

1 Article

2 Iodine Intake through Processed Food: Case studies from 3 Egypt, Indonesia, the Philippines, the Russian Federation 4 and Ukraine, 2010-2015

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19 **Abstract:** The current performance indicator for universal salt iodisation (USI) is the percent of
20 households using adequately iodised salt. However, the proportion of dietary salt from household
21 salt is decreasing with the increase in consumption of processed foods and condiments globally.
22 This paper reports on case studies supported by the GAIN-UNICEF USI Partnership Project to
23 investigate processed food industry use of adequately iodised salt in contrasting national contexts.
24 Studies were conducted in Egypt, Indonesia, the Philippines, the Russian Federation, and Ukraine.
25 In all cases, the potential iodine intake from iodised salt in selected food products was modelled
26 according to the formula: Quantity of salt per unit of food product x minimum regulated iodine
27 level of salt at production x average daily per capita consumption of the product. The percent of
28 adult recommended nutrient intake for iodine potentially provided by the average daily intake of
29 bread and frequently consumed foods and condiments was from 10% to 80% at the individual
30 product level. The potential contribution to iodine intake from the use of iodised salt in the
31 processed food industry is of growing significance. National USI strategies should encourage
32 co-operative industry engagement and include regulatory monitoring of iodised salt use in the
33 food industry in order to achieve optimal population iodine status.

34

35 **Keywords:** Iodised salt, processed foods, iodine deficiency disorders

36 1. Introduction

37 Iodine deficiency hinders cognitive development and growth, and is the single greatest cause of
38 preventable mental impairment in the world. Universal Salt Iodisation (USI), defined as iodisation of
39 all food-grade salt, used in the household, by food processing industries and for animal feed;[1] is
40 globally accepted as the most cost-effective public health strategy to prevent and control iodine
41 deficiency disorders (IDD).[2]

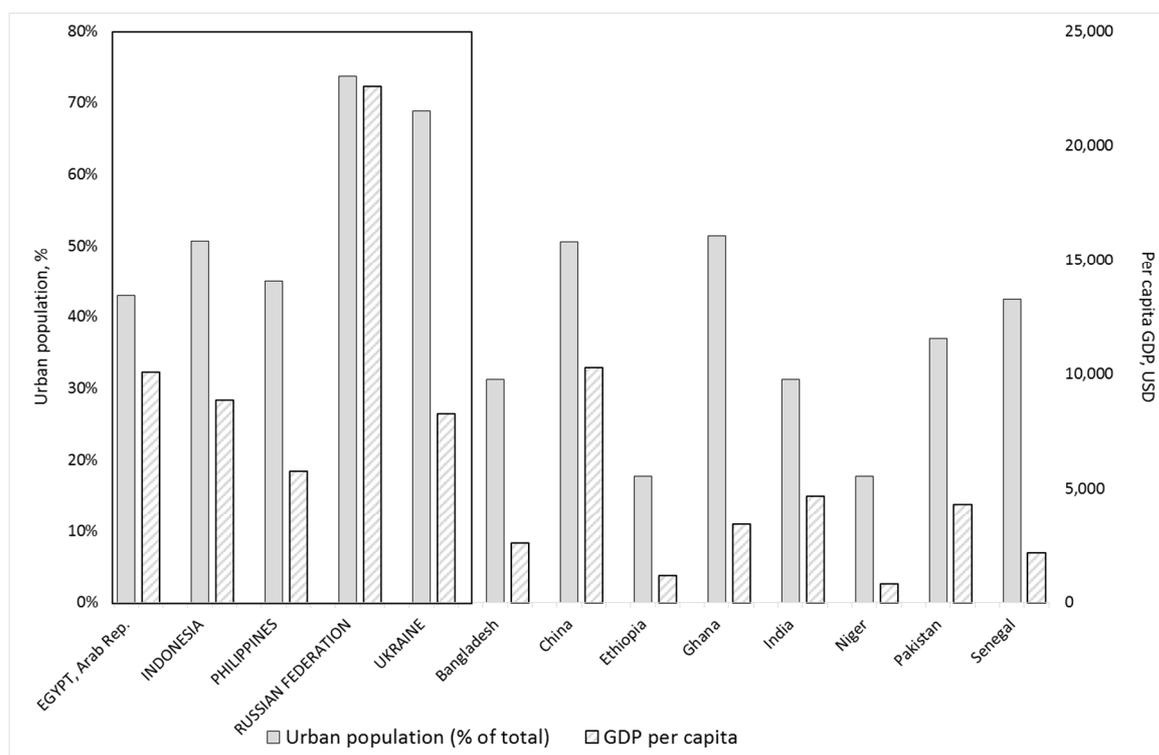
42 From 2008 to 2015, the Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition (GAIN) and UNICEF worked in
43 a partnership with a grant from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation to intensify business-oriented
44 efforts towards the global elimination of iodine deficiency through USI ("the Partnership Project").
45 The goal of the Partnership Project was to sustainably improve population-wide iodine intakes,
46 primarily by increasing the supply of, and access to, adequately iodised food-grade salt in 13

47 countries with: a very high population numbers unprotected from iodine deficiency through lack of
48 access to adequately iodised ($\geq 15\text{mg/kg}$) household salt, the lowest percent household iodised salt
49 coverage, and/or the greatest potential for sustainably scaling-up efforts through innovative
50 business approaches.

51 Early on, the Partnership Project recognised that the established performance indicator for USI,
52 household iodised salt coverage, is not an accurate indicator since it does not account for dietary
53 iodine intake from iodised salt in industrially processed foods,[3] or the impact of using iodised salt
54 in animal feed.

55 Salt from manufactured foods including meat, cheese, and bread already constitutes the major
56 share of the salt intake in industrialised countries.[4,5] In low- and middle-income countries (LMIC),
57 consumption of processed foods and condiments has been rising over the past few decades,
58 influenced by income growth, urbanisation, increasing female workforce participation and changing
59 lifestyle practices and choices.[6,7] For example, household expenditure studies in Bangladesh,
60 Nepal, India, Indonesia, and Vietnam have shown that industrially manufactured foods (high and
61 low value added processed foods combined) represent about three quarters of the share of
62 household food purchases in urban areas and more than half in rural areas.[6,8,9] In East and
63 Southern Africa, one third of the purchased food market was highly processed foods, which are
64 more likely to include salt as an ingredient. The relative proportion of this market share increased
65 with income in both rural and urban areas.[7] The referenced literature provides evidence that, as
66 incomes rise, dietary trends diversify beyond staple grains towards fruits, vegetables, animal
67 proteins, dairy, processed products to cook at home, and ready-prepared foods bought away from
68 home.

