ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITY AND ANTIMUTAGENICITY OF HOM NIL RICE AND BLACK GLUTINOUS RICE

Kamala Sadabpod¹, Kaew Kangsadalampai² and Linna Tongyonk^{1,*}

¹Department of Food and Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok 10330, Thailand, ² Institute of Nutrition, Mahidol University, Salaya, Nakhon Pathom. 73170, Thailand

ABSTRACT: Raw, cooked and fermented Hom-Nil rice and black glutinous rice (Oryza sativa) extracts were investigated for their antioxidant activity and antimutagenicity. Each rice extract exhibited high antioxidant activity. The antioxidant activity and total phenolic contents of black glutinous rice extracts were higher than that of Hom Nil rice extracts. In addition, antioxidant activity and total phenolic content of fermented rice extract was higher than those of both raw rice extract and the cooked rice extract respectively. These rice extracts were not mutagenic in the Ames test using Salmonella typhimurium strains TA98 and TA100 without metabolic activation at pH 3.0-3.4. After nitrite treatment, rice extracts exhibited their mutagenicity on both tester strains. Their antimutagenicity against nitrite-treated 1-aminopyrene was evaluated. Each rice extract possessed antimutagenic activity. The antimutagenicity of black glutinous rice extracts was higher than that of Hom Nil rice extracts. Fermentation might be a good process to increase the antimutagenicity. The protective effects of these rice extracts might be due to the presence of antimutagenic components that were supposed to be flavonoids which might scavenge of the toxic compounds or/and inhibit bacterial enzyme. Thus, the results from this study make such rice potentially useful in dietary antioxidant and chemoprevention.

Keywords: Hom Nil rice, black glutinous rice, mutagenicity, antioxidant, Ames test, nitrite

INTRODUCTION: The incidence of the proximal stomach cancer has increased markedly over the past 20 years. While the responsible agent remains unidentified, it is likely that environmental factors, such as the diet, play a role in the rising incidence of this cancer. For many years, there has been interest in nitrite as a potential precarcinogen for gastric cancer. Acidification of nitrite in the stomach produces nitrosative species, which can form potentially carcinogenic N-nitroso compounds¹⁾. Phytochemicals which are bioactive nonnutrient compounds found in plant foods (e.g. fruits, vegetables, grains) possess biologic effects associated with reduced risk of various diseases such as cancer. The polyphenols are some of the most studied compounds and can be further divided into flavonoids including flavonols, flavones, catechins, flavanones, and anthocyanins²). Anthocyanins has many biological properties such as prevention of inflammation³, reduction of DNA cleavage4), antimutagenicity in bacterial model⁵), and gastric protective effects⁶). One of the good sources of anthocyanins is black rice7). The two kinds of black rice (Oryza sativa)

that are mostly consumed in Thailand are Hom Nil rice and black glutinous rice. This study was aimed to investigate the antioxidant activity and antimutagenicity of Hom Nil rice and black glutinous rice extracts against mutagenicity of nitrite-treated 1-aminopyren.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Chemicals

1-Aminopyrene (1-AP) was obtained from Aldrich, St. Louis, USA. E. Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) supplied methanol and Bacto agar. Oxoid nutrient broth No.2 was purchased from Oxoid Ltd. (Basingstoke, Hants, England). Sodium nitrite was purchased from BDH Chemicals Ltd. (Poole, England). Other chemicals were of laboratory grade.

Sample preparations

Hom-Nil rice and black glutinous rice were purchased from a supermarket in Bangkok. Raw rice was prepared by only washing it with tap water while cooked rice was prepared by using an automatic electric rice cooker with distilled water (water 2 liter: rice 1 kg). Fermented rice was

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed. E-mail: linna.t@chula.ac.th, Tel. +668 1205 2685

prepared by mixed 1 piece of traditional starter for 1 kg of raw rice with cooked rice and left in room temperature for 48 h. Each rice sample was dried at 40 °C in hot air oven until dried and then it was grounded in an electrical blender to be fine powder before the extraction. The powder (1000 g) was soaked for 1 day in 1.5 liter of acid alcohol (0.1 N acetic acid in 70% ethanol) and repeated this step for 3 times. All of the filtrates were evaporated and it was dried in freeze dryer. The rice extract was protected from light and store below 5°C until used.

