

Food Chemistry 71 (2000) 435-441

Food Chemistry

www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem

Calcium, zinc and phytate interrelationships in some foods of major consumption in Nigeria

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Received 19 August 1999; received in revised form 24 May 2000; accepted 24 May 2000

Abstract

The calcium (Ca), zinc (Zn) and phytate (Phy) contents of 35 Nigerian foods were determined. Levels (mg/100 g) of Ca were 29– 45 (legumes), $17-49$ (cereals), $17-187$ (spices) and $38-155$ (tuber/roots) while the Zn levels were 0.55-2.00 (legumes), 0.67-1.84 (cereals), $0.34-4.92$ (spices) and $1.35-7.07$ (tubers/roots). Phytate levels were $14-344$ (legumes), $112-287$ (cereals), $35-184$ (spices) and 0.0-1070 (tubers/roots). It was found that fermentation reduced Phy levels in Parkia filicoidea, Sorghum bicolor and Manihot esculenta while Phy level was increased in fermented Zea mays. The Phy: Zn molar ratios calculated for many legumes, cereals, tubers/roots and one spice analysed were greater than 20:1. Corresponding Ca:Phy molar ratios were generally low in legumes (except for Sphenostylis stenocarpa, 54:1), cereals and tubers/roots but generally high in spices (except Irvingia gabonensis, 2:1). Dioscorea rotundata, Dioscorea dumentorum and Manihot esculenta have respective molar ratios of Ca:Phy 1.8, 2.5 and 1.4 while the respective [ca] [Phy]/[Zn] molar ratios were 0.50, 0.54 and 0.62. These results suggest that the bioavailability of zinc in the Nigerian diet may be low due to the high phytate content of the staple foods. \odot 2000 Published by Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Phytic acid (phytate), is widespread in plant seeds and/or grains (O'Dell, 1979), roots and tubers (McCance & Widdowson, 1935), nucleated erythrocytes of birds and turtles (Oshima, Taylor & Williams, 1964) and organic soils (Dyer, Wrenshall & Smith, 1940). It is a chelating agent for cations as well as phosphorus in many seeds (Cosgrove, 1966).

The importance of a foodstuff as a source of dietary zinc depends on both the total zinc content and the level of other constituents in the diet that affect zinc bioavailability. Phytate may reduce the bioavailability of dietary zinc by forming insoluble mineral chelates at a physiological pH (Oberleas, 1983). The formation of the chelates depends on relative levels of both zinc and phytic acid (Davies & Olpin, 1979). Hence, the phytate: Zn molar ratio is considered a better indicator of zinc bioavailability than total dietary phytate levels alone.

The critical phytate:Zn molar ratio may also depend on dietary calcium levels. A kinetic synergism exists between the calcium and zinc ions resulting in a Ca:Zn:Phy complex which is less soluble than phytate complexes formed by either ion alone (Oberleas, 1983). Ellis, Kelsay, Reynolds, Morris, Moser & Frazier (1987) suggested that the critical values of Phy: Zn and Phy \times Ca:Zn are greater than 10 and greater than 200, respectively. Staple diets having such high ratios had been suggested to be associated with increased relative risk of deficiency (Cossack & Prasad, 1983; Bindra, Gibson & Thompson, 1986; Morris, Ellis, Steels & Moser, 1988; Kirksey, Harrison, Galal, McCabe & Wachs, 1992). These influences are of importance in the evaluation of the recommended dietary allowances (RDA) of Zn. Unfortunately, only limited data are available on the critical Phy: Zn and $Ca \times Phy$: Zn ratios associated with decreased zinc bioavailability for human diets.