69 The Partnership Project hypothesised that in some countries, while a significant proportion of
70 population salt intake may be through processed foods and condiments, this may not be iodised due
71 to a lack of: food industry awareness, legislation requiring iodisation of food-industry salt, and/or of
72 clear implementing regulations and regulatory monitoring processes where such legislation exists.
73 Therefore, between 2010 and 2015, GAIN investigated the use of iodised salt in the food industry,
74 including assessment of its current use, identification of obstacles to its use, and modelling the
75 potential impact on dietary iodine intake if it was used. This paper summarises the process and
76 outcome of investigations in four distinct contexts (in relation to country, dietary practices, the
77 legislative situation, the Partnership Project approach, and the food types targeted): Egypt,
78 Indonesia, the Philippines, and the Russian Federation and Ukraine combined. These Partnership
79 Project countries were selected because they had a high percent of urban population, combined with
80 a relatively high GDP per capita (Figure 1), factors known to be linked to increased access to high
81 value added processed foods, as described above. Following the situation summaries, we include
82 recommendations on improving policies and practice for iodised salt use and monitoring within the
83 food industry, in order to optimise and sustain population iodine nutrition.



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Figure 1. Percent urban population (solid fill bars) and per capita GDP (USD) (hashed fill bars) in the Partnership Project countries, 2011. The five countries for which case studies are presented in this paper are listed first and highlighted.

88 2. Materials and Methods

89 GAIN (along with UNICEF in the Russian Federation and Ukraine) collaborated with national
90 partners and commissioned research in i) Egypt, to assess the implementation of existing regulations
91 for the use of iodised salt in the production of Baladi bread at small-scale bakeries throughout the
92 country; ii) Indonesia and the Philippines, to clarify whether large scale producers of selected
93 processed foods were using iodised salt, how the quality of iodisation was assessed, and industry
94 awareness and understanding of iodised salt regulations; and iii) the Russian Federation and
95 Ukraine, to review the use of iodised salt in bakery regulations and to support implementation of
96 communication and advocacy efforts to include iodised salt in industrial-scale and artisanal baking
97 of assorted types of bread, with a focus on widely available “social” bread.

98 The specifics of the research varied by national context and are described further for each case
99 study below. For all country contexts, the potential contribution to population iodine intake was
100 modelled based on a scenario where all salt in the target product was iodised according to the
101 minimum national iodine standard. The following basic formula was used in modelling:

102
$$\text{Quantity of salt per unit of food product} \times \text{minimum regulated iodine level of salt at production} \times \text{average}$$

103
$$\text{daily per capita consumption of the product}$$

104 3. Results

105 Results are presented for each national case study, providing information on: the context; the
106 investigative process conducted; outcomes of the process, including modelling of iodine intake; and
107 discussion of the implications for national programmes to achieve optimal iodine status.

108 3.1. Egypt - Baladi bread

109 Salt iodisation in Egypt started in 1996 with the aim to reduce iodine deficiency among the
110 population. Salt iodisation is now implemented according to mandatory legislation for iodisation of
111 household salt and of salt used in the baking industry (Specification no. 2732-1/2005 issued by the
112 Egyptian organisation of standardisation and quality). Regulations state that salt should be iodised

113 at the level of 30-70mg/kg potassium iodate (KIO₃), equivalent to approximately 18-41.5mg/kg
114 iodine.

115 Egypt has a national Food Subsidy Program which targets poor and low-income groups. At the
116 time of the survey in 2013, reported below, the subsidy program was made up of two main
117 subsystems: ration cards that offer eligible households specific monthly quotas of subsidised
118 commodities, in particular sugar, edible oil, rice, and tea; and Baladi bread, which was distributed
119 through market outlets on a first-come, first-served basis. Baladi bread was sold at the highly
120 subsidised rate of 5 piastres per loaf, when the real cost of production at that time was
121 approximately 35 piastres according to the average international price of wheat (Personal
122 communication from Dr Magdy Shehata, World Food Programme (WFP), Cairo). A 2010 WFP
123 survey of consumer behaviour found that respondents from 80% of households in urban areas and
124 65% of households in rural areas purchased subsidised Baladi bread. Consumption in urban areas
125 was higher because Baladi bread was more easily available and because in some governorates rural
126 households still baked bread at home[10,11]. Subsidised Baladi bread is mandated to be baked using
127 flour fortified with iron and folic acid, and using iodised salt. It is baked in over 24,000 bakeries
128 throughout the country and sold through a network of many thousand outlets (personal
129 communication from Magdy Shehata, WFP Cairo). It was estimated that, on average, Egyptians
130 consumed 380g flour from bread (equivalent to approximately 475g bread) per day[10].

131 Bakeries are monitored by the Ministry of Supply and Internal Trading (MOSIT) and the
132 Ministry of Health and Population (MOHP) to ensure that the bread conforms to quality
133 specification standards. Inspection procedures focus mainly on checking that fortified flour is being
134 used but also include a visual check of available salt package to ensure it is labelled as iodised.
135 However, these visual checks may not guarantee that the salt is iodised since packaging and sale of
136 non-iodised salt in bags labelled as iodised has been cited as one of the challenges to achieving USI
137 in Egypt[12]. Where a bakery is found to be using salt in packaging with no indication that it is
138 iodised, a written warning is issued and sometimes the bakery is fined.

139
140 GAIN partnered with the WFP to integrate testing of salt iodine into the MOSIT inspections at
141 bakeries using semi-quantitative salt iodine rapid test kits (RTKs), and to record these results in the
142 quality control system database in MOSIT, with the intention to strengthen the government's
143 inspection capacity and integrate information about bakery use of iodised salt into the Management
144 Information System (MIS) that had been developed to monitor bakery use of fortified flour. As part
145 of the process, MOSIT inspectors were trained in inspecting bakeries for cleanliness, salt storage, the
146 presence of an iodine label or logo on salt packaging, conducting an RTK test, completion of the hard
147 copy inspection form, and data entry into the MIS. A pilot test was conducted, covering 207
148 randomly-selected bakeries from 25 governorates, to test the planned data collection and reporting
149 system. For the purpose of this first assessment only, MOSIT inspectors included collection of
150 information on the amount of salt used in Baladi bread production and also took bread samples to
151 measure the actual iodine content, with testing conducted at the National Nutrition Institute
152 Laboratory using the AOAC method 935.14.[13]

153 The proposed use of results from this inspection process was for the MOHP to follow up on any
154 bread produced using non-iodised salt, investigate whether it was due to non-iodised salt
155 repackaged into bags labelled as iodised, and to develop an appropriate strategic response.

156 For modelling purposes, the initial salt iodine level was estimated based on a back-calculation
157 from the measured iodine content of the collected bread and bakery-reported salt content of the
158 bread (% salt per unit of flour). This approach estimated the minimum original salt iodine content,
159 since some iodine may have been lost during baking. The number of bakeries selected in each
160 governorate ranged from 2 to 15, with 10 bakeries in the majority of governorates. The number per
161 governorate was selected to provide a similar level of capacity strengthening to each governorate
162 MOSIT team, however it meant that the sample was not proportionally representative of the total
163 number of bakeries by governorate or nationwide.

164

165 Seventy six percent of the salt samples (n=158) collected from bakeries in all governorates
 166 contained ≥ 15 mg/kg iodine, as assessed based on the intensity of colour change with the RTK. Using
 167 the same method, 23% of salt samples had between 1 and 14.9mg/kg iodine, and 1% (n = 1) was
 168 recorded as having no iodine.