Antioxidant Assay

8 mg/ml in 80% methanol of each rice extract was used in antioxidant assays. Each rice extract was run simultaneously. All data were presented as means of at least triplicate experiments. 2, 2'-Diphenyl-1-Picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assays were used to determine the antioxidant activity of the rice extracts. The procedure of DPPH assay was described by Fukumoto and Mazza⁸⁾ with slight modifications. The absorbance of the solution was read in microplate reader (Sunrise, Tecan Co., Austria) using a 520 nm filter. The antioxidant activity of the rice extracts was determined using the standard curve expressed as mg of Trolox Equivalent Antioxidant Capacity (TEAC)/g dry weight of rice extract. The radical scavenging activity was also calculated as a percentage of DPPH scavenging activity using the equation: % scavenging activity = $100 \times (1-A_E/A_D)$, where A_E is the absorbance of the solution when the rice extract is added, and A_D is the absorbance of the DPPH solution with nothing added. FRAP assay was used by its ability to reduce the Fe³⁺/ferricyanide complex by forming ferrous products. Fe²⁺ can be monitored by measuring the formation of Perl's Prussian blue at 600 nm as described by Griffin and Bhagooli9. An aqueous solution of Fe2+ (FeSO₄.7H₂O) was used to making standard curve. The FRAP values of the extracts expressed as mg of ferrous iron (Fe (II))/g dry weight of rice extract. Total phenolic content of each rice extract was determined using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent¹⁰⁻¹²). The absorbance of the solution was read in microplate reader using a

750 nm filter. The amount of total polyphenols was calculated as a Gallic Acid Equivalent (GAE) from the calibration curve of gallic acid standard solutions; expressed as mg gallic acid equivalent/g dry weight of rice extract.

Nitrite treatment

An aliquot of rice extract (50, 75, 100 μ l) was measured into a sterile test tube and the volume was adjusted to 200 μ l with sterile distilled water. It was then mixed with 250 μ l 2 M sodium nitrite and 550 μ l 0.2 N hydrochloric acid to acidify the reaction mixture to pH 3-3.4 and incubated at 37°C in a shaking water bath for 4 h. The reaction was stopped by placing the tube in an ice bath for 1 min and 250 μ l of 2 M ammonium sulfamate was added. The reaction mixture was allowed to stand for 10 min in an ice bath before being subjected to the mutagenicity assay.

Ames mutagenicity assay

The plate incorporation procedure of Maron and Ames13) was used for mutagenicity and antimutagenicity testing on Salmonella typhimurium TA98 and TA100 without metabolic activation, with the inclusion of a pre-incubation step¹⁴, and with some minor modifications. Positive controls using 1-AP (0.075 mg/ml) 10 µl (tested on TA98) or 20 µl (tested on TA100) treated with nitrite in acid solution and negative controls were included in each assay. The untreated or nitrite-treated sample as described (100 µl) was mixed with 500 μ l of 0.5 M phosphate buffer (pH7.4), 100 µl of each tester strain for a preincubation step and incubated at 37°C in a shaking water bath. After incubation, 2 ml of top agar containing 0.5 mM L-histidine and 0.5m M D-biotin (45°C) was added, mixed well and poured onto aminimal glucose agar plate. The plate was rotated to achieve uniform colony distribution and incubated at 37°C in darkness for 48 h. Number of His+ revertant colonies was counted. The mutagenicity of each sample was pronounced when number of histidine revertants per plate was higher than twice of spontaneous revertants with a concentration-response relationship¹¹).