Studies have assayed the phytate content of some Nigerian foodstuffs using a phytate-iron precipitation method (Mbofung, Atinmo & Omololu, 1984; Ologhobo & Fetuga, 1984; Aremu, 1988) which was not able to detect phytate at concentrations below 0.1%. Harland and Oberleas (1986) determined phytate using

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a more selective and sensitive AOAC-approved method. Studies investigating the significance of the Phy:Zn and Ca*phy:Zn interaction for human zinc status are limited, in part because information on the zinc and phytate content of foods is not available. Consequently, we have analysed the calcium, phytate and zinc contents of 35 representative raw and processed foods consumed in Nigeria, calculated the corresponding Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy:Zn$ molar ratios of these foods. The foods under study were legumes, cereals, spices and tubers/ roots.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Samples were purchased at Oba market (Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria). The samples were then grouped under their major headings: Group A (legumes), Group B (cereals), Group C (apices) and Group D (tubers/ roots); details of these groupings are in Table 1.

Shells were removed from the cereal grain and the tubers/roots were peeled before analyses. The preparation of fermented maize and guinea corn followed the steps reported by Harland, Oke and Felix-Phipps (1988) while the preparation of cassava flour and fermented cassava (gari) followed the traditional method. The preparation of fermented African locust bean followed the steps enumerated by Odunfa (1986). The samples were then analysed as purchased/processed.

2.2. Determination of phytate

Phytate was quantified using the method described by Harland and Oberleas (1986). The blank was also prepared as described by Harland and Oberleas. The colorimeter used was a Spectronic 20 (Gallenkamp, UK). The amount of phytate in the sample was calculated as hexaphosphate equivalents using the formula:

Phytate, mg/g sample="mean K" \times A \times 20/(0.282 \times 1000) where A = absorbance; "mean K" = std $P(\mu g)/A/n$ (stds); phytate = 28.2% P.

2.3. Determination of moisture and minerals

Moisture was determined by the method of the Association of Official Analytical Chemists [(AOAC), 1990] in all the food samples.

The minerals (Ca and Zn) were analysed from solutions obtained by first dry-ashing the samples at 525° C and dissolving the ash in deionised water with a few drops of concentrated hydrochloric acid. The minerals were determined by means of an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Buck Scientific Inc., Model 200A/ 210, Connecticut, 1993).

2.4. Statistical analyses

All our results for Ca, Zn and Phy were reported as m/100 g dry matter (DM). The Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ values were calculated according to the method of Wyatt and Triana-Tejas (1994). Mean, standard deviation and coefficients of variation percent were also calculated (Steel & Torrie, 1960). Z-scores were calculated but converted to T-scores (to eliminate minus signs from Z-scores) (Alonge, 1989) to determine the status of each value versus the mean group value per group for Ca, Zn, Phy, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and Cax Phy:Zn in all the foods.

3. Results and discussion

The scientific and vernacular names of the Nigerian foods analysed are shown in Table 1. The DM values of the foods analysed are shown in Table 2. The Ca and the Zn levels (mg/100 g DM) of the various samples are shown in Table 2.

The Phy values (mg/100 g DM) are shown in Table 2. The levels of Phy in legumes ranged from 14.0 to 344, the levels ranged from 112.0 to 287 in cereals; levels in spices ranged from 35.0 to 184 and 0.0 to 107 in tubers/ roots. Literature comparison showed that our results in legumes were much lower than the levels reported (520– 1410 mg/100 g wt.) in the legumes from Malawi (Ferguson, Gibson, Thompson, Ounpuu & Berry, 1988), lower than the levels reported in legumes $(653±5$ -797 ± 2 mg/100 g dry wt.) by Harland et al. (1988) and 695 \pm 9-990 \pm 2 mg/100 g dry wt. (Harland & Oberleas, 1987) but close to the legume phytate levels $(251–470)$ mg/100 g dry wt.) reported by Oke (1965). Our legume phytate levels were also lower than the phytate levels reported in various varieties of cowpea, lima bean and soybean (Ologhobo & Fetuga, 1984). The phytate level in our whole grain maize was 149 mg/100 g DM while it is reported to range from $84\pm18-2517\pm14$ mg/100 g dry wt. (Harland et al., 1988) and to be 539 mg/100 g (Oke, 1965) and 129 mg/100 g (Harland $&$ Oberleas, 1987). The Phytate level in our fermented maize sample (ogi) was 188 mg/100 g DM while Harland et al., (1988) reported a level of 449 ± 22 mg/100 g dry wt. for kenkey (another maize fermented product).