169 **Table 1.** Results of modelling the potential dietary intake of iodine from bakery-produced Baladi
 170 bread in Egypt

		Mean estimates by Governorate					
Region	Governorate	Number Samples/ Governorate	Measured iodine in bread $\mu\text{g}/100\text{g}$ bread	Derived iodine content (mg/kg) of bakery salt	μg iodine daily from intake 400g bread ¹	% RNI ² for iodine	
Metropolitan	National	207	18.9	36.0	75.6	50.4%	
	Cairo	10	21.9	48.9	87.6	58.4%	
	Alexandria	10	12.1	23.8	48.4	32.3%	
	Port Said	2	12.0	21.0	48.0	32.0%	
Lower Egypt	Suez	11	13.5	26.1	53.8	35.9%	
	Sharkia	10	26.3	48.8	105.2	70.1%	
	Menoufia	6	9.7	17.7	38.4	25.6%	
	Gharbia	4	9.5	17.0	38.0	25.3%	
	Damietta	10	18.1	35.4	72.4	48.3%	
	Dakahlia	3	20.7	35.1	82.7	55.1%	
	Kafr	9	22.3	44.2	89.3	59.6%	
	El-Shiekh	9	18.9	35.9	75.6	50.4%	
	Ismailia	9	18.9	35.9	75.6	50.4%	
	Kalyubia	10	29.8	57.3	119.2	79.5%	
Upper Egypt	Aswan	10	21.4	37.7	85.6	57.1%	
	Qena	10	15.4	28.3	61.6	41.1%	
	Luxor	10	24.5	48.3	98.0	65.3%	
	Souhag	10	12.9	24.0	51.6	34.4%	
	Assuit	10	27.3	52.7	109.2	72.8%	
	Giza	9	23.6	41.7	94.2	62.8%	
	Fayoum	15	13.9	25.4	55.7	37.2%	
Frontier	Beni-Suef	9	9.1	16.5	36.4	24.3%	
	Menya	6	23.0	48.1	92.0	61.3%	
	Red Sea	6	25.0	46.5	100.0	66.7%	
	South Sinai	8	17.5	34.2	70.0	46.7%	
	Matrouh	5	22.6	41.2	90.4	60.3%	
	New Valley	5	13.6	25.3	54.4	36.3%	

171 ¹ Conservative estimate of typical adult bread intake (380g/day flour equivalent to 475g/day bread[10]) and
 172 communication with Dr Magdy Shehata, WFP Egypt Programme Officer (350g flour/day equivalent to 438g
 173 bread)

174 ² RNI, recommended nutrient intake (iodine) is 150 μg for an adult[14]

175 The mean iodine content in bread was found to be 0.189mg/kg, or 18.9 μg iodine per 100g of
 176 bread. See Table 1. The amount of salt used in bread production varied across bakeries from 0.44g to
 177 0.85g per 100g of bread, with an average of 0.67g/100g of bread. Using the back-calculation method
 178 to estimate iodine in the salt used to produce the bread, a higher number of bread samples (187 or
 179 90% of samples) were found to have been produced using adequately iodised salt (≥ 15 mg/kg) than

180 was found by RTK, four samples (2%) were found to have been produced with salt with no added
181 iodine (<5mg/kg), and the remaining 16 bread samples (8%) were found to have been produced with
182 salt containing 5-14.9mg/kg iodine.

183

184 Modelling of expected adult iodine intake from the use of iodised salt in Baladi bread was done
185 based on the measured iodine content of 207 Baladi bread samples, a conservative daily
186 consumption estimate of 400g bread per adult, and the WHO recommended nutrient intake for
187 iodine (RNI) for non-pregnant, non-lactating adults, of 150 µg[14].

188 Table 1 indicates that the typical daily consumption of Baladi bread could be contributing an
189 average of 76µg iodine (50% RNI) to the adult Egyptian diet. The value varied from 36µg iodine
190 (24% of the adult RNI) in Beni-Suef governorate to 119µg iodine (80% RNI) in Kalyubia governorate.
191 The derived estimates for the minimum level of iodine in salt used to produce the bread ranged from
192 16.5mg/kg to 57.3mg/kg in these two governorates respectively. The mean (derived) salt iodine
193 estimate was slightly below the national standard of 18mg/kg iodine (30mg/kg KIO₃) in three
194 governorates and above the upper limit of the national standard of 41.5mg/kg iodine (70mg/kg KIO₃)
195 in eight governorates.

196

197 The high level of consumption of Baladi bread across different consumer groups in Egypt
198 makes it an optimal food to increase the population's access to iodised salt, thus increasing dietary
199 iodine intake. The fact that the practice of counterfeit salt labelling in Egypt exists, means regular
200 inspection of the actual iodine content of salt in the bakeries remains a necessary component of
201 monitoring and enforcement to achieve and sustain optimal iodine nutrition. The data reported here
202 indicate that the majority of bakeries are complying with the regulations to use iodised salt, which
203 can be fairly reliably assessed using the RTK.

204 Where adequately iodised salt is used and bakery-produced Baladi bread is eaten, the
205 modelling suggests it could contribute to approximately half of the recommended daily iodine
206 intake for adults. This is, however, based on some underlying assumptions about the average
207 amount of Baladi bread consumed (which may not be equal in all governorates and/or population
208 groups) and that all bread consumed is sourced from bakeries. In reality, there is evidence that in
209 rural areas of Lower and Upper Egypt and in Frontier governorates, 30%, 40% and 54% of
210 households, respectively, may make their own bread[15]. While many of these households may also
211 purchase some Baladi bread, it cannot be assumed that household members will be consuming the
212 same levels of iodine from bread as found in this modelling exercise. This would depend also on the
213 quality of iodisation of household salt used in home baking, which tends to be poorer in rural areas
214 of these regions[16,17]. The 2014-15 national iodine survey found that the population of these areas
215 above tends towards poorer, although adequate, iodine status (data from primary school age
216 children in rural Lower and Upper Egypt, no data for Frontier governorates)[17]. The national iodine
217 survey also reported an association between household salt iodine content and iodine status, which
218 could include an expected effect from the use of iodised salt in home-produced Baladi bread.

219 Results in Table 1, which are only available by governorate (not by urban/rural residence),
220 indicate that, surprisingly, Baladi bread in Upper and Lower Egypt and in the Frontier governorates,
221 contained higher average levels of iodine than in Metropolitan governorates, where access to
222 adequately iodised household salt was highest in the 2014-15 survey. This finding supports the
223 hypothesis that iodised salt in food products can help reduce inequities in access to dietary salt
224 iodine that might otherwise occur if the only source was adequately iodised household salt.

225 The recent introduction of a smart card system for subsidised Baladi bread[11,18], permitting
226 access to different quantities of subsidised bread by some measure of socio-economic status, may
227 help target access to the product towards generally poorer, rural, households where it may help
228 counteract the fact that household salt was of poorer iodisation quality. Whether this targeted access
229 to subsidised Baladi bread will be associated with an increase in the proportion of bakery-sourced
230 bread by this group, and whether that bread continues to contain adequately iodised salt, would
231 need further investigation.