Antimutagenicity assay

Each rice extract (50, 75, 100 μ l) was added to a test tube containing the 4-hour incubated

mixture of sodium nitrite treated chicken extract (1250 μ l) and adjusted the volume into 1350 μ l with sterile distilled water before pre-incubation process. Then the mixture was determined for its mutagenicity by Ames test. The antimutagenic activity was calculated as percentage of modification as follow:

% Inhibition = $(A-B)/(A-C) \ge 100$

Where A is the number of histidine revertants induced by nitrite treated standard mutagen (1-AP), B is the number of histidine revertants induced by mutagen in the present of rice extract and C is the number of spontaneous revertants (negative control). The inhibition of mutagenicity may be divided into four classes as follows: more than 60%: strong; 60-41%: moderate; 40-21%: weak; 20-0%: negligible¹⁵).

RESULTS:

Antioxidant activity

All of the rice extracts, namely raw Hom Nil rice extract (RH), cooked Hom Nil rice extract (CH), fermented Hom Nil rice extract (FH), raw black glutinous rice extract (RB), cooked black glutinous rice extract (CB) and fermented black glutinous rice extract (FB), possessed high antioxidant activity and high phenolic contents (Table 1). The antioxidant activity and total phenolic contents of black glutinous rice extracts was higher than those of Hom Nil rice extracts. However, calculating based on their raw material dry weight basis; it was found that fermented rice had higher both antioxidant activity and phenolic contents than raw or cooked rice (data not shown).

Mutagenicity

All samples were not mutagenic on *S. typhimurium* strains TA98 and TA100, but exhibited their mutagenicity on both tester strains after sodium nitrite treatment with a concentrationresponse relationship (data not shown).

Antimutagenicity

The dose-inhibition relationship of rice extracts toward the mutagenicity of nitrite treated 1-AP is shown in Figure 1. The result showed that rice extracts could inhibit the mutagenicity of nitrite treated 1-AP on both S. typhimurium tester strains at the dose of 0.8 mg/plate or higher. At the dose of 1.6 mg/plate of rice extract; UH, CH, UB, CB and FB strongly inhibited (>60% inhibition) the mutagenicity of nitrite treated 1-AP on S. typhimurium TA98; CH and FB showed weak antimutagenic activity (>20% inhibition), UB and CB showed moderate antimutagenic activity (>40% inhibition) on S. typhimurium TA100. On both tester strains, black glutinous rice extract showed higher antimutagenic activity than Hom Nil rice extracts where as FH showed the lowest antimutagenic activity.

Table 1 Antioxidant activity, total phenolic contents and extraction yield of rice extracts

DPPH assay		FRAP ^b	Total polyphenol	%Yield ^d
TEAC ^a	% Scavenging	value	content (GAE)°	(dry weight)
1.189	95.03	5214.44	272.07	0.8
1.173	93.99	2744.36	235.42	0.6
0.117	24.26	360.87	38.56	27.3
1.245	98.41	6797.89	458.37	1.7
1.236	98.19	6352.16	452.75	0.6
1.032	84.71	1461.40	65.21	12.75
	DPI TEAC ^a 1.189 1.173 0.117 1.245 1.236 1.032	DPPH assay TEAC a % Scavenging 1.189 95.03 1.173 93.99 0.117 24.26 1.245 98.41 1.236 98.19 1.032 84.71	DPPH assay FRAPb TEACa % Scavenging value 1.189 95.03 5214.44 1.173 93.99 2744.36 0.117 24.26 360.87 1.245 98.41 6797.89 1.236 98.19 6352.16 1.032 84.71 1461.40	DPPH assay FRAPb Total polyphenol content (GAE)c TEACa % Scavenging value Total polyphenol content (GAE)c 1.189 95.03 5214.44 272.07 1.173 93.99 2744.36 235.42 0.117 24.26 360.87 38.56 1.245 98.41 6797.89 458.37 1.236 98.19 6352.16 452.75 1.032 84.71 1461.40 65.21

All values are the means of three measurements.

aTEAC (Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity) in mg/g dry weight of rice extract.

^bFRAP assay = The FRAP value of the extract was expressed as mg of ferrous iron (Fe (II))/g dry weight of rice extract. ^cGAE (The gallic acid equivalent) in mg/g dry weight of rice extract.

^d%Yield calculated from dry weight of raw material.