The importance of *ogi* in the Nigerian diet calls for proper monitoring of the fermentation process since the process appears to enhance the increase of phytate in fermented maize flour (Harland et al., 1988). The phytate level in whole grain guinea corn was 119 mg/100 g while its fermented variety contained 112 mg/100 g as reported for our samples but the level of phytate in Malawi guinea corn was 490 mg/100 g (Ferguson et al., 1988). The only literature available for phytate level in spices is for okro which was 286 ± 4 mg/100 g (Harland

Table 1 Scientific and vernacular names of the Nigerian foods analysed

Major food group		Common name	Vernacular name $(Y)^a$	Scientific name
Legumes (A)				
1.	A_{11}	Soya bean	Soya	Glycine max Merr.
2.	A_{12}	Common bean (brown)	Peu	Phaseolus vulgaris L.
3.	A_{13}	African yam bean	Otili	Sphenostylis stenocarpa Hams
$\overline{4}$.	A_{14}	Lima bean (white)	Ere	Phaseolus lunatus L.
5.	A_{15}	Lima bean (brown)	Ere	Phaseolus lunatus L.
6.	A_{16}	Pigeon pea (brown)	Waken kurawa	Cajanus cajan Druce
7.	A_{17}	Pigeon pea (white)	Waken kurawa	Cajanus cajan Druce
8.	A_{21}	Groundnuts	Epa	Arachis hypogaea L.
9.	A_{22}	Black trimed melon	Baara	Colocynthis citrullus (L.) O. Ktze.
10.	A_{23}	Elongated melon	Too	Citrullus utilissim L.
11.	A_{24}	Rounded melon	Baara	Citrullus lunatus L.
12.	A_{31}	African locust bean	Irugba	Parkia filicoidea Welw.
13.	A_{32}	African locust bean ^b	Irugba	Parkia filicoidea Welw.
Cereals (B)				
14.	\mathbf{B}_{11}	Wheat		Triticum aestivum
15.	B_{12}	Rice	Iresi	Orvza sativa L.
16.	B_{13}	Millet	Gero	Pennisetium typhoides Stapf and Hubbard
17.	B_{21}	Maize	Agbado	Zea mays L.
18.	B_{22}	Maize flour ^b	Ogi	Zea mays L.
19.	B_{31}	Guinea corn	Oka-baba	Sorghum bicolor Pers.
20.	B_{32}	Guinea corn ^b	Oka-Baba	Sorghum bicolor Pers.
Spices (C)				
21.	C_{11}	Bell pepper	Tatase	Capsicum annum L.
22.	C_{12}	Cherry pepper	Rodo	Piper nigrum L.
23.	C_{21}	Okro	Ila	Hibiscus esculentus L.
24.	C_{22}	Tomato	Tomati	Lycopersicon lycopersicum (L.) Kerst
25.	C_{23}	Onion	Alubosa	Allium cepa L.
26.	C_{34}	Sugar nut	Apon	Irvingia gabonensis L
Tubers/roots (D)				
27.	D_{11}	Red cocoyam	Koko pupa	Colocasia esculenta Schott.
28.	D_{12}	White cocoyam	Koko funfun	Colocasia esculenta Schott.
29.	D_{21}	Yellow yam	Olo	Dioscorea cavensis Lam.
30.	D_{22}	White yam	Isu funfun	Dioscorea rotundata Poir.
31.	D_{23}	Water yam	Ewura	Dioscorea alata L.
32.	D_{32}	Trifoliate yam (yellow)	Esuru pupa	Dioscorea dumentorum Pax.
33.	D_{32}	Trifoliate yam (white)	Esuru funfun	Dioscorea dumentorum Pax.
34.	D_{41}	Cassava flour	Ege	Manihot esculenta Crantz.
35.	D_{42}	$\text{Cassava}^{\text{b}}$	Gari	Manihot esculenta Crantz.