232 3.2. *Indonesia- Processed foods and condiments*

233 Indonesia is undergoing a transformation to an urban economy, with an urbanisation rate of
234 4.1% per year, faster than other Asian countries, projected to reach 68% by 2025[6,19,20].
235 Urbanisation, increasing incomes, and associated changing lifestyles are driving a demand shift in
236 Indonesia and other countries in Asia towards processed foods[6,21]. In parallel, the supply and
237 availability of processed foods are increasing with the expansion of the food processing,
238 procurement and retailing, economic growth and foreign investment, and mass media[22,23].
239 Indonesia is the world's second largest per-capita consumer of instant noodles, behind South Korea,
240 with approximately 13.2 billion packets consumed nationally in 2015[24].

241 The Indonesian Presidential Decree no.69 (1994), mandates that all salt for human consumption
242 in the country must be iodised to a level of at least 30mg/kg potassium iodate (approximately 18
243 mg/kg iodine). This includes salt for households, the food industry, livestock, salted and curing fish.
244 Regulations required to implement the legislation are in place for household salt (table and cooking
245 salt) with a mandatory Indonesian National Standard (SNI) for salt iodisation. At the time of the
246 research below (2013), the Ministry of Industry had not issued any equivalent implementing
247 regulations for iodisation of salt for use in the food industry and no SNI was in place specifically for
248 this type of salt, which was categorised as industrial salt to enable the food industry to import salt of
249 the required food-grade quality.

250
251 GAIN analysed data from the Euromonitor Passport 2013 database for Indonesia and worked
252 with PT Nielsen Company, Indonesia, to determine the top five centrally-produced salt-containing
253 foods with highest market penetration. These were: instant noodles, stock (including complete food
254 seasoning), soy sauce, chili sauce and biscuits. Industrially produced bread was also selected for
255 investigation to compare the potential impact of iodised salt in its production with that in other
256 countries. GAIN contracted PT Clarity Research Indonesia (<http://www.clarityindonesia.com/>)
257 to conduct a survey of the major producers of the six identified processed foods and condiments in
258 Indonesia. The purpose was to determine usage of total salt and iodised salt, quality control
259 procedures for salt iodine, and product labelling practices. Out of 45 food producers approached for
260 the survey, 16 agreed to participate, some of these companies produced more than one of the target
261 products. **No analysis was conducted into the characteristics of consenting and non-consenting**
262 **companies, however, the 16 consenting companies together accounted for between 37 and 95% of**
263 **the market share for their respected food segments** (Table 2). It needs to be considered that the
264 findings presented here relate only to the products and percent market share of the product
265 represented by the participating companies. In other words, these data do not necessarily reflect the
266 national situation.

267 Modelling to estimate the potential contribution of iodine in these products to total dietary
268 iodine intake was based on the equation in the overall methods above, using data and assumptions
269 outlined in the footnote to Table 3.

270

271 **Table 2.** Overview of food industry survey participants, food products and market share, and use of
 272 iodised salt, Indonesia.

Product	Number of companies participating in survey	Market share of participating companies	Participating companies using iodised salt	Market share of participating companies using iodised salt ¹
Instant noodles	6	67%	5	66%
Stock	2	37%	1	8%
Soy sauce	4	82%	3	51%
Chili Sauce	6	94%	6	94%
Biscuits	3	38%	3	38%
Industrial bread	2	95%	2	95%

273 ¹Percentage market share using iodised salt based on market share of participating companies
 274 multiplied by the percentage of salt used by these companies that was iodised

275
 276 Most of the companies that participated in the survey used iodised salt, with only two
 277 producers (producing three of the target food products) reporting to use non-iodised salt. Among
 278 participating companies, approximately 70% of the total salt used in production of selected products
 279 was iodised[25]. No information was available to determine whether non-participating companies
 280 were using iodised or non-iodised salt.

281 Two out of the 16 companies interviewed reported to use a rapid test kit to check that the salt
 282 used in their products was iodised. No food producer was measuring the actual iodine content
 283 (mg/kg). Most companies relied on the supplier's Certificate of Analysis (CoA) to determine whether
 284 the salt was iodised or not. Ten companies provided the CoA for their last few salt supplies and all of
 285 these indicated that salt iodine content was above the national minimum of 18mg/kg, with six
 286 between 18-23 mg/kg and four above 23mg/kg.

287
 288 The modelling shown in Table 3 indicates that if only iodised salt was used in the production of
 289 the selected products, instant noodles, stock and soy sauce consumption would contribute most to
 290 dietary iodine intake at the average estimated per capita intake shown for each product. These three
 291 products would account for 6.3%, 3.6% and 2.5% of the adult iodine RNI, respectively. The relative
 292 contribution to the RNI for iodine from one serving of each product was significantly higher, at 36%,
 293 20% and 14% respectively. Therefore, among population groups consuming more than one product
 294 relatively frequently, it could be expected that these products would be making a significant
 295 contribution to total iodine intake. In addition, if salt used in the production had an iodine level of
 296 23mg/kg, instead of the 18mg/kg used for the modelling, the relative contribution to iodine intake
 297 would be, correspondingly, approximately 1.2 times higher.

298
 299 The food industry survey found that processed foods known to contribute to salt intake across a
 300 range of consumer groups were not consistently produced with iodised salt. However, iodised salt
 301 was being used in the majority market share of four of the six targeted products (based only on data
 302 from participating companies).

Table 3. Potential adult iodine intake from selected products in Indonesia if all salt used in production is iodised at the level of 18mg/kg iodine

Food product	Estimated average serving size (g) ¹	Equivalent salt intake from one serving size of the product (g)	Potential iodine intake from one serving size of the product (µg) ²	% daily RNI for iodine from one serving size of the product (µg) ³	Estimated average annual per capita consumption of the product (g)	Estimated minimum per capita daily iodine intake from the product (µg) ²	% daily RNI for iodine
Instant noodles ⁴	85	3.0	54	36%	5,444	9.5	6.3%
Stock	3	1.6	29	20%	200	5.3	3.6%
Soy sauce	15	1.2	22	14%	940	3.7	2.5%
Bread ⁵		Cannot calculate from available data			1,900	1.4	0.9%
Chili sauce	5	0.2	4	3%	340	0.7	0.5%
Biscuits ⁶	25	0.5	8	6%	1,300 300	1.2 0.3	0.8% 0.2%

304 ¹ Serving sizes based on data from Euromonitor Passport 2013, World Noodle Association, Mintel Global Market Navigator, and Clarity survey findings.

305 ² Iodine intake based on 18mg iodine per kg salt according to the national standard for minimum iodine content.

