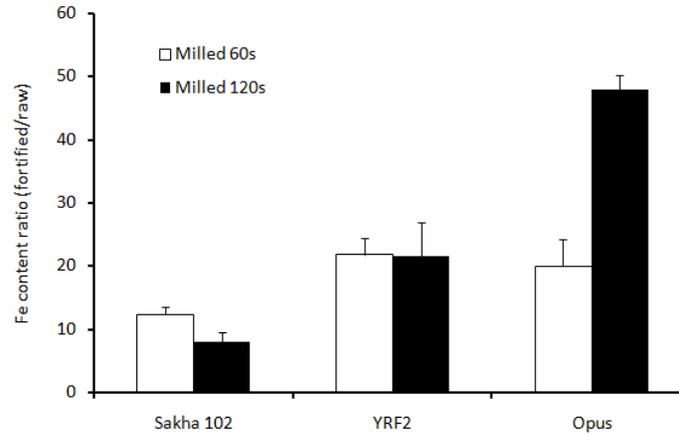


Fig. 1 The ratio of Fe content in fortified rice grain to that of unfortified rice grain. The parboiled and raw grains were milled for 60 and 120s, respectively. The bars represent standard errors of corresponding means from 3 replicates (Prom-u-thai et al. 2008).

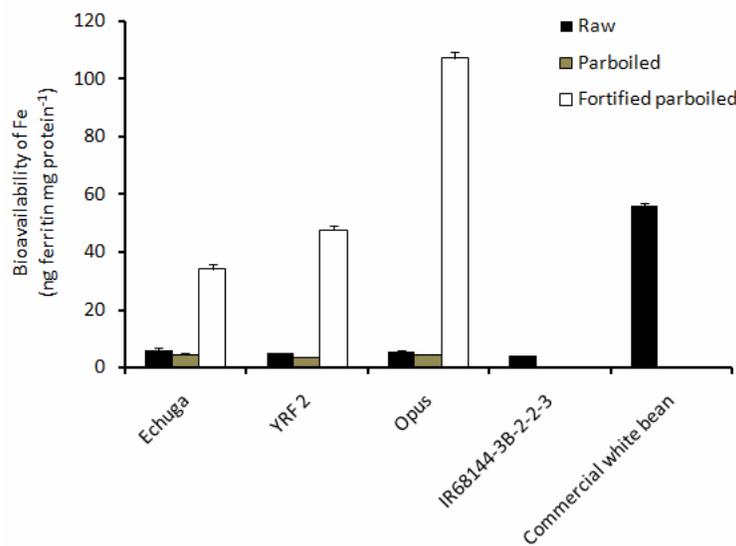


Fig. 2. Bioavailability of Fe from digests of rice samples in 3 cultivars after milling for 120s, IR68144-2B-3-2-2, and a commercial US white bean were included. Values are mean \pm SEM (n=3) (Prom-u-thai et al. 2009).

Fe Penetration and retention in the endosperm

The fortified Fe effectively penetrated into the interior of the endosperm, which was clearly demonstrated by Fe localization staining of with Perls' Prussian blue (Fig. 3). In the grains milled for 60 s, unfortified raw rice grains only had a very low intensity of staining in the surface

layer of the endosperm (Fig. 3A1 and A2), while in Fe-fortified and parboiled grain, a high intensity of staining was found in the outer layers (20–30% of the cross-section distance) of the endosperm of the fortified grains (Fig. 3B1 and B2) (Prom-u-thai et al. 2008). The results indicated that the distribution of the staining tended to diffuse through the dorsal region of the grain and gradually towards the opposite pole of the grain. From visual observation, the parboiling process achieved a significant penetration through the inner layers of the endosperm of the parboiled rice grains. The advantage of Fe penetration into the inner layer of the endosperm after fortification process ensure the retention of adequate Fe after polishing for optimum cooking qualities of rice grain, in contrast to the problem of significant Fe loss from milling of raw rice grains. This advantage also helps high Fe retention after rinsing prior to cooking, a common practice of rice consumers. The degree of Fe loss from rinsing in the Fe-fortified and parboiled rice grains varied among cultivars and milling time (Fig. 4). For example, the milled Fe-fortified rice retained 45–96% Fe in the grains milled for 60 s and 20–98% in the grain milled for 120 s after rinsing.