^a Y=Yoruba

^b Fermented samples of corresponding food

et al., 1988) and 120 mg/100 gin our current report. The phytate level in yellow yam was 452 mg/100 g DM while it was 694 mg/100 g DM in white yam. Both sample phytate levels were higher than literature values, which were 287 mg/100 g (yellow yam) and 317 mg/100 g (white yam) (Akindahunsi & Oboh, 1998) while the following values were further reported for white yam (mg/ 100 g); 29 ± 9 (Harland et al., 1988), 196 (Oke, 1965) and 193 (Harland & Oberleas, 1987). Harland et al. reported 282 ± 2 mg/100 g and Oke also reported 337 mg/100 g for cocoyam. The phytate levels in cassava flour and its fermented variety (gari) in our results were 530 mg/100 g DM and 355 mg/100 g DM, respectively while literature values were 123 ± 9 mg/100 g (gari) and 100 ± 5 mg/ 100 g (cassava flour) (Harland et al., 1988); 0.0 mg/100 g $(gari)$ and 268 mg/100 g (cassava flour) (Oke, 1965), and Ferguson et al. (1988) reported 160 mg/100 g phytate level in cassava.

Oke (1965) reported that there was no phytate in onions. As shown in Table 2, we found phytate in virtually all foods of plant origin tested (except cocoyam). Oberleas (1983) reported that, depending upon processing, whole maize is relatively low in phytate compared with other grains (de Boland, Garner & O'Dell, 1975); our data indicated otherwise.

It was previously believed that, during fermentation, the enzyme phytase hydrolysed the endogenous phytate, and that there were not significant levels of phytate in fermented foods. As shown in Table 2, such may not always be the case (Harland et al., 1988). The results of

^a Mean of duplicate determinations on dry matter basis.

 b (mg of Phy/MW (molecular weight) of Phy:mg of Zn/MW of Zn.

 \circ (mg of Ca/MW of Ca:mg of phy/MW of phy).

 d (mol/kg Ca) (mol/kg Phy)/(mol/kg Zn).

e -Not determined.

^f Phytate content calculated by assuming that it contains 28.2% phosphorus.

 g e,f,g,h,i: Data points that share common letters have their T-scores greater than the group mean value within their group.

this study indicated that the phytate content may be increased on fermenting maize, may be unaltered in fermented guinea corn but significantly reduced in fermented cassava and African locust bean. The level of phytate was reduced by 50.0% in fermented African locust bean (Odunfa, 1986).

Oberleas and Harland (1981) showed that foods with a molar ratio of Phy:Zn less than 10 showed adequate availability of Zn and problems were encountered when the value was greater than 15. In Table 2, the Phy:Zn ratios are shown for the foods analysed. In the legume samples studied, only soya bean, common bean, African yam bean, lima bean (white), groundnut and fermented locust bean have Phy:Zn values less than 15, which could indicate low Zn availability in most of the legumes. Rice, wheat and millet have Phy:Zn ratios greater than 15 among the cereals, which means 57.1% of our cereal samples would have their Zn available. All the spice samples have low Phy:Zn values with the exception of sugar nut, indicating that Zn is probably more available in spices. in tuber/roots, only cocoyam (red and white), yellow bitter yam and gari have Phy:Zn values less than 15. This means that the Zn in most of the tubers/roots samples studied may not be available.

Franz, Kennedy and Fellers, (1980) determined molar ratios in corn, cooked and raw, finding ratios of 30 and 33, respectively. These same authors demonstrated a lower availability of Zn in rats when fed with foods of high molar ratios of Phy:Zn.