306 ³ RNI for iodine for an adult is 150µg[14]

307 ⁴ Estimate for g salt per serving size (85g pack) of noodles is based on a combination of information from Clarity-surveyed producers (incomplete), Ministry of
308 Industry data for the amount of salt used in instant noodle production compared with the number of packets consumed per year (World Noodle Association) and
309 the UNICEF-supported USI Programme Review (which suggested 3.2g salt/pack of noodles)

310 ⁶ Two different options presented for biscuits according to annual per capita consumption data from Mintel Global Market Navigation and Roy Morgan, estimating
311 1.3Kg/pers/year; and from interviews with surveyed biscuit producers, estimating 0.3Kg/pers/year.

312 ⁵ It was not possible to calculate the estimated serving size from data obtained during the survey however one of the largest bread manufacturers, PT Nippon
313 Indosari Corpindo Tbk (<http://www.sariroti.com/>) estimated an annual per capita intake of 1,900g bread in 2012, which was used to estimate potential iodine intake
314 from bread if all salt used in its production was iodised

315 The Indonesian national health research survey in 2013 indicated that only around 55% of the
316 households nationally were using adequately iodised cooking/table salt[26]. However, iodine status
317 among school age children and women of reproductive age at the national and sub-national levels
318 was found to be adequate, implying other possible sources of dietary iodine. These sources could be
319 iodised salt in processed foods together with naturally occurring sources of iodine in foods or
320 ground water. The study reported here indicated that iodised salt was being used in the production
321 of at least 50% of the market share of instant noodles, soy sauce and chili sauce products. These food
322 industry practices could be at least partially responsible for the adequate iodine status observed
323 among some population groups who were not accessing adequately iodised household salt.

324 The population of Indonesia has been found to have a relatively high level of household
325 expenditure on processed foods in urban and rural areas (respectively, 72% and 64% share of food
326 expenditures was on “high” and “low” processed foods combined)[6]. The proportion spent on
327 “high” processed foods such as those included in this survey (more than one ingredient and
328 requiring a level of processing beyond refining a single product) was higher among urban
329 populations (47% of total processed food expenditure) than among rural populations (36% of total
330 processed food expenditure). Given these data, regulations for the use of iodised salt across the food
331 industry would provide an important contribution to dietary iodine intake.

332 The two participating companies who did not use iodised salt reported that there was no
333 requirement for them to use iodised salt due to the lack of implementing regulations and that they
334 used non-iodised salt primarily for cost and/or supply chain reasons. However, they would have no
335 objection to switching to use iodised salt if they were legally required to do so[27]. Since the study, a
336 compulsory SNI has been introduced for biscuits (2973:2011 Permenperin
337 No.60/M-IND/PER/7/2015), however neither this nor the voluntary SNI for instant noodles
338 (3551:2012) specifically mentions the type of salt that should be used in the product. It is, therefore,
339 recommended that implementing regulations are established for food-industry salt, that food
340 product SNIs include specific reference to the use of iodised salt, and that related procedures for
341 enforcement of food industry use of adequately iodised salt are adopted. These steps are in line with
342 the recommendations of a recent review of progress towards sustained elimination of IDD in
343 Indonesia[28] and would provide additional protection from iodine deficiency, in particular among
344 populations that do not have access to adequately iodised household salt.

345 3.3. *Philippines- Processed foods and condiments*

346 Similarly to Indonesia, the Philippines has seen a rapid expansion of its urban population since
347 1960 when around 30% of the population lived in urban areas. After an increase to about 49% in
348 1990, the rate slowed and it is estimated that in 2015 around 44% of the population lived in urban
349 areas[19]. The Philippines has a rapidly expanding food and beverage industry[29] with
350 approximately 90% of industry output consumed domestically[30].

351 In 1995, the Philippines Congress passed the Act Promoting Salt Iodisation Nationwide
352 (ASIN)[31], mandating iodisation of all salt for human consumption, including salt used by food
353 manufacturers. The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) authorised standards for iodine level at
354 production were changed to specify 30-70mg/kg in 2013[32]. The FDA has also issued specific
355 standards on the use of iodised salt in food products[33] which allows for exemption where iodised
356 salt has been shown by the food producer to “prejudice” the quality or safety of the food
357 product[34]. At the time of the study described below, there was no available information as to
358 whether food processors complied with the regulations for the use of iodised salt and/or on the
359 amount of adequately iodised salt being used by the food industry. GAIN therefore commissioned
360 the Nutrition Center of the Philippines (NCP) to explore the extent to which iodised salt is used by
361 the processed food industry, and to improve national understanding of dietary iodine sources and
362 industry practices in accordance with the above regulations.

363
364 GAIN used the 2008 National Nutrition Survey (NNS) chapter on household food consumption
365 to identify the top five processed foods and condiments contributing substantially to salt intake

366 across population groups, for inclusion in the NCP study. These top five foods from among the 30
367 products most frequently consumed by all households nationally, were: bread (mainly pandesal, a
368 popular bread roll made of flour, yeast, sugar and salt), soy sauce, instant noodles, crackers, and
369 canned sardines[35]. NCP also included canned corned beef, hotdogs and fish sauce, as food
370 products identified during the study to be contributing to salt intake and produced on a large scale.
371 The study included smaller scale producers of a number of high-salt foods, such as dried fish, fish
372 paste, shrimp paste and sweet pork sausage; however this paper only includes information on
373 findings from major food producers for the five most widely consumed products above, plus canned
374 corned beef, hotdogs and fish sauce. Major producers were defined as those with
375 nationally-recognised brands and at least 8% of the total market share for the product by value.

376 NCP invited participation from producers of 23 targeted brands of these eight products.
377 Face-to-face interviews were conducted where possible, however two producers requested to
378 self-complete the questionnaire. A 50g salt sample was collected from each producer visited and
379 tested for iodine content using the iCheck IODINE (BioAnalyt GmbH, Germany)[36] by a trained
380 food technologist.

381 Typical per capita consumption of each food product was estimated using data from
382 Euromonitor and from the Food and Nutrition Research Institute (FNRI)[29,37] and potential iodine
383 intake from each product was determined based on the formula stated in the overall methods.

384 The quantity of salt per unit of food product was based on industry provided data for total
385 salt/total volume of food product produced per batch. The iodine level of salt used to estimate
386 potential contribution to dietary intake was set at 30mg/kg, according to the national minimum level
387 for iodised salt production.

388
389 A total of 11 large food producers, collectively responsible for the production of 13 brands of
390 the targeted products, agreed to participate in the survey. The 13 brands represented the following
391 product type: bread and canned corned beef, one brand each; instant noodles, soy sauce, and fish
392 sauce, two each; canned fish, five; and crackers and hotdog, none. Some participating producers
393 provided information about more than one of these six products[38].

394 All 11 producers reported that they were aware of the ASIN law and that they used iodised salt
395 in their production lines for at least some of the surveyed products, ten of these producers included
396 this information on their packaging. With regard to the specific product and brands however, the
397 producer of one brand of fish sauce reported to use non-iodised salt and one brand of instant
398 noodles was produced using both iodised and non-iodised salt. Only six of the eleven producers
399 demonstrated correct understanding of the revised regulated level of iodine in salt (30-70mg/kg
400 iodine). In terms of checking whether the salt contained iodine or not, 12 brands used the Certificate
401 of Analysis (CoA) submitted by their suppliers to determine that salt was iodised, while the
402 producer of one brand reported to (also) use titration to check the iodine level quantitatively, while
403 salt used in three brands was tested using an in-house semi-quantitative test kit. One product brand
404 was produced using salt that was not checked for iodine content at all.