J Health Res 2010, 24(2): 49-54



Figure 1 Effect of the rice extracts on the mutagenicity of sodium nitrite treated 1-AP on S. *typhimurium* TA98 (a) and TA100 (b) without metabolic activation at pH 3.0-3.4; raw Hom Nil rice extract (RH), cooked Hom Nil rice extract (CH), fermented Hom Nil rice extract (FH), raw black glutinous rice extract (RB), cooked black glutinous rice extract (CB) and fermented black glutinous rice extract (FB)

DISCUSSION: Hom nil rice and black glutinous rice possessed high antioxidant activity which might be the good sources of antioxidant food for consumers. High level of antioxidant activity and phenolic content in each rice extract might be due to high anthocyanins content present in the rice¹⁶). Fermented rice had much higher yield than those of raw and cooked rice because the starch was turned to reducing sugar^{17,18}) that was extracted by acidic alcohol in this study. Therefore, FH and FB had the highest antioxidant activity and the phenolic contents based on dry weight basis of the starting materials. This indicated that fermentation can enhance levels of antioxidant activity and also improve the bioactive potential of the rice¹⁹ which might be due to the increasing of aglycone content, the bioactive isoflavone20).

Hom-Nil rice and black glutinous rice seem to be safe for consumer because their extracts were not mutagenic towards S. typhimurium on TA98 and TA100 at doses tested. However, all samples were mutagenic after being treated with excess sodium nitrite in acid solution. It implied that each rice extract contained certain precursors that could react with nitrite under acidic solution to produce direct mutagenic products causing frame-shift (TA98) and base-pair substitution (TA100). It is not surprised since Hayatsu and Hayatsu²¹⁾ reported that boiled rice treated with nitrous acid showed mutagenicity in the absence of metabolic activation but the mutagenicity decreased greatly after treated with S9. The possible precursors contained in the rice extract might be flavonoids²², indoles, phenolics, and carbolines²³). These results indicate that consumers

would be in a risk of gastric cancer when consume these two kinds of rice simultaneously with any nitrite containing foods.

Hom Nil rice and black glutinous rice extracts might be the inhibitors of nitrosated products that induced mutations. All of the samples inhibited the mutagenesis of nitrite treated 1-AP on both S. typhimurium tester strains may suggest that scavenging of the toxic compounds or/and enzyme inhibition by the rice extracts were the possible mechanism of inhibition. The flavonoids in rice extract, might be the potent antimutagenic compounds against 1-nitropyrene (possibly one of the products occurred during nitrite treatment of 1-aminopyrene)²⁴⁾ by inhibited the activation of 1nitropyrene by bacterial nitroreductase²⁵⁾ or Oacetyltransferase²⁴). In addition, there were similar trends between the antimutagenicity of black glutinous rice extracts and the antioxidant activity and total phenolic contents assays; it was higher than that of Hom Nil rice extracts.

CONCLUSION: Hom Nil rice and black glutinous rice are safe for consumption in consideration of mutagenicity but consumers should avoid consuming these two kinds of black rice with nitrite containing foods. Furthermore, they are good for human health in terms of their antioxidant activity and their ability to inhibit mutagenicity of direct mutagens.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT: This thesis was supported by the Faculty of Graduate Studies, Chulalongkorn University in the academic year 2009.

REFERENCES:

1. Combet E, Paterson S, McColl K. 2007. Diet, gastric nitrosation and stomach cancer. Comp Biochem Physiol 146: S53–S62.

2. Liu RH. 2004. Potential synergy of phytochemicals in cancer prevention: mechanism of action. J Nutr 134(12 Suppl): 3479S–85S.

3. Sarma AD, Sharma R. 1999. Anthocyanin-DNA copigmentation complex: mutual protection against oxidative damage. Phytochemistry 52: 1313-8.

4. Kondo K, Matsumoto A, Kurata H, Tanahashi H, Koga H, Amachi T, *et al.* Inhibition of low density lipoprotein with redwine. Lancet 1994; 344: 1152.

5. Wang J, Mazza G. 2002. Effects of anthocyanins and other phenolic compounds on the production of tumor necrosis factor alpha in LPS/ IFN-gamma-activated RAW 264.7 macrophages. J Agr Food Chem 50: 4183-9.