In the report of Morris and Ellis (1981), growth of rats was not depressed when cereals with Phy:Zn molar ratios of 15 or lower were the dietary zinc source, but growth was significantly depressed when cereals with Phy:Zn molar ratios of 24 and greater were the zinc source. When the protein source is soy, the critical ratio may be lower than $12-15$ (Oberleas & Prasad, 1976) or it may be higher if the dietary zinc is several times the minimum requirement for growth (Morris & Ellis). In human studies, Phy:Zn molar ratios of 15:1 have also been associated with reduced zinc bioavailability (Turnlund, King, Keyes, Gong & Michel, 1984). O'Dell, Boland and Koirtyohann (1972) found the zinc in corn to be more bioavailable than the zinc in rice or wheat; our results agreed with this report, based on the Phy:Zn in the foods: 430 (wheat), 29.0 (rice), 33.0 (millet) and 11.5 (maize). Many of our Phy:Zn values exceed 15, and exceeded levels reported for an unleavened Middle Eastern bread, tanok (18.0) (Reinhold, 1973). The latter was implicated as an etiological factor in the first cases of human zinc deficiency described in the Middle East (Prasad, Miale, Farid, Schulert & Sandstead, 1963). The high Phy:Zn molar ratio in most of the Nigerian diets may have serious implications, moreover, because animal products, which are the alternative sources of zinc are sold at unaffordable prices, particularly to the rural Nigerians (Adeyeye, 1996).

Wise (1983) suggested that the solubility of the phytates and that the proportion of Zn bound in a mineral complex in the intestines depend on the levels of Ca. In his model, phytate precipitation is not complete until dietary Ca:Phy molar ratios attain a value of approximately 6:1 and phytate precipitation is incomplete, so that some of the dietary Zn remains in solution. The proportion remaining in solution increases with decreasing Ca:Phy molar ratios (Wise).

In our results, all tubers/roots and cereals have Ca:Phy levels less than 6 and this same observation was also noted for legumes with the exception of African yam bean, groundnuts and fermented African locust bean. In spices, only the sugar nut Ca:Phy level was less than 6. These results showed that Ca content of the Nigerian diets may be sufficient to promote a phytate-induced decrease in zinc bioavailability (Ferguson et al., 1988). Ferguson et al. and Ferguson, Gibson, Thompson and Ounpuu (1989) showed that the molar ratio varies with different foods and recommended that this value be used in conjunction with other data to explain the availability of Zn using the Ca:Phy ratio.

In Table 2, we presented the values for the molar ratios of [Ca] [Phy]/[Zn] i.e. $(Ca \times Phy:Zn)$. Ellis et al.

(1987) and Davies and Warrington (1986) indicated that the ratio of $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ is a better predictor of Zn availability and said that, if the value were greater than 0.50 mol/kg , there would be interferences with the availability of Zn . In our results, $CaxPhy:Zn$ values were greater than 0.50 mol/kg in yellow bitter yam (0.54 mol/kg) and white bitter yam (0.62 mol/kg) while other $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ values were lower than or equal to 0.50 mol/kg. That is to say, using this indicator, Zn availability would be affected in bitter yam (yellow and white).