405 Eleven of the 13 brands were distributed nationwide, while two were distributed in one region
406 each. Industrially produced bread and canned corned beef were generally **bought by consumers of**
407 **higher socio-economic status, categorised in the Philippines[39] as classes A to C (representing**
408 **approximately 10% of consumers), while the other products were used by consumers across classes**
409 **A to D (approximately 70% of consumers) for fish sauce and soy sauce, and classes B to E and A to E**
410 **for canned fish and instant noodles, respectively.**

411 The results of iodine analysis of six salt samples taken from different production lines of four
412 product types were: low iodine levels (5-10mg/kg) in one sample of salt used for canned fish
413 production and one sample used for fish sauce production (this was a product reported to include
414 non-iodised salt), between 10 and 30mg/kg iodine in two products (canned fish and fish sauce), and
415 30-70mg/kg iodine for salt from production lines for bread and instant noodles.

416
417 The outcome of modelling for each food product is shown in Table 4. Using the more recent
418 food consumption estimates from Euromonitor, the modelling indicates that, if salt iodised at

419 30mg/kg iodine was used in the production of these foods, approximately 8 to 10% of the adult RNI
420 for iodine would be met through the average daily per capita consumption of each of: bread, instant
421 noodles, soy sauce, and canned fish, while smaller amounts of iodine would be sourced through the
422 consumption of fish sauce (3.2% of the RNI), hotdog (3.2%) and canned corned beef (1.2%).
423

424 The food industry survey in the Philippines found that among participating producers,
425 processed foods and condiments known to contribute to salt intake across a range of consumer
426 groups were produced using iodised salt. However, the quality of iodisation was only adequate in
427 two of six product lines tested, indicating that company commitment to ensuring that production
428 complied with national regulations on the use of iodised salt varied across the products studied.

429 The Philippines 8th National Nutrition Survey in 2013-14 indicated that, nationally, 53% of
430 households were using iodised salt and only 26% of households were using adequately iodised
431 salt[40]. The same survey also reported that, nationally, despite the relatively low use of adequately
432 iodised salt at the household, the overall iodine status was adequate among children 6-11 years of
433 age, adolescents 13-19 years of age, and adults 20-59 years of age. This suggests that, as for
434 Indonesia, there were likely to be other dietary sources of iodine contributing to the improvement,
435 some possibly from the use of iodised salt in certain processed foods. However, iodine status was
436 not adequate among lactating and pregnant women and among the elderly. It was also inadequate
437 among children 6-11 years of age living in households categorised to be in lowest two wealth
438 quintiles.

439 The reported food industry practices could be at least partly responsible for the observed
440 improvement in iodine status among children 6-11 years of age from a level of deficiency in 1998[41],
441 during which time there has been little change in household coverage with adequately iodised salt.
442 However, it is clear that these practices also require strengthening in line with national regulations.
443 Increased attention to quality control by the producers and to regulatory monitoring on the part of
444 the government would provide greater certainty of additional iodine intake from this source,
445 including among currently deficient groups such as pregnant women and the elderly.

446 **Table 4.** Potential adult iodine intake from selected products if all salt used in production is iodised at the level of 30mg/kg iodine, the Philippines

Food product	Gram salt/ gram food product	FNRI daily per capita intake (g)		Euromonitor daily per capita intake (g)		Potential iodine intake (µg) from average daily per capita intake ¹		% of adult RNI for iodine ²	
		Food product	Related salt intake	Food product	Related salt intake	FNRI	Euromonitor	FNRI	Euromonitor
Bread	0.04	11.0	0.4	13.4	0.5	11.9	14.5	7.9	9.7
Instant noodles	0.09	4.0	0.4	4.9	0.5	11.2	13.8	7.4	9.2
Canned fish	0.11	8.0	0.9	3.63	0.2	26.9	12.0	17.9	8.0
Soy sauce	0.13	3.0	0.4	3.0	0.4	11.8	11.8	7.9	7.9
Fish sauce	0.59	ND	ND	0.3	0.2	ND	4.8	ND	3.2
Canned corned beef	0.03	ND	ND	1.94	0.1	ND	1.8	ND	1.2

447 ND = no data

448 ¹ Based on salt iodine content of 30mg/kg

449 ² RNI for iodine for an adult is 150µg[14]

450 3.4. Ukraine and the Russian Federation - Bread

451 The dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991 resulted in the absence of a legislative framework to
452 support regulatory monitoring of iodised salt production. Most post-Soviet countries have since
453 adopted national USI strategies[42], however, despite clear evidence of widespread deficiency in
454 their populations, the governments in the Russian Federation and Ukraine have been reluctant to
455 re-introduce mandatory USI, interpreting it as an alleged potential violation of “consumers’ right for
456 choice” and “industry’s freedom of enterprise”.^(42, 43) The Government of Ukraine adopted a decree in
457 1997 and the Government of the Russian Federation adopted a resolution (No. 119) in 1999, both
458 titled “On measures to prevent iodine deficiency disorders”. However, the associated regulations in
459 both decrees stipulated a voluntary model of prevention, with no specific enforcement mechanism
460 in place and resulted in low levels of production and supply of iodised salt in both countries [45].

461 Bread is a staple food in both countries, with average annual per capita consumption estimates
462 of about 86 kg (Ukraine) and 100 kg (Russian Federation)[46,47] with variations between regions and
463 rural and urban areas. Given the political resistance to USI, the Partnership Project hypothesised that
464 a narrower, specifically tailored mandate of using iodised salt in bread baking and in public catering
465 institutions, an effective tactic in countries including the Netherlands, Belarus, and
466 Australia[43,48,49], could be more acceptable to policy makers than iodising the entire market
467 supply of salt. In a 2010 poll by the Russian Union of Bakers of over 100 bread factories from 25
468 regions, >90% of bread factories reported producing small volumes of bakery products enriched
469 with iodine, the majority used an iodised protein-based fortificant, with only 5% using iodised salt.
470 Of the responding bread companies, 27% expressed objections to iodised salt, citing risk of iodine
471 “overdose”, perceived loss of iodine from the “wet” storage of salt prior to addition to the dough,
472 and low perceived stability of iodised salt in dough during baking[50]. In Ukraine, a 2012 review of
473 barriers to using iodised salt in bread baking highlighted that while existing regulations did not
474 prohibit the use of iodised salt, they also did not explicitly permit it [51]. About a third of producers
475 surveyed believed that iodine would evaporate during bread baking, with other major concerns
476 related to an increase of costs and the absence of demand among consumers. Only 4% of producers
477 surveyed in Ukraine used iodised salt in some specific types of bread.