6. Yoshimoto M, Okuno S, Yamaguchi M, Yamakawa O. 2001. Antimutagenicity of deacylated anthocyanins in purple fleshed sweet potato. Biosci Biotechnol Biochem 65: 1652-5.

7. Zhang MW, Guo BJ, Zhang RF, Chi JW, We ZC, Xu ZH, *et al.* 2006. Separation, purification and identification of antioxidant compositions in black rice. Agr Sci China 5(6): 431-40.

8. Fukumoto LR and Mazza G. 2000. Assessing antioxidant and prooxidant activity of phenolic compounds. J Agr Food Chem 48: 3597-604.

9. Griffin SP and Bhagooli R. 2004. Measuring antioxidant potential in corals using the FRAP assay. J Exp Marine Bio Ecol 302: 201-11.

10. Swain T and Hillis WE. 1959. The phenolic constituents of *Prunus domestica*: The quantitative analysis of phenolic constituents. J Sci Food Agric 10: 63-8.

11. Naczk M and Shahidi F. 1989. The effect of methanol-ammonia-water treatment on the content of phenolic acids of canola. Food Chem 31(2): 159-64.

12. Amarowicz R, Pegg RB, Rahimi-Moghaddam P, Barl B, Weil JA. 2004. Free-radical scavenging capacity and antioxidant activity of selected plant species from the Canadian prairies. Food Chem 84: 551-62.

13. Maron DM and Ames BN. 1983. Revised methods for *Salmonella* mutagenicity test. Mut Res 444: 451-61.

14. Yahagi T, Degawa M, Seino Y, Matsushima T, Nagao M. 1975. Mutagenicity of carcinogenic azo dyes and their derivatives. Cancer Lett 1: 91-6.

15. Calomme M, Pieters L, Vlirtnck A, Vander BD. 1996. Inhibition of bacterial mutagenesis by citrus flavonoids In: Planta medica: natural products and medicinal. Plant Res 62: 222-6.

16. Choi Y, Jeong H-S, Lee J. 2007. Antioxidant activity of methanolic extracts from some grains consumed in Korea. Food Chem 103: 130-8.

17. Ülgen KÖ, Sayglı B, Önsan ZI, Kırdar, B. 2002. Bioconversion of starch into ethanol by a recombinant *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain YPG-AB. Process Biochem 37(10): 1157-1168.

18. Horn, C.H., du Preez, J.C., and Kilian SG. 1992. Fermentation of Grain Sorghum Starch by Co-cultivation of *Schwanniomyces occidentalis* and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Bioresource Technol 42: 27-31.

19. Đorđević TM, Šiler-Marinkovića SS, Dimitrijević-Brankovića SI. 2009. Effect of fermentation on antioxidant properties of some cereals and pseudo cereals. Food Chem 119(3): 957-63.

20. Lee IH, Chou CC. 2006. Distribution profiles of isoflavone isomers in black bean kojis prepared with various filamentous fungi. J Agric Food Chem 54: 1309-14.

21. Macgregor JT, JURD L. 1978. Mutagenicity of plant flavonoids: structural requirements for mutagenic activity in *Salmonella typbimurium*. Mut Res 54: 297-309.

22. Wakabayashi KM, Nagao M, Sugimura T. 1989. Mutagens and carcinogens produced by the reaction of environmental aromatic compounds with nitrite. Cancer Surv 18: 385-99.

23. Hayatsu H, Hayatsu T. 1989. Mutagenicity arising from boiled rice on treatment with nitrous acid. Jpn J Cancer Res 80(11): 1021-3.

24. Edenharder R, Tang X. 1997. Inhibition of the mutagenicity of 2-nitrouorene, 3-nitro-uoranthene and 1-nitropyrene by flavonoids, coumarins, quinones and other phenolic compounds. Food Chem Toxicol 35: 357-72.

25. Kuo M., Lee K, Lin J. 1992. Genotoxicities of nitropyrenes and their modulation by apigenin, tannic acid, ellagic acid and indole-3-carbinol in the Salmonella and CHO systems. Mutat Res 270: 87-95.