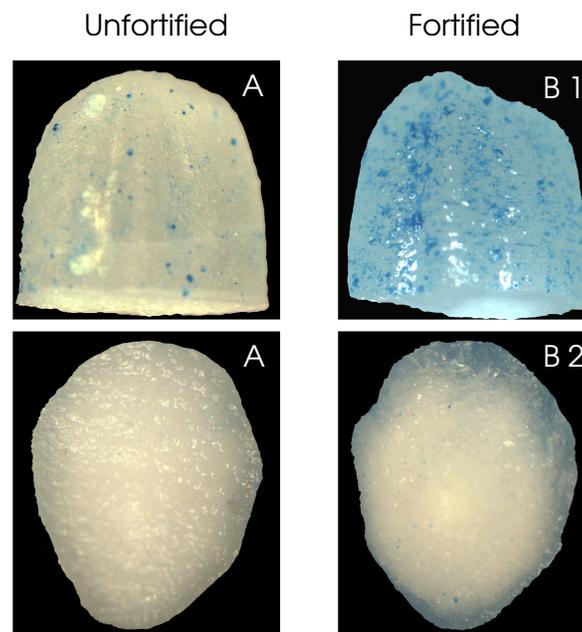


Fig. 3 Stereo-micrographs of unfortified (A1, A2) and fortified (B1, B2) rice grains (cv. Opus), which were milled rice for 60s. The grains were cut transversely across the middle plane of the grain and were stained with Perls Prussian blue (side views - A1, B1; and top view - A2, B2). All scale bar =1 mm. The intensity of staining represented the relative density of Fe in the grains (Prom-u-thai et al. 2008).

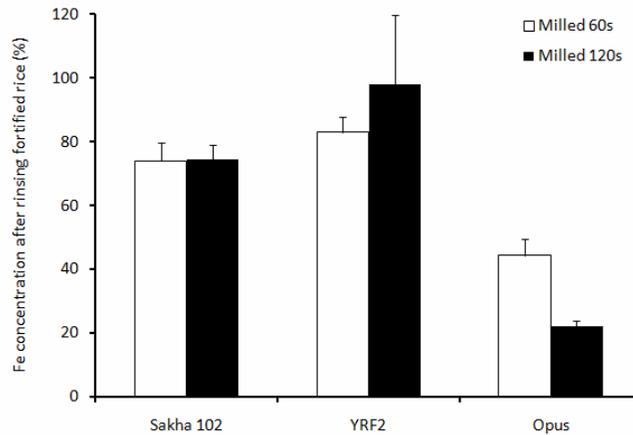


Fig. 4 Iron retention rate (as % of the un-rinsed) after rinsing (simulating rice washing) in the Fe-fortified parboiled rice grains milled for 60 and 120s, respectively, in the 3 rice cultivars tested (Prom-u-thai et al. 2008).

Fe richness in broken parboiled rice fortified with Fe

Broken rice is an undesirable in rice milling which as it lower the quality and price. The percentage of broken grain (<3/4 to grain length) has negative impact on the price. For example, during the first half of March 2009 the price per ton of 100% parboiled rice (no broken) was quoted at US\$ 664, dropping to US\$ 479 with just 5% broken grain and US\$ 336 per ton for rice sold as broken (Thai Rice Exporters Association 2009). Broken rice costs only 25-50% of the 100% full grain rice and is preferred by lower income consumers for cost-saving. Because of its very low price compared with rice that is mostly or all whole grain, broken rice usually ends up as raw material in processing industry from rice flour to noodle and various snacks. Broken rice is also the main staple for consumers with low income in many developing countries. Importers in Africa commonly buy broken parboiled rice from Thailand for the low end market. So we examined the Fe fortification effectiveness and density in broken rice for this neediest sector of the population who happens to have the highest risk of Fe-deficiency anemia. The Fe content of broken rice in unfortified and Fe fortified parboiled rice (with 250 and 450 mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice) were compared with whole grain. The broken rice of unfortified and Fe-fortified parboiled rice at 250 and 450 mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice, contained Fe concentrations ranging from 16-96 mg kg⁻¹ white rice, while it was 7-18 mg kg⁻¹ in the full grain (Fig.5). Unfortified, the Fe concentration was 7 mg kg⁻¹ in whole grain compared with 16 mg kg⁻¹ in the broken. For Fe fortified parboiled rice, Fe concentration in broken rice was 4-5 times of those in whole grain. This difference in Fe concentration between whole and broken grain of parboiled rice is likely to be composed of grain sections containing higher Fe. The fortified Fe tends to distributed in the tips of the grain that tend to break off during milling (Fig. 6). In parboiled rice fortified with Fe, differential rates of Fe diffusion may occur in different sections of the rice grain during fortification. Fortification of Fe during parboiling therefore is a very promising and equitable approach for overcoming Fe-deficiency risks in economically advantaged and disadvantaged populations.