478
479 The GAIN-UNICEF USI Partnership Project initially engaged in high level advocacy with key
480 policy makers in both countries aiming for mandatory legislation on the use of iodised salt in bread
481 bakeries. Specific activities included appeals by the UNICEF Goodwill Ambassador in Russia,
482 support for the preparation of draft legislation put before the Council of Ministers in Ukraine, and
483 hosting of a high level regional forum in 2011 in Belgrade, Serbia, which brought policymakers,
484 academics, consumer interest groups and the food and salt industries from both countries together
485 with regional champions for USI from Belarus, Kazakhstan, and Serbia[52]. However, because these
486 activities did not result in any shift in policy in Ukraine or the Russian Federation, the Partnership
487 Project changed its strategy toward promoting the voluntary use of iodised salt in the manufacture
488 of bakery products, which is permitted within current legislation in bread production in both
489 countries. The Partnership Project approach was to sensitise bread producers and remove real and
490 perceived barriers within the bread industry through the development of an enabling environment
491 to adopt iodised salt use as an industry norm. A Bread Forum was held in Lviv in 2012 to address
492 these issues.

493 In the Russian Federation, the Partnership Project supported the Moscow University of
494 Technologies and Management to draft recommendations on the use of iodised salt in bread. To
495 address bakers’ technical concerns, The Partnership Project supported the Research Institute of the
496 Baking Industry, the body responsible for setting baking regulations, to conduct operational
497 research on the use of iodised salt in the production of various types of Russian bread. In line with
498 international literature, the research confirmed 70% retention of iodine and a lack of negative effects
499 on the bread’s taste or quality. In contrast, baking with iodised salt was shown to provide several
500 benefits including increased stability, porosity, and volume of the final bread product[50]. These

501 results were published in Russian in professional bakery journals and presented in national and
502 regional industry workshops (S. Kulev, GAIN consultant, personal communication, 2013).

503 In Ukraine, the Partnership Project focused primarily on building consumer demand and bread
504 industry approval for iodised salt use in bread products through an awareness campaign and
505 evidence of success of this approach in other countries. The Partnership Project liaised with the
506 Bread Association to disseminate the Russian research and brought technical experts from the
507 Russian and Belarussian bread industry to conduct interactive workshops with Ukrainian bakers.
508 Also a national public health communication campaign on iodine was conducted, and an official
509 iodised salt logo was made available for bakeries and other food processors for use on their
510 products. The campaign promoted the logo on billboards, at urban and rural food fairs and on city
511 light displays, posters, booklets, and leaflets attracting over 6 million views over 2012-2013[53].
512 Finally, the Partnership Project consulted with individual bread companies to understand and
513 overcome their perceived barriers to using iodised salt in bread products, through provision of
514 technical and advocacy support, including providing testing equipment to measure iodine levels in
515 salt in their factories.

516
517 The approach to convince bread industries in Russia and Ukraine to voluntarily use iodised salt
518 in bread products purchased across a wide-spread consumer base did not achieve its objective.
519 Although the Partnership Project was successful in garnering support from among some industry
520 stakeholders for mandatory legislation for the use of iodised salt in bread production[54], the
521 technical assistance, education, and demand creation activities undertaken were ultimately
522 insufficient to bring about change in government and industry attitudes and norms. In the absence
523 of mandatory legislation, bread producers were generally unwilling to take the risk of switching to
524 iodised salt in production of common “social” bread because they considered “iodised bread” to be
525 a special “functional” product. Without clear policy direction, confusion remained about whether
526 using iodised salt would require a change in official recipes and associated documentation and be
527 subject to costly labelling and quality control procedures[51].

528 In the Russian Federation, several large bread companies switched to using iodised salt instead
529 of other, more expensive, iodine fortificants for fortified “functional” bread brands after attending
530 the Partnership Project’s industry workshops (S. Kulev, GAIN consultant, personal communication,
531 2013). However, these special bread products do not generally reach the majority of the population,
532 including groups with potentially less diverse diets and lower access to other sources of dietary
533 iodine.

534 The communication and awareness raising activities of UNICEF and GAIN in Ukraine resulted
535 in two registered medium to large scale bakeries located in Lviv and Kiev changing their production
536 processes to use iodised salt in bread baking in 2012. The volume of bread production reported by
537 these bakeries had an estimated reach of 19,000 people (about 0.04% of the population), based on an
538 average per capita consumption of 240g bread/day[47].
539

540 Modelling of potential adult iodine intake from the use of iodised salt in all bread products is
541 shown in Table 5. Modelling was based on information provided by these two bakeries and on the
542 industry research showing approximately 70% retention of iodine from salt in the final product.

543 Bread intake is relatively high in Ukraine and in the Russian Federation and the salt iodisation
544 standard in both countries is also relatively high, at 40mg/kg \pm 15mg/kg. As a result, it was found
545 that if adults were assumed to be consuming only bread from bakeries where all the bread was
546 iodised at the minimum acceptable level of 25mg/kg, they would be sourcing approximately 32%
547 (Ukraine) and 37% (Russian Federation) of the adult RNI for iodine through bread consumption.
548

549 **Table 5.** Potential adult iodine intake from bread if all salt used in bread baking is iodised at the level
 550 of 25mg/kg iodine, Ukraine and the Russian Federation

Food product	Country	Estimated daily per capita intake (g)	Estimated salt content per gram of bread ¹ (g)	Average daily per capita salt intake from bread (g)	Estimated per capita daily iodine intake from bread (µg) ²	% Daily RNI for iodine ³
Bread	Ukraine	240	0.012	2.7	48	32%
Bread	Russian Federation	280	0.012	3.2	56	37%

551 ¹ Based on 2012 reports from two bakeries in Kiev and Lviv, Ukraine

552 ² Assuming all salt used in bread production contains 25mg iodine/kg of which 70% (17.5mg) is retained

553 ³ RNI for iodine for an adult is 150µg[14]

554

555 Iodine deficiency has been clearly demonstrated among the national population of reproductive
 556 age women in Ukraine[55], particularly associated with households using non-iodised or
 557 inadequately iodised salt[45]. Similarly, data from regions within the Russian Federation during the
 558 period 2002-2006 showed that the population in 16 out of 19 regions surveyed were iodine
 559 deficient[56]. Despite this evidence of deficiency and an awareness of the related implication for
 560 decreased population IQ through impaired foetal and child brain development, there is no political
 561 will to legislate for mandatory iodisation of cooking/table salt in either country. The alternative
 562 suggested approach was to mandate for the use of iodised salt in the production of “social” bread,
 563 which reaches a wide cross section of the national populations and would provide approximately
 564 one third of the daily adult RNI for iodine. This level of iodine intake would be expected to improve
 565 total intake of the population to a level of iodine sufficiency.

566 The reported technical assistance and advocacy efforts did improve the baking industry’s stated
 567 acceptance of the need to use iodised salt, however, this did not translate into changed industry
 568 practice during the time of the Partnership Project. Reasons for this may have included: a) the
 569 concerns raised among bread producers in the above-cited surveys may not have been the actual
 570 reasons for not using iodised salt, b) the Partnership Project was operating during a time of serious
 571 economic downturn, which generally discourages anything perceived as a potential risk to industry
 572 performance, and c) a general practice of respect for and compliance with government-directions,
 573 which were not strongly supportive of the initiative.