The statistical results for all the samples are shown in Table 3. The legumes are divided into three groups of $A_{11}-A_{17}$ (beans), $A_{21}-A_{24}$ (oil seeds) and $A_{31}-A_{32}$ (African locust bean). In the group $A_{11}^-A_{17}$ the Ca mean value was 37.6 ± 6.5 with a coefficient of variation percent (CV%) of 17.2, Zn value was 1.3 ± 0.5 and CV% of 41.7; phy value was 206 ± 112 with CV% of 54.4, Phy:Zn value was 19.9 ± 16.7 with CV% of 83.4, Ca:Phy value was 10.1 ± 19.2 with CV% of 190 and Ca \times Phy:Zn value was 0.2 ± 0.1 with CV% of 76.5. The results of the oil seeds $(A_{21}-A_{24})$ followed the trends of $A_{11}-A_{17}$ in the mean, standard deviation and CV% in Ca, Zn, phy; Phy: Zn and $Ca \times Phy$: Zn. It should be noted that serial number 26 was included in the oil seeds group (C_{31}) because the sugar nut is regarded as an oil seed $(69.6\pm0.6 \text{ g}/100 \text{ g}$ crude fat dry wt.) (Oshodi and Ipinmoroti, 1990). The African locust bean $(A_{31}-A_{32})$ had the lowest $CV\%$ (4.1) for Ca while the other $CV\%$ values for Zn, Phy, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ were comparatively higher. Table 2 shows that only fermented African locust bean T-score value were below the group mean within its group for Zn level; lima bean (brown) T-score values below the group mean value (within its group) for Ca and no phy T-score value was up to the group mean value among the legumes.

The cereals are in the B group (Table 1). They are in the groups $B_{11}-B_{13}$ (whole grain kernel), $B_{21}-B_{22}$ (maize and Ogi) and $B_{31}-B_{32}$ (guinea corn and *oka-baba*). In the cereals, all the CV% were low for Ca, Zn, Phy, Phy: Zn , Ca:Phy and Ca \times Phy: Zn , and this shows that the various parameter values were homogeneous and that the nutritional characteristics may not be very different among the cereals under review. Table 2 shows that the Ca level of ogi was not different from members of its group and no cereal was different from its group as shown by their T-scores.

The spices are in group C and they are in sub groups $C_{11}-C_{12}$ (pepper), $C_{21}-C_{23}$ (Okro, tomato and onion, respectively) and C_{31} (sugar nut). Sugar nut was different from the other group members in its Ca content because its T-score value was greater than the group mean but no phy level was different (T-score) among the spices. All the Zn, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy$:Zn levels have their T-score values greater than their corresponding mean values showing their high variability for those values.

Table 3 Mean (\bar{X}) , standard deviation (S.D.) and coefficient of variation percent (CV%) of Zn, Ca, Phy, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and [Ca] [Phy]/[Zn] of the food groups analysed

^a Mean values are in mg/100 g.

b Not determined.

Group D is composed of the tubers/roots which are $D_{11}-D_{12}$ (cocoyam), $D_{21}-D_{23}$ (yam), $D_{31}-D_{32}$ (bitter yam) and $D_{41}-D_{42}$ (Cassava). The CV% for cocoyam was low, ranging from $5.2-5.5$ for Ca and Zn levels, respectively. The Zn T-score values for cocoyam were also on the high side. The heterogeneous nature of the values of Ca, Zn, Phy, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ for $D_{21}-D_{23}$, $D_{31}-D_{32}$ and $D_{41}-D_{42}$ samples are shown by their CV%. The T-score values also showed that all the Zn values were highly different for $D_{21}-D_{42}$, only white yam and cassava flour have their T-score values greater than the mean value in Ca levels among their groups while all Phy: Zn , Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy$: Zn levels

have greater T-score values than their corresponding group mean for $D_{21}-D_{42}$.

Zinc deficiency has been shown to be the cause of dwarfism and hypogonadism among adolescents from the lowest social classes of Egypt (Prasad, 1984). The data presented here cover a broad range of foods consumed in Nigeria and appear to form baseline information for levels of Phy, Phy:Zn, Ca:Phy and $Ca \times Phy: Zn$ for most of the foods since literature information is scarce. Going by the work of Hussein and Bruggeman (1997), we are advocating that the level of research devoted to the improvement of protein intake in Nigerian foods should also include the study of Zn availability in

foods and the assessment of Zn bioavailability from Nigerian diets in human balance biological experiments.

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