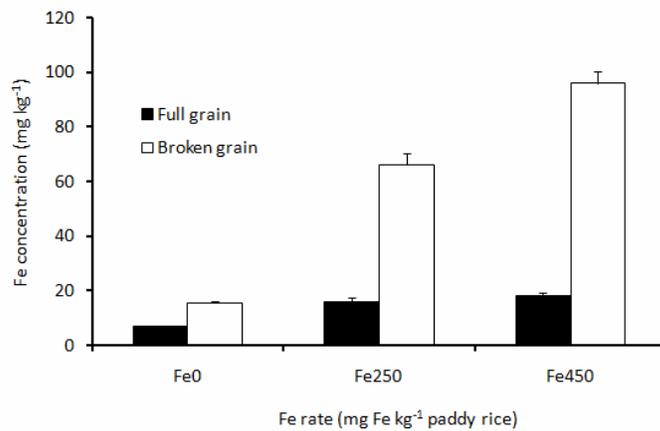


Fig. 5. Fe concentrations in full and broken grains in cultivar CNT 1 of unfortified (Fe0) and fortified parboiled rice at 250 (Fe250) and 450 (Fe450) mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice.

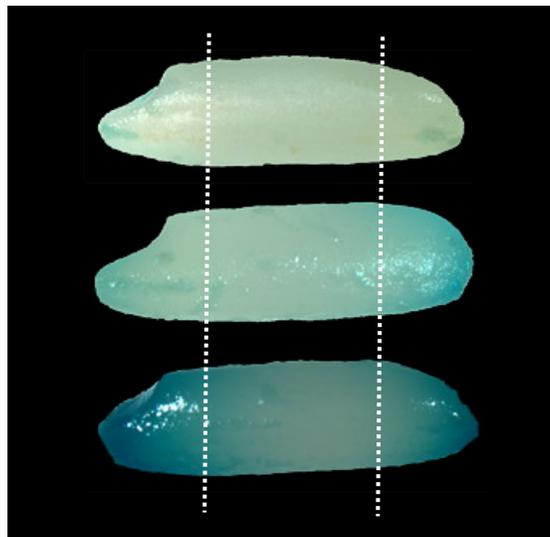


Fig. 6. Stereo-micrographs showing position of rice grain that are likely to break off during milling process at both ends of rice grain (dash lines) in unfortified parboiled (above) and parboiled rice fortified with Fe at 250 (middle) and 450 (below) mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice (cv CNT 1), which were milled for 30s. The grains were stained with Perls Prussian blue. The intensity of staining represented the relative density of Fe in the grains.

Consumer acceptance and remaining issues

The changes of pre-cooking quality, cooking quality and consumers' poor acceptance are critical

reasons that have contributed to the lack of success of Fe fortification of raw rice (Cook et al. 1997). These fundamental problems have not been found with Fe fortified parboiled rice at optimal Fe density. Two sensory panels, one in parboiled rice eating Bangladesh and one in Thailand where parboiled rice is hardly ever consumed, found the cooked parboiled rice fortified with appropriate rate of Fe to be indistinguishable from commercially available parboiled rice. The sensory test among 10 farmer panelists in Bangladesh gave an overall acceptability of 100% to the parboiled rice fortified with 250 mg Fe kg⁻¹ paddy rice. These initial results provide a great confidence of marketability and consumer acceptance of the Fe-fortified parboiled rice.

Further research needs to focus on appropriate cultivar-specific or grain-property-specific protocols of Fe-fortification during parboiling, such as soaking time, temperature, steaming and drying conditions. Physical and chemical properties of rice grain before fortification process may affect Fe entry and retention rate in the endosperm. A social survey on consumer's preference and opinion is also a significant topic to be investigated, particularly among the countries with high parboiled rice consumption.

Conclusion

With an established industry infrastructure and half of the world's rice production already parboiled, Fe-fortified parboiled rice offers a ready tool for significantly improving Fe nutrition in economically disadvantaged populations in south Asia and Africa, where Fe-deficiency anemia poses a great threat to human health and productivity. Fe-fortified parboiled rice can easily and rapidly reach rice consumers in these countries without the need to alter consumption habits of local populations and establishing new market network and access. The cheaper broken rice contains much more Fe, which are mostly consumed by low income consumers. In summary, Fe-fortified parboiled rice offers highly cost-effective tool to reduce incidences of Fe deficiency in developing countries within an immediate future if it is adopted by the current parboiled rice industry.

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