574 An informal pro-USI coalition (Public Coordination Council) together with other partners in the
 575 Russian Federation continue to raise public awareness about iodised salt. The Public Coordination
 576 Council is actively lobbying the government to adopt an amendment to the public health law,
 577 developed by the Department of Public Health under the Ministry of Health, which would mandate
 578 iodisation of certain types of household salt and the use of iodised salt by the bread baking
 579 industry[54]. Additional analyses of the policy and bakery industry situation would be required in
 580 Ukraine to assess the value of renewed advocacy there also.

581 4. Discussion

582 These case studies in five countries demonstrate that the use of adequately iodised salt by the
 583 food industry can make a significant contribution to dietary iodine intake. The findings show that, to
 584 achieve the intended impact of salt iodisation on iodine status, legislation for salt iodisation needs to
 585 be mandatory for all food-grade salt, and accompanied by clear implementing regulations, with
 586 designated responsibilities and procedures for monitoring and enforcement of the use of adequately
 587 iodised salt within the food industry.

588 The work in the Russian Federation and Ukraine demonstrated the difficulty of trying to
589 generate large scale industry change to use iodised salt on a voluntary basis. This finding is
590 consistent with lessons from other large scale fortification initiatives[57,58].

591 In other countries, factors found to influence compliance with legislation by food industries
592 included: the size of the company, the industry's awareness of the legislation, regulatory loopholes
593 in the legislative framework, prescribed salt standards for the specific food product, access to
594 adequately iodised salt supplies, and government practices in regard to regulatory monitoring. A
595 2015 study of barriers and good practices in regulatory monitoring of fortified foods in LMIC found
596 similar lessons that applied across a range of fortified products[59]. The conclusion of that study was
597 that the full intended health benefit of a food fortification strategy will only be achieved where the
598 entire regulatory system is built on a cooperative working relationship between regulatory agencies
599 and food producers.

600 In countries with USI legislation, a recommended strategic priority is to strengthen monitoring
601 and enforcement of iodisation of salt for large scale, registered, food industry use, at the point of salt
602 production or import and at the food production site. In particular, an initial focus on products
603 widely consumed across population groups would be both feasible and likely to have a meaningful
604 impact on population iodine status.

605 **As consumption patterns and dietary sources of salt often differ between different segments in
606 a population, it is important that all food-grade salt is iodised at a level appropriate to achieve and
607 sustain optimal iodine status across the population. For example, in Egypt, the estimated levels of
608 iodine in salt used by bakeries in different governorates (Table 1) varied from 16.5mg/kg in
609 Beni-Suef to 57.3mg/kg in Kalyubia, meaning that consumers with a high intake of Baladi bread in
610 Kalyubia may have been meeting the RNI for iodine from Baladi bread alone. Establishing national
611 salt iodine standards based on estimates of total salt intake, and regulating these levels across all
612 dietary sources of salt will help achieve adequate iodine status and prevent the risk of excessive
613 iodine intake due to high consumption of a particular food.**

614 Enforcement of regulations is typically more challenging within artisanal industries which may
615 be more difficult to locate and/or have limited financial and technical capacity to comply with
616 required standards[59,60]. However, the case study in Egypt with many small-scale bakeries
617 provides an example where this is not necessarily the case. All bakeries in Egypt are required to be
618 registered in order to qualify for government-subsidised wheat flour, which made it relatively easy
619 for inspectors to list, locate and inspect the bakeries for the type of wheat flour and salt used. The
620 food producer study conducted by NCP in the Philippines included a range of artisanal producers of
621 bread, sweet pork sausage, salted fish and shrimp paste products (not reported here). Iodine tests of
622 the salt used in this artisanal segment showed that about three quarters of 144 product lines were
623 using non-iodised or inadequately iodised salt[38]. This suggests that additional strategies will be
624 required to ensure that artisanal producers are informed of, and able to comply with, national
625 standards where these exist. Monitoring thousands of artisanal food producers would be
626 resource-intensive, however. One approach may be to ensure monitoring of the general market supply
627 of consumer salt at the source (i.e. salt production and import sites), which is often the most likely
628 origin of salt for small food producers.

629 The current, and increasing, importance of food industry salt in total dietary salt intake has
630 been emphasised in a number of papers[3,4,6,7], as well as in the case studies reported here.
631 Assessing the success of a true USI strategy, which includes iodisation of food industry salt, will
632 require indicators and monitoring strategies additional to the currently recommended indicator of
633 adequately iodised household salt coverage[14]. An example would be the estimation of food
634 industry salt iodine intake from knowledge of food industry iodised salt use in combination with
635 population food frequency estimates and/or detailed consumer surveys. When dietary iodine from
636 all sources of salt is estimated (qualitatively and biochemically) alongside population iodine status
637 surveys, it will be possible to better determine whether dietary iodine intake as a result of a national
638 USI strategy leads to overall optimal iodine status or whether the salt iodine standard should be
639 adjusted.

640 5. Conclusions

641 The food industry's potential contribution to dietary iodine intake through the use of iodised
642 salt in food processing is significant and of growing importance. However, in many countries, food
643 industry salt has not been a major focus of national USI strategies and, even where regulations exist,
644 regulatory monitoring of food industry salt has not usually been practiced. Moving forward it is
645 recommended that: the food industry is included in advocacy and communication about USI to
646 ensure they are informed of the need and industry expectations; legislation for the use of adequately
647 iodised salt by the food industry is developed or strengthened with clear regulations and
648 enforcement mechanisms and penalties; consistent access to adequately iodised salt is ensured; and
649 the contribution of dietary iodine from food industry salt is monitored and evaluated. These
650 recommendations can be implemented in coordination with salt reduction strategies, ensuring that
651 the iodine level of food grade salt is appropriate for average overall salt intake[61]. International
652 guidance on how these steps can be included in national programs for the achievement of optimal
653 iodine nutrition have recently been developed and/or are in the final stages of development[62,63].
654 Much of this guidance has been developed as part of the Partnership Project and/or based on lessons
655 learned during the project, such as these case studies above.

656 **Acknowledgments:** The authors thank The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (BMGF) who provided funds for
657 all case studies reported here. Additional financial support for reporting and publication in open access was
658 provided by The Horace W. Goldsmith Foundation.

659 **Author Contributions:** R.S., G.S.G. and J.K. were responsible for overall conception and design of the original
660 case studies. All other authors contributed to the design, implementation and national write up for different
661 contexts as follows: M.S. Egypt; Bimo, B.C and D. I. Indonesia; C.M. and E.O. Philippines; F.vd H. and G.G.
662 Ukraine and the Russian Federation. J.K. conducted the modelling. J.K. F.vd H., and G.S.G. had primary
663 responsibility for the final content.

664 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The founding sponsors had no role in the
665 design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, and in
666 the decision to publish the results.

667

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